Implementing a multimodal corpus of TED Talks for teaching academic presentations: Perspectives on EFL learners’ attitudes

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ABSTRACT

Title: Implementing a multimodal corpus of TED Talks for teaching academic presentations: Perspectives on EFL learners’ attitudes

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Despite the recognition of the multiple affordances of multimodal corpora in capturing the complex and dynamic nature of real-life communication, their use in L2 classrooms is still limited. Informed by the body of related literature and by research on pedagogic corpora, this research investigates Saudi learners’ attitudes towards using a pedagogic and context-specific corpus to raise their awareness of spoken academic discourse. In particular, this research examines the attitudes of the participants towards the use of a web-based multimodal corpus of TED Talks (MCOTT), and the potential influence of participants’ profiles on their attitudes. Participants are intermediate EFL learners (N=103) enrolled in the foundation year of their tertiary education, and are invited to participate in this exploratory research. Data is gathered through two questionnaires (i.e. learner profile and learner attitude questionnaires), interviews, and classroom observations, and are analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. To investigate learner attitudes, this thesis explores questionnaire results relating to the participants’ perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude, and future intentions. Generally, participants indicate positive attitudes towards MCOTT, and no significant issues of concern were reported. Interview and observation data help to extend the understanding of participants’ attitudes through highlighting reasons for participants’ appreciation of MCOTT and TED Talks, as well as offering need-based recommendations for improving the corpus. To determine the possible influence of participants’ profiles on their attitudes, this thesis examines the correlation between participants’ profiles (motivation, attitudes towards oral skills and towards autonomy, and ICT competence) and their attitudes to MCOTT use. Results indicate that there is a positive correlation between all four profile related variables and participants’ attitudes. Finally, while findings reveal the positive attitudes of the participants, questions are raised regarding whether the content of the corpus (i.e. TED) has a significant impact on participants’ attitudes.
DECLARATION

I declare that the work presented in this thesis is to the best of my knowledge and belief original and my own work, except as otherwise acknowledged in the text. The material has not been submitted, either in whole or part, for a degree at this or any other university.

_________________________________
Sara Aljohani
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GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATED TERMS

AP: Academic presentation
AVE: Average variances extracted
AVL: Academic Vocabulary List
AWL: Academic Word List
BA: Backbone annotator
BNC: British National Corpus
BST: Backbone search tool
BT: Backbone transcriptor
C-TAM-TPB: Combined Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
COCA: Corpus of Contemporary American English
DDL: Data-driven learning
EAP: English for Academic Purposes
EFL: English as a Foreign Language
ELISA: English Language Interview corpus as a Second-language Application
ELT: English Language Teaching
ESL: English as a Second Language
ESP: English for Specific Purposes
EVP: English Vocabulary Profile
ICT: Information Communication Technology
KSA: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
L2: Second/Foreign Language
LA: Language awareness

LAQ: Learner attitude questionnaire

LPQ: Learner profile questionnaire

MCOTT: Multimodal of Corpus of TED Talks

MICASE: Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English

PLS-SEM: Partial Least Structural Equation Modelling

SACODEYL: System-aided Development and Open Distribution of European Youth Language

SCOTS: Scottish Corpus of Texts and Speech

TAM: Technology Acceptance Model

TCSE: TED Corpus Search Engine

Three Is: Illustration– Interaction – Induction

Three Ps: Presentation–Practice–Production

TPB: Theory of Planned Behaviour
CHAPTER 1 – RESEARCH BACKGROUND, CONTEXT AND RATIONALE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter establishes the scope and focus of this research by introducing its background, context, and rationale. The chapter begins with a general overview of the research problem. Next, the geographical context (i.e. the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia), given its uniqueness, is described in relation to local attitudes towards, and practices of, English language teaching. The subsequent section delves into the research rationale, aim, and originality, which are discussed with reference to the three main themes that are brought together by this thesis, namely multimodal corpora, TED Talks and academic presentations (APs). Finally, the outline of the subsequent chapters is delineated.

1.2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND AND DESCRIPTION

The ability to communicate effectively is one of the essential skills that have been emphasised in higher education (Dunbar et al. 2006; Živković 2014). It is through communication that knowledge can be shared and developed, concerns can be voiced, and new perspectives can emerge. Communication can also be a means to demonstrate one’s capacity for organising ideas, presenting information clearly and thinking critically—hence, possibly, the emphasis on communication skills. In tertiary education, APs have been one of the assessment tools to evaluate undergraduates’ and postgraduates’ communication skills and to ensure their professional readiness to meet the job market demands (Zareva 2009; Barrett and Liu 2016). However, students may face challenges in APs due to, for example, anxiety and a lack of appropriate guidelines (ibid.). Such challenges can be more significant when presenting in a language other than one’s mother tongue, which is often the case encountered by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students studying in educational institutions that implement English as the medium of instruction.

In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA)—the context of this research, university students are frequently required to deliver APs in English, which they often find
challenging (Hamouda 2013). This situation is unsurprising since they lack exposure to the spoken academic discourse of the English language (ibid.). While students can be exposed to the discourse of academic written English through textbooks and journal articles, they are rarely exposed to academic spoken discourse, since Arabic is the medium of instruction in all public schools (Saudi Arabia 2019, Ministry of Education). Although some Saudi universities have implemented English as the medium of instruction for scientific disciplines (e.g. medicine, engineering, computer science), the actual instruction in the classroom is often carried out in the Arabic language (Shamim et al. 2016)—a practice that has been reported to be favoured by both Arabic-speaking lecturers (Alhamami 2015) as well as students (Al Zumor 2019).

Given the existing “strong polarization between spoken and written registers” (Biber 1988; Biber et al. 2002, p.41), it seems useful to introduce EFL Saudi learners to AP discourse and to familiarise them with language resources through which they can have exposure to English spoken academic discourse.

Driven by the above-identified concern, this research demonstrates the design of a multimodal corpus of TED Talks (MCOTT), which is used to help raise awareness about AP discourse among intermediate EFL students in KSA. Multimodal corpora can facilitate rendering a platform that offers opportunities for language exposure (Boulton 2017; Chen and Flowerdew 2018) while maintaining the multimodal nature of communication (Knight 2011), which is inherent in APs. Meanwhile, TED Talks may provide meaningful, authentic, and engaging speech models (Nurmukhamedov and Sadler 2011; Huang and Chang 2015; Leopold 2016). In addition, this research presents the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, which were investigated in light of the Combined Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour (C-TAM-TPB) (Taylor and Todd 1995a). Finally, this research highlights the relationships between the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT and four learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitudes towards autonomy, and ICT competence), thus, offering a comprehensive view of the participants’ attitudes.
1.3 RESEARCH CONTEXT: ELT IN KSA

This research was situated in KSA, an Arab and Islamic country located in Western Asia. In KSA, Islam and culture are closely related, and this relationship has shaped different aspects of Saudis’ lives, including education. Due to the uniqueness of this context, this section provides a brief overview of English Language Teaching (ELT) in KSA as well as a discussion of ELT-related cultural and pedagogical challenges. Such discussion is useful as it provides background knowledge about the context of the thesis and about key decisions (see Sections 3.4, and 3.5.2) that were taken during the course of this thesis.

ELT in KSA was introduced to serve practical purposes in the academic and professional domains. It is assumed that ELT was first introduced as a part of the Scholarship Preparation Programme in 1936, which was established to prepare Saudis to study abroad, particularly in the UK and USA (Al-Ghamdi and Al-Saddat 2002; Mahboob and Elyas 2014; Mitchell and Alfuraih 2017). The purpose of the scholarships was to meet the needs for qualified Saudi teachers to fulfil the demands created by formalising education (ibid.), which started in 1925 (before the unification of the whole country in 1932) when the Directorate of Education was established, and which has been known as the Ministry of Education since 1975 (Alrashidi and Phan 2015). Since 1959, as formal education has expanded, English has become a compulsory subject for intermediate (seventh to ninth grades) and secondary (tenth to twelfth grades) school students (Al-Johani 2009). In 2004, it was introduced to sixth grade primary school students, and finally to the fourth and fifth grades primary school students in 2011 (Barnawi 2017). Based on the general objectives of ELT in KSA (Elyas and Badawood 2016), ELT is integrated to enable Saudis to acquire language skills necessary for their academic and professional success and to participate in an international context. This purely pragmatic, or instrumental (Kachru 1992), integration of ELT initially caused controversy among Saudis (Al-Mengash 2006; Barnawi and Al-Hawsawi 2017). This attitude, however, was soon followed by an

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1 While discussion of the religion–culture distinction is beyond the scope of this thesis, it should be noted that this relationship is often misunderstood, given the unique cultural norms (see Robertson et al. 2001; Ezzi et al. 2014)—some of which have existed since the pre-Islamic era—that have been held by the Arabs in the area and are observed by Saudis nowadays.

2 Others (see Alshahrani 2016) claim that it was introduced in the 1920s, with the inception of formal education.
interest in learning English due to its importance in meeting academic and professional demands placed by top-down decisions (Barnawi 2017)—examples of which are offered below. It has become the responsibility of the individual to learn English in order to have access to opportunities to advance academically and professionally. Such responsibility has been associated with the cultural and pedagogical challenges that are discussed below.

1.3.1 Cultural factors

In KSA, the Islamic framework partly shapes culture, which in turn forms the societal attitudes towards major changes in various ways. With the integration of ELT in the Saudi educational curriculum, concerns have been raised regarding the potential introduction of alien ideologies, which may disempower young Muslims\(^3\) (Karmani 2005; Mahboob and Elyas 2014). To address these concerns, localised English textbooks have been developed, where different ideologies have been carefully presented to promote the intercultural competence necessary for functioning in a globalised context (ibid.). Based on an analysis of such localised textbooks, it has been noted that:

… localisation of the English language teaching material suggests that the English language taught in the classrooms does not uncritically push Western cultural practices, but rather invites students (and teachers) to consider diverse practices … in relation to local practices. This work suggests that English in KSA does not simply recreate outside norms, but rather carries a local flavour – one that can perhaps be called Saudi English.

(Mahboob and Elyas 2014, p.141)

While introducing “Saudi English” textbooks may have partly addressed culture-related issues, concerns about young Saudis’ Arabic language proficiencies have been voiced, particularly with the (what some Saudis have described as early) introduction of English to fourth-graders. The contention is that learning English may come at the expense of students mastering the Arabic language. Concern over the Arabic language has both cultural and religious grounds. Culture-wise, the Arabic language is considered the medium which has preserved the history of Arabs. When Arabic lacked

\(^3\) This is not unique to the Saudi or Muslim context. There is abundant research discussing language and cultural imperialism (e.g. Modiano 2001; Phillipson 2006; Pennycook 2017). Such discussions have also influenced approaches to ESL/EFL material design, as is indicated in Section 3.5.2.
literary traditions during pre-Islamic era, oral poetry had a major role in providing much of what is known about pre-Islamic Arabia (Saleh 2010, p.24). In addition, poetry, for Arabs, has been considered a tool that “best reflects their sense of self-identity, history and cultural values” (Allen 2005). These values include eloquence, courage, generosity and loyalty to one’s tribe (Saleh 2010), and continue to be cherished by Saudis who often make references to poetry and celebrate poets. The importance of the Arabic language is also linked to Saudis’ identities as Muslims since Arabic is the language of the Holy Qur’ān. Thus, mastering Arabic is essential to understanding the Qur’ān (Al-Mengash 2006). For these reasons, some Saudis have been reluctant about introducing the English language to primary schools, as it may impair young students’ abilities to master the Arabic language.

However, the above-described attitudes have been challenged by the demands placed by academic and professional needs (Alhawsawi 2014), which have been driven by socioeconomic factors, such as the high rates of unemployment among youth in KSA (Barnawi 2017). These high rates of unemployment have led the country to adopt affirmative action programmes, such as Saudisation (Alshahrani 2016), particularly for the private sector, where most of the employees are non-Saudis who are either native English speakers or have a good command of the English language (Ramady 2010). As a result, job opportunities have been made available for Saudi graduates, but largely for those who are competent in English. The importance of English has also been relevant to employees; governmental institutions have offered training programmes only to employees with a good command of English, since these programmes often involve interacting with non-Arabic speakers. Similarly, acceptance for graduate studies in Saudi universities requires that the applicant must demonstrate English language proficiency. Driven by such practical considerations, interest in learning English has increased among Saudis, as can be noted from the increasing number of employees enrolling in after-work English courses, and of young students enrolling in private or international schools where English exposure is often greater than what is offered in public schools (Barnawi 2017). Meanwhile, Saudi universities have implemented English as the medium of instruction for scientific programmes and initiated preparatory year programmes (i.e. foundation year) for first-year students, where intensive English courses are offered, so as to enable students to meet the academic and professional demands related to English proficiency.
(Alhawsawi 2014; Alblowi 2016). Therefore, English is no longer “not immediately relevant” (Al-Seghayer 2017, p.39) to Saudis; instead, it has become “a ‘commodity’ as well as a ‘major skill’ which individuals have to master to succeed in the job market” (Barnawi 2017, p.44). It is under these conditions that some Saudis may find themselves “torn between” a determination to preserve the Arabic language and the need to learn English (Alhawsawi 2014, p.35)—a situation in which young Saudis are found exerting efforts to prove that they can achieve bilingual fluency while maintaining their identities as Arab Muslims (Alghamdi and Petraki 2018).

**Sociocultural diversity in KSA**

Having discussed the general attitude towards ELT in KSA, it is relevant to highlight aspects of sociocultural diversity in KSA, as cultural beliefs and attitudes vary across the different regions of KSA (Altamimi 2014). As noted above, English textbooks have been localised in consideration of cultural norms. As this thesis is concerned with participants’ attitudes towards TED Talks which were selected (see Section 3.5.2) in view of such cultural norms, it seems relevant to discuss sociocultural diversity in KSA in order to place the cultural views emerging in this thesis in their pertinent context.

KSA is divided into five regions, namely the Southern, Eastern, Northern, Western and Central regions. The literature on sociocultural diversity in KSA has been mainly concerned with the Central and Western regions (Bar 2017), due to their cultural and economic importance (Altwaiji 2017). While the emphasis here is on the Western region, since it is where this research was conducted (particularly in Jeddah), references to the Central region are also made to represent the range of sociocultural diversity across the country.

The Western region has always been “distinguished … by its heterogeneity” (Al-Rasheed 2010, p.30) which can be attributed to its religious and economic significance. It is the cradle of Islam and the site of its two Holy Mosques (i.e. Al-Masjid Al-Haram in Makkah and Al-Masjid Al-Nabawi in Medina), and the area where Muslims from different parts of the world have settled after visiting the Holy Mosques. The Western region is also the site of Jeddah—the gateway to Makkah and Medina and an important trading port,—which attracted the new urban residents, who have merged with the original population (Arab natives) (Jastaniah 1984; Hamdan
2005; Alselaimi and Lord 2012). According to Jastaniah (1984, p.242), the Jeddah community has been different from the rest of KSA, which can be “a reflection of the far greater cultural exposure and a degree of cosmopolitanism in Jeddah than in the rest of the country”. In describing the differences between the Western (i.e. Hijaz) and Central (i.e. Najd) regions, it is noted that:

… Hijaz, the most settled and travelled region along the west coast, and Najd, the arid interior dominated by Bedouins. … Hijaz exhibited the influence of a succession of outside rulers: Umayyad, Abbasid, Egyptian, and (later) Ottoman, as well as that of untold numbers of pilgrims. Najd had never come under foreign domination or influence, and its people regarded themselves as the more authentic Arabian culture.

(Wynbrandt 2010, p.71)

The differences between the two communities extend across various cultural forms, such as dialect, food, religious practices, and attitudes towards other cultures. The inhabitants of the Western region (referred to as Hijazis) have been viewed as “lenient” (Yamani 2004, p.27) and “open to various cultures” (Alselaimi and Lord 2012, p.5) in ways that have been considered “a shock to the sensibilities of the sheltered and more conservative Najdis [inhabitants of the Central region]” (Wynbrandt 2010, p.188). Such differences have shaped the identities of the Hijazis and Najdis, regardless of where they have been living. For example, Al-Essa (2009) reported that many Najdis who settled in Hijaz have not conformed to the Hijazis’ cultural views. Instead, these Najdis have preserved their more conservative views by keeping formal relationships with their Hijazi counterparts and by discouraging intermarriage with non-Najdis.

Given the above-described context, one should bear in mind that sociocultural diversity is an inherent feature of the Saudi community. It is not uncommon to observe locals criticising social practices or school curriculums as being too conservative or too tolerant. Such cases, however, are often considered minor and do not provoke cultural sensibilities on a general scale.

1.3.2 Pedagogical factors

Besides cultural factors, pedagogical factors have contributed to the challenges of learning English in KSA. One of these factors is the limited exposure to English, given that Arabic is the dominant language in the country (Saadi 2012; Alattar 2014; Ankawi
As for ELT, it is indicated earlier in this chapter that students start learning English at the age of nine/ten (fourth grade) in all public schools. During the three years of primary school where English is integrated into the curriculum, students have two forty-five-minute classes of English per week (Al-Seghayer 2017), accumulating a total of forty-two hours per year (with an average of fourteen teaching weeks in each academic semester). As for intermediate and secondary schools, they have four forty-five-minute English classes per week (ibid.), for a total of eighty-four hours per year. Considering the instructional time and L2 acquisition, Archibald et al. (2006, p.3) stated that ninety-five hours (per year for six years) of L2 instruction “will not lead to functional bilingualism and fluency in the second language”. Saudi students receive only 10% more instructional time (a total of 630 hours in nine years) than stated by Archibald et al. (570 hours in six years). Therefore, it is probably unsurprising that Saudi students graduate from secondary school with minimum English proficiency (Al-Shumaimeri 2003; Alqahtani 2011; Ur Rahman and Alhaisoni 2013). This insufficiency of instructional time is often exacerbated by English teachers having to prioritise completing the syllabus in the given class length over offering opportunities for language practice—“as exams are largely based on textbook content, [and] keeping pace with the tight curriculum schedule is a priority” (Fareh 2010; Al-Qahtani 2016; Al-Seghayer 2017, p.55) as well as by the large number of students in the classroom (Shah et al. 2013; Nather 2014).

The importance of instructional time in the Saudi context, as may often be the case in other EFL contexts, is related to the lack of English exposure and opportunities to practice English outside the classroom, given that Arabic is most commonly used. The key role of instruction can be observed when comparing English language proficiencies among public and private school students in KSA. According to Deraney and Abdelsalam (2012, p.5), private school graduates surpassed public school graduates in English proficiency, as indicated by the results of the English placement tests. The purpose of the placement test is to assess students’ current English levels, so that they can be placed in the appropriate English language courses, which are designed to prepare students for an all-English medium university. According to Deraney and Abdelsalam, some students were exempt from the English courses, as they met the required level of English proficiency; among these students, 72.7% reported attending private or international schools. Unlike public schools, private
schools often allocate sufficient time to English courses, with a relatively small number of students in classrooms.

Another factor that has contributed to the challenges of learning English is the actual pedagogical practices in the English language classroom. Different scholars (e.g. Khan 2011; Ur Rahman and Alhaisoni 2013; Alrabai 2014; Al-Seghayer 2017) have criticised the approaches to ELT in KSA, with teacher-centred approaches being its most predominant feature. The reliance on teacher-centred approaches is related to the view that teachers are transmitters of knowledge, a perspective often shared among Saudi teachers, as well as students and their parents (Al-Seghayer 2017). According to Aljumah (2011, p.84), Saudi students can be hesitant to speak in the classroom, as they do not want to “be seen as verbally challenging their teachers’ views openly and publicly. Even when they do, they speak a little”. In addition, the text-based and exam-oriented nature of instruction contribute to the predominance of teacher-centred approaches (Al-Seghayer 2017). Another feature of ELT in KSA is the wide use of the Arabic language in English classrooms (Alshammari 2011; Mahmoud 2012; Alrashidi and Phan 2015), which teachers often revert to for three purposes: “(1) to explain new words, (2) to check students’ understanding, and (3) to explain grammatical concepts” (Al-Seghayer 2017, p.52). Finally, there is a lack of emphasis on developing skills—emphasis is rather on rote learning (Fareh 2010; Alharbi 2015; Alrashidi and Phan 2015). Finally, the exam-driven nature of instruction encourages rote learning. As reported by Mohammad and Hazarika (2016) and Khan (2011), students tended to prepare themselves for the writing exam through memorising paragraphs relevant to issues they expected to be part of the exam. In some cases, repetitions were noticed across students’ answers, with similar patterns of errors. Memorisation is similarly practised with the different aspects of language, including grammar and vocabulary (Al-Seghayer 2017).

Such pedagogical practices, in parallel with the aforementioned cultural factors, can result in Saudi students being left with minimum opportunities for English practice. Inside the classroom, these opportunities are controlled by the above-mentioned factors and limited to a few communicative functions that are dictated by the textbook, such as telling the time, getting to know someone and buying an item from a shop; students are introduced to formulaic expressions that may sound unnatural and automatic. Along these lines, this thesis attempts to present one pedagogical
application that may help mitigate issues related to the lack of exposure to English spoken discourse in contexts such as KSA. The rationale and the specific aims of this application are offered below.

1.4 RESEARCH RATIONALE AND AIMS

Besides the context-related factors outlined in Section 1.2, the complementary role of multimodal corpora and TED Talks in serving the pedagogical objective of this thesis (i.e. raising awareness of AP discourse) helps demonstrate the rationale of this thesis. Recently, there has been growing emphasis on AP skills that enable university students to participate in a globalised context, where English is often used regardless of participants’ native languages (Canagarajah 2006; Nickerson 2013; Barrett and Liu 2016). Such emphasis may be observed from the inclusion of APs as a graded component in many undergraduate and postgraduate courses, despite the often-reported lack of AP training, which can be attributed to the lack of available resources and to the insufficient length of class time (Zareva 2011; Barrett and Liu 2016). Describing available resources on APs, Zareva (2011, p.6) suggested that these resources “are largely prescriptive and, very often, away from the reality of students’ actual performance”. In addition, these resources are context-specific, such as inaugural speeches, declarations of war and commencement speeches (Chang and Huang 2015). Such a situation places non-native English speakers at a disadvantage, particularly when considering EFL contexts, where English exposure and practice are often limited and focus is given to written English discourse. This lack of exposure to spoken discourse results in EFL students sounding "bookish and pedantic” (Channell 1994, p.21), and “oriented toward the norms of written English” (Dose 2013, p.1), which often leads to the increased burden of information processing for listeners (Cheong 2014). Considering the above-mentioned issues, this thesis is an attempt, among others (e.g. Huang and Chang 2015), to design a language platform that can help to raise awareness of AP discourse.

Given the multimodal nature of APs, multimodal corpora may form a functional platform to raise awareness of AP discourse. Communication is multimodal; “it combines and integrates the meaning-making resources of various semiotic modalities to create meaning” (Busà 2010, p.52). Therefore, it is crucial to bring multimodality
into language classrooms, with which multimodal corpora can help. In addition, multimodal corpora can offer opportunities for rich language exposure. However, issues related to the development of multimodal corpora, which include data collection and transcription, may hinder attempts to compile a multimodal corpus of APs. In this regard, TED Talks seem to facilitate the process of corpus compilation, given their availability in video and text formats, as well as their relative similarity to AP discourse. Moreover, accessing these talks is free and only requires a device that is connected to the Internet, which can make them a valuable and practical resource for language classrooms. Based on the above-mentioned premises, this research also seeks to investigate the attitudes of EFL learners towards using MCOTT\(^4\) to raise their awareness of AP discourse, and the potential influence of learner-dependent variables on their attitudes, as is demonstrated in the following research questions.

1.4.1 Research questions

This research aims to investigate the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. In particular, this research attempts to answer the following questions:

1. How do the participants perceive the use of MCOTT as a reference tool for raising their awareness of spoken English discourse pertinent to APs?
   a. To what extent do the participants believe MCOTT is (not) useful?
   b. To what extent do the participants believe MCOTT is (not) easy to use?
   c. To what extent do the participants believe that they are (not) able to use MCOTT?
   d. To what extent do the participants believe that they (do not) like using MCOTT?
   e. To what extent do the participants believe that they (do not) intend to use MCOTT in the future?

2. To what extent is the participant attitude found to be influenced by the four variables of motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence?

\(^4\) Multimodal Corpus of TED Talks
Accordingly, this thesis has a two-fold purpose. The first involves compiling a multimodal corpus of TED Talks to raise awareness about AP discourse among EFL Saudi students. The second purpose is related to exploring the participants’ attitudes towards the corpus. As such, the pedagogical objective of the thesis serves to highlight the rationale behind the corpus compilation and its implementation, which constitute one part of the thesis. The second part is related to the investigation of the participants’ attitudes towards corpus use. There is no attempt to measure evidence of enhanced awareness (e.g. improved linguistic features) as a result of learner interaction with the corpus.

1.5 IMPORTANCE AND ORIGINALITY OF THE RESEARCH

This case study research presents the design of a pedagogic multimodal corpus, demonstrating a context-specific process of selecting the corpus content and tool. The results pertaining to the implementation of the developed corpus in EFL classrooms are also offered. The attention here is given to the participants’ attitudes in order to gain insights about the corpus efficacy based on the perspectives of its users. The participants’ attitudes in this case are considered important for two reasons. First, this is a preliminary, exploratory in nature, investigation of a newly introduced classroom application in a context where research on corpus use in EFL classrooms seems lacking, which can be partly due to the “lack of systematic integration of corpus linguistics into LTE [Language Teaching Education] programmes” in KSA (Aljohani 2017, p.239). Secondly, learners’ attitudes have been viewed as influential factors of effective implementation of new classroom applications (Rogers 2000; Vandewaetere et al. 2012; Almisad 2015), and in predicting learners’ willingness to use such applications (Rogers 2003; Vandewaetere and Desmet 2009). In addition, the understanding of learners’ attitudes helps in integrating appropriate classroom applications that address learners’ needs and preferences (Liaw et al. 2007). Accordingly, it is felt imperative to investigate the participants’ attitudes to the corpus developed for this research.

Admittedly, research on corpus use in L2 classrooms and on learners’ attitudes towards this practice is substantial and diverse. For example, researchers have looked into L2 learners’ perceptions about the usefulness of corpus use for developing language skills (e.g. Yoon 2005; O'Sullivan 2006; Quinn 2015), for learning grammar
and vocabulary (e.g. Fan and Xunfeng 2002; Girgin 2011; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014), and for raising language awareness (e.g. Akınç and Yıldız 2017). Furthermore, researchers have investigated learners’ attitudes towards problematic issues that can be associated with corpus use, including technical challenges and insufficiency of training (e.g. Boulton 2009a; Chang and Sun 2009; Aşık et al. 2015). Individual differences among L2 learners that may influence their attitudes towards corpus use have also been explored (Turnbull and Burston 1998; Boulton 2013; Carloni 2015).

What is unique about this doctoral research, however, is its adaptation of an attitudinal theory (the Combined Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour) that seems to encapsulate attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use. Exploring learners’ attitudes based on such a theoretical framework facilitates a systematic investigation of learners’ attitudes, and offers a means to focus on “situation specific forces which can better explain learner behaviour observed in the classroom” (Léger and Storch 2009, p.271). That is, the adaptation of the theoretical framework helps to incorporate the different aspects pertaining to learners’ attitudes towards corpus use in one model, which provides deeper understanding of these attitudes, and, possibly, the interrelations among these aspects (cf. Vandewaetere and Desmet 2009). Furthermore, this research highlights the potential influence of learner-dependent variables (e.g. motivation, ICT competence) on learners’ attitudes towards corpus use, a field of research that has received little attention (Boulton 2013; Carloni 2015).

Moreover, the importance and originality of this research can be discussed in relation to the employed corpus tools. Backbone corpus tools (Kohn et al. 2010) were used to compile the corpus for this research. One of the distinctive features of Backbone tools is their available open-source repository that can be found on the project website5 (Braun and Kohn 2012). This feature allows others to deploy new pedagogic corpora and to modify the tools to fit for the purpose of a given corpus (ibid.)—hence, their use in this research. In other words, the value of such open-source tools is that they offer opportunities for “tool functions and features to be extended, modified, or simplified depending on the need”, which can be critical to ensure the effectiveness of the tool for its proposed purpose (Anthony 2013, p.156). However, it appears that there

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5 http://webapps.ael.uni-tuebingen.de/backbone-search/faces/initialize.jsp
is a lack of research representing a case of compiling a corpus using the Backbone tools. In this regard, this research seems to fill the aforementioned gap by demonstrating the advantages, limitations and modifications of the Backbone tools to fit the purpose of the corpus developed for this research.

Finally, the importance of this research also relates to its consideration of APs, which have received little attention (De Grez et al. 2009; Zareva 2011; Barrett and Liu 2016) despite the recognition of their growing importance, as discussed earlier in this chapter. In addition, utilising multimodal corpora and TED Talks to raise awareness about the discourse of APs can provide insights into future research, particularly with respect to EFL material development and learners’ attitudes. On this note, the following section provides an overview of the structure of this thesis.

1.6 OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH

This thesis consists of six chapters. After introducing the research context, rationale and aims in this chapter, Chapter 2 provides a review of relevant literature, including awareness-raising, language discourse, and authenticity, in order to offer the pedagogical underpinnings of the objective of this thesis, which is to raise learner awareness of AP discourse. In addition, Chapter 2 explores L2 literature on multimodal corpora, TED Talks and APs, where issues related to corpus compilation, challenges and benefits associated with TED Talks, and practical applications of teaching the discourse of APs are discussed, to help guide the approach for the compilation as well as exploitation of MCOTT. Furthermore, attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use were reviewed, along with learner-dependent factors that may influence learner attitudes towards corpus use, which provide insights into the investigation of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use.

Having established the scholarly context in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 then delineates the methodological considerations pertaining to this research. These include the philosophical worldview of the research, the approach to attitude investigation, as well as issues related to the dual researcher role. In addition, the process of corpus compilation is demonstrated, covering a description of the corpus software, the steps involved in selecting TED Talks, and the corpus interface. Furthermore, the contextual details of the research are presented, including information about the participants, the
study timeline, and the specific course plan developed for this research. Finally, methods of data collection and analysis are discussed.

Next, Chapter 4 presents the results of the two research questions while Chapter 5 discusses these results. In Chapter 4, the results pertaining to participants’ profiles are first offered, followed by a presentation of the results obtained in relation to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, which provides the answer to the first research question. The final section of Chapter 4 addresses the second research question, where the relationships between learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) and the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT are revealed. Then, Chapter 5 discusses the results, highlighting the complex nature of understanding the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, as well as the nonlinear relationships between such attitudes and the aforementioned learner-dependent factors. Finally, in Chapter 6, the main results are summarised, and implications and recommendations for future research are offered.
CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, three central tenets, namely awareness raising, language discourse, and authenticity, which underpin the pedagogical goal of this thesis are discussed, with particular reference to second/foreign language (L2) speaking pedagogy and data-driven learning (DDL). This discussion helps situate the pedagogical goal, which is to increase learner awareness of AP discourse, of this thesis in its wider scholarly perspectives. Then, L2 research on multimodal corpora, on TED Talks, and on APs is reviewed whilst considering pedagogy-related issues, such as approaches to integrating multimodal corpora in L2 classrooms, the appropriateness of using TED Talks in language classrooms, and classroom-based applications to teaching AP discourse. These considerations provide the rationale for the pedagogical approach for the design and exploitation of MCOTT, as demonstrated in the subsequent chapter. Finally, the chapter concludes with an overview of research on learner attitudes towards corpora, highlighting the attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use, which include manifest variables that demonstrate learner attitudes towards corpus use (e.g. enjoying corpus use, facing challenges in corpus use), as well as learner-dependent variables (e.g. motivation, autonomy) that may positively or negatively affect learner attitudes towards corpus use. As the research questions of this thesis are focused on understanding participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, this review is particularly helpful in guiding the methodological approaches (e.g. designing questionnaires presented in the subsequent chapter) used in this thesis.

2.2 L2 SPEAKING PEDAGOGY AND DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING

This section presents the pedagogical underpinnings of the objective of this thesis, which is to raise learner awareness of AP discourse. Three themes (i.e. raising awareness, language discourse and authenticity) are discussed largely in relation to L2 research on speaking pedagogy and DDL. While discussing these themes, attention is given to the potential of DDL in offering a conducive environment to provide opportunities for raising L2 learner awareness about language discourse with the use
of authentic language materials—an environment that is also founded on well-established principles in L2 research on speaking pedagogy.

Before delving into this discussion, it can be useful to offer a definition of DDL. It can be defined as:

… the use in the classroom of computer-generated concordances to get students to explore the regularities of patterning in the target language, and the development of activities and exercises based on concordance output.

(Johns and King 1991, p.iii)

DDL is a corpus-based pedagogy and a methodology that involves learners in research tasks requiring the analysis of language data (Mishan 2004). DDL tasks can be inductive or deductive and teacher- or learner-led (ibid.). One of the often used DDL tasks is concordancing, which is “a means of accessing a corpus of text to show how any given word or phrase in the text is used in the immediate contexts in which it appears” (Flowerdew 1996, p.87). In this thesis, the term DDL is also used to refer to “corpus-based learning beyond concordance-based DDL” (Braun 2010, p.95), which emphasises the pedagogic approaches to integrating corpus use in L2 classrooms that are discussed in this chapter.

2.2.1 Awareness-raising

Awareness-raising is related to the cognitive notions (e.g. awareness, attention, noticing) involved in language awareness (LA) which is defined as “a person’s sensitivity to a conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life” (Donmall 1985 in James and Garret 1993, p.109). The cognitive domain of LA refers to the “awareness of pattern, contrast, system, units, categories, rules of language in use and the ability to reflect on them” (ibid., p.112). In what follows, a discussion on the role of and approaches to awareness-raising in language learning is offered, with a particular focus on L2 speaking pedagogy and DDL.

Within the cognitive domain of LA, considerable attention has been paid to the role of awareness-raising in language learning. This has come as a reaction to the emergence of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, which is based on the assumption that language forms develop as learners engage in communicative activities (Celce-Murcia et al. 1997). While the CLT approach has
been influential in L2 pedagogy, the lack of explicit instruction in the pure form of CLT was the subject of debates (Hughes and Reed 2016). In speaking classrooms employing the pure form of CLT, implicit instruction was embraced, “in which conversational competence is seen as the product of engaging learners in conversational interaction” (Richards 1990, p.76). When much consideration was given to the amount learners speak in the classroom, since learners were expected to acquire these rules incidentally, explicit instruction of rules (e.g. pronunciation, grammar rules, organisational structure) that govern communicative language use was neglected (Goh and Burns 2012; Hughes and Reed 2016). Activities often associated with the implicit instruction mimic lifelike situations and prioritise fluency, examples of which include discussions, role-play, and information gap activities (ibid.). However, questions were raised regarding the efficiency of the approach in preparing learners for effective communication—the teaching objective of the CLT approach (e.g. Widdowson 1978; Canale 1983; Fotos 1994; Celce-Murcia et al. 1997)—with such a lack of explicit instruction. These questions have contributed to the emergence of cognitive notions relevant to LA, and accordingly another form of explicit language teaching—one that involves activities (e.g. awareness-raising activities) where learners can practise an active role. This form of explicit language teaching is different from the “pedantic giving and testing of rules and lists of vocabulary items” (Sharwood Smith 1981, p.160), which had formed the methods of formal instruction prior to the emergence of the CLT approach.

Considering the role of the latter form of explicit language instruction, special attention has been given to the cognitive domain of LA and its role in L2 pedagogy. For example, Schmidt (1990, p.129), in his Noticing Hypothesis, assigned a rather strong role to awareness-raising “at the level of noticing”. He argued that noticing is necessary for language processing and acquisition; “noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake” (ibid.). Other researchers recognised, at varying levels, the important role of awareness-raising in increasing the rate of language learning (Van Lier 2014). For example, Sharwood Smith (1993) coined the term ‘input enhancement’ to refer to the techniques used to manipulate the input (e.g. colour-coding, bold-facing); the researcher contrasted the two terms ‘awareness-raising’ and ‘input enhancement’, with the latter implying no assumptions about input processing. ‘Focus on form’ (Long and Robinson 1998) is another
technical term that has been used to refer to classroom activities that focus on teaching specific language features. Long and Robinson suggested that focus on form could help accelerate the speed of language learning. According to Fotos (1994, p.343), these types of activities offer “acceptable ways” to conduct grammar instruction in communicative classrooms. In addition, Ellis (2002, p.173) suggested that awareness-raising activities blend with the “progressive views about education” which encourage discovery learning by integrating problem-solving tasks in classrooms. These views also align with the recommendations on integrating DDL activities in L2 classrooms, as further discussed in the following section.

In the same vein and with a particular interest in teaching spoken grammar and discourse, McCarthy and Carter (1995) recommended a move from the ‘Three Ps’ approach (Presentation–Practice–Production) to approaches that foreground observation, awareness, and induction. For this, they proposed the ‘Three Is’ approach, representing illustration, interaction, and induction. Whereas illustration refers to the phase where learners are offered authentic language data in a given context that they are made aware of and of its pertinent choices of language patterns, the interaction involves engaging learners in discourse-sensitive activities that help develop learners’ LA and its strategies such as observing, reasoning and making inferences. As for induction, it entails reaching conclusions about the presented language data and its linguistic features in its given context. According to McCarthy and Carter (1995, p.217), this approach “has considerable potential for a more rapid acquisition by learners of fluent, accurate, and naturalistic conversational and communicative skills”. In this regard, it is useful to note that the three stages of this approach, in fact, embody the three themes dealt with in this section. That is, the ‘Three Is’ assimilate the concepts of language awareness, language discourse, and authenticity into a practical approach to teaching L2 speaking, which may explain the suggested, by McCarthy and Carter (1995), pedagogical significance of the ‘Three Is’. However, one can argue that such value emanates from appropriate use of the approach in L2 classrooms, where issues such as learner need and level, suitability of utilised materials, and teacher support should be contemplated. Since the ‘Three Is’ are in parallel with DDL (Johns 1991a), discussed below, the issues related to DDL classroom applications that are elaborated throughout this chapter are also relevant to the ‘Three Is’.
DDL and awareness-raising

As a form of awareness-raising activity, DDL is often found useful in providing opportunities for learners to notice features of the input (Riordan 2005; Papp 2007; Aguado-Jiménez et al. 2012; Flowerdew 2015a; Luo and Zhou 2017). DDL has often been associated with Johns’ (1991a) inductive approach to language learning, which entails three stages, namely observation, classification and generalisation. As noted above, these stages correspond to McCarthy and Carter’s (1995) ‘Three Is’ (McEnery 2006), and sometimes they are used interchangeably (e.g. Flowerdew 2009; Flowerdew 2015a). The use of these approaches is often appreciated since they offer opportunities to notice the form and meaning of language usage (e.g. Henry and Roseberry 2001; Gaskell and Cobb 2004), particularly in a discourse-based DDL, as is illustrated in Section 2.2.2. However, when these opportunities are learner-initiated and directed, learners may find it difficult to notice form and meaning simultaneously (VanPatten 1990). Therefore, suggestions have been offered to modify these approaches to include teacher guidance so that they can fit the L2 classroom. For example, pedagogical mediation (Johns 1991a; Widdowson 2000) has been emphasised, where teachers as facilitators and learners participate in the learning process, and which involves decisions that teachers have to take based on learner-dependent variables, such as learner age, experience and language proficiency (McEnery and Xiao 2011). In addition, pedagogical enrichment, which refers to ready-made language learning materials catered to learners’ language proficiencies, has been introduced (Braun 2005; Kohn 2012). Moreover, Flowerdew (2009, p.407) has proposed adding ‘intervention’ as “an optional stage between Interaction and Induction”, where teachers can direct learner attention to given features of the introduced texts. Furthermore, Chang and Sun (2009) have suggested employing the practice of scaffolding with DDL; scaffolding here refers to procedural (leading prompts during a problem-solving process), elaborative (prompts that engage learners in reasoning processes), and reflective prompts (prompts that promote reflection and metacognitive awareness) (Ge et al. 2005; ibid.). Similarly, Johansson (2009, p.41) has proposed a ‘guided inductive’ approach where “the elements of explanation and corpus use are tailored to needs of the student”. Other attempts involve proposing an apprenticeship approach with an aim “to downplay the learner-as-researcher notion”, where learners are encouraged to observe and borrow chunks through two stages,
namely pattern-hunting and pattern-refining (Kennedy and Miceli 2010; 2017, p.93). The two stages entail using the corpus to search for language patterns and/or ideas that learners can adapt in their essays, with the former stage being exploratory and the latter stage targeting specific language issues (ibid.). What all these recommendations have in common is that they emphasise the role of teacher support in facilitating DDL in L2 classrooms. Similarly, the approach adopted in this thesis made use of teacher support (e.g. scaffolding), as demonstrated in Section 3.6.3, and Appendix 10.

In recognising the potentials of DDL as a form of awareness-raising task, Breyer (2011) described these potentials with reference to the five characteristics, which were introduced by Borg (1994), of LA as a teaching methodology. These characteristics are:

1. Learning about language is not the internalisation of a definable body of knowledge but the on-going investigation of a dynamic phenomenon. …
2. Learning a language should involve talking about the language. …
3. Learning is most effective as a process of learner-centred exploration and discovery. …
4. Effective awareness-raising depends on engaging learners both affectively and cognitively. …
5. LA as a methodology develops in learners both knowledge about language as well as skills for continued autonomous learning.

(Borg 1994, p.62, building on Wright and Bolitho 1993)

In a typical DDL activity, learners are provided with concordance lines retrieved from authentic texts and are prompted to notice their features using different strategies, such as analysing, comparing, and guessing. In other words, learners are encouraged to “discover (emphasis in original)” language use when teachers “provide a context in which the learner can develop strategies for discovery-strategies through which he or she can learn to learn (emphasis in original)” (Johns 1991b, p.1). In this sense, DDL activities help provide learners with opportunities to observe language use and to improve their cognitive language learning skills, which can facilitate a process-oriented approach to language teaching and learning (O'Sullivan and Chambers 2006), whether these opportunities are student-initiated or teacher-directed (Flowerdew 2015a). This is in line with Borg’s first, third, and cognitive aspect of the fourth characteristics of LA as a methodology. While engaged with such opportunities, learners “discuss language analytically” (Breyer 2011, p.70), a process that can be referred to as using metatalk (Tocalli-Beller and Swain 2005), or languaging (Svalberg 2007), which is the second feature of LA, according to Borg. Also relevant to the
fourth characteristic is the affective engagement, which can involve task enjoyment but also conscious engagement and commitment to learning (Svalberg 2007; Van Lier 2014). These notions are reflected in Braun’s (2007b) call for a move from data-driven learning to needs-driven corpora, which has suggested the importance of pedagogically motivated corpus content—one that targets L2 learners’ specific language learning needs. Similarly, Pérez-Paredes (2010, p.13) has highlighted the need for corpus integration, rather than adaptation, in L2 classrooms, where integration “implies a new whole, a complete picture”. Integration, in this case, highlights the importance of considering learner needs in the process of corpus compilation (e.g. content selection, annotation). Such importance relates to engaging L2 learners in meaningful tasks that facilitate their conscious engagement. Affective engagement can also be related to the easiness or difficulty of tasks, with which teacher involvement may help, as is indicated in the previous paragraph. Finally, it is the presence of the four first characteristics that help to enhance L2 learners’ language awareness and skills, which is Borg’s fifth feature of LA as a teaching methodology. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suggest that DDL can form a conducive awareness-raising environment in L2 classrooms, provided that the above-mentioned issues are taken into consideration. Such issues have their implications for planning DDL tasks, and for designing a pedagogically-relevant corpus and selecting its content—Section 2.3 deals particularly with the later issues. In this doctoral thesis, such considerations were practised throughout the different phases of corpus and course design, as discussed in Sections 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6.

In conclusion, this section considers the role of awareness-raising in language learning, particularly with reference to L2 speaking pedagogy. The potentials of and approaches to using DDL to raise language awareness among L2 learners are also highlighted. The review of the issues involved in this section provides the rationale for the pedagogical goal proposed in this thesis, which is raising awareness of AP discourse. The two following sections shall build on this discussion and deal with further issues that provide the background for the choices (e.g. combining discourse- and corpus-based approaches) made in this thesis.
2.2.2 Language discourse

The role of discourse in L2 pedagogy has been considered since the 1970s. It is the attention given to discourse that has contributed to a pedagogical shift in L2 speaking pedagogy, which led to highlighting the differences between spoken and written discourse, as well as to integrating spoken discourse in L2 classrooms (e.g. McCarthy and Carter 1995; Ochs et al. 1996; Cullen and Kuo 2007; Rühlemann 2008; Timmis 2012; Jones and Carter 2014; Carter and McCarthy 2017). In this regard, it is noted that:

The teaching of speaking from a discourse perspective implies taking a pedagogical shift from regarding the constituent forms of language as primary, to thinking about language from the perspective of larger textual units. This proposition falls within newer, emerging directions for the teaching of spoken interactions which foreground the analysis of naturalistic native speaker data and the further development of spoken as well as written grammars.

(Burns 1998, p.107)

Burns indicated the importance of discourse in L2 speaking pedagogy and suggested the potentials of DDL in understanding spoken and written discourse. Such importance assigned to the discourse role in L2 pedagogy can be attributed to its central role in communication. Discourse is “the vehicle by means of which communication takes place” (Flowerdew 2013, p.5). Along these lines, this section discusses the discourse role in L2 classrooms and the role DDL can play in raising learner awareness about discourse features.

It is useful to start by defining discourse. As discourse has been influenced by formal (Chomsky 1959; 2002) and functional (Halliday 1978; Halliday and Matthiessen 2014) approaches in linguistics, different definitions of discourse have been offered (e.g. Van Dijk 1977; Schiffrin 1994; Wodak and Meyer 2009). However, these definitions have been considered deficient when considering language teaching (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000). Combining the two perspectives, discourse is defined as:

A piece of discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g., words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor. Furthermore, the external function or purpose can only be properly determined if one takes
into account the context and participants (i.e., all the relevant situational, social and cultural factors) in which the piece of discourse occurs.

(Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000, p.4)

Accordingly, discourse is concerned with all elements of communication, the interrelation among these elements, and with its context. It is these “over-arching perspectives” (McCarthy and Carter 2014, p.180) on communication, which discourse can offer, that render discourse beneficial for all aspects of language pedagogy, if one’s pedagogical objective is “enabling learners to become competent and efficient users” of an L2 (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005, p.729). Based on the type of communication (i.e. written, spoken, multimodal), the discourse may involve different modes (i.e. semiotic resources), where the language “is just one among the many resources for making meaning” (Kress 2012, p.38). In a given multimodal discourse, these resources can include “gesture, speech, image (still or moving), writing, [and] music”; all of which are equally and jointly important to, potentially, contribute to meaning-making (ibid., p.36). This is of particular relevance to this thesis, given its interest in AP discourse, which is of a multimodal nature.

Having defined discourse, it is relevant to discuss the pedagogical gains of integrating discourse in L2 classrooms, as well as discourse-based approaches to L2 pedagogy. In terms of pedagogical gains, researchers (e.g. Canale and Swain 1980; Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000; Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005) have asserted the position of discourse in L2 classrooms, as it has provided a framework to view a number of pedagogical controversies (e.g. fluency and accuracy, implicit and explicit instruction, top-down and bottom-up approaches) as two endpoints on a continuum, rather than being two discrete options (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005). For example, a discourse-based syllabus can provide an integrated approach where language functions are introduced in a range of contexts, along with relevant language rules and patterns and other aspects of appropriateness, such as formality and politeness (Celce-Murcia et al. 1997). Similarly, the discourse-based approach can help to integrate top-down and bottom-up approaches simultaneously through, for example, engaging learners in tasks where they examine the communicative purpose of a given text in a given context (top-down approach), followed by examining the lexical and grammatical patterns of this text (Grabe 1991; Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2005). For language learners, the integration of these aspects can help them become more efficient at communication, as it helps them pay attention to the different aspects
involved in making communication effective. Such pedagogical gains of adopting a discourse-based approach in L2 classrooms are revisited below when reviewing the benefits of discourse-based corpus use (i.e. a combination of discourse- and corpus-based approaches)—an approach that was utilised in this doctoral thesis, as is demonstrated in Section 3.6.3, and Appendix 10.

As this thesis is concerned with the AP, which is considered a genre in its own right (Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet 2003; Duff 2007; Morton 2009), it is relevant to discuss pedagogical approaches to genre analysis. Genre pedagogy has been appreciated for its value in developing novice learners’ awareness of the recursive functions and language patterns in a certain genre (Feez 2002; Paltridge 2007; Ahn 2012), which is in line with the objective of the course designed for this doctoral research (as outlined in Appendix 10). Two discourse-based approaches to genre analysis can be relevant here: the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) school and the Sydney school (Hyon 1996; Flowerdew 2013). What these two schools have in common is that they are “linguistic in approach” with an emphasis on the relationship between communicative function and linguistic form (Flowerdew 2013, p.154). The two schools differ, however, in how they view genre and text types. On the one hand, the ESP school employs “external criteria” to classify genre types, which are often named after their users, such as research articles, lectures and laboratory reports, which become, as well as their components, the focus of analysis (ibid., p.151). On the other hand, the Sydney school employs “internal” criteria (i.e. rhetorical modes) to classify text types (i.e. elemental genres); examples of which include narration, exposition and argumentation (ibid.). As such, the ESP school is concerned with macro genres that consist of elemental genres, with which the Sydney school is concerned. Due to the detailed nature of analysis associated with the Sydney school, it is suggested that it works with a “well-developed linguistic theory and descriptive model” (ibid., p.157). However, the nature of genres should also be considered:

It [a genre] is “repeated” (Miller 1984) in that it evokes previous, analogous contexts in which similar texts appeared; yet it is evolving … because few, if any, rhetorical situations are exactly the same. Genre knowledge is systematic … and conventional in the features of from and style may be repeated in texts. Yet a person’s knowledge of conventions … must be open to change … constantly subject to revisions as situations are transformed.

(Johns 1997, pp.21–22)
Considering the flexible and evolving nature of genres, it is suggested that adopting a too strict and rigid framework of rhetorical move structure analysis should be avoided (Swales 2002b). Instead, genres should be viewed as “resource[s] for meaning rather than as a system of rules” (Halliday and Martin 2003, p.25). In addition, it is advised that genre pedagogy should involve raising awareness of rhetorical flexibility (Johns 2008), with which discourse-based DDL tasks may help, as is discussed in the following section. Accordingly, this research aligns with the ESP school (as can be noted from the course plan in Section 3.6.3 and Appendix 10) due to the flexible nature of spoken genres, such as APs.

The pedagogical applications of the above-mentioned schools of genre analysis involve the introduction of task-based genre pedagogy (Swales 1990) that entails raising awareness about the features of a certain genre. Examples of these tasks include finding similarities and differences across several models of a particular genre, modifying the models to increase their effectiveness, and examining lexicogrammatical features. Associated with the Sydney school is the introduction of the text-based approach (Feez and Joyce 1998; Feez 2002), which proposes a staged pedagogical model for teaching genres: 1) building the context, 2) modelling and deconstructing the text, 3) joint construction of the text, 4) independent construction of the text, and 5) linking related texts. These schools and their pedagogical applications have influenced the approaches to DDL applications in L2 classrooms (e.g. Flowerdew 2005; Cortes 2007; Tribble and Wingate 2013; Poole 2016), as well as approaches to teaching AP discourse, as is discussed below and in Section 2.5.2.

**DDL and language discourse**

While DDL, in its traditional form (e.g. concordancing), was initially viewed as a polar opposite of the discourse-based approach (Swales 2002a), attempts to combine the two approaches have been found to enhance pedagogical applications of DDL in L2 classrooms (e.g. Flowerdew 1993; Conrad 2002; Flowerdew 2002; Partington 2004; Braun 2005; Baker 2006; Chambers 2007; Charles 2007; Pérez-Paredes 2010). For example, Braun (2005; 2006) suggested that discourse-based corpus use in L2 classrooms (i.e. a combination of discourse based and corpus-based approaches) can alleviate problematic issues (e.g. discourse authentication) that are often associated with corpus-based approaches (Widdowson 1979). For L2 learners, the ability to
authenticate concordance data, which are retrieved from different texts for different communicative purposes, depends on several factors, including L2 learners’ abilities to use contextual clues to construct the context of the data (Braun 2006). Based on learner familiarity with the topics of the concordance data, language proficiency and analytical skill, as well as teacher intervention, data authentication difficulty may vary among L2 learners (Sun 2003; Braun 2006). In other words, L2 learners’ prior knowledge, experience and learning skills may hinder their ability to understand the context of the data and, accordingly, its communicative functions. When a discourse-based approach is combined with a corpus-based approach, authentication may be facilitated through a “text-based exploration of the corpus content” (Braun 2006, p.5). This implies that the access to the entire texts from which the concordance lines are retrieved is recommended to enhance discourse authentication. Accordingly, discourse-based corpus use helps engage L2 learners in activities (reading whole texts) with which they are familiar, which may contribute in enhancing learner attitudes towards corpus use (Chambers 2007; Charles 2007). This also suggests the importance of using videos when teaching the discourse of spoken genres where different communication modes contribute to meaning-making and, therefore, are important for the enhancement of discourse authentication. (See also Section 2.3.)

In the same vein, Tribble (2002) suggested that integrating corpus-based activities in a discourse-based approach creates an environment conducive to identifying communicative functions and linguistic patterns pertinent to a particular genre, which is relevant to this thesis given its pedagogical goal (i.e. raising awareness of AP discourse). On one hand, a discourse-based task can help introduce L2 learners to a number of language patterns by which a single communicative function may be conveyed, which helps learners gain awareness of the different ways through which communication can be achieved (Charles 2007; Tribble and Wingate 2013), which seems in line with Johns’ (2008) recommendation (discussed above) of enhancing learners’ awareness of the rhetorical flexibility in genres. These language patterns can then be used to initiate corpus investigations, which may enable L2 learners to employ effective corpus search techniques (Charles 2007); a strategy that can be problematic for L2 learners (Boulton 2009c). On the other hand, a corpus-based task can offer authentic and rich examples of language usage, as well as opportunities to observe lexicogrammatical patterns that are associated with a certain communicative function.
(Chambers 2007; Charles 2007; Tribble and Wingate 2013; Cotos 2014; Poole 2016). As suggested by Poole (2016), corpus-based tasks following discourse-based tasks can help in engaging L2 learners in meaningful discussions regarding word choice and rhetorical strategies. In addition, a list of the most frequently used bundles may help introduce the common communicative functions associated with a particular genre, and can also be used as a resource bank by L2 learners (Tribble and Wingate 2013). Finally, combining the two approaches can also be beneficial in accommodating learners’ different learning styles and preferences, as combining the two approaches offers different ways by which the corpus can be exploited (Braun 2010). Overall, while a corpus-based approach to language learning and teaching can offer opportunities of exposure to rich language input, a discourse-based approach helps the learner understand the communicative functions of such input. As noted above, since this doctoral research is concerned with raising awareness of AP discourse, it seems beneficial to adopt a combination of discourse- and corpus-based approaches, as demonstrated in Section 3.6.3, and Appendix 10.

In conclusion, this section considers the role of teaching discourse in L2 classrooms. The potentials of and approaches to teaching language discourse are also highlighted. In addition, issues related to integrating corpus-based tasks in a discourse-based approach are discussed. These issues offer informative guidelines for the design and exploitation of the corpus pertinent to this thesis. (See Sections 3.5 and 3.6.3.)

2.2.3 Authenticity

While the use of authentic texts in L2 classrooms has often been appreciated, it has also raised several concerns related to what constitutes authenticity (Mishan 2004) and, accordingly, the pedagogical consequences of such characterisation (Mishan 2005; Gilmore 2007). While the term authenticity can generally be associated with “natural communication” (Kramsch 1993, p.177), researchers (e.g. Breen 1985; Mishan 2004; Gilmore 2007) have also indicated that authenticity may refer to authenticity of the introduced text and learner interpretation of the text, of the learning task, and of the text’s social and cultural function, each of which has its pedagogical implications in L2 classrooms. In what follows, the importance of authenticity in L2 classrooms is discussed, as well as the pedagogical concerns of using authentic language materials in L2 classrooms.
The role of authenticity in L2 speaking pedagogy has been evident, as it has contributed to the change in views towards spoken language. The lack of language descriptions based on the spoken language was further emphasised with the corpus revolution in the 1990s, which marked a paradigm shift in L2 speaking pedagogy (Hughes and Reed 2016). It has been suggested that this lack can be ascribed to two main causes, the first being the public view that written language is more prestigious than the spoken form, as depicted in Halliday’s metaphor: “the general picture is that of written language as richly endowed, while speech is a poor man's assemblage of shreds and patches” (Halliday 1987, p.67). The second relates to the relative ease of analysing and describing the written form—compared with the spoken form—of language (McCarthy 1998).

With the advancements in technology, the compilation of spoken corpora (e.g. the Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (McCarthy 1998), the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (Simpson et al. 2002), the Limerick Corpus of Irish English (Farr et al. 2004)) and the subsequent analysis of natural spoken data have been facilitated, which has contributed to the accumulation of literature exploring the features of spoken English. For example, it was found that fixed expressions (e.g. ‘a matter of fact’, ‘once and for all’) are common in spoken language (Carter and McCarthy 1997; Leech 1997). Cullen and Kuo (2007, p.370) reported different functions of such expressions in spoken English; among these functions are vagueness (e.g. ‘sort of’, ‘stuff like that’), hedging (e.g. ‘a bit’, ‘a little bit) and discourse marking (e.g. ‘you know’, ‘I mean’). Additionally, situational ellipsis is commonly found in spoken language, whereas textual ellipsis is common in written language (Carter and McCarthy 1995; McCarthy and Carter 1995). The “informality and shared context” of the spoken language allow speakers to use situational ellipsis (e.g. ‘sounds good’, ‘absolutely right’) (Cullen and Kuo 2007, p.368). These are just two examples of the abundant findings of the research on the features of spoken English. Such research has highlighted the importance of utilising authentic language data when developing language learning materials, instead of relying on conventions of the written discourse. In this regard, it is noted that:

… language pedagogy that claims to support the teaching and learning of speaking skills does itself a disservice if it ignores what we know about the spoken language. Whatever else may be the result of imaginative methodologies for eliciting spoken language in the second-language
classroom, there can be little hope for a natural spoken output on the part of language learners if the input is stubbornly rooted in models that owe their origin and shape to the written language. 

(McCarthy and Carter 2002, p.53)

The results of corpus-based research on spoken English also have contributed to the current approaches to teaching speaking. As indicated earlier in this chapter (Section 2.2.1), Carter and McCarthy (1995) proposed the ‘Three Is’ approach (Illustration–Interaction–Induction), which places emphasis on using authentic materials. Besides introducing real language use, the benefits associated with using authentic materials include providing rich input of different communicative events, which helps L2 learners develop functional language proficiency that enables them to communicate efficiently in the target language (Rogers and Medley 1988; Guariento and Morley 2001; Gilmore 2007). Such rich input is also reported to enhance L2 learner motivation, as well as engagement with the learning task (Mishan 2005; Bahrani and Sim 2012; Al Azri and Al-Rashdi 2014).

It should be noted, however, that introducing authentic language materials in L2 classrooms is not without its challenges. For example, L2 teachers can find it time-consuming to look for appropriate authentic materials of adequate length and quality (e.g. audibility) that meet students’ needs and language proficiencies (Taylor 1994; Crawford 2002; Thornbury 2005). In addition, teachers may not have access to instructional tools, such as computers, that enable the use of authentic materials (ibid.). These issues may reflect other criteria of authenticity introduced earlier in this section and which involve learner interpretation of the text as well as task authenticity. To address these issues, it is suggested that authentic-like materials can be introduced to L2 learners (Crawford 2002)—”authentic in the sense that the language is not artificially constrained, and is, at the same time, amenable to exploitation for language teaching purposes” (MacWilliam 1986, p.134). Other researchers (e.g. Nurmukhamedov and Sadler 2011; Wingrove 2017) have suggested the use of available tools (e.g. VocabProfiler⁶ and WordAndPhrase⁷—also see Sections 2.4.2 and 3.5.3) to evaluate the appropriacy of a set of authentic materials to a particular

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⁶ https://www.lextutor.ca/vp/eng/
⁷ http://www.wordandphrase.info/
group of L2 learners. Other suggestions have targeted task authentication, and are discussed below with a particular focus on DDL.

**DDL and authenticity**

As indicated above, using authentic texts in L2 classrooms does not simply guarantee authenticity, and this is why the authenticity of DDL has been questioned (Widdowson 2000; Mishan 2004). While traditional DDL employs authentic texts, the use of these texts in L2 classrooms can be problematic, as L2 learners may not be able to authenticate these texts; hence the importance of discourse (discussed in Section 2.2.2) and task authentication. In terms of task authenticity, learner interaction with the introduced texts and tasks has been suggested to enhance authenticating the learning process (Mishan 2005). According to Van Lier (1998, p.128), interactions should “allow learners to be perceiving, thinking, acting, and interacting persons, rather than passive receivers of knowledge”. In this regard, DDL seems to offer opportunities for such interaction, as it encourages L2 learners to engage in different learning processes, such as observing, analysing, classifying and theorising (Johns 1991a; O’Sullivan and Chambers 2006). To exploit these potentials, there is a need to “create conditions” that facilitate such interaction (Gavioli and Aston 2001, p.240; Mishan 2004, p.222). For example, Gavioli and Aston (2001) indicated that offering L2 learners a variety of texts can be helpful in the authentication process, as learners can choose the texts that they find most relevant. In addition, the introduced texts should reflect real-world issues that learners may encounter outside language classrooms (Mishan 2004; Braun 2005). Finally, it is relevant to note that these conditions can be created through careful consideration of corpus design (e.g. the inclusion of whole texts, annotation), selection of content as well as corpus exploitation—all of which may vary across different contexts. For example, adding videos to the corpus design seems to enhance discourse authentication in the case of this thesis given the multimodal nature of APs. The rest of this chapter shall consider issues related to corpus design and content.

In conclusion, this section has reviewed major relevant themes on the literature of L2 speaking pedagogy and DDL. The importance of awareness-raising activities, the consideration of discourse, and the use of authentic materials to teach L2 speaking are clearly supported by L2 research. These are the three cornerstones of the pedagogic objective of this thesis, which is to raise learner awareness of AP discourse. Having
established the groundwork of this objective, discussing how it is approached is imperative, which is the focus of the following sections.

2.3 MULTIMODAL PEDAGOGIC CORPORA

This section discusses research on multimodal corpora, specifically considering L2 pedagogic corpora. In the following, the definition of a multimodal corpus is presented, followed by a description of its associated affordances and challenges. Then, research on pedagogically relevant corpora is discussed, where issues related to corpus content and annotation are considered.

In the field of corpus linguistics, the term multimodal corpora has been used amongst other terms, such as multimodal texts (Gu 2006), multimedia corpora (Allwood 2008; Lee 2010), or visual-audio corpora (Thompson 2010), all of which have been used to refer to what can be defined as:8

… an annotated collection of coordinated content on communication channels including speech, gaze, hand gesture and body language, and is generally based on recorded human behaviour.

(Foster and Oberlander 2007, pp.307–308)

When compared to other types of corpora (e.g. spoken, written), a multimodal corpus has been described as:

… a corpus with the principal aim of making the multimodal aspect of interaction accessible for analysis. In contrast to the other types, it does not prioritize any single modality, but rather treats speech, gestures, mimics, body posture etc. as equally important aspects. In contrast to a typical spoken language corpus, a multimodal corpus will use systematic coding schemes, rather than free descriptions, to describe non-verbal behaviour.

(Schmidt et al. 2010, p.124)

The above definitions help explicate the affordances of multimodal corpora which include, most prominently, the provision of different communication modes and, therefore, the depiction of real-life communication in its “entire complexity” (Blache et al. 2009, p.38). However, these features have also been a source of major challenges to corpus compilers and developers. These challenges can be related to language data

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8 Thompson (2010) has considered two types of audio-visual corpora; whereas the first type refers to spoken corpora where audios and their transcripts are provided, the second type refers to multimodal corpora where videos and their respective transcripts are provided.
and to corpus software. Since compiling a multimodal corpus involves collecting recordings of communicative events, the collection of these recordings often requires getting access to such recordings and/or getting involved in recording the relevant communicative events, where both cases can be associated with ethical considerations, copyright restrictions, as well as data transcription (Thompson 2010) and data naturalness concerns (Knight 2011). Based on the aim of building a multimodal corpus, corpus annotation and technical requirements can vary (Thompson 2010). For example, when the purpose is to explore relationships between the non-linguistic and linguistic features of communication, there can be a need to annotate verbal (i.e. linguistic and paralinguistic properties) and non-verbal (i.e. kinesic properties) content (see Blache et al. 2009; Adolphs and Carter 2013) and to make such content searchable (e.g. Nivre et al. 1998; Carter and Adolphs 2008; Du 2012; Abuczki and Ghazaleh 2013). However, a corpus with such functions may seem too complex to be used in L2 classrooms, where such functions can be unnecessary, and where pedagogical goals should motivate the annotation process (Braun 2006; Ackerley and Coccetta 2007; Pérez-Paredes and Alcaraz-Calero 2009). Accordingly, technical challenges can vary based on annotation complexity, which is often driven by the purpose of compiling the corpus.

Despite the above-mentioned challenges, there is a number of existing multimodal corpora, such as the Scottish Corpus of Texts and Speech (SCOTS) (2001–2007), which is a four-million-word written and spoken corpus that reflects Scottish English and varieties of Scots. Of the spoken part of the corpus, 20% is supported with audio or audio-video files and transcripts that can be accessed and downloaded through a web-based interface. Similarly, TalkBank is a web-based corpus that offers the transcripts linked to their respective audios and/or videos. Other multimodal corpora have been pedagogically-oriented (e.g. Backbone) and are further discussed in the following section. In addition, the affordances of multimodal corpora have been recognised across multiple linguistic disciplines including semantics, pragmatics, stylistics (e.g. Allwood 2008; Knight 2009; Toolan 2010; McIntyre 2011; Bednarek 2015; Huang 2018) and language education (e.g. Braun 2007a; Kohn et al. 2010; Pérez-Paredes 2010), as well as disciplines beyond linguistics (Knight 2011), as can

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9 http://www.scottishcorpus.ac.uk
be observed from investigations of language-in-use in areas such as psychology (e.g. Martin et al. 2006; Rilliard et al. 2009; Sapiński and Kamińska 2015), and sociology (e.g. Carletta 2007; Georgila et al. 2010; Hiippala 2012). Considering the pedagogic focus of this thesis, the next section considers the affordances of multimodal corpora in L2 classrooms.

2.3.1 Multimodal corpora in L2 speaking classrooms

In L2 classrooms, the use of multimodal corpora may help “lead the way in bringing corpus technology and language pedagogy together” (Braun 2010, p.76). Unlike text corpora, multimodal corpora can maintain discourse authentication by presenting communicative events, particularly spoken ones, in their original form, which alleviates the concerns about discourse authentication discussed in Section 2.2.2 and 2.2.3. If spoken events are introduced as texts devoid of their original form, their context-dependent and dynamic characteristics, which owe their nature to the available different modes (e.g. the verbal and visual modes) that contributed to meaning-making (Kress and Van Leeuwen 1996, p.41), can be lost. This can cause comprehension challenges, due to the lack of contextual cues. While text transcripts may convey the verbal mode of a spoken event, its visual mode can hardly be captured. Even when employing multimodal transcripts, which are static, the dynamicity of spoken language and its overlapping modes that create meaning cannot be depicted (Ackerley and Coccetta 2007). Accordingly, transcribing spoken language may “distort” it (Mishan 2004, p.220); “even the most detailed, faithful and sympathetic transcription cannot hope to capture” the nature of spoken language (Carter 2016, p.57). Therefore, the inclusion of multimodal resources when designing pedagogic corpora helps present spoken language in its real dynamic and multimodal nature, which facilitates constructing a relevant context about the introduced communicative events by L2 learners (Braun 2005; Ackerley and Coccetta 2007). To elaborate, concordances that utilise video-text synchronisation facilitate access to the co-text (i.e. surrounding text) and context (i.e. communicative event) of the introduced spoken language, where all modes of communication, such as facial expression and gestures, can be observed (ibid.). In this sense, all modes of communication, and how they co-pattern, are considered, which offer opportunities to raise L2 learner awareness of the nature of communication (Ackerley and Coccetta 2007; Busà 2010). Furthermore, the
provision of videos in spoken corpora has contributed in offering new ways to use corpora in L2 classrooms, which may include teaching pronunciation, prosody, and register (Braun 2010). Therefore, multimodal corpora can form a functional language learning platform, provided that a few prerequisites are met. These prerequisites are elaborated in the following section where pedagogically relevant corpora are considered.

Besides its potentials in promoting pedagogic corpus design, the use of multimodal resources has been generally reported to enhance language learning (Guichon and Cohen 2016). The availability of different modes can “promote active cognitive processing in learners”, facilitate comprehension (Mayer 2009, p.22), appeal to different learning styles, and render a dynamic, flexible, and creative learning environment (Marchetti and Cullen 2016). In addition, multimodal resources are often used to offer authentic and rich input, which L2 learners are likely to find relevant, meaningful and interesting (Amine et al. 2012; Bajrami and Ismaili 2016). Such input can help introduce different aspects of the target language, including its culture (Pun 2013; Grzeszczyk 2016). Moreover, engaging L2 learners in a multimodal instruction has been found helpful in increasing learner motivation, promoting student-centred learning, and fostering learner autonomy (Hong 2012; Early et al. 2015; Lirola 2016). It has also been suggested that using multimodal resources offers opportunities for an integrated practice of the four language skills, namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Bajrami and Ismaili 2016; Grzeszczyk 2016). However, it should be noted that these benefits are yielded only when effective use of multimodal resources is employed (Guichon and McLornan 2008; Guichon and Cohen 2016), and when such resources do not substitute for the role of teachers (Pun 2013).

2.3.2 Pedagogically relevant approaches to corpus use in L2 classrooms

The existing research on corpus use in L2 classrooms is substantial, be it an indirect use, where L2 learners are offered corpus-based printed materials, such as prepared concordance print-outs (e.g. Stevens 1991; Tian 2005; Boulton 2009c; Boulton 2009b; Yoon and Jo 2014), or direct corpus use, where L2 learners themselves can have access to the corpus (e.g. Yoon and Hirvela 2004; O'Sullivan and Chambers 2006; O'Sullivan 2007; Pérez-Paredes et al. 2011; Charles 2014; Yoon and Jo 2014; Kennedy and Miceli 2017). Both types of corpus use have their drawbacks. The indirect use of a
corpus has been criticised for its limitations compared to the potentials of direct corpus access (Boulton 2010), and sometimes is viewed as incompatible with DDL (Frankenberg-Garcia 2005; Breyer 2006). As for the direct corpus use, it has been argued that its use is often associated with challenges related to effective training and technical issues which involve user-friendly software; issues that are often encountered when using existing corpora (e.g. Bernardini 2000; Gavioli and Aston 2001) as well as in-house corpora (Kennedy and Miceli 2001; Chambers and O'Sullivan 2004).

In response to the above-mentioned concerns, researchers have suggested different approaches to pedagogic corpus use (Römer 2006). Some of these attempts have been associated with the use of existing large corpora, such as the British National Corpus (BNC), the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the Compleat Lexical Tutor (Lextutor) (e.g. Gaskell and Cobb 2004; Yoon 2008; McGarrell 2015; Quinn 2015; Crosthwaite 2017), where researchers recommended using ready-made, possibly edited, concordance lines, scaffolding, and training (Riordan 2005; O'Sullivan 2006; Chang and Sun 2009; Farr et al. 2010). Other attempts have been concerned with pedagogic corpus design (e.g. Breyer 2006; Lee and Swales 2006; Braun 2007b; Charles 2007; Flowerdew 2015b)—“a corpus created not for linguistic research but specifically for language learning purposes” (Chambers 2019, p.5). For example, the inclusion of whole texts has been suggested to enhance discourse authentication, a notion that is considered essential for effective corpus use in L2 classrooms, as discussed in Section 2.2.2. Another example is the line of research on multimodal pedagogic corpora, which has introduced a number of pedagogically relevant corpora; three of which are particularly relevant to this thesis due to their pedagogical underpinnings. These three corpus projects produced both pedagogical corpora as well as corpus tools that can be used to compile pedagogic corpora. These tools were used to compile the corpus for this thesis, as is indicated in Section 3.5.1. Accordingly, these corpus projects are reviewed below.

Concerned with methodological issues associated with corpus use in L2 classrooms, three corpus projects were developed specifically catering to language teachers and learners. The first of these is the English Language Interview corpus as a Second-language Application (ELISA), which is composed of twenty-five video-recorded interviews with native speakers of English who are asked to “talk about their
professional career and their countries’ cultural and natural resources” (Braun 2007b, p.309); topics that can be relevant for secondary school students who are the target audience of the corpus (ibid.). ELISA, funded by the Lifelong Learning Programme, has been adopted and expanded into two European projects, namely the System-aided Development and Open Distribution of European Youth Language (SACODEYL) and the Backbone. These two projects are composed of a suite of corpora and a suite of corpus tools. In terms of the two suites of corpora, they were developed to provide a resource for spoken discourse for a variety of languages, including pedagogically neglected ones. The content of SACODEYL consists of seven corpora for different languages: English, French, German, Italian, Lithuanian, Romanian and Spanish. Each of these corpora contains twenty to twenty-five video-recorded interviews that focus on teenage (between thirteen and eighteen years of age) talk (Widmann et al. 2011). These interviews cover themes related to personal information, home and family, present and past living routines, hobbies and interests, holidays, school and education, job experiences, plans for the future, and open discussion topics (ibid.). Similarly, Backbone contains fifty video-recorded interviews for the English corpus and twenty-five interviews for each of the other language corpora (French, German, Polish, Spanish, Turkish and English as a Lingua Franca) (Kohn et al. 2010). These interviews are about cultural issues, the economy, the world of work, urban and rural life, social issues, health and social security, education, the environment and government and politics (ibid.). In terms of the corpus tools designed for these projects, they can be used for transcription, annotation, the management of enrichment resources and for corpus searching; these are described in detail in Section 3.5, as they have been used to compile the corpus for this thesis.

The content of the three above-mentioned corpora (i.e. ELISA, SACODYEL, and Backbone) is similar in terms of its pedagogic framework. First, these corpora adopt a small corpus approach, whereby the length of each interview ranges between ten and fifteen minutes, and the number of interviews is between twenty-five and fifty in each of these corpora. Second, the interviews are made available in video as well as text formats with video-text alignment enabled, which minimises issues related to decontextualisation. These interviews can be easily accessed in a web-based user-friendly interface, which offers five search modes, namely browse, section search, concordances, co-occurrence and lexical lists, with the following functions:
‘Browse’ displays all interviews contained in a corpus along with short descriptions. Entire interviews can be viewed, listened to and read. … ‘Section search’ presents the annotation/search category tree and is used to search for individual interview sections that comply with a specified combination of thematic and linguistic annotation categories. … ‘Co-occurrence’ lists sections that contain a number of specified words in free distribution. … ‘Concordances’ produces lines of text with keywords in context as with other KWIC concordancers. … ‘Lexical lists’ enables users to display either all occurring words or all words and phrases that have been marked by a certain annotation category.

(Kohn 2012, pp.9–13)

Moreover, the search output can be refined by using the available parameters (e.g. thematic and linguistic categories) to restrict the scope of the search output. These parameters reflect the categories of annotation created by the corpus compiler. The web page of the search output also enables the user to view the original interviews or the sections of the interviews in which individual search results appear.

Finally, ELISA, SACODYEL, and Backbone contain web-based enrichment resources, which include ready-made learning modules and activities that can be used in language classrooms or a Moodle-based e-learning environment. By “integrating the concordances with more traditional language-learning resources such as text and video” (Chambers 2010, p.352), these corpus projects offer a rich learning platform to explore spoken discourse. According to Pérez-Paredes (2010, p.55), this pedagogic approach “takes the research tools and methodology of the CL [Corpus Linguistics] research paradigm straightaway to the language classroom”. In what follows, the pedagogical framework of these projects is elaborated in relation to two themes, namely the corpus content and annotation.

**Corpus content**

Compared to L2 textbook content, corpus content may seem “messy” (Meunier 2002, p.129) and “pedagogically unwelcome” (Lorenz 2002, p.140) and, therefore, can be meaningless to L2 learners who may experience frustration when engaged with such content. Whereas L2 textbooks are organised into units that revolve around topical themes or communicative events, corpus content can be much more varied. Accordingly, it is argued that corpus content should be relevant to the needs of L2 learners and be coherent if one is to ensure the pedagogical relevancy of the corpus (Braun 2005; 2007), and possibly classified in a manner that reflects such relevance. These features are reflected in many corpus applications in published research (e.g.
Henry and Roseberry 2001; Lee and Swales 2006; Charles 2007; Chang and Schleppegrell 2011; Flowerdew 2015b; Poole 2016; Kennedy and Miceli 2017), as well as in ELISA, SACODEYL and Backbone. To illustrate, Flowerdew (2015b) reported involving postgraduate science and engineering students in corpus activities to respond to their needs that are related to writing the discussion section of their theses. Based on such needs, Flowerdew used a corpus that contains engineering and applied science research articles, and that can be searched by section (e.g. introduction, literature review, discussion) and by discipline. In Flowerdew’s example, relevance and coherence are reflected in restricting the search results to include parts from a given discipline or section. This seems in line with Braun’s (2005, pp.53–56) suggestion that coherence should regard “intertextual coherence” (i.e. interviewees’ professional career). While Braun achieved coherence in ELISA through one “common overall theme” of all corpus texts (ibid.), Flowerdew’s type of coherence is related to a particular section (i.e. discussion) in a particular genre (i.e. theses). This difference can be attributed to the targeted users of each corpus. The ELISA corpus was developed to integrate corpora in secondary education, where thematic coherence around professional careers can be relevant in language classrooms. However, genre features and rhetorical functions were relevant to the needs of the postgraduates in Flowerdew’s study.

In addition, issues of corpus size are relevant to pedagogic use of corpora. Researchers (Aston 1997; Gavioli and Aston 2001; Tribble 2002, p.54; Flowerdew 2004; Braun 2005; Murphy and Riordan 2016) have indicated that while large corpora are valuable for linguistic research on areas such as lexicography, they may not be as valuable for pedagogical use in language classrooms, where “the virtues of large corpora seem less readily apparent” (Aston 1997, p.54). Given their limited content, smaller corpora can facilitate training L2 learners who may gradually move to larger corpora (Aston 1997), and can be useful for providing rich input when investigating a particular area of language, as in the case of specialised corpora. In English for Academic Purposes (EAP)/ESP classrooms, for instance, large corpora may provide “too much data across too large a spectrum or too little focused data to be directly helpful with EAP” (Tribble 2002, p.132). Smaller corpora, on the other hand, can offer language input that is directly relevant to the learning context (Flowerdew 2004). In addition, smaller corpora may better align with pedagogical principles discussed earlier in this chapter.
The need for homogenous and coherent content, as well as the use of discourse-based approach impose restrictions on corpus size (Braun 2005). Nonetheless, small corpora also have their limitations. For example, Gavioli (2002) noted that small corpora may not be useful for offering sufficient examples of language data necessary to foster confident linguistic hypotheses. She maintained, however, that teaching needs, which are often specific, entail providing limited and controlled input and, therefore, may contradict the use of large corpora in language classrooms. A practical approach that may resolve the identified contradiction involves the use of small corpora in the language classrooms; then, as needed, language teachers may retrieve concordance lines from a larger corpus to provide adequate examples of a certain language pattern. (See also Section 2.4.2.)

**Annotation**

Similar to corpus content, corpus annotation should align with the proposed recommendations concomitant to designing a pedagogically-motivated corpus. This implies that linguistic annotation tools and conventions that are geared into linguistic investigations, which may involve the need for syntactic, morphological or semantic annotations (e.g. lemmas, parts of speech, parse trees, word-sense disambiguation), may not be well suited for pedagogical corpora. Emphasising the importance of annotation with respect to pedagogic relevancy, Pérez-Paredes and Alcaraz-Calero (2009, p.58) noted that annotation can help in the “process of normalizing the use of corpora in the language classroom”. Annotating a corpus is both a process and a product (ibid.), as it were. As a process, annotation entails adding descriptions to the corpus content based on criteria relevant to corpus users, which sometimes requires the analysis of language data. As a product, annotation enriches the content of a corpus by providing a brief overview of individual texts or videos and facilitates efficient data retrieval by offering options that help corpus users narrow the scope of their queries (ibid.; Kohn 2012). In this sense, annotations are created to serve a pre-identified purpose; therefore, careful considerations should be given to the intended purpose of creating a corpus, and its intended users when making decisions regarding annotation, which explains Pérez-Paredes’ and Alcaraz-Calero’s emphasis on annotation.

In terms of annotation, what is unique about the ELISA, SACODEYL and Backbone corpora is their pedagogic approach. For example, a brief description of each interview
is provided to familiarise corpus users with the corpus content, which enhances the authentication process. In addition, annotations are based on thematic (e.g. environment, education, healthcare) as well as communicative functions (e.g. introducing oneself) and grammar (e.g. tenses, modals, conditionals). In this sense, annotation can be a form of input enhancement (Sharwood Smith 1993), referred to in Section 2.2.1, that facilitates awareness raising. In addition, this type of annotation allows users to retrieve multiple texts of similar communicative functions or themes, which provides focused and rich language input. This approach to annotation is also similar to what has been adopted by researchers endorsing the discourse-based corpus-use discussed in Section 2.2.2, as is also indicated in the example of Flowerdew’s (2015b) study, discussed in the previous section.

To summarise, the section offers an overview of multimodal corpora with respect to the benefits and challenges associated with their use in language classrooms. In addition, issues related to the content and annotation of corpora are discussed largely in reference to ELISA, SACODEYL and Backbone due to their pedagogical premises. The following section considers TED Talks, where it can be seen that their use may alleviate the difficulties associated with compiling multimodal corpora, particularly in terms of data collection and transcription.

2.4 TED TALKS: ESL/EFL PERSPECTIVES

This section deals with relevant research on TED Talks. It starts with an overview of TED Talks, which offers a rationale for utilising this resource in L2 classrooms. This is followed by a discussion of corpus-based research on TED Talks, specifically to elaborate on whether TED Talks can be described as academic. Finally, research on TED Talks use in L2 classrooms is discussed in order to highlight its associated benefits and challenges.

2.4.1 Overview of TED Talks

TED is a non-profit, non-partisan, and non-commercial organisation that aims to spread ideas through short talks of various lengths. It started in 1984 as a conference that merged Technology, Entertainment and Design, and hence the acronym TED. Since 2006, TED started sharing these talks publicly and online on TED.com under
the Creative Commons license, which enables the free utilisation and distribution of
the shared talks without alteration and for non-commercial purposes, provided that
they are being attributed to TED. The talks cover a wide array of interests, including
science, technology, humanities, business and global issues, and are delivered by the
world’s most inspired thinkers (native and non-native speakers of English). These
talks are also available for free with English transcripts and subtitles for over forty
languages (TED.com).

Compared to other potential choices that can be exploited in AP classrooms, TED
Talks offer full access to transcripts and videos that fit the classroom environment
particularly well, as in the context of this research, due to their short length and varied
content. By way of example, while the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English
(MICASE)\(^{10}\) includes a collection of student presentations, only transcripts are made
available, and the recording length of these presentations range from 32 to 155
minutes, which can be too long given the constrains of classroom time. As suggested
by Coxhead and Walls (2012), teachers often opt for six-minute long videos. (See
Section 3.5.2.) Similarly, the lectures offered by Open Yale Courses\(^{11}\) are too long for
a classroom environment despite their available videos and searchable transcripts. In
addition, these lectures provide discipline-specific content such as Frontiers of
Biomedical Engineering, Financial Markets, and Introduction to Theory of Literature,
which cover issues related to the concepts of biomedical engineering and their relation
to the human activity, theory of finance and its connection with history, and main
trends in twentieth-century literary theory, respectively. Such content may not be
suitable for the target group of this research (see Section 3.4) who were first year
university students enrolled in the preparatory programme and who demonstrated
interests in specific academic disciplines (e.g. medicine, sciences, arts, law), as shown
in Section 4.2.2, but had not been enrolled in these disciplines at the time of the study.
In contrast, the content offered by TED Talks is targeted to general audience who may
lack discipline-specific knowledge, as is the case of the target group of this research.
(See also Section 2.4.2 and 2.4.3 for the value of TED Talks in AP classrooms, Section

\(^{10}\) https://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/c/corpus/corpus?c=micase;page=simple

\(^{11}\) https://oyc.yale.edu/courses
In view of the above-described features of TED Talks, one can observe that the online access to these talks, along with the readily available transcripts, supports emplacing TED as a practical resource to L2 teachers and learners. In addition, these features alleviate some challenges associated with compiling multimodal corpora, such as recording videos of communicative situations and transcription, as is discussed in Section 2.3.1. Moreover, these talks were scripted “without second language learners in mind” and are therefore authentic (Nurmukhamedov and Sadler 2011, p.187), which is in line with the proposed recommendations of DDL and L2 speaking pedagogy, as is discussed in Section 2.2. Such authentic meaningful content that offers opportunities for lifelong learning (DaVia Rubenstein 2012; Banker and Gournelos 2013) makes a useful pedagogic L2 resource. However, such content also raises the question of whether TED Talks can be helpful in serving L2 pedagogical goals, which has been investigated through corpus-based analysis of TED Talks as well as their use in L2 classrooms—both of which are discussed below.

### 2.4.2 Corpus-based analysis of TED Talks

This section considers corpus-based analysis of TED Talks to determine their relevance to language classrooms. This line of research has investigated several aspects of TED Talks, such as their rhetorical structures, and whether these talks are considered academic.

One aspect of TED Talks that has been explored is their rhetorical structures. For example, Chang and Huang (2015) compiled a corpus of fifty-eight TED Talks and utilised Swales’ (1990) approach to genre analysis—which is referred to in Section 2.2.2—to analyse TED Talks’ rhetorical structures. The researchers reported that TED Talks exhibit predictable obligatory and non-obligatory communicative functions (i.e. moves) in the introduction, main body and conclusion sections while they also share the “inherent flexibility of [other] speech genres” (Rowley-Jolivet and Carter-Thomass 2005, p.56). Accordingly, Chang and Huang suggested that TED Talks can be a valuable resource to assist L2 learners develop “a more realistic and nuanced understanding of the genre” (p. 51). In their analysis, Chang and Huang identified
seven major discourse moves and their respective component steps that are associated with the different sections (i.e. introduction, main body, conclusion) of TED Talks; Table 2–1 presents these moves, which had been useful in informing the course plan involved in this thesis, as is described in more detail in Section 3.6.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Main body</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Obligatory</strong></td>
<td>– Topic introduction</td>
<td>– Topic development</td>
<td>– Acknowledgments/gratitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Closure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Concluding messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non-Obligatory</strong></td>
<td>– Speaker presentation</td>
<td>– Speaker presentation</td>
<td>– Speaker presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Listener orientation</td>
<td>– Listener orientation</td>
<td>– Listener orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Topic development</td>
<td>– Topic introduction</td>
<td>– Topic development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Acknowledgements</td>
<td>– Concluding messages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2–1: Move in the introduction, main body and conclusion of TED Talks

Recently, Uicheng and Crabtree (2018, p.1) explored the use of macro discourse markers in TED Talks, with a particular focus on how TED speakers “signal ideas to listeners”. The researchers compiled a list of common patterns that seem to fit into the discourse moves identified by Chang and Huang (2015). Examples of these patterns include:

– And today the idea behind this speech
– The idea I want to leave you with it
– So picture that for a moment
– I want you to first imagine

Uicheng and Crabtree concluded that the use of these discourse markers can help L2 learners to “express ideas more clearly and effectively” (p. 27), which can be in line with Aston’s (2015) emphasis on learning phraseology that is discussed next.

According to Aston (2015), learning spoken phraseology (fixed multi-word sequences) is important for L2 learners due to its role in articulating ideas and promoting fluency. Therefore, he compiled and analysed a corpus of 500 TED Talks using WordSmith Tools (Scott 2012) to provide examples of such phraseological items (e.g. ‘by the way’, ‘this is what it looks like’). Aston concluded by suggesting
some activities that can be used with L2 learners and that can enhance their phraseological awareness. In this regard, a relevant example of a DDL activity that may promote phraseological awareness can be the phrase-hunting and phrase-refining approach proposed by Kennedy and Miceli (2010; 2017), discussed in Section 2.2.1.

While beyond the scope of this thesis, there are several other corpus-based investigations on TED Talks that are worthy of recognition. For example, Caliendo and Compagnone (2014) conducted a corpus-based analysis of the use of the most recurrent epistemic lexical verbs (i.e. see, show, know, think) and compared the discourse functions associated with these verbs in a compiled TED corpus and lecture corpus retrieved from MICASE. Among the reported findings is that the verb ‘see’ is often used as a verb of cognition in the MICASE, and as a verb of sensory perception in TED Talks which reflect the multimodal nature of the genre. This can be attributed to the fact that MICASE covers a time span of four years (1998–2001), while the TED corpus covers ten years (2002–2012). The updated talks on the website can make a useful resource for language classrooms. In addition, Compagnone (2015; 2016) compared the use of the pronouns ‘we’ and ‘I’ and their associated communicative functions in TED Talks and MICASE lectures. The researcher reported that while ‘we’ is used more often in TED Talks, and its use is associated with the communicative function of promoting the presenter’s affiliation as well as the research community. It is also noted that these features are in line with the conventions nowadays, where popularisation of science is encouraged (ibid.), which can be seen reflected in a few practices adopted by universities, such as three-minute presentations (Hu and Liu 2018). According to Scotto di Carlo (2014; 2015a; 2015b; 2018), TED Talks exhibit different features (e.g. use of ethos, pathos, and logos) that help in reducing the gap between scientists and audiences, which facilitate the process of popularising important issues, as suggested by Mattiello (2017). Along with these features, TED Talks exhibit some academic vocabulary that can form a valuable resource in L2 classrooms, as is discussed below.

**How academic are TED Talks?**

To answer the above-stated question, several researchers have estimated the academic vocabulary coverage of TED Talks using the Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead 2000). The AWL includes 570-word families and is based on a 3.5-million-word
corpus of written academic texts. The AWL has also been reported to account for approximately 10% (Coxhead 2000; Hyland and Tse 2007; Vongpumivitch et al. 2009) of academic written texts. Compared to academic texts, TED Talks have been found to cover 5% (Nurmukhamedov and Sadler 2011), 3.9% (Coxhead and Walls 2012), and 3.7% (Wolfe 2015) of the AWL, which is less than or half the AWL coverage over written academic texts. Two observations can be made regarding these results. First, the variations among the results related to TED Talks can be attributed to the different approaches to compiling the TED corpus in each study, as is demonstrated in Table 2–2. Second, the AWL was compiled based on academic written texts and, therefore, one may argue that the AWL does not account for possible differences between spoken and written academic English (e.g. Biber 1988; Biber et al. 2002), as was similarly questioned by Coxhead himself:

Does the AWL, which is based on written academic English, account for spoken academic English, or is this a completely separate genre that needs its own academic word list?

(Coxhead 2000, p.229)

Attempting to answer Coxhead’s question, Shaffer (2004) compiled a corpus of lectures, seminars, and colloquiums retrieved from the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) and estimated the AWL vocabulary coverage over the corpus. The analysis revealed that AWL accounted for 3.7% coverage of Shaffer’s corpus, which is approximately similar to the percentages (reported above) associated with TED Talks. This may imply that TED Talks are nearly as academic as other spoken academic genres.

Recently, Wingrove (2017) used the Academic Vocabulary List (AVL) (Gardner and Davies 2014) in order to determine the extent to which TED Talks can be considered academic. The AVL contains the 3,000 most frequent academic words in a 120-million-word corpus retrieved from the written academic portion of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), which is a larger corpus than the one used to develop the AWL. According to Wingrove (2017), the AVL may be considered more representative than the AWL. Therefore, he utilised the AVL to compare its coverage over a TED corpus and a lecture (retrieved from the online Yale lecture series) corpus; Table 2–2 presents more details about the two corpora. Results showed that the lecture corpus had a higher percentage, at mean percentages of 5.64–7.0, of the core AVL (the top 500) words than the TED corpus, which showed averages of
3.70–5.70% coverage of the AVL. In addition, Wingrove indicated that some individual TED Talks presented 10% coverage of the AVL, a higher percentage of coverage than found in some individual lectures from the other corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Studies</th>
<th>Corpus details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nurmukhamedov and Sadler (2011)</td>
<td>A 221-word excerpt retrieved from Ken Robinson’ TED Talk (Schools kill Creativity).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coxhead and Walls (2012)</td>
<td>A 43656-word corpus composed of sixty TED Talks. The topics of these talks are business, design, entertainment, global issues, science, and technology, with ten talks in each topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wolfe (2015)</td>
<td>A 3,868,390-word corpus, which includes all TED Talks (N=1,790) from June 2006, when TED Talks went online, to December 31, 2014.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wingrove (2017)</td>
<td>The TED corpus consisted of sixty TED Talks on technology, entertainment and design, and the lecture corpus was composed of 221 lectures on humanities, 291 lectures on Natural Sciences, and 217 lectures on Social Sciences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2–2: Information about the corpora utilised to explore the academic discourse of TED Talks

Taken together, these results suggest that TED includes talks that vary in how academic they can be considered. Still, however, 3.7% of vocabulary coverage is “a significant amount of coverage to be provided by 570 word families” (Shaffer 2004, p.113). Therefore, the academic vocabulary available in TED Talks remains a valuable resource for L2 classrooms. Language teachers can select the talks that they find more relevant to students’ needs and the learning context. For this, they may use tools such as the VocabProfiler to determine the appropriateness of the talks for a given context (Nurmukhamedov and Sadler 2011). A similar approach was taken in this thesis, as is demonstrated in Section 3.5.3.

Available TED Talks corpora

There are several existing endeavours to compile corpora of TED Talks. For example, the Web Inventory of Transcribed and Translated Talks (WIT3), which has been compiled to be used as a multilingual corpus and as a benchmark for the Machine Translation research community (Cettolo et al. 2012). Another TED talks corpus is the TED-LIUM project, which is used as a database for performing tasks related to automatic speech recognition (Rousseau et al. 2014). A third corpus is the NAIST-NTT TED Talk Treebank (Neubig et al. 2014), which is a manually-annotated
syntactic parsing resource that can be used for investigating the interaction between syntax and speech applications (e.g. speech translation). These projects are more oriented for natural language processing tasks than for linguistic analyses and, accordingly, do not provide an interface for text search, and therefore may not be relevant to L2 classrooms.

While the above-mentioned corpora have been developed for purposes related to natural language processing, the TED Corpus Search Engine (TCSE) is more oriented for linguistic analysis and can be relevant to language classrooms as well (Hasebe 2015). The TCSE search engine employs advanced search syntax, such as lemmas, parts of speech, logical disjunctions, and wild cards. The user interface of this corpus allows users to search the transcripts of TED Talks and their translations. Transcripts are also aligned with the videos. TCSE was initially released in 2014 and is being continuously updated and improved. In November 2017, for example, Hasebe added two functions: N-gram and Const, with the latter referring to a list of phrases or ‘constructions’ (e.g. ‘a variety of’, ‘to say the least’) that are found in the corpus. While the TCSE can be a valuable resource for language teachers and learners, it includes many TED Talks that vary across different criteria, such as length, discipline, and difficulty. Therefore, it can be more suitable for advanced learners or for teachers who can use it to develop corpus-based activities. This corpus may also supplement the use of a smaller TED Talks corpus; as suggested in Section 2.3.2, while small corpora better align with the specific needs of language teaching, it might be useful to retrieve concordance lines from a larger corpus to provide L2 learners with sufficient examples of specific language patterns, as needed.

2.4.3 TED Talks in ESL/EFL classrooms

Besides their use in a number of corpus-based studies for different linguistic and pedagogic purposes, TED Talks have been used as a resource in language classrooms to improve different aspects of language competency. For example, researchers reported the use of TED Talks to improve listening comprehension in English classrooms (Park and Cha 2013; Takaesu 2013; Coxhead and Bytheway 2014; Elk 2014; Richards 2015). While the results indicated the potentials of TED Talks to provide rich language input inside and beyond classrooms, the researchers emphasised the role of selecting talks that are appropriate to the given learning context in terms of
length and difficulty (ibid.). The role of scaffolding was also highlighted, especially when working with lower-proficiency students (ibid.). The rich and varied input provided by TED Talks encourages their use in order to motivate classroom discussion—in contexts beyond EFL/ESL classrooms—among family medicine residents (Nicolle et al. 2014) and students in a social work classroom (Loya and Klemm 2016). In addition, TED Talks are suggested to be useful for developing critical thinking skills (Fogal et al. 2014; Brown 2015) and multicultural competence (Lin and Wang 2018). Brown (2015, p.29), however, noted that teaching methods should “move beyond merely teaching concepts, vocabulary, and grammar” in order to exploit TED Talks effectively, and integrated tasks should allow L2 learners to be engaged “in a way that requires a deeper processing of the content” (ibid.). In this regard, DDL tasks may be useful as they can offer opportunities for engaging L2 learners with TED Talks using different strategies, such as analysing, observing and inferring.

More importantly, TED Talks have been utilised as a resource to teach APs. Researchers indicated that students found TED Talks interesting and motivating (Leopold 2016; Li et al. 2016; Hayward 2017), and specifically meeting their needs and interests (Lee et al. 2018). Particularly serving as speech models, which is similar to the case of this thesis, TED Talks were found useful in demonstrating how speakers support their ideas, attract and persuade audiences (Kedrowicz and Taylor 2016; Leopold 2016), in improving pronunciation, in encouraging independent learning as TED can be freely accessed online (Lee et al. 2018), and in raising awareness about issues related to body language (Li et al. 2016; Pinar and Pallejá 2018). Researchers have also reported challenges that can be associated with using TED Talks in L2 classrooms, which can be due to the fact that these talks represent a broad range of topics and difficulty levels. Therefore, these challenges can be minimised through careful selection of the introduced TED Talks to a specific classroom context, as is also indicated earlier in this section.

Overall, this section has provided a review of TED Talks and the potentials and appropriacy for their use in L2 classrooms. It is also indicated that they have been reported to be a valuable resource for AP classrooms, particularly when considering the lack of adequate resources for teaching the discourse of APs, as is discussed below.
2.5 ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS

This section reviews the research on teaching the discourse of APs. Before reviewing this research, the definitions, functions, and features of APs are presented; this helps provide the rationale for the suggested approaches to teaching this genre.

2.5.1 Academic presentations: ESL/EFL perspectives

Academic presentations can take different forms and can be directed at several audience groups; nevertheless, there are common characteristics that describe this genre. Few researchers have attempted to define APs based on their common features. For example, Ming (2005, p.118) defined an oral presentation as

… typically a partly spoken, partly visual form of communication which is designed to inform or persuade, and occurs in organizational settings. Time is normally limited.

(Ming 2005, p.118)

A successful oral presentation, according to Ming, is carefully structured, supported with visual aids and delivered clearly and confidently. Defining presentations delivered by undergraduates, Kaur and Ali (2017, p.152) stated that a presentation “for undergraduates is a classroom genre where students are expected to display their knowledge of the discipline as expected by the discourse community”. For this thesis, both definitions are relevant, given its context (i.e. university) and its participants (i.e. undergraduates). There is no doubt, however, that these definitions do not provide much help in clarifying the unique features pertinent to this genre. To identify these features, it is useful to first illustrate the categories and functions of speech events.

According to Jones (1996), speaking can be categorised as talk as a process or talk as a performance, where the process refers to talks being jointly constructed, such as discussions and readers’ circles, and the performance represents talks enacted before audiences, such as speeches, oral presentations, and storytelling. Function-wise, speaking serves two basic functions: interactional (i.e. interpersonal) and transactional (i.e. pragmatic) (Brown and Yule 1983; Thornbury 2005). While the former refers to speech acts intended for socialising, such as small talk, the latter involves conveying information in speech events, such as news broadcasts. Speakers’ turns are often short and unplanned in interactional speech (Richards 1990; Dornyei and Thurrell 1994).
and tend to be long with prior content organisation in transactional speech (Basturkmen 2002). While these classifications are useful for pedagogical purposes, the functions are often combined; that is, business meetings may involve interactional elements that are constrained by the overall purpose of the talks (Burns 2012). Similarly, conversations between friends may contain transactional aspects, such as enquiring about a technical matter or the price of an item (ibid.). However, the above distinction can be helpful for the selection of appropriate teaching approaches as different speech acts may require different teaching methods (Richards 2008).

As a form of talk as a performance, APs tend to be monologic\(^\text{12}\) and are often assessed by their impact on listeners (Jones 1996; Zareva 2009; Barrett and Liu 2016). Consideration is, therefore, given to both the meaning and form as well as the audience (Richards 2008). Generally, transactional functions\(^\text{13}\) of language are predominant in APs, where speakers tend to “avoid repetition… [and] use vocabulary specific to the topic” (Jones 1996, p.28). More contextual support is also provided in comparison with interactional speech. Furthermore, APs “often have identifiable generic structures and the language used is […] predictable” (Jones 1996, p.14). In fact, talks as performance could be completely scripted (Thornbury 2005). This means that APs exhibit some features that are inherent in the written language. Talks as performance can “be positioned towards the most written-like end of the continuum” (Jones 1996, p.14).

This written-like aspect of APs influences the way in which this genre is taught:

Initially talk as performance needs to be prepared for and scaffolded in much the same way as written text, and many of the teaching strategies used to make understandings of written text accessible can be applied to the formal uses of spoken language’.

(Jones 1996, p.17)

Jones interpreted his statement by demonstrating how utilising a speech model can be helpful in this case. The model can then be analysed or ‘deconstructed’ by L2 students. The instructor can guide them through a set of questions that help explore the context of the model (e.g. ‘What is the purpose of this text? What is it trying to do? What is it

\(^{12}\) Note that some academic presentations can also be interactive (Zareva 2009; Godó 2012).

\(^{13}\) Some researchers (e.g. Richards 2008) have distinguished between talks as transactions and talks as performance. In this thesis, a transaction is considered a function, rather than a category, of speech.
about? Who is the intended audience?’) and its discourse (e.g. ‘What shape or structure does this text have? What does each part do? What sort of language is found in each part? What words related to the topic are used? What sort of relationship is there between the speaker and the listener or audience?’). After analysing the model, Jones recommended that students attempt to construct, in groups and individually, their speech. Similarly, Richards (2008) suggested that Feez and Joyce’s (1998) approach to text-based instruction offers a good model for teaching APs, which is referred to earlier in Section 2.2.2. It is clear that these proposed teaching guidelines are in line with the DDL as it is embraced in Johns’ (1991a) inductive approach and McCarthy and Carter’s (1995) ‘Three Is’. To clarify, all these approaches underpin the importance of establishing the context, engaging learners in awareness-raising activities (e.g. analysing texts and observing language features and their communicative functions), and utilising authentic materials.

**Linguistic challenges faced by EFL learners of Arabic background**

While beyond the scope of this thesis, there is an interesting strand of research that suggests some of the linguistic challenges faced by EFL learners of Arabic background. Such research has been found to be context-specific (e.g. Al-Saidat 2010; Alahmadi 2014; Ababneh 2018) or focused on general communication skills (e.g. Mukattash 1983; Rabab'ah 2003; Val Barros 2003), indicating a lack of sufficient research that specifically considers linguistic challenges in relation to APs. For example, Al-Saidat (2010) suggested that Jordanian learners face challenges related to pronouncing English constant clusters in words such as ‘splash’, ‘screen’, and ‘developed’. In another study, Val Barros (2003) noted that Arab EFL learners from varied Arabic countries (e.g. Egypt, KSA and Kuwait) face pronunciation challenges related to intonation and stress and due to the differences in pronunciation between English and Arabic. Likewise, Ababneh (2018, p.244) explored pronunciation challenges faced by EFL learners from KSA, and the results suggested that these challenges involved “vowel insertion and confusion, orthography, stress, intonation”.

At the level of syntax, Alahmadi (2014) suggested a number of common speech errors that Saudi students commit while communicating in English, including errors with singular nouns, misuse of verb tenses, misuse of articles, misuse of preposition, unmarked form of verbs, and use of sentences without verbs. In addition, it has been indicated that Arab students generally face challenges in “expressing themselves
contentedly and competently either when faced with scholarly subjects or usual everyday issues” (Mukattash 1983, cited in Rabab'ah 2003, p.183). This seems to align with the research problem introduced in Sections 1.2 and 1.4, which identifies the lack of exposure to academic spoken discourse and the lack of available resources as two challenges related to EFL learners’ AP skills. It is also believed that the proposed approach (as suggested in this chapter and outlined in Chapter 3) can offer opportunities of exposure to, and exploration of, AP discourse. Having reviewed research on linguistic challenges faced by Arab EFL learners, it should be acknowledged that the implemented approach in this thesis did not attempt to address specific linguistic challenges or features, but rather focused on introducing rhetorical structure and common functions of AP discourse, and how such functions can be conveyed through engaging the participants in raising-awareness activities that allowed them to observe and reflect on APs delivered by expert speakers. (For further details about the implemented approach, see Sections 2.4.2, 3.5.3, 3.6.3. See also Section 2.2.1 for the definition of awareness-raising as defined in the context of this research.) In what follows, classroom-based applications of approaches (reported above) to teaching the discourse of APs in L2 classrooms, along with the associated benefits and practical challenges, are discussed.

2.5.2 Teaching the discourse of academic presentations: practical considerations

Despite the limited amount of research on teaching the discourse of APs, current research provides valuable insights into this practice by demonstrating relevant classroom-based applications and highlighting its benefits as well as practical challenges.

Exploring the structure of lessons and/or tasks within classroom-based applications of teaching AP discourse can offer insights about how they can be integrated into language classrooms. Generally, lessons and/or tasks were found thematically structured based on the communicative functions of APs or based on their different structural sections, which is in line with the ESP and Sydney schools to genre analysis that are discussed earlier in this chapter (Section 2.2.2). Of the first type is Basturkmen’s (2002) approach to teaching the discourse of three communicative functions (i.e. asking for clarification, agreeing and disagreeing) that are common in the question session following a presentation, where she used speech excerpts that
demonstrate the different types of communicative functions, and asked students to identify the linguistic representation of these functions. Similarly, Leopold (2016) introduced excerpts that show how speakers present different types of support (e.g. definitions, quotations, vivid imagery, visualisation, demonstrations, narratives, analogies, and statistics) in their presentations. In terms of the second type, researchers involved L2 learners in tasks where they analysed the whole speech model, starting with the larger structural moves (i.e. introduction, main body, and conclusion), and then identifying their rhetorical functions (Fellner 2011; Huang and Chang 2015). Fellner (2011, p.15) structured the lessons based on structural moves and this allowed for gradual and cyclical use of teacher modelling and practice, through which participants were asked to deliver three presentations of “increasing length, complexity, and content depth”. This can be in line with the process approach; the predictable and written-like nature of APs allows for the sequential planning, reflection and discussion that are inherent to the process approach. As for Huang and Chang, they developed a self-directed learning platform which contained fifty-eight speech models. Students were expected to analyse these models using a tagging framework of a three-layer drop-down menu, where the first layer consisted of larger structural moves, the second considered rhetorical functions (e.g. greeting, indicating the speech purpose), and the third involved pragmatic strategies (e.g. hedging, boasting, irony). The researchers indicated that participants were frustrated by the tagging framework and recommended that tagging should be more flexible. Participants’ needs for the flexible tagging framework can be related to the loose structure of the spoken discourse, which highlights Swales’ (2002b) recommendation regarding adapting a too rigid framework of rhetorical move structure analysis should be avoided, as discussed in Section 2.2.2.

Furthermore, it is relevant to discuss how authenticity has been embraced in classroom-based applications of teaching AP discourse, which can also inform future classroom material design. It is clear that researchers have made deliberate attempts to incorporate authentic language materials by using tools such as audio recordings (Basturkmen 2002), videos and their corresponding transcripts (Busà 2010; Fellner 2011; Leopold 2016), web-based courses (Tsai 2010; Tsai 2011; Huang and Chang 2015) and other different types of media, such as pictures and digital slides (Busà 2010). The authentic materials were retrieved from the Internet from websites,
including TED Talks (Busà 2010; Chang and Huang 2015; Leopold 2016) and YouTube (Busà 2010). Sometimes researchers relied on their own expertise to develop appropriate materials for their students given the lack of existing suitable ones (Fellner 2011). Other forms of authenticity that can be found in classroom-based applications of teaching AP discourse include task authenticity, which has been achieved through activities that mimic students’ experiences while preparing for APs. For example, Cheong (2014) involved participants in a task where they read a text and then summarised it orally. This task can reflect the real experiences of ESL/EFL students; when preparing an AP, students normally read about a topic before thinking about ways to deliver it orally. Introducing strategies and/or features that can aid in the process of paraphrasing written text as speech could seem appealing to ESL/EFL students. It is assumed that learners would appreciate the instruction when they acknowledge its relevance to their needs. Another example of task relevancy can be found in a context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), where the researcher considered the research (e.g. engineering, science) areas of the participants and introduced relevant language materials and tasks (Fellner 2011).

In order to realise the effectiveness of teaching AP discourse in language classrooms, it is important to consider the benefits associated with this practice. According to Basturkmen (2002), involving L2 learners in activities where they observe and analyse authentic speech models can help raise learner awareness about indirect language use (e.g. the use of ‘It may be the case that’ to indicate hedging) as students often tend to mainly observe direct language use (e.g. the use of ‘maybe’ to indicate hedging). In terms of significant learning gains, the results have shown that teaching AP discourse often leads to increased use of expressions that convey common communicative functions in APs. For example, Cheong (2014) reported a significant increase in the participants’ use of the introduced language forms in the post-test. Similarly, Leopold (2016) noticed an improvement in the participants’ use of support during their presentations. However, Cheong (2014) indicated that students’ increased use of the introduced features may not necessarily imply improved performance. Concerned with the overall improved performance, Fellner (2011) indicated that there was a progressive increase in participants’ average scores, which showed that the participants’ presentation skills steadily improved. Furthermore, Busà (2010, p.63)
found that teaching the discourse of AP was “extremely effective” in raising participants’ awareness about English communication.

Despite the above-mentioned benefits, teaching AP discourse also presents practical challenges. One of the often-cited challenges is the lack of appropriate language materials for teaching AP discourse (Fellner 2011; Chang and Huang 2015; Barrett and Liu 2016). Researchers described available guidelines and materials as “largely prescriptive” (Zareva 2011, p.6), “too cause- and context-specific” (Chang and Huang 2015, p.30) and “too simplistic” (Fellner 2011, p.10) to be adapted for classroom instruction. This is why researchers utilised TED Talks, which have been found to offer rich input for teaching AP. However, using TED Talks is not without limitations, as is indicated in Section 2.4.3. Another challenge is the time-consuming nature of teaching AP discourse (Huang and Chang 2015; Barrett and Liu 2016), particularly when it is combined with practical constraints, such as insufficient length of class time.

In conclusion, this section discusses the approaches to teaching the discourse of APs in L2 language classrooms, along with its associated benefits and challenges. A lack of adequate language materials for teaching the discourse of APs has been identified. In this regard, recent research has suggested that using TED Talks can be useful in offering authentic speech models. The availability of TED Talks in video and text formats captures the multimodal nature of APs and facilitates in-depth explorations of their features. For this, whereas TED Talks provide the content, multimodal corpora offer the medium. Although one may argue that TED Talks can differ from APs in their purposes and audience, the justification for their use can stem from the, as suggested by Chang and Huang (2015), similarities of rhetorical functions among APs and TED Talks. It has also been suggested that analogue corpora can be a valuable resource for awareness raising when exemplar ones are difficult to compile (Tribble 2014; Flowerdew 2015b). As L2 research on multimodal corpora, TED Talks and APs has been considered, the rest of the chapter focuses on research on L2 learner attitudes towards corpus use.

However, it may be useful to reiterate how the different themes discussed in this chapter (awareness-raising, language discourse, authenticity, multimodal corpora, TED Talks, academic presentations and learner attitude towards corpus use) are intertwined in the context of this research, before approaching the next section. This
research is motivated by a pedagogical objective related to raising awareness of AP discourse, whereon the pedagogical approach (corpus compilation and implementation) was founded. At the beginning of this chapter, this pedagogical objective was deconstructed by discussing the three notions that support it, namely awareness-raising, language discourse and authenticity. The value of this discussion is to manifest the reasonings behind the implemented approach in this research, particularly in terms of how DDL is in line with L2 speaking pedagogy (see Section 2.5), of which APs are a part. To illustrate, DDL is one type of awareness-raising tasks. (See Section 2.2.1 for a discussion on DDL and awareness-raising.) The role of awareness-raising in enhancing language learning has been highlighted. (See Section 2.2.1 for a discussion on awareness-raising and language learning.) Awareness-raising at the level of discourse can help L2 learners develop effective communication skills. (See Section 2.2.2 for a discussion on language discourse and language learning.) For this, authenticity should be considered as a multifaceted notion that is related to texts, learner interpretation of texts and to integrated tasks; all of which has relevant pedagogical implications. (See Section 2.2.3 for a discussion on authenticity, its implication in the context of this research and DDL.) Furthermore, this discussion offers opportunities to review a number of arguments associated with DDL-based classroom applications that help inform decisions related to corpus design (e.g. inclusion of full texts and videos) and implementation (e.g. scaffolding and combining discourse-based and corpus-based approaches). Following this discussion, research on multimodal corpora, TED Talks and academic presentations is reviewed in order to inform the proposed approach (i.e. MCOTT compilation and implementation) and to situate it in its relevant scholarly context. For example, the role of corpus annotation in integrating corpus use in L2 classrooms has been highlighted. (See Section 2.3.2.) In addition, challenges associated with TED Talks in L2 classrooms and how such challenges can be resolved have been reviewed. (See Section 2.4.3.) What the above intertwined relationships illustrate is that the discussion of these themes are imperative to inform the compilation and implementation of MCOTT, which represent the first aim of the thesis, as can be seen in Sections 3.5 and 3.6.3. The second aim of this research is related to investigating the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT—hence, the importance of the following section on learner attitude towards corpus use, which helps guide the design of the methods of data collection, as discussed in Section 3.7. The focus on attitudes here is particularly due to the exploratory nature of the
research as well as the lack of research on corpus use in EFL classrooms in the context of the research. Learner attitude can be influential in ensuring effective implementation of pedagogical approaches (Rogers 2000; Vandewaetere et al. 2012; Almisad 2015), such as DDL and particularly MCOTT in the context of this research, and in determining learner acceptance of such approaches (Rogers 2003; Vandewaetere and Desmet 2009), as illustrated in Section 1.5. It can also be useful to reiterate that this research mainly explores the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT without investigating the outcome of learner corpus use in terms of enhanced language awareness. (See Section 6.4 for the limitations of the research.)

2.6 CORPORA IN L2 CLASSROOMS: ATTITUDINAL ASPECTS

This section reviews factors that can help in understanding L2 learner attitudes towards corpus use. Since this thesis is concerned with the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, this review seems useful for informing the approach to investigating attitudes towards corpus, as is indicated in Section 3.7. The learner attitudes here refer to the beliefs and feelings held by L2 learners with respect to their corpus use. Of particular interest to this thesis are two themes, with the first being attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use, which refer to the variables (e.g. enjoying corpus use and facing challenges in corpus use) involved in manifesting learner attitudes towards corpus use. The second theme is related to learner-dependent factors (e.g. motivation to language learning, ICT skills, language proficiency, and learning styles) that may influence the attitude towards corpus use, and that are corpus-unrelated. In what follows, these two themes are explored.

2.6.1 Corpus research on learner attitude: attitudinal aspects

While several studies have explored learner attitudes to corpus use, these studies vary across different criteria, such as corpus type (e.g. written or spoken and specialised or general corpora) and size, approach (e.g. direct or indirect and guided or unguided corpus use), purpose (e.g. raising awareness of lexicogrammatical features, developing writing skills, enhancing formulaic language use in speaking classrooms), language target (e.g. general, academic and specialised English), learner academic disciplines (e.g. engineering, education, computer science, linguistics and languages), learner academic level (e.g. undergraduates and postgraduates) and learner language
proficiency. Such valuable research can offer useful insights about the attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use. The recognition of what constitutes attitude when it comes to corpus use helps in gaining a comprehensive view of the aspects that may encourage or discourage corpus use.

As mentioned above, attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use are reviewed to obtain a comprehensive view of the variables involved in describing learner attitudes towards corpus use. These variables seem to correspond to the constructs of attitude-behaviour theoretical models rooted in the information systems, psychology, and sociology literature (Venkatesh et al. 2003). Such theoretical models are often used to explain and/or predict “user acceptance of new technology” (ibid., p.426). Among these models, the Combined Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour (Taylor and Todd 1995a) was found to neatly embrace the set of attitudinal constructs of learner corpus use. In what follows, the Combined Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour (C-TAM-TPB) is described, followed by a presentation of attitudinal aspects related to learner corpus use.

The C-TAM-TPB compounds the constructs of TAM (Davis 1989) with the constructs of TPB (Ajzen 1991), resulting in five constructs, namely perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, attitude and future intention. In addition, behavioural intention (i.e. future intention) is used as a predictor of behaviour (Ajzen 1991; Taylor and Todd 1995b) and, therefore, is often considered as a dependent variable (Venkatesh et al. 2003). These six constructs are defined in Table 2–3.
Perceived usefulness is “the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job” (Davis 1989, p.320).

Perceived ease of use is “the degree to which a person believes that using a system would be free of effort” (Davis 1989, p.320).

Subjective norms are “the person’s perception that most people who are important to him think that he should or should not perform the behaviour in question” (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975, p.302).

Perceived behavioural control is “perceptions of internal constraints on behaviour” (Taylor and Todd 1995b, p.149).

Attitude refers to “a person’s general favourableness or unfavourableness toward some stimulus object” (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975, p.216).

Future intentions are “indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behaviour” (Ajzen 1991, p.181).

Table 2–3: Definitions of the constructs of the C-TAM-TPB

In addition, there are cause-and-effect relationships between the C-TAM-TPB constructs. These relationships involve a) perceived ease of use has an effect on perceived usefulness; b) perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness influence attitude; and c) perceived usefulness, subjective norms, perceived behaviour control, and attitude have effects on behavioural intention (Taylor and Todd 1995a). These relationships are depicted in Figure 2–1.
Having described the C-TAM-TPB, variables related to learner attitudes towards corpus use are presented in alignment with the C-TAM-TPB’s constructs. For this, a comprehensive list of variables involved in describing learner attitudes towards corpus use was established, based on reviewing relevant data collection instruments (i.e. questionnaires and interviews), which were utilised in previous research. Tables 2–4 to 2–9 introduce attitudinal aspects of corpus use, as observed in previous research, subsumed under the C-TAM-TPB’s constructs.

From Table 2–4, it can be seen that perceived usefulness in the context of learner attitude towards corpus use may involve two sub-variables. The first is overall perceived usefulness, and it entails the expectations a learner may seek and the benefits a learner may obtain from the course generally, which may not necessarily be pertinent to corpus use. For example, these expectation and benefits can be related to the use of other approaches, such as the use of online dictionaries (Liou et al. 2006) or rehearsal conversations and student-led lessons (Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014) besides corpus use. The second sub-variable is tool perceived usefulness, and it refers to the benefits a learner may gain from using the corpus. Such benefits can vary, based on the purpose of the course, and can incorporate raising awareness about language use and developing learning strategies.
Table 2–4: Perceived usefulness

The second construct is perceived ease of use, and it revolves around challenging issues that learners may face while using the corpus. Table 2–5 presents two types of challenges that L2 learners may face when using corpora. The first type is the technical challenges that can occur due to the lack of sufficient resources such as Internet access, computer availability and training, or due to issues related to the user-interface of corpora. The second type is concerned with the challenges caused by DDL tasks and which can involve the time-consuming nature of such tasks or search techniques.
Perceived ease of use

1. Challenges caused by technical issues
   - Computers/Internet (e.g. Yoon 2005; Liou et al. 2006; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).
   - User-interface (e.g. Liou et al. 2006; Sun 2007; Chang and Sun 2009; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Jagusztyn 2014; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015)
   - Sufficiency of training (e.g. O'Sullivan 2006; Boulton 2009a; Chang and Sun 2009; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Aşık et al. 2015).

2. Challenges caused by tasks
   - Time-consuming nature of the tasks (e.g. Yoon 2005; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).
   - Search techniques (e.g. Yoon 2005; Sun 2007; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Jagusztyn 2014; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).
   - Concordance/collocate output
     - Unfamiliar vocabulary (e.g. Yoon 2005; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).
     - Cut-off sentences and the ability to understand the context (e.g. Yoon 2005; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).
     - Too few sentences (e.g. Yoon 2005).
     - Too many sentences (e.g. Yoon 2005; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Aşık et al. 2015).
     - Analysing concordance/collocate output (Yoon 2005; Girgin 2011; Aşık et al. 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Challenges caused by technical issues</td>
<td>Computers/Internet (e.g. Yoon 2005; Liou et al. 2006; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User-interface (e.g. Liou et al. 2006; Sun 2007; Chang and Sun 2009; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Jagusztyn 2014; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sufficiency of training (e.g. O'Sullivan 2006; Boulton 2009a; Chang and Sun 2009; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Aşık et al. 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Challenges caused by tasks</td>
<td>Time-consuming nature of the tasks (e.g. Yoon 2005; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Search techniques (e.g. Yoon 2005; Sun 2007; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Jagusztyn 2014; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concordance/collocate output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unfamiliar vocabulary (e.g. Yoon 2005; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cut-off sentences and the ability to understand the context (e.g. Yoon 2005; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Too few sentences (e.g. Yoon 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Too many sentences (e.g. Yoon 2005; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Aşık et al. 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysing concordance/collocate output (Yoon 2005; Girgin 2011; Aşık et al. 2015).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2–5: Perceived ease of use

The third construct, subjective norms, considers whether learner corpus use is based on one’s own desire, rather than that of others such as teachers’ expectations and/or course requirements. From Table 2–6, it can be observed that subjective norms are rarely investigated when it comes to corpus use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norms</td>
<td>Using the corpus based on one’s own choice (Yoon 2005)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2–6: Subjective norms

Perceived behavioural control can be related to learner confidence in and belief about one’s ability to use the corpus. From Table 2–7, it can be seen that the need for teacher guidance and the ability to perform DDL tasks independently can be indicative of
behavioural control. Accordingly, factors such as language proficiency and training may impact such perceptions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>1. Confidence in one’s ability to use the corpus (e.g. Yoon 2005; Estling Vannestål and Lindquist 2008; Gao 2011; Jagusztyn 2014; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Need for teacher guidance (e.g. Boulton 2009a; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Ability to perform tasks independently (e.g. Yoon 2005; Gao 2011; Quinn 2015)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2–7: Perceived behavioural control**

From Table 2–8, it can be noted that attitude may involve a learner’s positive or negative feelings towards corpus use, which can include enjoying or disliking corpus use. In addition, attitude can cover possible affective benefits such as enhancing confidence about language usage that a learner may gain from corpus use. Another aspect of attitude may be related to the assumption that a learner may develop positive attitude towards corpus use as one becomes more familiar with it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>1. Positive feelings associated with corpus use (e.g. Yoon 2005; Estling Vannestål and Lindquist 2008; Boulton 2009a; Chang and Sun 2009; Girgin 2011; Jagusztyn 2014; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Negative feelings associated with corpus use (e.g. Estling Vannestål and Lindquist 2008; Girgin 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Affective benefits (e.g. Girgin 2011; Aşık et al. 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Associating more corpus use with increased positive attitude towards it (e.g. Yoon 2005).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2–8: Attitude**

As for future intention, it entails learner intention to use corpora in the future, or to recommend their use to others in the future, as can be seen from Table 2–9. Furthermore, future intentions can incorporate learner belief about the importance of corpus integration in language classrooms in the future.
Finally, it can be observed that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use are the most commonly researched constructs in the research on learner attitudes towards corpus use, while perceived behavioural control followed by subjective norms are the least researched ones. In addition, it is interesting to note that some of the proposed relationships by the C-TAM-TPB (see Figure 2–1) can be traced in the literature of learner attitudes towards corpus use. For example, O’Sullivan and Chambers (2006) reported that participants who missed many training sessions reported that the corpus is not useful, while participants who attended the training sessions reported that corpus use is useful to improving their writing. This perception of the usefulness of corpus use or the lack thereof was also reflected in participants’ intentions to use the corpus in the future; participants who perceived corpus use to be useful were more likely to report their intentions to use it in the future. In this sense, participants’ perceived ease of corpus use influenced their perceived usefulness of the corpus, as well as participants’ perceived usefulness of corpus use influenced their intentions to use it in the future, both of which are in line with the proposed relationships by the C-TAM-TPB. Such results indicate that attitude-behaviour theories can help predict learner attitudes towards corpus use. While quantitively exploring these relationships is beyond the scope of this thesis, it can be an interesting area for future research—one that requires a large sample size, which is often assumed in cases of theory testing. Nevertheless, a few examples of these relationships can be drawn from the results of this research, as indicated in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

Table 2–9: Future intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>1. Intentions to use the corpus in the future (e.g. Yoon 2005; Liou et al. 2006; O'Sullivan 2006; Sun 2007; Estling Vannestål and Lindquist 2008; Boulton 2009a; Chang and Sun 2009; Gao 2011; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Jaguszyn 2014; Aşık et al. 2015; Quinn 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Intentions to recommend others to use the corpus (e.g. Yoon 2005; Chang and Sun 2009; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Aşık et al. 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Beliefs about the importance of corpus integration in language classrooms in the future (e.g. Yoon 2005; Liu and Jiang 2009; Girgin 2011; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.6.2 Learner-dependent factors influencing learner attitude towards corpus use

Having presented the attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use in the previous section, this section reviews the learner-dependent factors that are identified as potentially influencing learner attitudes towards corpus use. In this thesis, consideration is given to four variables, namely motivation, attitude towards language skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT skills competence.

Motivation

In language learning, motivation is defined as a “combination of the learner’s attitudes, desires, and willingness to expand effort in order to learn the second language” (Richards and Schmidt 2010, p.378). Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. Whereas the former refers to internal factors, such as enjoyment and fulfilment, the latter is concerned with external factors such as parental pressure and academic or professional requirements (ibid.). Accordingly, one can assume that L2 learners’ attitudes towards pedagogical practices (including corpus use) may not necessarily be prompted by these practices, but may be triggered by their language learning motivation. By way of example, Turnbull and Burston (1998) reported that motivational factors had an influence on participants’ (N=2) attitudes towards corpus use. Of the two participants, the one who had an interest in learning English was also committed to using the corpus to improve her English writing skills. The other participant, however, devoted his time to complete requirements of other courses which he regarded as more important. In addition, Sun (2007) indicated that responding to the immediate needs of learners may enhance their attitudes towards corpus use. By means of independent-samples t-test, Sun found a significant difference between the participants who were writing journal articles and those who were not, in terms of their appreciation of corpus use. Similarly, Liu and Jiang (2009) found that participants enrolled in a master programme (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) were the ones who showed higher levels of motivation and showed more positive attitude towards corpus use compared to the participants enrolled in bachelor programmes (English majors). Recently, Kennedy and Miceli (2017, p.105) noted that participants appreciated corpus use as they found it directly relevant to their needs. As indicated by the researchers, corpus

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14 This test is often used to explore the difference between the means of two unrelated groups.
use was “filling a gap” in the participants’ resource kits. In all the cases cited above, it is clear that language learning motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, can be a contributing factor in regulating learners’ attitudes towards corpus use, which highlights the importance of considering learners’ needs when compiling the corpus, as indicated in Section 2.3.

While learners’ attitudes towards corpus use can be influenced by their language learning motivation, the former may also enhance the latter. In this regard, Boulton (2011) examined the correlation between language learning motivation and receptivity to two forms of DDL (i.e. paper-based and computer-based) among L2 learners (N=43). Results showed that there was a significant correlation between participants’ motivations and their attitudes towards paper-based DDL. However, no significant correlation was found in terms of motivation and attitude towards computer-based DDL. These results imply that the latter form of DDL may stimulate L2 learners with different motivation profiles. These results also highlight the value of introducing corpus use to L2 learners regardless of their profiles, a recommendation also emphasised by Carter et al. (1998).

**Attitude towards language skills**

Similar to language learning motivation, L2 learners’ attitudes towards language skills (e.g. speaking, writing) may influence their attitudes towards corpus use. Affective variables such as anxiety and task enjoyment can significantly impact learners’ attitudes towards language skills. For example, Bui and Intaraprasert (2013) noticed that students with positive attitudes towards speaking used more speaking strategies than those with negative attitudes. In the context of corpus use, Yoon (2005, p.242) noted that participants’ attitudes towards writing influenced their attitudes towards corpus use; participants with positive attitudes towards writing developed positive attitudes towards corpus use. On the other hand, participants (N=3 out of 6) who were inexperienced writers and/or did not enjoy writing developed initial negative attitudes towards corpus use. However, these attitudes changed to positive ones “mainly because of increased use” for two of the three participants. Along similar lines, Sun (2007) observed that participants who had published journal articles (N=10 out of 20) used the corpus more efficiently than those who had not had publication experience. Nevertheless, no significant difference was observed between the two groups in terms
of their appreciation of corpus use. While Yoon (2005) and Sun (2007) reported different results, the significance of the results in Yoon’s study cannot be obtained, since it is a qualitative research. However, the implication here is that approaching tasks in a variety of ways may alter students’ attitudes towards language skills.

**Learner autonomy**

Autonomy in language learning is related to the learner capacity to take control of the learning process (e.g. selecting relevant learning materials and evaluating one’s progress) and to the underlying psychological attributes (e.g. willingness, flexibility and self-awareness) that shape this capacity (Holec 1981; Little 1991; Benson 2007; Little 2013). From this perspective, learner autonomy is suggested to influence attitudes towards corpus use, given the learner-centred nature of DDL:

The DDL approach, which carries the attributes of inductive learning practice, independent learning process, individual needs and preferences, active participation, inquiring and exploratory attitude, involvement in decision-making, and open-ended results, can be seen as being supportive of cognitive and metacognitive autonomy.

(Qian 2014)

This view is supported by Turnbull and Burston (1998), who noted that learner autonomy influenced participants’ attitudes towards corpus use. The participant who was comfortable with independent learning strategies developed positive attitudes towards corpus use. However, the other participant, who felt negative about corpus use, seemed uninterested in independent learning. Similarly, Yoon (2005) suggested that learner autonomy can influence the attitude towards corpus use, and reported that one participant felt uncomfortable with both corpus use and independent learning.

Although scant attention has been paid to the impact learner autonomy may have on learners’ attitudes towards corpus use (Boulton 2013; Carloni 2015), existing research on learning styles and corpus use may also suggest that autonomy can be a contributing factor in shaping learners’ attitudes towards corpus use. This aforementioned assumption is founded on research reporting a relationship between learner autonomy and learning styles (Ng and Confessore 2010; Nematipour 2012; Foroutan et al. 2013; Negari and Solaymani 2013). As learning styles, which refer to a “set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others” (Dunn and Griggs 1988, p.3), have been established as a factor that may
influence learners’ attitudes towards corpus use (Lee and Liou 2003; Sun 2003; Chan and Liou 2005; Boulton 2009a; Carloni 2015; Sepehri 2015; Bridle 2019), autonomy may also be a contributing factor. Among the findings of studies that have looked into learner attitudes to corpus use and cognitive style is related to inductive-deductive learning style. In this regard, Lee and Liou (2003) indicated that inductive learners were more interested in DDL tasks than deductive learners. While reporting results consistent with those of Lee and Liou, Chan and Liou (2005) observed no significant difference between the two groups of learners. Similarly, Sepehri (2015) maintained that corpus use may influence the participants’ attitudes towards inductive learning methods, as five participants displayed more positive attitudes, compared to their initial attitudes at the beginning of the term, towards corpus use by the end of the term. As indicated earlier, such attitudinal change suggests the importance of introducing DDL tasks to L2 learners, regardless of their learner profiles. Besides deductive-inductive learning style, it is suggested that participants with strong preferences for visual learning demonstrated more positive attitudes towards the corpus, compared to participants with other learning style preferences such as active, reflective, sensing, intuitive, verbal, sequential and global (Boulton 2009a). It can be relevant to indicate here that positive correlations between being auditory or visual learners and being autonomous learners have been observed (Ng and Confessore 2010; Nematipour 2012).

**ICT competence**

ICT competence refers to skills surrounding the use of information and communication technology. Markauskaite (2007) indicated that ICT competence involves using both general cognitive and technical capabilities to solve computer-related problems and tasks. The term ICT may overlap with digital literacy (Reinhardt and Thorne 2011), or can be a component of digital literacy, which incorporates communication, information collaboration and re-design (Pegrum *et al.* 2018). Reinhardt and Thorne (2011) suggested using corpus-based classroom activities as one of the methods to enhance digital literacy among L2 learners. Therefore, it seems relevant to view ICT competence as a potential factor that may influence learner attitudes towards corpus use.
Since DDL often involves computer-based tasks that require the use of concordance software or web-based search tools, corpus users need to know how to access the corpus, to be able to navigate the corpus interface and manipulate it according to their needs, and to deal with common computer-related issues, such as slow computers, frozen screens and broken links (Boulton 2010; Boulton 2015). These technical aspects associated with DDL are often reported to cause problematic issues (Yoon and Hirvela 2004; Riordan 2005; Estling Vannestål and Lindquist 2008; Farr 2008; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Leńko-Szymańska and Boulton 2015; Aljohani 2017). In a recent PhD thesis conducted in KSA—the context of this research, Aljohani (2017) observed that technical issues and the need for training were mentioned as disadvantages of, and encouraging factors for, corpus use by teacher educators, practising teachers and student teachers.

To address technical concerns related to corpus use, training has been suggested to alleviate their significance (Pérez-Paredes et al. 2011). For example, Riordan (2005) reported that training helped mitigate technical difficulties that were initially faced by the participants, who indicated encountering less technical challenges by the end of the semester. Farr (2008), however, claimed that technical issues persisted despite training, as 80% of the participants (N=12) indicated having technical difficulties at the beginning of the semester, and 60% remained challenged by such difficulties by the end of the semester. Similarly, Leńko-Szymańska (2014) noted that while participants demonstrated more positive attitudes towards corpus use by the end of the semester, they indicated their need for more time and guidance to gain confidence in their corpus use. Besides training, user-friendly corpus interfaces have been suggested to alleviate technical difficulties (Meyer 2006; Tono 2011; Hyland 2013; Quinn 2015; Aljohani 2017). For example, Boulton (2015) proposed that using Google, with which learners are likely familiar, as a concordancer can help reduce technical difficulties often associated with corpus use. Another example can be observed in the interfaces of the SACODEYL and Backbone corpora that have employed learner-friendly web-based search interfaces; these are described in Section 2.3.2 and 3.5.1. In addition, Boulton (2010) suggested introducing paper-based concordance tasks to overcome the difficulties that can be associated with computer use. When comparing paper-based and computer-based concordance tasks, Boulton (2012) found that the participants performed slightly better using, and had more preference for, the former type of
corpus-based tasks. As such, it seems useful to investigate the potential influence of ICT competence on learner attitudes towards corpus use.

In conclusion, this section has considered four learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards language skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) that may influence learner attitudes towards corpus use. Literature suggests that these factors can be relevant in shaping learner attitudes towards corpus use, but also that corpus-use can alleviate the concerns that may arise in relation to these learner-dependent factors (e.g. Boulton 2011; Sepehri 2015). It can be observed, however, that research on the relationship between the learner-dependent factors identified above and attitudes towards corpus use remains limited, which indicates a need to investigate such relationships, and which this research attempts to offer as can be seen in Section 4.4.

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an overview of key research pertaining to this thesis. More specifically, five major themes have been elaborated, starting by defining the term DDL as is envisaged in this thesis, and which incorporates the pedagogic applications (such as combining discourse-based and corpus-based approaches) of corpora that extend beyond traditional concordance tasks. The first theme has dealt with demonstrating the rationale for, and pedagogical underpinnings of, the pedagogic objective of this thesis, which is to raise EFL learners’ awareness of the discourse features of APs. For this, awareness raising, language discourse and authenticity have been defined, and discussed in terms of their importance in L2 speaking pedagogy while considering the efficacy of DDL in integrating these three notions in L2 classrooms. Then, the second theme has considered multimodal corpora, where attention has been given to the affordances of multimodality in promoting L2 leaning, and to the pedagogic corpus design considerations that help enhance the efficacy of DDL integration in L2 classrooms. In addition, three corpus projects have been reviewed due to their key role in this thesis, as can be seen in the following chapter, where the tools developed by these projects were used to compile MCOTT. After discussing the affordances of multimodal corpora, the features of TED Talks are outlined, where they have been identified as a valuable resource that can facilitate developing multimodal corpora, and that may offer rich input to explore AP discourse.
The benefits and limitations of TED Talks have also been presented, where emphasis has been placed in selecting appropriate talks to a specific group of L2 learners, given the wide variety of TED Talks. This has been followed by considering APs, in which the pedagogic approaches to teaching the AP discourse, which has been found to corroborate with DDL approaches, have been explored. Classroom-based applications of teaching AP discourse have been covered, where their associated benefits and practical challenges have been highlighted. Finally, this chapter has probed attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use, which include manifest variables that demonstrate learner attitudes towards corpus use (e.g. enjoying corpus use, facing challenges in corpus use), as well as learner-dependent variables (e.g. motivation, autonomy) that may positively or negatively affect learner attitudes towards corpus use. As the research questions of this thesis are focused on understanding participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, this review is particularly helpful in guiding the methodological approaches (e.g. designing questionnaires presented in the subsequent chapter) used in this thesis.
CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the methodological approach to this research in terms of the research design and corpus compilation. Accordingly, the chapter starts by restating the research questions, followed by a discussion of the methodological framework of this study, indicating that a case study with a pragmatic worldview can capture the uniqueness of the study context and facilitate an investigation of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. This research may also be similar to action research, given the insider participant role of the researcher, which is also discussed with reference to the advantages and disadvantages associated with this role. In addition, the study context is described to provide relevant information about the setting (i.e. an English language institute at a Saudi Arabian University) and the target population (i.e. B1-level students), which helps situate the discussion in the subsequent sections as well as chapters. Next, the corpus compilation process is illustrated by offering a detailed description of the corpus software tools and the criteria for selecting talks from TED to form the corpus content. Once these are identified, the profile of the corpus is described. This is followed by a description of the study, which involves methodological decisions pertinent to ethics, gaining permission to access the target population and recruit participants, the research timeline and the plan of the short course developed for this research. Methods of data collection and analysis are then discussed. Finally, the chapter ends with a consideration of issues related to the validity and reliability of this research.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to investigate the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. In particular, this research attempts to answer the following questions:

1. How do the participants perceive the use of MCOTT as a reference tool for raising their awareness of spoken English discourse pertinent to APs?
   a. To what extent do the participants believe MCOTT is (not) useful?
   b. To what extent do the participants believe MCOTT is (not) easy to use?
c. To what extent do the participants believe that they are (not) able to use MCOTT?

d. To what extent do the participants believe that they (do not) like using MCOTT?

e. To what extent do the participants believe that they (do not) intend to use MCOTT in the future?

2. To what extent is the participant attitude found to be influenced by these four variables: motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence?

3.3 METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

This section defines the methodological framework of the study. This includes the philosophical worldviews, the research strategy and the approaches to the data collection and analysis. In particular, this section elaborates on how a pragmatist mixed-methods approach can help in understanding the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. It also illustrates that this research can be considered a case study given the uniqueness of the research context while also sharing some characteristics of action research due to the dual role of the researcher.

3.3.1 Philosophical worldviews

Philosophical worldviews (i.e. paradigms, research methodologies) refer to the beliefs that guide the research action (Guba 1990; Creswell and Creswell 2017). Pragmatism, which often involves combining post-positivism and constructivism, was found to be best suited to this study. In the following, these three philosophical worldviews are identified with reference to the purpose of this research and its context specifics.

This study sought to explore the attitudes of the participants towards the use of MCOTT as a reference tool for raising their awareness of AP discourse. In this study, ‘attitude’ is viewed as:

An evaluative disposition toward some object based upon cognitions, affective reactions, behavioural intentions, and past behaviours that can influence cognitions, affective responses, and future intentions and behaviours.

(Zimbardo and Leippe 1991, p.15)
From this definition, one can deduce the complex nature of attitude, with its latent multi-dimensions. Accordingly, the investigation of the attitudes of an individual or a group is complex and can hardly be summarised with law-like generalisations as in a post-positivist worldview. In the post-positivist view, the world is governed by universal laws and theories that are repeatedly tested and modified to reflect the reality of a particular enquiry. Thus, post-positivist research attempts to reduce knowledge to a set of discrete variables that can be tested, and it employs systematic observation and measurement (e.g. questionnaires, tests) to understand this reality (Kim 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009; Creswell and Creswell 2017). This focus disregards rich data that concerns the idiosyncratic and multifaceted (external and internal) nature of attitude, and thus the informative value of such data. However, one can also recognise the cause-and-effect relationship associated with attitude from words such as ‘based upon’ and ‘influence’ from the above definition. This relationship is inherent in the post-positivist worldview. In fact, in the field of social psychology, attitude-behaviour theories, such as the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980), Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen 1985) and Decomposed Theory of Planned Behaviour (Taylor and Todd 1995a), are suggestive of cause-and-effect relationships, as represented by their predictive models. These theories have also been the result of investigations in both laboratory and applied settings. Therefore, while the post-positivist paradigm provides a foundation to generate general patterns of behaviours and investigate the cause-and-effect relationships involved in understanding learner attitudes, it neglects individual differences and context-related factors, which are integral to attitude; therefore, attitude cannot be fully understood within a post-positivist paradigm.

Defined as ‘an evaluative disposition’, attitude is personal, subjective and can be influenced by internal and external factors—attributes that can be captured based on constructivist grounds (Adom et al. 2016). Constructivism views the reality of a specific inquiry as a set of interpretations that are socially constructed, context-dependent and intersubjective. Thus, constructivist research seeks to generate meanings from these multiple interpretations in their situated context and employs open-ended research questions to allow participants and researchers to develop an understanding of the subject of inquiry through negotiation (Kim 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009; Creswell and Creswell 2017). The reality of a particular inquiry can
be understood from patterns of consensus, which are constructed through the interaction of an individual (i.e. internal factors) with the external world; however, clear patterns may not emerge (ibid.). If attitude is investigated through the subjective views of individuals, differences among participants and contextual and other unanticipated factors can be uncovered, but researcher bias could influence research validity. Therefore, while constructivism could help provide an in-depth understanding of the multifaceted nature of attitude, it could fail to facilitate scholarly research due to researcher subjectivity or participants being too vulnerable to expose themselves (ibid.).

The third philosophical worldview, and that which guides this research, is pragmatism. To a pragmatist, the reality of a given inquiry can be both externally existent and socially constructed in its particular context; thus, pragmatist research focuses on the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of a given inquiry (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009; Creswell and Creswell 2017). That is, the nature and purpose of an inquiry dictates its approach to data collection and analysis (ibid.). Considering attitude, if the reality of attitude is gained through a pragmatist lens, attitude becomes the core of the investigation, which can be approached based on any philosophical assumptions that help understand attitude.

Besides the study purpose, a discussion of its context is of equal importance to appreciate the philosophical foundation of the study. This study was set in a real-life context, intermediate EFL classrooms, in a Saudi Arabian university, where the educational system is influenced by contextual factors. As such, a close investigation of attitude can provide a deeper understanding of issues related to the attitudes of the participants situated in this particular context. However, given that the researcher is an insider in this context, the researcher’s assumptions and beliefs could bias the interpretation of the data, so an objective view of attitude is needed. (See Section 3.3.5 for a detailed description of the researcher’s role.) Indeed, it is well established that there is a mismatch between teacher and learner beliefs (Horwitz 1987; Peacock 1998; Huang 2006; Gabillon 2012) and that learners arrive in classrooms with a different agenda than that of their teachers (Allwright 1988; Nunan 1995). This emphasises the need for an objective perspective, which can be realised in this case through questionnaires. In addition, the Saudi educational context depends heavily on the transmission of knowledge from teachers to students (as noted in Section 1.3.2), which
often results in the failure of learners to participate critically in classrooms (Alkhazim 2003; Al-Seghayer 2011). It follows from this that the participants may be hesitant to respond or express their real opinions when data collection methods that require formulated opinions (e.g. interviews, focus groups) from the participants are employed. As such, while there is a need to employ close-ended questions, opportunities should also be offered for participants interested in expressing their opinions, through the use of open-ended questions.

Based on the above discussion, a pragmatist view would best serve the study purpose of investigating learners’ attitudes. It is common for case studies with a pragmatist framework to involve qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis (Luck et al. 2006; Yin 2014; Creswell and Poth 2017). In this study, while the qualitative dataset could help provide an in-depth understanding of the participants’ attitudes, the quantitative data could underpin general tendencies or patterns in the given research context. By way of example, while the quantitative data shows that the majority of the participants found the implemented course sufficient in meeting their needs in relation to AP skills, the qualitative data reveals that a few participants found the course insufficient particularly in terms of covering issues related to body language and interaction with audiences, as presented in Section 4.3.1.

In this sense, the two datasets complement each other. It should be noted, however, that such complementarity can be limited in the context of this research, particularly due to the number of the participants who accepted to be interviewed (see Section 3.6) and the short duration of the course, which may not allow the participants to adequately reflect on corpus use.

Accordingly, this study adopted a Concurrent Triangulation Design (Creswell et al. 2003) in order “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse 1991, p.122). This mixed-methods design entails the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data concurrently but separately. These datasets are then merged by combining the separate results during the interpretation phase. (See also Section 3.8.)

3.3.2 Case study

As noted, this study was set in a real-life context, intermediate EFL classrooms in a Saudi Arabian university. The study explored the attitudes of Saudi students towards
the use of MCOTT as a tool for raising their awareness of AP discourse. This educational context can be considered unique as religion and culture are inherently relevant to the Saudi Arabian educational system, as indicated in Chapter 1. Therefore, this study “investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context [in which] boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin 2014, p.18)—therefore, it can be considered a case study.

While some researchers view case study research as a qualitative research method (Simons 2009), others view it as a strategy of inquiry, a methodology or a comprehensive research strategy (Merriam 1998; Denzin and Lincoln 2011; Yin 2014). In this research, a case study is considered a comprehensive research strategy with its own specific techniques for data collection and data analysis. (See Section 3.7 and 3.8 for details about data collection and analysis.) While case study research may be identified as qualitative research (e.g. Creswell and Poth 2017), case study research can involve both qualitative and quantitative data, only quantitative or qualitative data and may not “always include the direct and detailed observational evidence marked by other forms of qualitative research” (Yin 2014, p.19). Therefore, this research can be identified with mixed-methods case study research. According to Kitchenham (2010, p.562), the mixed methods in case study research improve legitimation “as the qualitative analyses involve descriptive precision and the quantitative analyses ensure numerical precision”. Triangulation and complementarity are two purposes that can be identified with the use of mixed methods in case study research (ibid), which is in accordance with the Concurrent Triangulation Design adopted in this study. The limitation of such complementarity in the context of this research has been highlighted above (Section 3.3.1). Finally, it is worth noting that this study was initially planned as a multiple-case study; however, practical constraints, such as gaining permission to conduct the study, given it is classroom research, for more than three months or receiving funding for trips to Saudi Arabia, motivated the current study design.

### 3.3.3 Action research

Given the often-identified similarities between action research and case study research (Blichfeldt and Andersen 2006; Dresch et al. 2015), this research may bear a resemblance to action research, which is a “form of self-reflective inquiry carried out by practitioners, aimed at solving problems, improving practice, or enhancing
understanding” (Nunan 1992, p.229). Essential to action research is that the research be conducted by practitioners in their situated context, where the purpose is to empower themselves and their community of practice (Kemmis et al. 2013). In this sense, action research could help bridge the gap between theory and practice (e.g. Mcleod 2003; Sayer 2005); action research “seeks to bring together action and reflection, theory and practice” (Reason and Bradbury 2001, p.1). The process of bringing theory and practice together is cyclical and is often initiated based on an issue experienced by practitioners in a particular context. Action researchers are practitioners who propose an informed practical solution (i.e. action) to the given issue, implement the proposed solution, systematically investigate its effect in the given context and reflect on their findings for further planning and action (Burns 2009; Kemmis et al. 2013).

Several elements of action research can be found in this research. For example, the researcher is a practitioner who is an insider in the study context as a former student and current lecturer. This experience influenced the decisions made in this study, including the investigation subject (Section 3.4), the philosophical worldview of the study (Section 3.3.1) and the corpus compilation (Section 3.5.2). This insider perspective offered “assets” to the study design, but also potential “liabilities” (Merton 1972, p.33), both of which are discussed in the following section. Another element of action research is the corpus compilation, which can be seen as the implemented action, whose effects (i.e. participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT) were investigated in the practitioner’s situated context. However, this research also lacks cyclical planning, continual evaluation, and reflection, which are essential characteristics of action research (Kock 2004; Newton and Burgess 2008). In other words, action research is research in action, instead of being on action; therefore, action research is concerned with change and involves cyclical planning (Dresch et al. 2015). This thesis, however, focuses on providing in-depth understanding of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, which can be investigated using the case study approach, as it helps in investigating a contemporary phenomenon in its situated context (Yin 2014).
3.3.4 Researcher role

As indicated in the previous section, the researcher conducted this study in her workplace. In addition, the researcher had a dual role in this research: as a teacher and as a researcher. To gain the benefits of this dual role while reducing its negative effects, the researcher adopted an insider’s outsider perspective (Nakata 2015) and implemented structured participant observation (Dörnyei 2007).

As a participant researcher, the researcher was the only involved instructor who taught all the sessions of the short course developed for this research. Prior to this research, the researcher received tertiary education at the university at which the study took place. Moreover, the researcher has obtained a four-year teaching experience at the study site. In addition to teaching, the researcher has had other administrative responsibilities and been involved in a tutoring centre in which students whose needs had not been met in the classroom can receive one-on-one or group tutoring. This familiarity (i.e. insider/emic perspective) with the study context influenced the study design, as is illustrated at various points throughout this thesis (e.g. Sections 3.3.1, 3.4, and 3.5.2). This is one of the reported advantages associated with being an insider researcher. An insider researcher can use intimate knowledge of the study context to develop meaningful research questions, inform the study methodology (Merriam et al. 2001) and gain access to participants (Robson 2002). Another advantage is that being an insider researcher enables the possibility of shared experiences between the researcher and the researched and, accordingly, a presumed mutual understanding (Banks 1998); an insider “can understand the cognitive, emotional, and/or psychological precepts of participants” (Chavez 2008, p.481). In fact, it seemed that the participants were seeking a common ground, as they asked about the researcher’s educational background and whether the researcher had attended public or private schools or ever taken any English courses abroad. The participants were asked the same two questions in the learner profile questionnaire (as indicated in Section 3.7.1), and it appeared that the researcher shared the same educational background with 69% of the participants, those who attended public schools and had never taken any English courses abroad. (See Section 4.2.1, Table 4-1.) Throughout the sessions, the participants initiated conversations about their concerns in terms of APs, particularly with reference to this educational background, as can be seen in Section 4.2.6. While there is a debate on the role of power dynamics in insider research (Greene 2014), this
discussion may not be relevant here because the researcher was introduced as a PhD candidate and had no authority over grading the participants, and participation in the research was voluntary. (For more details on ethics, see Section 3.6.1.)

Despite the above-mentioned advantages, an insider perspective may pose threats, including “that insiders’ closeness to their research community clouds their views and leads to biased research findings” (Innes 2009, p.440). As indicated while discussing the philosophical worldviews (Section 3.3.1), it was necessary to employ objective measurement tools to investigate the attitudes of the participants towards MCOTT to minimise researcher bias. This was established by employing Likert-scale questionnaires and structured participant observation (discussed below—also see Section 3.7.3), as well as by involving an outsider interviewer (see Sections 3.7.1, 3.7.2 and 3.9), thus gaining an insider’s outsider perspective (Nakata 2015). Researchers suggested that combining both perspectives offers advantages to the research by minimising the lack of objectivity inherent to the insider perspective while also enabling its insights to be obtained (Chavez 2008).

In terms of observation as a data collection method, the researcher was a participant observer in this study and therefore employed structured participant observation (see Section 3.7.3) to focus on key themes related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. Generally, two issues can distort observation data; the first is discussed above and related to the researcher’s bias; the second is related to the difficulty of recording real-time observations, particularly when the teacher is also the observer (i.e. participant observer) (Dörnyei 2007). Considering these two issues, structured participant observation (see Section 3.7.3) can help reduce the researcher’s bias and simplify the task of recording observations (Sapsford and Jupp 2006). Therefore, this type of observation was employed to assist the dual role of the researcher.

3.4 RESEARCH CONTEXT

This research took place at a Saudi Arabian university with participants enrolled in the preparatory programme (i.e. foundation-year programme). This programme is designated as the first year of undergraduate study and provides an entry route into the different undergraduate courses at the university. The ultimate purpose of the programme is to prepare first-year university students for their consecutive academic
studies, which includes an Intermediate, at minimum, command of the English language, equivalent to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) B1 Threshold Level. Therefore, students enrolled in the preparatory programme are required to complete four English language modules successfully. Each module covers one level, namely Beginner (i.e. CEFR A1), Elementary (i.e. CEFR A2), Pre-intermediate (i.e. CEFR B1—low) and Intermediate (i.e. CEFR B1). Prior to joining the preparatory programme, students are required to take an English placement test and are accordingly placed at their corresponding language levels. Provided that a given student is placed at the Pre-intermediate level, then she is required to complete the Pre-intermediate and Intermediate modules of the English Language and so on. Students can also be exempted from the English language requirements if they achieve 5 (if their intended major is not taught in English) or 5.5 (if their intended major is taught in English) IELTS scores.

The target population of this study is, generally, students who are taking or who have completed the Intermediate English course, particularly those who are directly placed at the Pre-intermediate or the Intermediate level after taking the placement test. The latter group of students usually come to the classroom with a high level of motivation as well as expectations and are often willing to invest their time and efforts into developing their skills. More importantly, most of these students often major in specialisations (e.g. Medicine, Applied and Medical Sciences, Computer Science, Engineering) where most courses are taught in English. When students start studying at these colleges, they are often required to deliver APs on several topics relevant to the courses they are taking.

However, while the English language course, described above, may help students achieve Intermediate English language proficiency, it neglects to introduce spoken discourse of APs. Given that this is an EFL context, and not a strict EAP context, students do not often have enough opportunities to practice English outside

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15 This could be confirmed by the fact that most participants in this study were students who were directly placed at the Pre-intermediate and Intermediate levels (for more details, see Section 3.6.2).

16 It appeared that 39.8% of the participants intended to specialise in health-related majors. For more details on the participants’ intended majors of specialisation, see Section 4.2.4.

17 This was the case when the study was conducted as data collection took place during the 2016/2017 and 2017/2018 academic years. However, an academic track has been implemented besides the existing general track by the 2018/2019 academic year.
classrooms, especially speaking. Accordingly, it may not be surprising to see students using written academic discourse in APs and thereby delivering a speech in a reading-like manner (Cheong 2014). This can be partially caused by students’ reliance on written resources\(^{18}\) to gain information about the topics they are to present on, which can be attributed to a lack of resources on academic spoken discourse, and a lack of opportunities to practice the English language. Accordingly, it is assumed that students would be interested in taking a short course about APs. Therefore, this study aimed to explore the participants’ attitudes towards using MCOTT as a reference tool for raising their awareness of AP discourse.

Finally, it should be noted that the context of this research, Saudi Arabia, is an Islamic country, and the Saudi culture is governed by the Islamic code of ethics. Education is also established based on and informed by these ethics. Therefore, education in the study context is uniquely different from that in other contexts; one aspect in which this uniqueness is manifested and that is relevant to this research is the formal segregation of female and male education. This segregation applies to nearly all\(^{19}\) educational institutions and includes both students and teaching staff. Accordingly, the university at which this research took place was an all-female university, so the targeted population was mainly females.

### 3.5 CORPUS COMPILATION

This section describes MCOTT, beginning by establishing the following grounds for critical methodological decisions: 1) determining the tools and software to build the corpus and 2) the selection of texts. Based on these decisions, MCOTT profile is then provided. Finally, this section is extended to incorporate the voice of the researcher apropos of the challenges faced while compiling the corpus.

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\(^{18}\) This was confirmed by most participants when they discussed the process they engaged in when preparing for APs. (For more details, see Section 4.2.6.)

\(^{19}\) There are a few exceptions, such as Effat University, which is a female university with gender-mixed teaching staff, and King Abdullah University of Science and Technology, which is the first mixed-gender university in KSA.
3.5.1 Tool software

The decision to adopt the Backbone tools to compile the corpus was based on four major features of the tools. These tools employ a web-based and user-friendly interface, support media files and time alignment, support text annotation and offer four search modes. In the following, the aforementioned features are discussed, with a particular focus on the research context. Prior to this discussion, however, a brief demonstration of the Backbone tools is provided.

**Backbone tools**

The Backbone tools are one part of the Backbone Project\(^{20}\) (2009–10), a European project funded by the Lifelong Learning Programme. The other part of this project is the Backbone Corpora, which is referred to in Section 2.3.2. The overall aim of this project is to provide a ready-made platform of spoken corpora for teaching and learning the spoken discourse of a variety of pedagogically neglected languages; this platform also supports the creation of additional corpora through a ‘do-it-yourself’ pedagogic corpus approach. This approach aims to empower language teachers by providing them with the tools needed to develop a pedagogic web-based corpus, along with detailed documents\(^{21}\) on how to use these tools. Therefore, these tools were developed with a twofold purpose, with the first aimed towards enabling the pedagogic exploitation of spoken discourse and the second towards encouraging the compilation of multimodal corpora by language teachers. Concerned with the latter purpose, the Backbone Project makes the tools and their source codes available under the GNU General Public License:\(^{22}\)

[This license is] designed to make sure that you have the freedom to distribute copies of free software (and charge for them if you wish), that you receive source code or can get it if you want it, that you can change the software or use pieces of it in new free programs, and that you know you can do these things.

(GNU General Public License Version 3, 2007, Preamble, para. 3)

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\(^{20}\) See http://projects.ael.uni-tuebingen.de/backbone/moodle/

\(^{21}\) See http://projects.ael.uni-tuebingen.de/backbone/moodle/mod/resource/view.php?id=260

\(^{22}\) See https://www.gnu.org/licenses/gpl-3.0.en.html
Accordingly, the users of the Backbone tools are granted the permission to modify the tools to create a corpus based on their needs.

The Backbone tools are comprised of five software components: 1) Backbone Transcriptor (BT), 2) Backbone Annotator (BA), 3) Telos Language Partner, 4) Backbone Virtual Resource Pool and 5) Backbone Search Tool (BST). The BT, BA and BST are designed for the compilation of the corpus, while the other two tools are designed to enrich the corpus with pedagogic activities and are therefore beyond the scope of this research. To create the corpus, one has to start with the BS, where one can transcribe multimedia files (audio or video) or simply paste already transcribed texts. Additionally, texts can be timestamped to synchronise the text with the video after the corpus is compiled. The file(s) created by the BT can then be used by the BA, where one can compile the corpus. While the BT output is comprised of one or more text files, depending on the number of media files, the BA output is an Extensible Mark-up Language (XML) file that contains the entire corpus and its metadata. Users, however, can create more than one corpus and move between these easily. The BA also allows users to annotate the corpus, and the process of annotation can be customised to the users’ needs. Finally, the BST uses the annotator output and provides the interface, by which users can access and search the corpus. Further details are given below in the discussion of the features that led to the selection of Backbone tools to compile the corpus.

Web-based and user-friendly interface

There is no doubt that L2 learners may feel intimidated by complicated educational ICT tools and thus discouraged from using them. In fact, introducing ICT tools in L2 classrooms invariably demands learner training in areas beyond the subject matter (Chambers and Bax 2006; Hubbard 2013). In the case of corpora, these areas include technical skills, such as understanding the functions of the corpus software or navigating the corpus webpage and search techniques. Despite its often-inconsistent reported findings (O’Sullivan and Chambers 2006; Ädel 2010; Breyer 2011; Kennedy and Miceli 2017), empirical research on corpora use by L2 learners maintains that the more user-friendly the corpus tool is to use, the more likely learners will develop positive attitudes towards using it (Farr 2008; Aşık et al. 2015; Zareva 2016). As such,
this research attempts to adapt the easiest possible approach to learner-corpora interaction.

Given that learners often interact with web browsers, one can assume learners’ relative familiarity with them, particularly in comparison with other non-web-based software. Corpora with web-based interfaces fall within the fourth-generation group of corpora, the most recent of the four generation groups identified by McEnery and Hardie (2012). The facilities that this interface adds to corpus software are numerous. Among these facilities is immediate corpus availability, with no required installation, to users on any operating system or device as long as it is connected to the Internet and has a web browser (McEnery and Hardie 2012). This puts the user firmly in charge of where and when they access the application. Of particular importance to this research is that such interfaces lend themselves to easy adaption in L2 classrooms (Anthony 2013). Web-based applications have a flexibility that enables the development of a simple, user-friendly interface or, more accurately, learner-friendly interfaces. The term ‘user-friendly interface’ has often been used in L2 corpus research; however, one should not forget that this term is generic, and using it does not necessarily clarify what a user-friendly interface is to a group of L2 learners. While a group of linguists may describe the interface of a corpus developed for research purposes as user-friendly, a group of L2 learners may not describe it as such. Given that corpora were essentially developed to be used as research tools for linguists, rather than as L2 learning tools, it is important to remove their non-learner-fit features prior to introducing them to the context of L2 learning. This suggestion is not novel to L2 corpus research; indeed, it has been discussed many times, yet in practice it falls short of its potential (Braun 2007a; Breyer 2009). Reasons for and explanations of such failures have been extensively investigated, with one being identified as the difficulty of using the interface (Breyer 2011).

In this research, the choice of the BST is seen as helpful in alleviating the difficulties arising from the corpus interface in several ways. First, it offers a user-friendly interface with straightforward navigation options, that is designed to consider learners as the users. Second, it offers the possibility of browsing the entire corpus content,

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23 A more advanced generation is possibly making its way, mobile-based corpus applications (e.g. Quan 2016; Pérez-Paredes et al. 2019).
viewing the text or watching the video of a given interview. Third, the BST allows flexible search for corpus sections while also providing options to view the video or the transcript to which a given section belongs. These sections are pre-defined by the corpus compiler during the compilation stage. Finally, the BST allows for three kinds of lexical searches—concordances, co-occurrences, and word lists—and the user can search the entire corpus or restrict the search to one or more section(s) (Pérez-Paredes and Alcaraz-Calero 2009; Kohn 2012).

In conclusion, a distinct feature of the BST is its pedagogic conceptual framework; thus, while it assumes the role of ‘learner-as-researcher’, it adjusts the role of the researcher to fit the learner researcher and not the linguist researcher. This approach is similar at its core to the approach recently adopted by Kennedy and Miceli (2017, p.93); “our approach is, therefore, to downplay the learner-as-researcher notion”.

**Media files and time alignment**

As indicated in Chapter 2, the use of corpora in L2 classrooms is sometimes questioned, as it may provide learners with decontextualised texts (Widdowson 1979; Widdowson 2003; Braun 2005). The issue of decontextualised corpus data arises from L2 learners’ need to authenticate the language learning experience (Gavioli and Aston 2001). (See Sections 2.2.3 and 2.3.2.) As corpora are often composed of texts, their original purpose or form is not always clear. This is illustrated effectively by the following quotation:

> What was a blaring 72-point font newspaper headline appears in the same size and typeface as a medicine instructions leaflet; a memo that was originally typed, and the advertisement copy that was designed to appear in an arty, colourful font, are now indistinguishable.

(Mishan 2004, p.220)

Compared with a text corpus, a multimodal corpus can present the text along with its original form (i.e. videos), so decontextualisation issues become less significant. Furthermore, videos combined with text can promote a positive learning environment; “video images, sound and text, when astutely combined, can create a strong and motivating learning environment” (Murray and Barnes 2000, p.86). In this study, the use of multimedia files not only helps authenticate a corpus text or offer a motivating environment, but also helps present APs in their real contexts. With the addition of
time alignment, the contextualisation may be enhanced, as learners search the corpus and watch the part of the video that matches the search result.

**Text annotation**

One feature of the Backbone tools that renders the tools useful for compiling corpora of different purposes is their flexible annotation (see Section 2.3.2), which enables the corpus compiler to annotate the corpus based on its intended use. For language classrooms, the purpose can involve introducing communicative functions, lexicogrammatical features or language patterns. In addition, annotation may help classify the corpus content into different groups, for example, of a specific topic or genre. Such classification may facilitate integrating corpus use within a given course plan. For example, annotating a corpus of written texts according to their genres allows L2 teachers and learners to focus on the genres in which they are interested, instead of having to search the entire corpus in order to find relevant texts.

**Four search modes**

In addition to the above-mentioned features of the Backbone tools, the latter also offer four search modes (presented in Section 2.3.2) that support combining discourse- and corpus-based approaches (described in Section 2.2.2). The ‘browse’ search mode enables learners to view the content of the whole corpus, which can include the videos and their transcripts. The ‘section’ search mode allows users to view sections of the corpus based on the categories identified by the corpus compiler. Accordingly, L2 learners may first watch one of the videos and read its respective transcript. Then, learners can be encouraged to analyse some features of the speech, or a specific section of it through using the ‘browse’ and ‘section’ search modes. As such, these two modes seem to facilitate adopting a discourse-based approach. The other two search modes, the ‘concordances’ and ‘lexical lists’, they help involve learners in corpus-based tasks that include key word in context (KWIC) and frequency lists. The usefulness of such corpus-based tasks in raising the awareness of language discourse, which is in line with the pedagogical objective of this thesis, have been discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.1.
3.5.2 Criteria for the selection of talks

This research aims to investigate the attitudes of Saudi intermediate EFL learners towards the use of MCOTT as a tool to raise awareness of AP discourse. Given the pedagogical motivation behind this study, the selection of TED Talks was based on the consideration of the following criteria:

- Cultural appropriacy
- Text coverage
- Length of the TED talk (less than six minutes)

These criteria are not only conducive to the particular study context; their inclusion in the selection of pedagogical corpus data is also reiterated in L2 literature (Huang and Chang 2015; Wolfe 2015). These criteria are elaborated in relation to the study context in the following.

Cultural appropriacy

As education goals are often shaped by the culture and beliefs of societies, it is vital to consider cultural sensitivity when selecting TED Talks. The issue of cultural appropriacy has been extensively discussed in the literature on EFL/ESL materials design (Mercury 1995; Gray 2000; Akbari 2008). According to Gray (2002, p.159), numerous publishers tend to avoid topics that may be perceived as offensive by some cultures; in particular, the following topics (given the acronym PARSNIP) are generally avoided:


While there are arguments in favour of and against cultural considerations (Tomlinson 2011; Brining 2017), the particular context of this research is in favour of such considerations. In many ways, culture in Saudi Arabia is identified within the Islamic framework (Nather 2014), as is education. This is apparent in an expected outcome, defined by the Ministry of Education, of teaching English to Saudi students; learners should “be linguistically able to benefit from other cultures and their sciences with what is not inconsistent with Islam” (Sofi 2015, p.12). Therefore, any TED Talk that could offend cultural sensibilities or that includes taboo language is avoided.
Text coverage

The term ‘text coverage’ refers to “the percentage of running words in the text known by the readers” (Nation 2006, p.61). As such, text coverage is a method used by L2 researchers to help determine the difficulty level to which L2 learners can be exposed to while reading or listening to an L2 text. Generally, there is not enough research on the amount of text coverage required for good comprehension (Coxhead and Walls 2012), and the results of past research are “inconclusive” (Nation and Webb 2011, p.169). Hirsh and Nation (1992), for example, suggested that coverage of 98–99% is necessary for unassisted comprehension. With 98% of text coverage, one word in fifty words is unknown (Carver 1994).

Considering spoken discourse, Schmitt (2008, p.330) stated that “it is not clear whether a 98% coverage figure is the most appropriate”. In fact, numerous studies suggest that comprehension can be achieved with lower percentages of text coverage. Bonk (2000), for example, observed that text coverage of 90% helped 60% of participants (59 Japanese university students of varying English proficiency levels) achieve good comprehension, which he defined as understanding the main point and one or two details. Schmitt (2008), however, noted that Bonk did not calculate all lexical words considered in the text coverage estimate. Accordingly, Schmitt (2008, p.331) recalculated the figure for Bonk’s study and concluded that Bonk’s “90% (lexical) works out to about 95% (running words)”.

In this study, text coverage is used to determine the most suitable talks for inclusion; that is, the estimates of the text coverage of the different TED Talks are used to help determine whether a given talk was included or excluded. Text coverage of 85% was considered the lowest figure for inclusion in the corpus, as it is felt that an 85% of text coverage helps introduce talks with a range of difficulty levels that may meet the needs of individual learners. The RANGE programme (Nation and Heatley 2002) was used\textsuperscript{24} to run the English Vocabulary Profile (EVP) A1–B1\textsuperscript{25} to analyse the vocabulary coverage of each talk. The EVP provides information about the words and phrases that are known by English language learners at each level of the CEFR. Since the English

\textsuperscript{24} Note that RANGE was used in combination with Text Inspector to facilitate the process of coverage estimation. Text Inspector can be found available at http://www.englishprofile.org/wordlists/text-inspector.

\textsuperscript{25} http://www.englishprofile.org/wordlists
language institution wherein this research was conducted employs the EVP in the curriculum, it could be appropriate to assume\textsuperscript{26} that the words that occur in the EVP of the A1–B1 levels are known by the intermediate language learners studying at the institution.

**Length of the TED Talk**

The recommended length of videos used in classrooms has been investigated by several researchers. For example, Murray and Barnes (2000) reported that videos of less than two minutes were found to be effective; longer videos may complicate classroom tasks due to the several affordances associated with the use of videos. Similarly, Çakir (2006, p.68) stated that “two minutes of video can provide an hour of classroom work”. From a human-computer interaction perspective, Guo (2014) suggested that six-minute videos are optimal and that learner engagement decreases with videos longer than six minutes.

Accordingly, focussing on shorter talks to include in the corpus was deemed appropriate for several reasons. First, shorter videos allow learners to be exposed to less condensed data; this is important considering that these learners have, most likely, never used corpora. Shorter videos might also help keep learners interested throughout the sessions, which could minimise the chances of developing negative attitudes towards MCOTT. Furthermore, time constraints are taken into consideration. The time slot allocated for this study is seven hours over a period of five weeks. Therefore, TED Talks that are six minutes long or less were selected. Offering similar perspectives, Coxhead and Walls (2012, p.58) indicated that “teachers would more likely select a six minute listening segment over anything longer”.

**3.5.3 MCOTT profile**

Based on the guidelines outlined in the previous sections, the researcher proceeded to compile the corpus. The details of this procedure are provided in this section.

\textsuperscript{26} This is a probability statement; while the words in the EPV list are taught in the curriculum, some learners may not understand their meanings. It should also be noted that knowing these words may not necessarily lead to better comprehension, as suggested by Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski (2010).
Topics and content

The process of the selection of TED Talks started with identifying the TED Talks that are six minutes or less by filtering the search on the TED website (https://www.ted.com/talks) to include only talks that are six minutes or less. This resulted in a list of 269 talks that included talks with a non-expository purpose. After excluding performance and music videos, poetry, documentaries, interviews and un-transcribed videos, a list of 186 talks was produced. The researcher then watched the 186 talks and read their corresponding transcripts to exclude talks that contained culturally inappropriate topics or taboo language; the list was then reduced to 172 talks. These talks were classified by the researcher into the following different topics: 1) art and culture, 2) business, 3) education, 4) environment and animals, 5) global issues, 6) health and lifestyle, 7) healthcare and technology, 8) media and news, 9) medicine, 10) science and 11) technology. Talks that did not fit into any of these topics were excluded. Subsequently, the RANGE programme was used to run the EVP A1–B127 to analyse the vocabulary load of each talk. Topics containing at least five talks that had a vocabulary coverage at or above 85% were selected. This resulted in the exclusion of four topics (business, global issues, medicine, and science). For the other topics, the five talks in each topic that had the highest percentage of vocabulary coverage were included in the corpus. However, due to the large number of talks associated with the topic health and lifestyle and the high percentage of vocabulary coverage of these talks, health and lifestyle was divided into three topics: lifestyle, inspiring experiences and self-growth. The final list of topics was thus as follows: 1) art and culture, 2) education, 3) environment, 4) healthcare and technology, 5) inspiring experiences, 6) lifestyle, 7) media and news, 8) self-growth and 9) technology and communication. With nine topics and five talks associated with each topic, the total number of talks included in the corpus was forty-five. (See Appendix 9 for a list of these talks, and the number of words and text coverage of each talk.) Finally, it is worth mentioning that while the initial intention to include the most-viewed TED Talks was disregarded, 48.8% of the selected talks appeared among the seventy-two most-viewed talks on TED.com, while 22.2% of the selected talks were among the 125 least-viewed ones. The above-described steps are summarised in Figure 3–1.

27 http://www.englishprofile.org/wordlists
Figure 3–1: The process of selecting TED Talks

Annotation

The annotation of MCOTT focussed on annotating the corpus content in terms of themes and rhetorical structure (i.e. introduction, main body and conclusion). The themes (i.e. topics) are identified in the previous section and are presented with their respective talks in Appendix 9. Theme annotations allow corpus users to select topics based on their preference, familiarity or need. As for the rhetorical structure, the researcher read the transcripts of all included TED Talks and annotated them according to their corresponding sections (i.e. introduction, main body and conclusion). This kind of annotation seems to support implementing MCOTT within the designed course described in Section 3.6.3. Given that the course plan introduced lessons that dealt with one specific section of APs, section annotation facilitated retrieving multiple examples of a specific section.

User interface

The user interface includes four main tabs: browse, section search, concordances and lexical lists. These tabs and their functions are presented below.

In the browse tab, users can view all the videos and their related metadata (e.g. names of speakers, brief descriptions of the talks); filter the search to view the videos related
to only one topic or more; watch any video with or without interactive transcripts; and
download videos and transcripts. This can be seen in Figure 3–2.

Figure 3–2: MCOTT – browse mode

In the section search tab, users can search for one or more sections (i.e. introduction,
main body and conclusion), filter the results of the section search to one or more
topics, compare the results of two searches on the same web page and view the video
for each search result. For example, Figure 3–3 presents part of the results obtained
when narrowing the scope of the search to show the introduction section of one topic.

Figure 3–3: MCOTT – section search mode

In the concordance tab, users can generate KWIC for up to three words or
combinations of words and can use two wild cards: ("*"") to replace any number of
characters and ("?" ) to replace a single character. In addition, users can limit the search
results to include results from a particular section(s) or particular topic(s), and to compare the results of two searches on the same page. (See Figure 3–4.)

Figure 3–4: MCOTT – concordances mode

In the lexical list tab, users can view the most frequent words, which can be sorted alphabetically, in the corpus. They can also limit the list to show the most frequent words in a particular section(s) or particular topic(s), and compare the results of two searches on the same page. This can be seen in Figure 3–5.

Figure 3–5: MCOTT – lexical list mode

All the above-described functions existed in the Backbone tools prior to this research, as indicated in Section 2.3.2, with the exception of the comparison feature and the
ascending sorting of the lexical list, both of which were added by the researcher. The comparison feature can be used in the three search modes (i.e. section search, concordances and lexical lists) in order to 1) compare the results obtained in the section search; 2) compare the concordance lines of two different words or of the same words in different sections (i.e. introduction, main body, conclusion) and/or in different topics; and 3) compare the most frequent words in different sections and/or in different topics.

3.5.4 Challenges

This section describes the challenges that the researcher encountered while compiling the corpus. The researcher faced two main technical challenges. First, while the instruction for the installation and use of Backbone tools are well documented, issues still arose in practice. Because Backbone tools were essentially developed for the compilation of interview data, the tools were designed to deal with more than one speaker. Therefore, modifications of the Backbone Transcriptor, Annotator and Search Tool were needed to facilitate the handling of monologic data. In addition, modifications included adding the two functions (discussed in Section 3.5.3) of comparison and of sorting the lexical list alphabetically to the corpus interface. The second challenge was related to setting up the server and installing updates regularly. Server challenges also entailed addressing issues that occurred due to software failures or sometimes due to issues that were not easily diagnosable and that impelled setting up another server. These challenges took much time and effort to overcome, including hours of repeatedly testing the modified tools, the corpus interface and the server.

While facing these challenges, the researcher attempted to explore other options, which involved the use of other third- and fourth-generation corpus tools, with the former referring to desktop corpus tools that require the user to install a specific software on a computer before being able to use the corpus and the latter representing web-based corpus tools (McEnery and Hardie 2012). Although some third-generation corpus tools offer solutions for handling data retrieved from TED Talks, these tools seemed to present complex user interfaces, particularly when compared to the corpus interface provided by the Backbone tools. Despite being too complex to compile a small corpus (Anthony 2013), fourth-generation can be more flexible in terms of managing the user interface. Still, however, challenges can arise with respect to
handling multimedia files. For example, the researcher attempted to employ a widely-used fourth-generation corpus tool, and upon inquiring about the possibility of handling multimedia files, two options were made available: 1) links to multimedia files that can be displayed next to the concordance line and 2) the development of time-alignment functionality by the corpus development team, with a cost ranging from €5,000 to €10,000. Therefore, the decision was made to continue working with the Backbone tools.

From the perspective of a practitioner, the ‘do-it-yourself’ approach of the Backbone Project was a practical initiative for involving L2 practitioners in the practice of corpus creation, especially given its pedagogic premises. However, L2 practitioners may become discouraged if faced with similar technical challenges. This is apparent in the absence of research reporting the use of Backbone tools to build a corpus. Having faced the technical challenges mentioned above, the researcher suggests that, based on the Backbone pedagogic premises, developing a web-based corpus compilation tool that offers simple control features (e.g. drag and drop, contenteditable) with two user interfaces (one for the corpus compiler and another for corpus users) may encourage L2 practitioners to engage with corpus creation and integration in L2 classrooms. This should also include functions offered by the Backbone tools, such as flexible annotation, the handling of multimedia files and time alignment.

3.6 RESEARCH DESCRIPTION

This section provides a detailed description of the procedures used to structure this research. This includes methodological decisions concerning ethics approval, gaining permission and access to the population of the study and the recruitment of the participants. Furthermore, this section presents the study timeline, the participants and the specific course plan developed for this research.

3.6.1 Methodological decisions

Given that this study involved human participants, it was necessary to maintain ethical standards (Teddle and Tashakkori 2009). Accordingly, the researcher first obtained ethics approval from the Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research
Ethics Committee (FAHSSEthics)\textsuperscript{28} at the University of Limerick (UL). (See appendix 1.) Moreover, the researcher sought (via email) the consent of the dean of the language institute at which this study took place. The researcher then began to recruit participants in full compliance with UL guidelines of the Ethics Committee and the language institute.

On her first day at the language institute, the researcher approached language instructors and invited them to act as gatekeepers or interviewers. Once they were identified (two gatekeepers and one interviewer), the researcher briefed them on the research and their roles and provided them with the necessary documents (i.e. the Consent Form and Information Sheets—see Appendices 2, 3, 4 and 5). Note that the gatekeepers and the interviewer were teaching courses other than the Intermediate English language course, so they were not involved in teaching or grading the target population of this research.

Subsequently, the gatekeepers approached the classrooms allocated for the intermediate language course, and briefed the students on the research, inviting them to participate while assuring them that their participation was purely voluntary and had no impact on their grades. In addition, the gatekeepers provided the participants with information about the specific time and place at which the short study would take place. To ensure that the hours allocated for the short study did not clash with the hours assigned for other courses, the researcher created four timetables to accommodate the schedules of all B1 students. Furthermore, the prospective participants were given the Information Sheet and Consent Form, which can be found in Appendices 2 and 3. To ensure clarity and understanding among the students, an Arabic version of the Information Sheet and Consent Form was made available. Note that the information sheet contained the contact information of a third party (i.e. FAHSSEthics and this research supervisors) whom the participants could contact in case they had any concerns regarding their participation (Duff 2008).

Then, the researcher acting as a teacher, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, communicated with the participants through lab sessions. It is important to note here that the researcher played no role in grading the participants or in teaching them in any courses other than the one developed for this study. In addition to attending the

\textsuperscript{28} (Reference: 2016-12-30-AHSS)
sessions, participants completed two online questionnaires, one in the first session and the other in the fifth session. Regarding interviews, participants were interviewed by a willing interviewer, who played no role in teaching or grading the participants, as noted earlier in this section. Participants who agreed to be interviewed had to indicate their agreement on the Consent Sheet. They were also informed that a) the interviews would be recorded, b) they had the right to request that the recording equipment be switched off, and c) they were entitled to a transcription of their interviews. Finally, the participants’ rights of anonymity and confidentiality were maintained by using pseudonyms. Participants were randomly assigned IDs that they were requested to use when responding to the questionnaires. This enabled matching the data of the first (participant profile) and second (participant attitude) questionnaires for each individual participant during the analysis stage. The assigned IDs consisted of a letter and a two-digit number (e.g. A01, L09). The same IDs were used for the interviews. To further ensure anonymity, the researcher assigned different IDs for each interviewee during the analysis stage. Having illustrated the methodological decisions, an overview of the timeline of the study and the participants is given below.

3.6.2 Research timeline and participants

This research was conducted at two separate phases; the first was carried out in two months at the end of the second semester of the 2016–2017 academic year and planned as a pilot study. The second was conducted in three months in the first semester of 2017–2018. As the pilot study was successful and the two phases of the study were almost identical, the researcher decided to combine the analysis of the two phases.29 The first two weeks of both phases were designated for the recruitment of the participants. The actual study took place during the following weeks, and the interviews were conducted during the last week.

Prior to the commencement of the course (during the third week), some participants contacted the researcher through WhatsApp30 and asked if they could add the researcher to a WhatsApp group that they had created with other classmates who were also participating in the study. These participants explained that this form of

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29 Other researchers (e.g. Van Teijlingen and Hundley 2001; Riordan 2013) similarly combined the data gained from the pilot and main study provided that the research design persisted.

30 The researcher’s phone number was on the Information Sheet.
communication could make it easier for them to follow the schedule of the sessions and share things relevant to the short study in case they needed to. Because the participants were approached in their classrooms, most of them knew each other, so most participants were added to the WhatsApp group prior to the first session, and all of them were added by the end of the first session. Additionally, the participants suggested sending the links to the questionnaires via WhatsApp instead of email. This form of communication was deemed to help create rapport between the researcher and the participants. It was also clear that it helped remind the participants of the time and place of the sessions.

During the first study phase, there were twenty-eight female participants. Five of them communicated with the researcher before the first session and informed her that they could not attend the sessions due to sudden changes in the final exam timetable. Towards the end of the academic year 16–17, final exams were rescheduled for before Ramadan, which resulted in time-management issues for both students and teachers. Three participants did not show up to any session. Therefore, the actual number of the participants was twenty, who attended all five sessions and completed the questionnaires. Twelve of these participants agreed to be interviewed.

Regarding the second study phase, the number of willing participants was beyond what the researcher could initially accommodate; there were ninety-seven participants, so the researcher had to ask the language institute for additional hours to use the lab, which was an overwhelming but successful task. Of the ninety-seven participants, eighty-three participants attended the five sessions and completed the questionnaires, twenty-one participants agreed to be interviewed.

Accordingly, the total number of participants was 103, and there were thirty-two interviewees. The 103 participants comprised eleven groups, with the number of participants in each group ranging from eleven to eight participants. Finally, it is may be worth noting that the first study phase was conducted in the third and fourth modules of the English language course, which meant that the participants were placed at either the beginner or elementary level after taking the placement test prior to starting the English language course. The second phase of the study, however, was conducted during the first and second modules of the English language course; accordingly, the participants were directly placed at either the pre-intermediate or intermediate level. This could partly explain the high participation rate during the
second study phase. As indicated when discussing the study context earlier in this chapter, those who are placed directly at the pre-intermediate or intermediate levels usually show a high level of motivation and are more willing to seize any opportunity to develop their skills.

3.6.3 Course plan

The course plan consisted of five weekly sessions for a total of seven hours. It was assumed that providing one session per week would provide the participants with enough time to practice between the sessions. As indicated earlier in this thesis, the objective of the course was to raise the participants’ awareness of the discourse of APs while familiarising them with references and strategies that they can use to improve their APs. While a general description of the sessions is provided below, a more detailed account of the sessions is presented in Appendix 10.

The first session set the tone for the subsequent sessions and offered information about the specific features of APs to be explored in the short course and about the approach and materials used therein. Accordingly, the structure and functions of the different sections (i.e. introduction, main body and conclusion) of APs were introduced. For this purpose, the researcher adopted the obligatory and non-obligatory moves (presented in Section 2.4.2, Table 2–1) in TED Talks, established by Chang and Huang (2015). While these moves were developed based on the researchers’ analysis of TED Talks ranging from fifteen to twenty minutes in length, the same moves were also found to occur in shorter talks. These moves were also revisited in the next sessions, wherein each of the section of APs was explored individually. In addition, basic differences between academic spoken and written discourse were introduced to help establish the importance of exploring AP discourse. Furthermore, the participants were acquainted with MCOTT in terms of its content and functions. As each participant had access to a computer in the language laboratory wherein the sessions took place, the participants were offered a hands-on experience navigating MCOTT. The participants were also provided with a tutorial handout that presented a step-by-step demonstration of how to use MCOTT. The TED website was also introduced to familiarise the participants with a resource that they may find valuable. By the end of the first session, the participants were recommended to listen to one of the TED Talks
available on MCOTT before the next session so that they could be ready to analyse it in the next session.

As such, the first session offered an overview of the structure and functions of APs (as described above, in Section 2.4.2 and Appendix 10) since the course employed a combination of discourse- and corpus-based approaches, as indicated in Section 2.2.2. The session also provided training on how to use MCOTT. The important role of training has been highlighted in Sections 2.6.2 and 3.5.1. As the participants had a chance to use the corpus in the first session, one may assume that the nature of learner interaction with the corpus involved elements of prediction, observation and exploration. For example, the participants attempted to predict the functions of the different search modes, and how they can utilise them for learning. In addition, the participants observed how to navigate the corpus as the teacher displayed (via data projector) how the corpus is to be used during the subsequent sessions, which involved illustrating the functions of the four search modes (Browse, Section Search, Concordances, Lexical List) that are presented in Section 3.5.3. To give specific details, these functions involve how to view all the videos and their related metadata, filter the browse page to view the videos related to only one or more topics, watch any video with/without interactive transcripts, search for one or more sections (introduction, body and conclusion), filter the results of the section search to one or more topics, compare the results of two searches on the same page, view the video for each search result, generate KWIC for up to three words or combinations of words, use two wild cards; (‘*’) to replace any number of characters, and (‘?’) to replace a single character, limit the search results to include only results from one or more particular sections or topics, compare the results of two searches on the same page, view the most frequent words in the corpus, and limit the display of these words to one or more sections topics, and to compare the results of two searches on the same page. Then, the participants had a chance to explore the corpus, particularly in terms of the topics and included talks, and get hands-on experience of navigating the corpus, while the teacher provided scaffolding.

During the second, third and fourth sessions, the objective was to raise the participants’ awareness about the rhetorical structure of the introduction, main body and conclusion sections of APs. Each of these sessions started by listening to a TED Talk, followed by a discussion of the overall purpose of the talk, the communicative
functions introduced in a given section and their linguistic representations. While this task was done as a group activity, the participants were also given a chance to individually analyse a given section of a talk of their choice while the teacher offered support and scaffolding. (See Section 2.2.1.) Such tasks can help establish the context and engage the participants to reflect on both the form and meaning of linguistic patterns and how these relate to the overall purpose of the talk. (see Section 2.2.2.) Another task entailed exploring frequent words in order to raise awareness of common phrases in APs and their associated communicative functions, as well as of technical terms pertinent to different topics. For this, the participants were involved in activities where they compared frequency lists of different sections or topics of TED Talks. In addition, concordance tasks were incorporated and guided by the teacher. By the end of each session, the participants were given a chance to start preparing a given section of the talk that they were to present in the final session. For the final session, the participants (in pairs) delivered a presentation and were provided with brief feedback.

Accordingly, the sessions offered both discourse-based and corpus-based tasks. The combination of the two approaches has been recommended to enhance discourse authentication, and allow L2 learners to identify communicative functions (e.g. announcing the topic, describing a process) and reflect on their meaning and form, as discussed in Section 2.2.2. Therefore, one may assume that learner interaction with the corpus in these sessions involved elements of analysis, observation, comparison, and reflection. For example, the participants were engaged in activities (e.g. identify the communicative functions in the introduction, how these functions are conveyed, and identify some fixed phrases that present common functions) where they attempted to analyse a given section of a TED Talk, observe the communicative functions in the given text, and reflect on their meaning and form. In addition, the participants identified phrases from the given text to initiate search queries (see also Section 2.2.2) which allowed them to further reflect on the lexicogrammatical features of such phrases, and compare them across the given concordance lines. These activities were both teacher-led (e.g. introducing common communicative function, scaffolding) and learner-initiated (e.g. selecting a talk of their choice and identifying phrases), and involved the use of the pattern-hunting approach proposed by Kennedy and Miceli (2010; 2017). (See Section 2.2.1.) Furthermore, these activities were exploratory without targeting pre-defined linguistic features (as indicated in Section 2.5.1) in order
to offer opportunities for discovery-learning that facilitates learner conscious engagement. (See Section 2.2.1.) As such, one may assume that awareness-raising took various forms that operated within its definition that has been introduced in Section 2.2.1.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

This section describes the data collection methods, including two questionnaires (i.e. the learner profile and the learner attitude questionnaires), observation and interviews. As the research is concerned with the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT (see Sections 1.5 and 3.2), data collection methods are developed based on the C-TAM-TPB. The justification for the choice of this model is two-fold; first, the C-TAM-TPB is a theoretical model that highlights a number of aspects relevant to attitudes (Venkatesh et al. 2003); second, the selection of C-TAM-TPB is informed by a review of L2 research on learner attitudes towards corpus use, as illustrated in Section 2.6.1. However, it must be acknowledged that every theoretical model has its limitations, including the one selected for this research. Such limitations can be related to the specific focus on attitudes without accounting for other aspects of language learning such as gained benefits of corpus use, which are beyond the scope of this research but can be relevant to future research. Despite the limitations, the adaptation of the C-TAM-TPB seems appropriate within the context of this research, which is mainly concerned with investigating the participants’ attitudes towards corpus use.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are probably the most widely used research instruments in social science research. As a data collection method, questionnaires can be used to gather information about three types of questions (Ackroyd and Hughes 1981; Brown 2001; Bloomer 2010): factual questions (e.g. age, gender), behavioural questions (e.g. habits, strategies) and attitudinal questions (e.g. opinions, beliefs, values). This research instrument is defined as

any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers.

(Brown 2001, p.6)
Prior to designing the questionnaires, the researcher consulted a number of books and articles on educational and applied linguistics research (e.g. Oppenheim 1992; Gillham 2000; Brown 2001; Dörnyei and Taguchi 2009; Bloomer 2010). After identifying the constructs (based on reviewing relevant literature, as discussed in Section 2.6), an examination of how each construct could be measured was conducted by reviewing relevant literature. This step resulted in the adaptation of some statements from previous research to measure the defined variables and construct new ones when appropriate statements could not be found. Accordingly, three methodological decisions were taken into consideration while designing the questionnaires. First, most of the items in the two questionnaires were closed-ended (e.g. ‘Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements’), with a few open-ended questions asking respondents to add additional comments that may not have been captured in the questionnaires (e.g. ‘Add any additional comments about TED Talks’). This practice of avoiding open-ended items is recommended, as they may “involve a somewhat superficial … engagement with the topic on the part of the respondent” (Dörnyei 2007, p.105). Furthermore, closed-ended questions alleviated the concern, which was raised earlier while discussing the philosophical worldview of this study, that the participants may be hesitant to respond to open-ended questions. The second methodological decision was to use multi-item (Likert) scales, as they can be particularly useful for measuring latent constructs (e.g. attitudes, beliefs), as are the constructs in this study. Multi-item scales refer to “a cluster of several differently worded items that focus on the same target” (Dörnyei and Taguchi 2009, p.33). That is, seven items, for instance, form a scale to measure a given attitudinal construct; the multi-items are the seven items that form the scale, and the measure of these items are summed; therefore, the scale (i.e. a summative scale) provides the total measure for the attitudinal construct. In this way, the construct is not measured by one single item, but by several items, which helps establish the measure validity of the construct. The third methodological decision concerned the length of the questionnaires. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009) suggested that any questionnaire should not require more than thirty minutes to complete. As such, the researcher designed each questionnaire with an

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31 Such items are referred to as items or indicators throughout this thesis.
average completion time of twenty minutes; this was confirmed while piloting the questionnaires, which is discussed below.

Finally, an initial pilot of the questionnaires was conducted. This pilot was performed mainly to minimise confusion from the phrasing of the questionnaire items in their English and Arabic versions. Based on the piloting, a five-point Likert scale was used. The choice of a five-point Likert scale rather than, for instance, seven- or ten-point scales, was due to the indication of the participants in the initial pilot of the questionnaire, that a ten-point Likert scale seemed confusing. They also noted that they did not see a difference between points eight and nine, for instance. A follow-up review of the literature indicated that a five-point Likert scale can be less confusing (Bouranta et al. 2009). In the following, the design of the learner profile and learner attitude questionnaire is provided.

**Learner profile questionnaire**

This questionnaire was designed to gain an overview of participants’ profiles and to help investigate the potential influence of the participants’ profiles on their attitudes. As discussed in Section 2.6.2, four learner-dependent variables can be potentially considered to be contributing factors in determining participants’ attitudes towards corpus use. Accordingly, participants’ profiles in the context of this study involved these four learner-dependent variables, as well as other factual information and learners’ perceptions of language levels and needs, all of which are presented in Table 3–1. The statements measuring each construct were collected from previous research (Noels et al. 2003; Timmis 2003; Dörnyei 2009; Tunçok 2010; Vandewaetere and Desmet 2010; Gan 2012; Nguyen 2013) and can be found in Appendix 6. These statements are also presented in Chapter 4 along with the results.
Variables | Descriptions
---|---
**Factual information** | Factual information involved the following:
- Areas of living (i.e. urban or rural areas)
- Type of school attended by the participants (i.e. public, private or international schools)
- Experiences of studying abroad, if any
- Intended major of specialisation

**Perception of language level** | This question helped gain an overview of participants’ perceptions of their English language level, considering the four language skills individually.

**Perception of language needs** | This question highlighted participants’ perceptions of their English language needs, considering the four language skills individually.

**Motivation** | Motivation entailed extrinsic (e.g. learning English to get a job or to pass a school course) and intrinsic motivation (e.g. learning English because it is interesting).

**Attitude towards oral skills** | Attitude towards oral skills included affective (e.g. motivation to learn to speak in English and preference for a particular English variety, confidence), cognitive (e.g. awareness of spoken English discourse), and behavioural (e.g. willingness to speak in English) aspects.

**Attitude towards autonomy** | Attitude towards autonomy involved behavioural aspects of autonomy (e.g. the need for teacher support, the ability to learn English independently).

**ICT competence** | ICT competence entailed learner ability to use an ICT device and beliefs about its use.

Table 3–1: Learner profile questionnaire - variables and their description

**Learner attitude questionnaire**

The purpose of this questionnaire was to gain data surrounding the participants’ attitudes towards the use of MCOTT as a reference tool to raise awareness of AP discourse. As suggested in Section 2.6.1, the C-TAM-TPB\(^\text{32}\) (Taylor and Todd 1995a) was found to embrace the attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use that were investigated in previous research. Accordingly, it can help provide a comprehensive understanding of the participants’ attitudes. As such, the learner attitude questionnaire was designed based on the C-TAM-TPB, as can be seen in Table 3–2. It should be noted, however, that the C-TAM-TPB in this research was not used for its predictive assumptions (discussed in Section 2.6.1), and this study did not attempt to test these

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\(^{32}\) The combined technology acceptance model and theory of planned behaviour.
assumptions. Instead, the model was used to gain a systematic overview of the different dimensions of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. In addition, the construct of subjective norms was not considered as participation in this study was voluntary. Table 3–2 presents the five constructs that were used to design the learner attitude questionnaire, as well as their operational definitions. The statements measuring each construct were collected from previous research (e.g. Yoon 2005; O'Sullivan 2006; Boulton 2009a; Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; Yoon and Jo 2014; Aşık et al. 2015) and can be found in Appendix 7. These statements are also presented in Chapter 4 along with the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived usefulness</td>
<td>Perceived usefulness was divided into three sub-constructs:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Overall perceived usefulness refers to the attitudes of the participants towards their overall experience of the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Tool perceived usefulness refers to the attitudes of the participants towards MCOTT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Content perceived usefulness refers to the attitudes of the participants towards TED Talks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>Perceived ease of use referred to the degree to which participants believe that MCOTT would be easy to use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>Perceived behavioural control referred to perceptions of internal constraints on MCOTT use among the participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Attitude referred to the positive or negative feelings regarding using MCOTT among the participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intention</td>
<td>Future intention indicated the participants’ future plans regarding MCOTT use.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3–2: Learner attitude questionnaire - variables and their description

3.7.2 Observation

The third data collection method used in this study was observation. In defining observation as a data collection method, Mason (2017, p.60) stated that it refers to “methods of generating data which involve the researcher immersing [her or himself] in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on, within it”.
In this research, the researcher fulfilled a dual role in the classroom as an observer and a participant. While this approach (i.e. participant observation) helps to limit the effect of obtrusive observation due to the presence of a known observer, it can be difficult to perform the two tasks competently (Gass and Mackey 2007). To facilitate the observation task, the researcher developed an observation scheme based on the recommendations of Dörnyei (2007) and Gass and Mackey (2007). The designed observation scheme followed the event sampling method, whereby the researcher “enter[s] a tally mark against a category every time it occurs (for example, every time the teacher asks a question)” (Dörnyei 2007, p.180). The observation scheme of this study is presented in Table 3–3 with illustrative examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tallies</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical issues</td>
<td>//</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool approval</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool disapproval</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content approval</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content disapproval</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasks</td>
<td>//</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions/ Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3–3: Observation structured scheme*

The first column in the table lists the categories developed to help answer the research questions. The second column (i.e. tallies) refers to the occurrence frequency of the categories. The final column includes details about the event itself. Such structured scheme “make[s] the formidable task of documenting the complexity of classroom reality doable, and help to focus on certain key events and phenomena” (Dörnyei 2007, p.185).

While such a structured scheme assisted in systematically recording observations of interests to the researcher, it should be acknowledged that the researcher often felt restrained by the limits of time and the twofold role of participant observation. This might have influenced the participant researcher’s capacity to record observations simultaneously to operating in the research context. Nonetheless, a practical approach was planned, and involved taking records shortly and concisely after the event (with
which the structured scheme helped) and expanding these records at the earliest opportunity to minimise potential issues related to forgetfulness.

### 3.7.3 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews were the second data collection instrument employed in this research. They can be defined as “a verbal interchange, often face to face, in which an interviewer tries to elicit information, beliefs or opinions from another person” (Burns 2000, p.423). Through interviews, participants are able to “speak in their own voice and express their own thoughts and feelings” (Berg 2017, p.96), which can help provide a deeper understanding of the attitudes of the participants.

In this study, interviews can help confirm or extend the understanding of the attitudes of the participants based on the same constructs (i.e. C-TAM-TPB) used to design the learner attitude questionnaire. A semi-structured interview allow researchers to “allows depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee’s responses” (Hitchcock and Hughes 1989, p.83). As such, the following interview questions were developed:

- What features of oral presentations did the unit help you to improve?
- What features of oral presentations did the unit not help you improve?
- What strategies did you learn from the unit?
- What did you like most about the unit? What did you dislike most?
- What was the most difficult task? What was the easiest task?
- In what ways do you think MCOTT use is helpful?
- What do you suggest to improve MCOTT?

As indicated previously, the interviews were conducted by a female colleague rather than the teacher-researcher herself to allow the participants to express their opinions honestly without feeling obliged to commend the course or the corpus. The interviewer also had experience conducting interviews as part of her PhD study. The interviewer obtained her PhD recently and has gained eight years of teaching experience in the study context. The interviewer and the teacher-researcher had three meetings to discuss issues related to the interviews. The first meeting involved discussions about the study purpose, MCOTT, the purpose of the interviews, the interview questions and references to interview guides (e.g. Dörnyei 2007). The second meeting focused on
queries that the interviewer had, and also involved attempts to create several interview scenarios, where each adopted the role of an interviewer or an interviewee. Moreover, a checklist that covered the constructs was developed to facilitate “in-depth probing while permitting the interviewer to keep the interview within the parameters traced out by the aim of the study” (Berg 2017, p.39). The last meeting took place after conducting the interviews; this meeting involved discussions about notes made by the interviewer that were considered salient to report.

During the interviews, participants had the choice of either responding in English or Arabic. All interviewees chose to be interviewed in Arabic, with a few instances of code-switching in some interviews. To facilitate the analysis of the interviews, the researcher listened to the recordings and transcribed them on Microsoft Word. These transcriptions were reviewed by the interviewer, who also translated them into English.

**3.8 DATA ANALYSIS**

As indicated earlier in this chapter, a pragmatist view can best serve the study purpose (investigating the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT) in its context; therefore, a mixed-methods approach was employed. The study also adopted a Concurrent Triangulation Design (Creswell *et al*. 2003) “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse 1991, p.122). This mixed-methods design entailed the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data concurrently in one phase. The results are then merged for interpretation, as seen in Figure 3–6.
Accordingly, the following demonstrates the analytic methods for each dataset (i.e. questionnaires, interviews, observation) and the data integration.

3.8.1 Questionnaires

To answer the research questions, the questionnaires were quantitatively analysed. A matter of primary importance is that the purpose of the quantitative analysis was not to generalise findings, but to obtain a rather objective view of participants’ attitudes. In this research, all questionnaires were completed online, which facilitated their transfer to SPSS (Version 25.0), and WarpPLS (Version 6.0), which is a MATLAB-based programme (Kock 2018c).

The questionnaires included Likert items and two open-ended questions; these were analysed using frequency distribution and statistical commentary. This helped summarise data pertinent to the profiles of the participants and explore data relevant to the participants’ attitudes, with the latter partly constituting the answer to the first research question (‘How do participants perceive MCOTT as a tool that can be used to raise awareness of the spoken English discourse pertinent to oral presentations?’).

To answer the second research question (‘To what extent was the participant attitude found to be influenced by the four variables of motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence?’), data screening was performed to
allow for a proper selection of a multivariate statistical test. A multivariate statistical test can be used when there are more than two dependent or independent variables, as is the case with this research. In this regard, data screening helps to ensure that the data meets the assumptions of a given multivariate test (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Table 3–4 presents the results of the data screening.

Based on the information gained by data screening and through trial and error, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to explore the relationships between the independent (i.e. motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, ICT competence) and dependent variables (i.e. overall perceived usefulness, tool perceived usefulness, content perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude towards MCOTT, future intentions). PLS-SEM is a statistical technique often used to estimate relationships between latent variables (Lowry and Gaskin 2014). A latent variable is an unobserved variable or construct, which is measured by a number of observed indicators (Bollen 2002). In this research, all variables involved in answering the second research question were latent as they represented unobserved variables (e.g. motivation, attitude) which were measured by a number of observed indicators (i.e. the Likert items—see Appendices 6 and 7 for the questionnaires). For example, the statement ‘I learn English only to succeed or to get a job’ was one of the indicators to measure motivation.

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33 This table can also be found in Appendix 13, supplemented with the definition of each assumption and the procedures followed to test them.
No missing values were identified. However, univariate outliers were treated as missing data, as is indicated below.

A total of 28 values were identified as univariate outliers and were considered as missing data (Aguinis et al. 2013; Christophe et al. 2019). In such a case, it is recommended to report the result with and without the outliers (ibid.; Field 2018), as can be seen in Chapter 4. No multivariate outliers were found.

Only three variables were found normally distributed (attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonym and ICT competence), the motivation variable and all dependent variables were found non-normally distributed. Note that PLS-SEM can accommodate for non-normal data (Kock 2018c).

All the relationships between the independent and dependent variables were non-linear, with and without the presence of the outliers. Note that PLS-SEM can provide solutions for non-linear data (ibid.).

The collinearity was found to be ideally acceptable, as indicated by the average full collinearity score, which reflects the average of variance inflation factors (VIF)=2.028, (acceptable if ≤ 5, ideally ≤ 3.3) (ibid.).

Besides the type of the variables, the rationale for using PLS-SEM is that it facilitates estimating the relationships between all the dependent and independent variables simultaneously in one test (Gefen et al. 2000; Hair et al. 2013; Amaro et al. 2015). Such simultaneous testing can help minimise the probability of type I error (false positives) (Brunner and Austin 2009; Lowry and Gaskin 2014). Compared with first generation multivariate statistics (e.g. correlations, regressions), PLS-SEM is often appreciated for its “greater flexibility” in obtaining solutions when it is difficult to meet rigorous assumptions”, such as absence of distributional assumptions, homoscedasticity and small sample size (Vinzi et al. 2010, p.2; Lowry and Gaskin 2014; Streukens and Leroi-Werelds 2016a; Hair et al. 2019). In addition, WarpPLS

34 These outliers were due to extreme negative responses that appeared to be very different from the responses provided by other participants. Accordingly, these outliers cannot be simply removed, as they represented the reality of the obtained data. Therefore, they were maintained, but their influence was considered, as can be seen in Chapter 4.

35 WarpPLS employs arithmetic mean imputation to treat missing data (Kock 2014a; Kock 2018b), which replaces the missing values with the average of the available values.
(Version 6.0), which was the software that had been used to perform PLS-SEM, has been popularised for its ability to obtain solutions for non-linear data (Eom 2013; Chadee et al. 2015; Kumar and Purani 2018), as in the case of the data of this thesis. Despite these assets, PLS-SEM is not without limitations or criticism (cf. Marcoulides and Saunders 2006; Sosik et al. 2009; Ringle et al. 2012; McIntosh et al. 2014; Rönkkö 2014). For example, researchers have highlighted the potential bias (i.e. the association among variables may be due to chance) that can be produced by PLS-SEM estimates and recommended the use of Dijkstra’s (2014) consistent Partial Least Squares (PLSc), which is suggested to offer solutions to such bias (Dijkstra and Schermelleh-Engel 2014; Sarstedt et al. 2014; Dijkstra and Henseler 2015; Kock 2017a; Aguirre-Urreta and Rönkkö 2018). Other concerns that have been reported in relation to PLS-SEM are often related to its misuse, which can be overcome by making an “informed and rigorous use of PLS-SEM” (Ringle et al. 2012, p.xii; Sarstedt et al. 2014). To do so, recommendations and guidelines proposed by prominent scholars in the field (e.g. Chin 2010; Ringle et al. 2012; Lowry and Gaskin 2014; Streukens and Leroi-Werelds 2016b; Aguirre-Urreta and Rönkkö 2018; Hair et al. 2019) were carefully considered and followed, as demonstrated below, in Sections 3.9.1 and in 4.4.

To examine the relationships between latent variables, PLS-SEM provides the estimates of two models: 1) a measurement model (i.e. outer model) which “shows how the latent variables and their indicators are related”; and 2) a structural model (i.e. inner model) which “reflects the relationships between the latent variables” (Haenlein and Kaplan 2004, p.290). In other words, while the measurement model provides validity and reliability measures of the latent variables (reported in Section 3.9.1), the structural model measurement demonstrates the model’s predictive relevance and values of significance (reported in Section 4.4).

To perform PLS-SEM, the researcher created a structural model (Figure 3–7) representing four independent variables, namely motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence, and seven dependent variables, namely, overall perceived usefulness, tool perceived usefulness, content perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude and future intention, which reflect participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use.
After creating the model, the Factor-Based PLS Type CFM\textsuperscript{36} algorithm was selected to estimate the outer model, and the Warp3 and Stable3 algorithms were chosen for the inner model. The Factor-Based PLS Type CFM2 algorithm calculates scores of variables by aggregating the scores of their respective indicators, while also accounting for measurement errors\textsuperscript{37} related to the inherited imprecision of estimating

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3-7}
\caption{The structural model}
\end{figure}

\[M: \text{Motivation} \quad OS: \text{attitude towards oral skills} \quad OPU: \text{overall perceived usefulness} \quad TPU: \text{tool perceived usefulness} \quad CPU: \text{content perceived usefulness} \quad PEOU: \text{perceived ease of use} \quad PBC: \text{perceived behavioural control} \quad AT: \text{affective attitude} \quad FI: \text{future intentions} \quad AA: \text{attitude towards autonomy.}\]

\textsuperscript{36} This is the name of the algorithm on WarpPLS, and CFM stands for Common Factor Model, which refers to the use of a set of indicators (observed items) that is believed to reflect one or more latent variables.

\textsuperscript{37} Because latent variables are not observed directly, but rather measured by a set of Likert items that their respective scores are combined to provide scores of latent variables, they cannot be measured accurately—hence, the introduction of measurement errors. Note that Factor-Based PLS Type CFM2 algorithm utilises Dijkstra’s (2014) PLSc, which corrects the potential bias of PLS-SEM, as indicated earlier in this section.
latent variables. The Warp3 algorithm is used when the relationships between variables are non-linear (Kock and Gaskins 2016; Kock et al. 2017), as in the case of this research and as reported in Table 3–4. Finally, the Stable3 algorithm was selected to calculate probability values and related coefficients (e.g. standard errors). Stable3 has been reported to provide “more precise estimates” and is often recommended with small sample sizes (Kock 2014b, p.36; Kock 2018c; Kock 2018a; Kock and Hadaya 2018), as in the case of this doctoral research.

3.8.2 Observation

As indicated earlier in this chapter, structured observation was employed as a method of data collection. In this research, the observation data was collected in each session for the eleven groups of the participants, which resulted in fifty-five observation schemes. Since the observation data had been categorised, the researcher combined the data pertinent to each session across the groups. To illustrate, the eleven observation schemes of the first session were combined in one observation scheme, and so on. Accordingly, the resultant five observation schemes, which can be seen in Appendix 11, were analysed.

Given that the structured observation contained both quantitative and qualitative data, content analysis was used to analyse the data, since this type of analysis “can be done quantitatively (producing numerical description of the content), qualitatively (using thematic analysis), or using mixed methods (both quantitative and qualitative)” (Riazi 2016, p.57). In particular, conceptual content analysis was use, as this “establishes the existence and frequency of concepts (perhaps by examination of the most frequently used words, phrases, metaphors, or concepts)” (Mathison 2005, p.82). Accordingly, the data in each category was categorised into sub-themes across the observation schemes, where each sub-theme is supplemented by its occurrence frequency. By way of example, the category ‘technical issues’ was classified into sub-themes such as slow PCs and freezing PCs, which were developed and quantified based on the obtained data. These categories were then described quantitatively and qualitatively in a narrative style in Chapter 4. (See also Section 3.8.4.)
3.8.3 Interviews

In addition to questionnaires, interviews were used to gain a further understanding of participants’ attitudes, which contributed to the answer to the first research question. A thematic analysis was used to help in “identifying, analyzing, and interpreting patterns of meaning (‘themes’) within qualitative data” (Clarke and Braun 2017, p.297). To achieve this, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested a six-phase process: 1) familiarising oneself with the data, 2) generating initial codes, 3) searching for themes, 4) reviewing potential themes, 5) defining and naming themes, and 6) producing the report.

Accordingly, the researcher was engaged—iteratively and reflexively—with the suggested process, which began with the data collection. Familiarisation with the data started with the researcher taking notes while conducting the study, listening to and transcribing interviews and reviewing their translation. The data was then imported into NVivo (Version 12), where it was read and reread to generate codes. Initially, the coding process was guided by the first research question and its sub-themes (i.e. perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude and future intentions), on which the design of the learner attitude questionnaire and the observation scheme was also based, as indicated in the data collection section in this chapter. This facilitated the integration of the three datasets for the comparison or extension of findings during the interpretation stage. Led by the first research question themes (i.e. units of analysis), seven out of the thirty-two interviews were randomly selected, coded and aligned to these themes, which were regarded as broad analysis units. The sub-themes were then identified, defined and named. (See Figure 3–8, for example, and Appendix 12 for the complete thematic analysis of interviews.) The coding and themes were, then, reviewed, followed by a complete coding of all interviews.
3.8.4 Integration of data

As indicated earlier in this chapter, this study employed data triangulation to gain a comprehensive understanding of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. The integration of data involves combining data pertaining to a given issue from different datasets to provide an overarching understanding of an issue, and integration was thus essential to this study given its above-stated purpose. The integration approach is illustrated as follows.

Among the integration approaches (i.e. connecting, merging, embedding) identified by Creswell and Clark (2017), merging data seemed to serve the study purpose. Merging data typically occurs at the interpretation stage, where different methods are used to collect data relevant to parallel or similar questions (Castro et al. 2010), which is the case in this study. Accordingly, while the integration takes place at the interpretation stage, preparations are undertaken prior to data collection. In this study, the data collection methods were designed to explore learner attitudes towards MCOTT use, which was investigated based on the C-TAM-TPB. With this in mind,

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\[38\] Appendix 12 provides the complete thematic analysis of interviews.
the questionnaires, observation schemes and semi-structured interviews were developed in tandem. This allowed the integration to follow naturally. As the design of the questionnaires and observation schemes enabled the broad thematic organisation (i.e. perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude and future intentions) to take place while collecting the data, the questionnaires were tested for reliability and validity (see Section 3.9) to establish the grounds for this thematic organisation. Next, the interviews were coded accordingly, whereafter the sub-themes were developed in alignment with smaller analysis units in the learner attitude questionnaire (i.e. an individual Likert item), the observation scheme (i.e. a single observation) and interviews (i.e. codes). As additional themes emerged, codes to capture these were added.

In the final report presented in Chapter 4, the decision was made to adopt the “most straightforward option” (Creswell and Clark 2017, p.191), namely narrative discussion, to represent the integrated data, following the weaving approach (Fetters et al. 2013; Creamer 2017). In this sense, the quantitative and qualitative results were represented side by side on a theme-by-theme basis. This helped enhanced the research quality, which is discussed below.

3.9 RESEARCH QUALITY

The term ‘legitimation’ is used to refer to the different aspects of quality (i.e. data and inference quality) in mixed-methods research (Onwuegbuzie and Johnson 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). Data quality, which refers to the validity, reliability and trustworthiness of the collected data, “is determined by the separate standards of quality” in the qualitative and quantitative strands (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009, p.208; Creswell and Clark 2017). In addition, interference quality which refers to “the standard for evaluating the quality of conclusions that are made on the basis of both the [quantitative and qualitative] findings” (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009, p.287), should be considered. Accordingly, the data quality of each data strand is first discussed, followed by the inference quality.
3.9.1 Quantitative data

In terms of quantitative data, validity refers to “the degree to which [an instrument] measures what it is supposed to measure and, consequently, permits appropriate interpretation of score” (Gay et al. 2009, p.160), and reliability refers to the consistency of the results produced by a particular instrument (ibid.). In this research, quantitative data included two questionnaires.

To determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires, the researcher first read the questionnaires’ items and the operational definitions of the constructs to ensure correct classification of items to constructs. The researcher also scanned the questionnaire data and decided to exclude two items, which were analysed independently of the scales, as they exhibited different patterns of responses compared to the other items of the relevant scale. This was expected, since the excluded items did not belong to any of the constructs but were incorporated in the questionnaire for individual item analysis that was conducted to answer the first research question. This was also confirmed by a low inter-items correlation coefficient associated with the excluded items (Field, 2016). Furthermore, a few items were reverse coded to ensure unidimensionality across the items of the constructs. According to Weijters and Baumgartner (2012, p.738), “a reversed item can be defined as an item whose meaning is opposite to a relevant standard of comparison”. There has been an argument regarding the addition of reversed items to questionnaires. While some researchers recommended the use of reversed items because they can help in reducing the acquiescence bias (Nunnally 1978; Baumgartner and Steenkamp 2001; Podsakoff et al. 2003), other researchers indicated that reversed items may negatively impact the construct reliability, as they tend to have lower item-total correlations compared with positively worded items (Schriesheim et al. 1991). In this research, the negatively worded items were not included in the questionnaires for the mere reason of preventing response pattern biases, but also to improve the content validity of a given construct by covering its different aspects (Tourangeau et al. 2000). For example, the item ‘I feel uneasy whenever I speak in English’ was included in order to capture feelings of anxiety that learners may experience while speaking in English—an aspect

39 These are 1) I feel confident about my ability to independently improve my academic oral presentations using other sources; and 2) In the future, I think I will need more training on the use of MCOTT.
that may not be easily captured using a positive statement. The need for negatively worded statements can also be related to the confirmation bias, which indicates that “people have a tendency to retrieve primarily beliefs in support of a statement” (Weijters and Baumgartner 2012, p.742). As such, the positive wording of the statements may prompt respondents to recall positive experiences regarding a given issue, which suggests the possible need for negatively worded items as well.

As reported in Section 3.8.1, the validity and reliability of the questionnaires were statistically tested using PLS-SEM via WarpPLS (Version 6.0). To determine the construct validity, two measures need to be considered, namely discriminant validity (i.e. divergent validity) and convergent validity. While the former refers to “the degree to which the results of a measurement consistently and accurately represent the true magnitude of a construct” (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009, p.211), the latter refers to “the degree to which the measurement outcomes representing a construct agree (are consistent) with other indicators of the same construct” (ibid., p.210). In other words, discriminant validity is used to ensure that each variable is conceptually distinct from the others, and convergent validity is used to show whether a number of indicators (i.e. items) measures the same concept (i.e. variable).

Discriminant validity can be assessed by observing the correlations among constructs, and the square roots of their average variances extracted (AVEs). Average variances extracted refer to the amount of variance explained by a construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Fornell and Larcker 1981). In Table 3–5, the values on the diagonal (shaded in light grey) reflect the square roots of the AVEs and are given for all constructs, and the other values represent the correlations among the constructs. For discriminant validity, the value of the square root of the AVE of a given construct should be higher than the values of its correlations to other constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Kock and Lynn 2012; Hair et al. 2013). That is, the values on the diagonal in Table 3–5 should be higher than any other values in the same column and row. Table 3–5 demonstrates the values of the square roots of the AVEs for all constructs are higher than the values of correlations among the constructs, suggesting sufficient discriminant validity for the two questionnaires. For example, the square roots of the AVE of motivation is 0.68, which is higher than any other values in the same column and row, suggesting that motivation was conceptually distinct from the other involved variables. The same is true for all the other variables.
Convergent validity can be determined by observing the outer loadings of the indicators (i.e. items) as well as the AVEs (Bagozzi 1981; Henseler et al. 2009; Ringle et al. 2015). The outer loading of each indicator represents its absolute contribution to its corresponding scale (Garson 2016). Researchers suggested that outer loadings should be higher than 0.7 (Henseler et al. 2009) or 0.6 at minimum (Marcoulides 1998). It is also recommended to exclude items with outer loadings of less than 0.4 (Churchill 1979) only when this elimination results in a substantial increase of the construct reliability (Henseler et al. 2009). Reliability is also relevant to convergent validity and can be determined by acceptable values of Cronbach's alpha which ranges from 0.70 to 0.95 (Field 2016). Table 3–6 and 3–7 present the outer loadings of indicators, composite reliabilities and Cronbach's alpha values for the two questionnaires.

Considering the learner profile questionnaire, indicators demonstrated loadings that ranged from 0.572 to 0.830. Composite reliabilities and Cronbach's alpha for the four constructs ranged from 0.809 to 0.903, suggesting that they have adequate convergent validity, and reliability. (See Table 3–6 for summarised scores.)


Table 3–5: Discriminant validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>OS</th>
<th>AA</th>
<th>ICT</th>
<th>OPU</th>
<th>TPU</th>
<th>CPU</th>
<th>PEOU</th>
<th>PBC</th>
<th>AT</th>
<th>FI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.258</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.384</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>0.452</td>
<td>0.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPU</td>
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<td>0.248</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td>0.452</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.288</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.581</td>
<td>0.619</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>0.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU</td>
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<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.442</td>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEOU</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.581</td>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>0.451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBC</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.619</td>
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<td>0.541</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.452</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.509</td>
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<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>0.384</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>0.827</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding the learner attitude questionnaire, the constructs were reasonably valid and reliable based on the summarised scores in Table 3–7. Indicators demonstrated loadings that ranged from 0.595 to 0.943. Composite reliabilities and Cronbach's alpha for the four constructs ranged from 0.806 to 0.923, suggesting that they have adequate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 3–6: Convergent validity - learner profile questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Convergent validity</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Loadings &gt; 0.70–0.4</td>
<td>Composite reliabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>M1</td>
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<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M2</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M3</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M4</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M5</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards oral skills</td>
<td>AOS1</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td>0.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOS2</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOS3</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOS4</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOS5</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOS6</td>
<td>0.587</td>
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<td></td>
<td>AOS7</td>
<td>0.572</td>
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<td></td>
<td>AOS8</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOS9</td>
<td>0.633</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude towards autonomy</td>
<td>ATA1</td>
<td>0.830</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATA2</td>
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<td></td>
<td>ATA3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>ATA4</td>
<td>0.655</td>
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<td>ATA6</td>
<td>0.640</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATA7</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>ICT use</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>ICT4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ICT5</td>
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<td>ICT6</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ICT7</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ICT9</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41 The indicators were coded using abbreviations of each variable (i.e. M for motivation, AOS for attitude towards oral skills, and ATA for attitude towards autonomy) and numbers that were used to differentiate the indicators of each variable. Note that the sequence of the indicators in this table is consistent with that which is presented in Chapter 4.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Convergent validity</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td></td>
<td>Loadings &gt; 0.70–0.4</td>
<td>Composite reliabilities</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
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<td>0.875</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>OPU4</td>
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<td>OPU5</td>
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<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
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<td>0.810</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CPU5</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
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<td>0.835</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOU2</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOU3</td>
<td>0.780</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOU4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>PEOU5</td>
<td>0.704</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOU6</td>
<td>0.735</td>
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<td>PEOU8</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOU9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AT6</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>FI1</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>0.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FI2</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FI3</td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FI4</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3–7: Convergent validity - learner attitude questionnaire

42 The indicators were coded using abbreviations of each variable (e.g. OPU for overall perceived usefulness, TPU for tool perceived usefulness, CPU for content perceived usefulness, PEOU for perceived ease of use, PBC for perceived behavioural control, AT for affective attitude, and FI for future intentions) and numbers that were used to differentiate the indicators of each variable. Note that the sequence of the indicators in this table is consistent with the one presented in Chapter 4.
However, it should be noted that five items in this questionnaire loaded on a construct different from the constructs to which they were initially ascribed. For example, the item ‘I think using MCOTT to learn about oral presentations is more effective than using a textbook’ seemed to belong to the tool perceived usefulness construct, but it appeared to be correlated with the attitude construct. Similarly, other three items that were associated with the overall perceives usefulness appeared to load on the attitude factor. The fifth item was ascribed to the attitude construct but was found to load on the content perceived usefulness construct.

Although research suggested that “subtle differences in the wording or response format of questions can dramatically influence responses” (Crites et al. 1994, p.620), there was no obvious reason as to why these items loaded on different factors in the case of this research. Since this is exploratory research guided by a pragmatic paradigm which “moves back and forth between induction and deduction—first converting observations into theories and then assessing those theories through action” (Morgan 2007, p.71), none of the items were eliminated. Instead they were added to the constructs on which the items were loaded. In addition, the research questions are concerned with an overall understanding of the participants’ attitudes and the relationships between learner-dependent factors (motivation attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) and the attitudes towards MCOTT use. As such, grouping the attitudinal variables into scales was done to accommodate the estimation technique employed (PLS-SEM), rather than investigating the relationships between each individual attitudinal aspect of corpus use and learner-dependent factors. Accordingly, the researcher modified the scales of the relevant constructs (i.e. content perceived usefulness and attitude) during the analysis and interpretation phases (Chapters 4 and Chapter 5).

3.9.2 Qualitative data

For qualitative data, trustworthiness of the data can be determined by its credibility. Credibility [i.e. validity] refers to the probability that the research findings and interpretation are reliable. Several techniques are suggested to increase research credibility, including prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation; all of which were employed in this research (Lincoln and Guba 1985). In addition to the researcher’s insiderness to the study context and engagement in MCOTT
compilation, the researcher was involved in seventy-seven hours of instruction and systematic observation. While the prolonged engagement provided the researcher with the “scope” of the issues being investigated, the persistent observation provided “depth” (ibid., p.304). That is, prolonged engagement provided opportunities to understand the context, and persistent observation helped identify and evaluate relevant variables. Finally, method triangulation was employed through the three methods of data collection involved in answering the first research question.

3.9.3 Inference quality

Inference quality involves issues relevant to the quality of the research findings, such as inference transferability and transparency (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009) and potential threats arising from the research design (Creswell and Clark 2017). Since the results of the first research question were inferred from a triangulation of mixed methods and the findings of the second research question were inferred from quantitative data, it should be noted that most of the following discussion is relevant to the two research questions.

Inference transferability (i.e. external validity) is relevant to inference quality, and it donates to the generalisability of the data to other contexts. In this research, transferability is not relevant given the philosophical view of the research and its unique context. In similar cases, researchers (e.g. Lincoln and Guba 1985; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009) recommended providing thick description which demonstrates “the time and context in which [the results] were found to hold” (Lincoln and Guba 1985, p.316). This also falls in line with the notion of transparency (Bryman et al. 2008) as an indicator of inference quality. Transparency refers to providing description of the research context, participants, data analysis and manner in which conclusions were derived (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), all of which is illustrated in this chapter.

Furthermore, Creswell and Clark (2017, p.251) identified four validity threats associated with the Concurrent (i.e. Convergent) Triangulation design. Two of these are related to this research: not using parallel concepts in data collection for both the quantitative and qualitative databases and keeping results from the different databases separate. As noted above, data was collected based on the same concepts for both quantitative and qualitative data. In addition, the results were integrated as described
in Section 3.8.4. Therefore, the two threats did not pose issues of concern in this research.

3.10 SUMMARY AND LIMITATIONS

This chapter has described the procedures implemented to investigate the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. It began by identifying pragmatism as the paradigm that guides the research action. Within a case study research framework, this research adopted a Concurrent Triangulation design for data collection and analysis. To answer the first research question, which aims to gain a comprehensive understanding of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, three types of data were collected (i.e. questionnaires, structured observation and semi-structured interviews) and different methods of analysis were employed to analyse the collected data, including frequency distribution, statistical commentary, and content and thematic analysis. To answer the second research question, which investigates potential correlations between learner profile and learner attitude towards MCOTT use, the two questionnaires were analysed using WarpPLS. The results that pertained to each research question are presented in Chapter 4 and discussed in Chapter 5. However, it should be noted that the results are only representative of the research context described in this chapter, bounded by time (i.e. five months for data collection) and system constraints (seventy-seven hours of instruction). Given that participation in this research was voluntary, the results are only representative of those involved. This chapter also described the approach to corpus compilation, delineating the rationale for selecting Backbone tools, the criteria for selecting TED Talks and the profile of the corpus. The role of the researcher as the corpus compiler, a teacher researcher and an insider to the research context is also discussed, as are the associated possible limitations to the interpretations of the results. The researcher’s enthusiasm for and involvement in this project could influence the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. Finally, this chapter also discussed validity and reliability issues relevant to this research, acknowledging that the operational definitions of two constructs in the learner attitude needed modification to reflect the obtained data. Despite these limitations, the researcher’s transparency throughout the different stages of the research may provide valuable insights for future research.
CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings of this research, which were obtained by analysing the two questionnaires (i.e. the learner profile and attitude questionnaires), the observation schemes and the interviews. First, it introduces a description of the participants’ profiles to contextualise the following analysis of the participants’ attitude towards MCOTT use. The second section of the chapter provides a comprehensive analysis of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, using data retrieved from the learner attitude questionnaire, the observation schemes and the interviews, which offers the answer to the first research question, which is concerned with the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. For a systematic presentation of the findings, the questionnaire items are used to initiate themes, upon which the discussion is based; accordingly, relevant data from the observation schemes and the interviews are incorporated. Once all the questionnaire items are discussed, emergent themes from the observation schemes or the interviews are added. The third section then presents the findings related to the second research question, which investigates the relationships between the four learner-dependent variables (i.e. motivation, attitudes towards oral skills, attitudes towards autonomy, and ICT competence) and the attitudes towards MCOTT use. The chapter concludes by summarising the results, which are then discussed in the following chapter.

4.2 PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The profile of the participants was gained through the first questionnaire, namely the learner profile questionnaire (LPQ). It consists of seven sections that are analysed below. As noted in Section 3.6.2, the number of participants who responded to the LPQ was 103.

4.2.1 Demographic information

The first part of the LPQ prompted the participants to provide information relating to 1) whether they lived in an urban or rural area, 2) the type of school they attended (i.e.
public, private, or international), and 3) whether they had experience studying abroad, and, if so, a few details relevant to this experience (i.e. place, time, and duration).

As can be seen in Table 4–1, the majority of the participants (N=98) reported living in urban areas, including Jeddah (N=90), Makkah43 (N=4), Yanbu44 (N=2), Medina45 (N=1), and Albaha46 (N=1). As for rural areas, five participants reported living in rural areas, including Bahrah (N=1), Thuwal (N=2), and Rabigh (N=2).47 In terms of the types of schools attended by the participants, public schools were attended by most of the participants (N=78), followed by private schools (N=24), and only one participant reported attending an international school. Table 4–1 also indicates that only nine participants reported studying abroad in different English-speaking countries, such as Australia (N=3), Canada (N=1), England (N=3), and the USA (N=2). Regarding the duration of their study abroad experiences, the participants reported that they spent between seven and twelve years (N=5), one year (N=1), and three months or less (N=3) living in the respective countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Urban/Rural</th>
<th>Urban (N=98)</th>
<th>Rural (N=5)</th>
<th>Total N=103</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Type</td>
<td>Public N=73</td>
<td>Private N=24</td>
<td>International N=1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public N=5</td>
<td>Private N=0</td>
<td>International N=0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Abroad</td>
<td>N=6</td>
<td>N=3</td>
<td>N=0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–1: Demographic information

4.2.2 Major of specialisation

The participants were also asked to identify the academic majors in which they were planning to specialise. Figure 4–1 presents a list of these majors as well as the number of cases pertinent to each. It is clear that health-related majors were popular among

43 Makkah is located in Western Saudi Arabia, and is fifty-three miles away from Jeddah.
44 Yanbu is located in Western Saudi Arabia, and is 204 miles away from Jeddah.
45 Medina is located in Western Saudi Arabia, and is 261 miles away from Jeddah.
46 Albaha is located in the South West of Saudi Arabia, and is 263 miles away from Jeddah.
47 Bahrah, Thuwal and Rabigh are located in Western Saudi Arabia, and are twenty-two, sixty-three, and 105 miles away from Jeddah, respectively.
the participants, with 39.8% (N=41) of them planning to major in medicine or applied and medical sciences. This percentage is at least quadruple those for the other majors, which ranged between 3.8% (N=4) and 10.6% (N=11) for each major. In addition, the majority of the participants intended to major in programmes that are taught in English such as medicine, computer sciences, and engineering, while fewer participants intended to major in programmes that are taught in Arabic, such as some programmes offered by the arts or business and administration faculties.

## Figure 4–1: Intended majors of specialisation

### 4.2.3 Perception of language level

In the second part of the LPQ, the participants were asked to indicate their perceptions of their language level in relation to each language skill. The analysis revealed that the majority of the participants generally tended to perceive their language proficiency to be at or above their current\(^{48}\) language level, as is illustrated in Table 4–2, suggesting that most of the participants were fairly confident in their language proficiency.

\(^{48}\) In the context of this study, the participants’ current language proficiency level referred to the intermediate level, which was determined by participants’ successful completion of the B1 (low) level course as well as their enrolment in the B1+ level course.
Relative to receptive skills (i.e. listening and reading), the percentage of the participants who perceived their language level to be basic or elementary was higher for productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing). In fact, 24.3% of the participants perceived their speaking proficiency to be basic or elementary, compared to 19.4% of the participants who indicated having basic or elementary writing proficiency. In contrast, the percentage of the participants who described their receptive skills as pre-advanced or advanced was higher than those who described their productive skills as being at these levels. In terms of speaking, about half (45.6%) of the participants described their skills as intermediate, compared to 30.1% of the participants who indicated having pre-advanced or advanced speaking skills.

![Table 4–2: Perception of language level](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Skill</th>
<th>Basic</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Pre-advanced</th>
<th>Advanced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>38.8%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>52.4%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.4 Perception of language needs

The LPQ also probed the participants’ perceptions of the relevance of English to their academic and professional success. Table 4–3 shows the frequencies of distribution pertinent to academic and professional needs for each language skill. It can be observed that the majority of the participants viewed the English language as being very/extremely relevant to both their academic success and future professional needs, with percentages that ranged between 69.9% and 87.4% across all language skills. Among the language skills, speaking and reading corresponded with a marginally higher percentage (72.8%) of being very/extremely relevant to academic success compared to the percentages associated with listening (71.9%) and writing (69%). In terms of professional success, slight differences in the percentages associated with each language skill can be identified, suggesting that speaking skills were perceived as being more relevant to one’s professional success by most of the participants (87.4%).
In the fourth part of the LPQ, the participants responded to a set of items concerning their motivation to learn the English language. Table 4–4 presents these items and their corresponding frequencies of distribution. The participants were generally motivated to learn English, as 64% of them disagreed/strongly disagreed that they learn English only to succeed or to get a job. However, 16.5% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they learn English to succeed or to get a job, suggesting that their primary incentive to learn English is external. Furthermore, 84.4% of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they would not learn English if they were not obliged to, possibly indicating an intrinsic motivation for learning English. In fact, 70.9% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they would spend time improving their English even when they were not required to do so. Watching English movies and listening to English songs, as well as being able to communicate with people from various cultures, were two incentives to learn English for 75.8% and 87.4% of the participants, respectively. These results were found to be related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, as reported in Section 5.4.
The fifth part of the LPQ considered the participants’ attitude towards oral skills. The majority of the participants tended to agree/strongly agree that they want to improve their oral skills because it is good for their own personal development (66%) and because it is spoken all over the world (69.9%). In terms of the variety of English they want to learn, 64% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they want to learn any kind of English that is easy to learn and that helps them communicate with English speakers, whereas 65% of the participants want to learn the English that native speakers use. Furthermore, 42.7% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the grammar they use while speaking is different from that which they use while writing. Similarly, 43.7% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the range of vocabulary they use while speaking is different from that which they use while writing.

In terms of the last three items of this variable, the findings revealed that 35.9% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they would be praised by their teacher and classmates when delivering a presentation, only 11.7% of them agreed/strongly agreed with feeling uneasy whenever they spoke in English, and 49.5% of them encouraged themselves to speak English with others even when they felt afraid of making mistakes. Based on these results, it appears that most of the participants had positive attitudes towards oral skills. The participants, however, demonstrated less confidence.
in their oral skills. These results were found to relate to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, as is indicated in Section 4.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to improve my English oral skills because I believe it is good for my personal development.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>46.60%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider it important to improve my English oral skills because English is, nowadays, spoken all over the world.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
<td>17.50%</td>
<td>52.40%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to learn any kind of English that is easy to learn and helps me communicate with English speakers.</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td>30.10%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>41.70%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to learn the English that native speakers use.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>31.10%</td>
<td>25.20%</td>
<td>39.80%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The grammar I use while speaking is different from the one I use while writing.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>48.50%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The range of vocabulary I use while speaking is different from the one I use while writing.</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>42.70%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>11.70%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I give a presentation, I know I will be praised by my teacher and my classmates.</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
<td>50.50%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>13.60%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel uneasy whenever I speak in English.</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
<td>38.80%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I encourage myself to speak English with others even when I feel afraid of making mistakes.</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>11.70%</td>
<td>38.00%</td>
<td>26.20%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>11.70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–5: Attitude to oral skills

In terms of APs, it is relevant to report aspects of the participants’ past experiences that were discussed during the first sessions, as per the observation data. (See Appendix 11.) While most of the participants mentioned that they had never taken any AP courses in English or been provided with clear guidelines prior to an AP task, forty-four (42.7%) participants reported that their English language instructors used to encourage them to present a five-minute talk and to engage in debates on several topics related to the curriculum. In addition, the participants elaborated on the strategies they use to prepare for English presentations. For example, the majority of the participants reported using Google to search for information about a particular topic or ready-made PowerPoint presentations that can provide them with insights into how to present a specific topic. In addition, twenty-four (23.3%) participants reported writing their speech in Arabic and then translating it to English using Google.
Translate, whereas thirty-seven (35.9%) participants reported using Google Translate only if they were uncertain about how to phrase a certain idea and then attempted to modify the Google-translated sentence. Modification strategies included using an English-Arabic (N=37 – 35.9%) and English-English dictionary (N=37 – 35.9%) and using Google Search (as a concordancer) to determine whether the Google-translated sentence is common (N=17 – 16.5%). Furthermore, listening to videos was reported by twenty-two (21.3%) participants as one of the strategies they use to prepare for English presentations. Finally, most of the participants indicated the need for materials and resources that they can use to improve their speaking skills.

4.2.7 Attitude towards autonomy

The sixth part of the LPQ investigated the attitudes of the participants towards autonomy. Table 4–6 presents the respective questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution. From the table, it can be seen that 39.8% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they know how to find ways of learning English that are appropriate to them. Furthermore, 57.3% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they know which aspects of their language they need to improve. Moreover, 39.8% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they can learn more English through their independent studies than through attending classes, whereas 35.9% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they need the teacher to tell them which aspects of their language they need to improve. Considering using English learning resources, 50.5% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they always use them outside the classroom, while only 7.8% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they use these resources only when the teacher asks them to do so. Finally, 52.5% of the participants were in favour of having a lot of choices in the classroom, and 71.9% of them noted that they learn from their mistakes while learning the language. These results demonstrate that most of the participants had a moderate to high degree of autonomy in learning English, and a few participants indicated the opposite. These results were found to correlate with the participants’ attitudes towards the MCOTT, as is indicated in Section 4.4.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know how to find ways of learning English that are appropriate to me.</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>42.70%</td>
<td>17.50%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know which aspects of my English I need to improve.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>8.70%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>24.30%</td>
<td>33.00%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I need the teacher to tell me which aspects of my English I need to improve.</td>
<td>20.40%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>34.00%</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>17.50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can learn more English through my independent study than through attending classes.</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>35.90%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>30.10%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always make use of English learning resources (i.e. websites, mobile applications, dictionaries... etc) outside the classroom.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>13.60%</td>
<td>34.00%</td>
<td>39.40%</td>
<td>31.10%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I make use of English learning resources (i.e. dictionaries... etc) outside the classroom, only when the teacher asks me to do so.</td>
<td>36.90%</td>
<td>20.40%</td>
<td>35.00%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn English successfully it is important for me to be given a lot of choices in class.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>8.70%</td>
<td>36.90%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>31.10%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I do poorly on an English test, I try to learn from my mistakes.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>20.40%</td>
<td>51.50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–6: Attitude towards autonomy

Furthermore, the participants mentioned the following strategies in response to the open-ended question ‘List any learning strategies that you use when learning English’:

- Smart phone applications (e.g. Duolingo, word games) (N=47 – 45.6%)
- Watching English movies (N=44 – 42.7%)
- Social media (i.e. Twitter, Instagram, YouTube) (N=35 – 33.9%)
- Reading English books and simple novels (N=22 – 21.3%)
- Listening to English songs (N=16 – 15.5%), short stories (N=6 – 5.8%) and news (N=3 – 2.9%)
- Texting using English (N=13 – 12.6%)
- Watching native speakers on social media (e.g. Snapchat) and repeating their speech to improve one’s English fluency (N=7 – 6.7%)
- Talking to oneself in English (N=7 – 6.7%)
- E-learning websites (N=6 – 5.8%)
- Listening to oneself on a recording (N=1 – 0.9%)
The list above suggests the participants’ familiarity with a number of web-based tools or mobile applications through which they can be exposed to authentic language input and be engaged in self-directed learning experiences. While some of these tools have been developed specifically for language learning purposes, such as Duolingo, and e-learning websites, others include social media platforms developed for other uses such as multimedia sharing (e.g. Instagram, YouTube, Snapchat), or microblogging (e.g. Twitter). In addition, the participants appeared to utilise other entertainment forms (e.g. watching English movies, reading English books, and listening to English songs) for language learning purposes, offering them, possibly, both an interesting and meaningful language input. Finally, a few participants reported the use of learning strategies (e.g. texting in English and listening to oneself on a recording) that can provide opportunities for language practice and self-assessment.

4.2.8 ICT competence and use

The final part of the LPQ investigated participants’ ICT competence and use. The first two questions related to ICT use are presented in Table 4–7. It can be observed that all participants preferred using a smartphone (N=103), followed by a laptop (N=98), a tablet/iPad (N=32), and finally a PC (N=3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Do you possess any of the following ICT devices?</th>
<th>Do you use any of the following ICT devices in your studies?</th>
<th>Identify the primary device you use for learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smart phone</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tablet/iPad</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laptop</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PC</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–7: ICT competence - device

Furthermore, the participants were asked to respond to a set of items about their ICT competence and use. Table 4–8 presents the respective questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution. Table 4–8 also illustrates that the majority of the participants (84.5%) declared feeling confident about their use of the ICT device, with only 15.5% of them indicating neutrality/uncertainty. It is also interesting that 68% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they always learn faster when using the ICT device. This percentage increased to include 76.7% of the participants who
reported that some materials can be learnt faster with such devices. Similarly, 58.2% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they prefer learning English through the use of this device. Moreover, 69.9% of the participants believed that the use of an ICT device gives flexibility to learning. In terms of the usefulness of the ICT device in improving language skills, the participants reported different opinions per language skill; the majority of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the ICT device helps improve their receptive skills including listening (79.6%) and reading (73.7%). Considering productive skills, 65.1% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the ICT device helps improve their speaking skills, and only 55.3% found it useful for writing. Generally, these results show that the majority of the participants indicated their competence in learning using an ICT device. These results were found to correlate with the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, as is indicated in Section 4.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident using this device.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>15.50%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>61.20%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always learn faster using this device.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>29.10%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>44.70%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some materials can be learned faster using this device.</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>30.10%</td>
<td>46.60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer learning English through the use of this device.</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>26.20%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning through this device gives flexibility to language learning.</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>25.20%</td>
<td>30.10%</td>
<td>38.80%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using this device helps improving my English speaking skills.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>27.20%</td>
<td>27.20%</td>
<td>32.90%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using this device helps improving my English listening skills.</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td>14.60%</td>
<td>31.10%</td>
<td>48.50%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using this device helps improving my English reading skills.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>44.70%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using this device helps improving my English writing skills.</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>34.00%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>33.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–8: ICT competence and use

In summary, this section has presented the results pertinent to the participants’ profiles, which help contextualise the results related to their attitudes towards MCOTT that are presented in the following section and discussed in the following chapter. In
addition, the results of the participants’ profiles are particularly relevant to the second research question, which concerns the relationships between the participant’s attitudes towards MCOTT and the four learner-dependent variables (i.e. motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence), addressed in Section 4.5. Before moving to delineate the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, it is helpful to recapitulate a few points in relation to the participants’ profiles. First, the results revealed that most participants appeared to share similar educational and cultural backgrounds. In addition, English was indicated to be academically and professionally relevant for most participants. Furthermore, the majority of the participants reflected their motivation to learn the English language. In terms of attitudes towards oral skills, attitudes towards autonomy, and ICT competence, the participants manifested distinct tendencies mostly representing neutral and positive attributes with respect to the three profile-related variables. Having considered the learner profile questionnaire, the next section presents the results concerning the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT.

4.3 THE PARTICIPANTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS MCOTT USE

The participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use were captured by means of the learner attitude questionnaire (LAQ), the observation schemes, and the interviews. As indicated earlier in this research, the learner attitude was conceptualised based on the C-TAM-TPB; thus, the following results are presented in accordance with its constructs, namely perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude and future intentions. As noted in Chapter 3, the number of the participants who responded to the LAQ was 103, and the number of the participants who were interviewed was thirty-two.

4.3.1 Perceived usefulness

This section introduces the results pertinent to the overall perceived usefulness of the short course, the tool (i.e. MCOTT) perceived usefulness, and the content (i.e. TED Talks) perceived usefulness among participants. In particular, it explores whether the

49 The Combined Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour
participants believed that the course, MCOTT use, and TED Talks could help in raising their awareness of features of APs.

**Overall perceived usefulness**

This section presents the results pertaining to the participants’ overall perceptions of the short course (i.e. the unit) in terms of meeting their needs, raising their awareness of the structure and purpose, vocabulary, and grammar of APs, and introducing learning strategies that the participants could use independently to improve their AP skills. Table 4–9 presents the respective questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution, which are discussed thematically while also integrating relevant results from the observation schemes and the interviews.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of meeting my needs and goals with respect to improving my academic oral skills.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>11.10%</td>
<td>40.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of raising my awareness about the structure and purpose of academic oral presentations.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>24.30%</td>
<td>61.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of raising my awareness about vocabulary used in academic oral presentations.</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>13.60%</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>62.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of raising my awareness about grammar used in academic oral presentations.</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td>15.50%</td>
<td>27.20%</td>
<td>51.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of introducing strategies I can use independently to improve my oral presentation skills.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>63.10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–9: Overall perceived usefulness**

**Meeting the participants’ needs**

In terms of meeting their needs and goals to improve their AP skills (the first item in Table 4–9), most of the participants (71.9%) agreed/strongly agreed that the unit was helpful. This suggests that the objectives identified in the course plan and the content of the sessions (see Appendix 10 for a detailed description of the course plan) were relevant to the needs of most of the participants. However, it is also noteworthy that 21.40% of the participants indicated their neutrality in response to this item, which is the highest percentage associated with this descriptor in Table 4–9. This leaning towards neutrality could be related to the participants’ uncertainty about the usefulness
of the course in this study (particularly given its short span) or about their needs, as they reported that they had never taken any AP course, as noted in Section 4.2.6. It is also relevant that the 6.8% of the participants who disagreed/strongly disagreed with the statement also reported that at least three out of the four language skills were not at all/very relevant to their academic and professional success, as can be seen from Table 4–3.

In the same vein, data from the interviews represented the views of the participants who thought the course met their needs and those who thought it was insufficient. In response to the question ‘What features of oral presentations did the unit not help you with?’, ten interviewees declared that the unit covered what they deemed important to improve their AP skills, and six referred to a few aspects (e.g. interacting with the audience) that they considered important but that were not discussed during the course. Among the first group, an interviewee demonstrated how the course met her needs:

See. We discussed everything, because what we, the students, wanted to learn is how to express our thoughts, how to structure a sentence, how to use a word and when to use it. And everything was written down, everything was ready. And there were many examples, and they were good. So it was good; in this respect, there was nothing. It was really good (E11).

In the above quotation, the interviewee encapsulates her and her classmates’ needs in the notion of expressing one’s thoughts, which demands structuring sentences and selecting appropriate vocabulary. This profound awareness of form-function mapping, which she likely possessed prior to attending the sessions, is a factor that might have influenced her attitude to the course. This raises the question of whether prior language awareness positively influences the attitudes of learners towards MCOTT use, which is revisited in Section 5.3.1. By indicating the availability of the ‘good’ examples that this course offered, the interviewee could be implying the lack of suitable resources on APs, which was also reported, as indicated in Section 4.2.6. In response to the same question, another interviewee reported that the course met her needs, because it offered guidelines that she could follow when preparing for APs:

Everything was covered. I mean, now I know the steps, so I apply them and use them and learn phrases, and that is it (F08).

Similarly, the lack of suitable guidelines (also reported in Section 4.2.6) could also be implied. Both interviewees quoted above expressed a sense of autonomy, at least at an
attitudinal level, in their comments, which could have influenced their perceptions that the course was sufficient to meet their needs. The other interviewees in the same group simply remarked that the unit covered all the aspects that they considered important and/or relevant to APs. As for the interviewees who represented the second group, four of them suggested areas related to body language and confidence as aspects that could have been discussed during the sessions:

Maybe the characteristics... I mean what the speaker looks like, or how to carry oneself, what a person chooses... I mean things like that, the general posture, the external appearance (G02).

I honestly think we discussed many things related to oral presentation. Maybe we did not talk about self-confidence and how a person stands while delivering a presentation... things like that (L01).

From the quotations above, it is clear that the interviewees were concerned about how their body language reflects their persona, particularly in relation to confidence and posture. It is relevant to note here that body language was discussed, albeit briefly, during the sessions for all groups. This discussion was initiated by comments from the participants, particularly noting speakers’ body language as they began or concluded their presentations, and accounted for a total of twenty-seven questions and comments, as indicated in the observation schemes. (See Appendix 11.) Examples of these included comments on hand gestures and eye contact. An examination of these revealed that twenty-two of these comments, similar to the comments made by the interviewees quoted above, were made out of concern about how one’s image is perceived by others. Five comments, however, indicated the participants’ interest in how body language helps convey one’s messages. It is clear that body language was perceived by some of the participants as indispensable to the discussion on APs.

Another aspect that two interviewees referred to, and that was not discussed during the short course, was interaction with listeners; the interviewees stated the following:

We did not talk about interaction with the audience (J09).

May be we did not discuss how to involve the audience. What are the ways to let them speak and discuss. I mean it becomes discussion and conversation not only a presentation (K08).
While the first interviewee referred to the question and answer session that often succeeds a presentation, the second interviewee referred to engaging the audience in a discussion during a presentation (i.e. an interactive presentation).

*Raising awareness of structure and purpose, vocabulary and grammar*

On the question of the usefulness of the short course in raising awareness of the structure and purpose, vocabulary, and grammar of APs (the second, third and fourth items in Table 4–9), the majority of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the five-week course was helpful, with percentages of 85.5%, 81.5%, and 78.7% respectively. In fact, not surprisingly, the highest percentage was associated with the structure and purpose of APs considering that the sessions were thematically divided based on the structure of APs. (See Appendix 10 for a detailed course plan description.)

In the same vein, when responding to the question 'What features of oral presentations did the unit help you with?', the interviewees referred to at least one of these aspects (i.e. structure and purpose (N=22), vocabulary (N=17), and grammar (N=3)). For example, three interviewees referred to the three aspects; some of their comments are as follows:

I learnt how to learn phrases and notice their function and their grammar, and I use them in my presentations. I also learnt how to organise and prepare oral presentations (B04).

I benefited by learning how to use phrases. It is very beneficial to learn many phrases. It makes it easier for me. I mean, I do not need to waste my time writing everything from scratch. I can look at different introductions and phrases, take the general ones, think about how speakers used them and do the same but add my own ideas (J09).

The above quotations demonstrate aspects of language awareness that the interviewees gained from the course, including lexicogrammatical and genre awareness pertinent to APs, both of which were highlighted during the course. In her response, J09 (above) also referred to the use of phrases (i.e. pattern-hunting—see Section 2.2.1) as a method to accelerate the process of AP preparation.

Similarly, two interviewees indicated their awareness of the introduction and conclusion and the phrases commonly used in these sections, with one interviewee also referring to the different meanings that can be associated with a given phrase:
I learnt how I can introduce and conclude my presentations and the words we can use in these sections (F01).

I learnt the phrases that can be used in introductions and conclusions and how we use them for different purposes. And I did not pay much attention to the phrases before the lectures honestly. So this is a very important aspect that I will start focusing on (F05).

Generally, in reference to the structure and purpose of APs, the interviewees mentioned that the course helped raise their awareness of the organisational structure, content, and function of APs. In terms of vocabulary, the interviewees indicated that the course was helpful in familiarising them with relevant vocabulary and specifically phrases. A particularly interesting statement made by one interviewee captured different aspects related to learning vocabulary that were mentioned by other interviewees:

You can hear the word, see the spelling and see it in different sentences, maybe with different meanings. But you don’t forget the sentence because you remember the video and the speaker (F08).

The interviewee referred to the different aspects of vocabulary learning, including form, meaning, and use. While it was clear that the participants were curious about the structure and purpose, and vocabulary during the sessions, grammar appeared to receive less attention. In fact, the participants tended to ignore grammar unless they were reminded to consider it, as per the observation data in Appendix 11. This was not surprising given that the participants were used to traditional methods of grammar teaching.

Finally, three interviewees indicated that the course was helpful in familiarising them with the differences between spoken and written discourse. Some of their comments include the following:

I found it useful because I learnt some differences between writing and speaking. Some sentences may be too formal for speaking (I04).

I learnt the differences between words that I can use in speaking and writing. I also learnt the basics of preparing for oral presentations and how to look for phrases and think of their functions (B02).
Introducing learning strategies

In terms of introducing learning strategies (the last item in Table 4–9), the majority (86.4%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the five-week course was helpful in terms of introducing strategies they could use independently to improve their AP skills. In response to the question ‘What strategies did you learn from the unit?’, the interviewees mentioned different strategies, including using phrases (N=14), using MCOTT and the TED Talks website (N=5), listening attentively (N=3), capturing listeners’ attention (N=1), and inductive language learning (N=1). Some of their comments include the following:

I learnt that we can learn language from language itself. We do not always need to go back to the grammar book (A10).

Before attending the lectures, when I listened to something in English, I did not really focus on what was being said, but now I listen attentively. And I think of the speaker’s purpose (C10).

I learnt that there are some really useful websites, and I can use videos to watch and copy people till I start speaking like them (F09).

I learnt that when we present something, it is not necessary to prepare everything ourselves. We can learn phrases, and this will make our presentations better (K08).

According to the observation schemes (Appendix 11), the participants were particularly interested in independent learning strategies; questions about different learning scenarios were iterated throughout the sessions. For example, some of the participants (N=13) asked about strategies to improve their listening skills while using MCOTT. Others (N=8) enquired about the use of text analysis techniques to improve their writing skills. Putting it into practice, one interviewee reported an incident where she applied the strategies introduced in the sessions to prepare for her English writing exam; she was proud to share that her instructor regarded her essay as the best of all written for the exam. When asked to elaborate, she stated the following:

I really liked how we took phrases from the introduction, main body and conclusion and then used them in our presentations. And I did the same thing to prepare for my essay (K04).

In conclusion, the above results were in line with the objectives of the course plan. Interestingly, most of the participants, at least at the attitudinal level (since
investigating participants’ performance was beyond the scope of this study), demonstrated the useful aspects of the course. It is acknowledged, however, that a few participants did not find the course useful at all or indicated their neutrality towards it.

**Tool perceived usefulness**

This part of the LAQ examined the participants’ perceptions about the usefulness of MCOTT in providing opportunities in relation to exploring features of APs, learning independently, noticing things about language that may not be noticeable through textbooks, and thinking about one’s learning process. Table 4–10 presents the respective questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution. In what follows, these findings are illustrated with references from qualitative data (i.e. the observations and the interviews) where relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for exploring features of oral academic presentations.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>20.40%</td>
<td>69.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for drawing my attention to things about language I would not notice through textbooks.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>78.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for learning independently.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>16.50%</td>
<td>76.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for thinking of my learning process.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>13.60%</td>
<td>34.00%</td>
<td>51.50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–10: Tool perceived usefulness**

Considering the usefulness of MCOTT for exploring features of APs, the majority of the participants (90.3%) agreed/strongly agreed that it was helpful (the first item in Table 4–10). Similarly, 97% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that MCOTT was useful for drawing their attention to things about language that they would not notice through textbooks (the second item in Table 4–10). In this regard, data from the interviews can be relevant. Twenty-seven interviewees described the usefulness of MCOTT for improving their AP skills, when responding to the question "In what ways
do you think MCOTT use is helpful?’ Out of the twenty-seven interviewees, seventeen described specific aspects of MCOTT that they found useful. These aspects entailed the ability to browse topics and videos (N=3), the availability of videos and transcripts (N=15), the ability to compare different sections or topics (N=12), and the ability to retrieve concordance lines (N=7). Some of their comments include the following:

Now there were some words that I did not know where to put or how to use. You got me? If I used MCOTT every day, and I read and like this, I will benefit a lot. For example, this week, I looked for the word ‘would’. When I can use it? Because I read many sentences, I learnt how I can use it (E11).

I think the website covered broader perspectives than we are used to. I mean, in the textbooks, we learn limited stuff in each level. MCOTT covers broader perspectives (B01).

The first thing I think MCOTT was very clear and good. I mean if I want to look for something, it won’t take me time. Everything is connected to the other. I mean I can select first a topic that I want to talk about, I mean similar to it. Then I can see the introductions, and look for phrases and words, and then I can search these phrases in MCOTT and see more examples. I think there are a lot to do and it is very flexible (C14).

In the above quotations, the interviewees referred to different aspects that they found useful when using MCOTT. For example, the interviewee (E11), in the first quotation, demonstrated how the use of concordances could be beneficial for vocabulary usage. According to B01, MCOTT offered more than what textbooks offer. In addition, the interviewee (C14), in the third quotation, illustrated that MCOTT was flexible, straightforward, and helpful in exploring different aspects pertinent to APs, such as structure, and vocabulary. Such views were reiterated by the participants who responded to the open-ended question in the LAQ ‘Add any additional comments about the difficulties of MCOTT’, as can be seen in Table 4–11.

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50 Note that most of the comments to answer this question were positive, and hence the inclusion of such comments in this section. Other comments that offered suggestions can be found in Section 4.3.3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Participants’ comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section search and lexical list modes</strong></td>
<td>Viewing the sections is really good.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can compare sections and then move to discover more sentences of words I like. It is a very good website.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Searching for sections is great (N=8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T(^{51})/ I will always use the section search. It is the best aspect of the website.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think MCOTT is amazing. I can see all the words in the website. I can see only introduction or conclusion or maybe main body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Concordances mode</strong></td>
<td>T/ I can view different examples of words. This helps me learn how to use words in different ways, which is interesting and useful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Words section is good because I can see many sentences of the word and know to use it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Metadata and others</strong></td>
<td>MCOTT is really good. We see information of speaker and presentation time, and we can save video and read the presentation. Also the section part is really good. It makes learning easy. It is the only website like this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
<td>T/ It is a good website for English presentations. It has short sections which is useful as I can focus on each aspect of language such as grammar, vocabulary and functions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is small. It is good for me because there are 45 videos and I can be able to finish them in one month. I can listen to them and repeat them again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Manageable content</strong></td>
<td>I think it is very good because I can learn from it at home and for free.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T/ I can use MCOTT independently as it is not difficult to use. I may need to use a dictionary to check meanings of new words, but I usually use dictionaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is good for teaching myself because we can do everything. Watch and listen and read and enjoy our time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–11: Open-ended question - MCOTT**

From Table 4–11, the section search mode appears to be one of the most commonly reported features that was appreciated by the participants (N=14), which is similar to the results gained from the interviews, as noted above. In addition, the participants (N=2) reported that the concordance function was useful. Moreover, one participant delineated various features related to the content that she found beneficial, such as the metadata associated with each video. Along the same line, two participants highlighted the value of the manageable content provided by MCOTT, with one of them indicating the short length of each section, and the other referring to the limited number of videos.

\(^{51}\) Translated answers are denoted by T.
available in MCOTT. Note that other participants were in favour of the availability of more TED Talks, as noted in Section 4.3.3.

Furthermore, the majority of the participants (93.2%) agreed/strongly agreed that MCOTT was useful in providing opportunities for learning independently (the third item in Table 4–10). In terms of providing opportunities for thinking of their learning process, the majority of the participants (85.5%) agreed/strongly agreed that MCOTT is useful (the fourth item in Table 4–10). In this regard, one interviewee reported that learning about MCOTT encouraged her to learn independently:

I mean after these lectures I am encouraged now to learn by myself and not only through English course or the university. I am really happy that I knew about MCOTT (B01).

It can also be seen from Table 4–11 that three participants acknowledged the usefulness of MCOTT for independent learning. While one of these participants recognised the accessibility of MCOTT, another participant implied her ability to manage using MCOTT independently with the aid of a dictionary. As for the third participant, she highlighted the functionality of MCOTT to independent learning, which she, possibly, viewed as the ability to perform various tasks (e.g. listening, reading) while enjoying her time.

Overall, the results show that most participants perceived MCOTT as useful for providing opportunities to explore AP features, and to learn independently. In addition, the participants identified the different features of MCOTT that facilitated such tasks, including section search and concordances modes, and the available videos and transcripts.

**Content perceived usefulness**

In this section, the participants’ perceptions of the usefulness of the TED Talks and their attitudes towards them are examined, with a particular focus on whether the participants found TED Talks to be helpful in improving their AP skills, culturally relevant, and interesting. Table 4–12 presents the respective questionnaire items and

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52 As indicated in Section 3.9.1, some items were added to the factors they were found to load on, as was the case with the second statement in Table 4–11. This statement was initially included in the affective attitude construct, but it was later found to load on the content perceived usefulness factor; hence, it was analysed in this section.
their frequencies of distribution. In what follows, these findings are illustrated with references from qualitative data (i.e. the observations and the interviews) where relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, I think TED Talks are helpful as a resource to improve my oral presentation skills.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>25.20%</td>
<td>66.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, I think TED Talks are interesting and entertaining.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>30.10%</td>
<td>58.30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, I think TED Talks reflect what I consider a ‘good presentation’.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>33.00%</td>
<td>52.40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, I think TED Talks are too short to help me explore the features of oral presentations.</td>
<td>50.50%</td>
<td>26.20%</td>
<td>14.60%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>4.90%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this unit, I think TED Talks have a variety of topics that are culturally irrelevant.</td>
<td>60.20%</td>
<td>24.30%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–12: Content perceived usefulness

Table 4–12 demonstrates that the majority (91.2%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that TED Talks are helpful as a resource to improve their AP skills. The participants’ appreciation of TED Talks was also apparent in their responses to the open-ended question in the questionnaire ‘Add any additional comments about TED Talks’. Table 4–13 presents the participants’ comments in response to the open-ended question. The participants suggested that TED Talks can be useful for developing the four language skills, improving pronunciation, learning vocabulary, gaining information about different topics, learning independently and finding talks about topics (e.g. health) that are not easily accessible. In reference to TED Talks’ usefulness for independent learning, one interviewee stated the following:

The videos were really useful. I mean we can use them independently to learn. I feel the videos can be closer to the learner. We can see the speakers and listen to their voice and intonation (B01).

Besides independent learning, the interviewee suggested that using TED Talks offered other benefits related to using videos, including seeing and listening to the speakers, which relates to the advantages of using multimedia files and their role in bringing authenticity to classrooms, which are discussed in Sections 2.3 and 3.5.1. Generally,
these results indicate that participants found TED Talks useful for not only improving their AP skills but also for improving other aspects of their language skills as well as enriching their knowledge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Participants’ comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Helpful as a resource</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/s/ Very useful. It entails all the basic language skills, which are reading, writing, listening and speaking, and this is exactly what I need.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/ Great idea for independent learning and developing language skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/ It helps enhance pronunciation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It does help strengthen listening.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/ Facilitates gaining information and learning vocabulary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improves English and general knowledge. Creative ideas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps expand knowledge and improve English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We can learn information and improve our English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the fact that there are health topics. It is usually not easy to find them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interesting and entertaining</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amazing website.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it’s very enjoyable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are so many interesting topics. I loved the different accents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice to watch and listen to.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Good presentations</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/ Very useful, varied and introduces presenters with good presentation skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/ Wonderful, varied, and encourages me to become as good as the TED Talks presenters.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–13: Open-ended question - TED Talks

Most (88.4%) of the participants perceived TED Talks as not only useful but also interesting and entertaining (the second statement in Table 4–12), which likely enhanced their attitudes towards them. The responses to the open-ended question ‘Add any additional comments about TED Talks’ also demonstrated this view, as is evident from Table 4–13. The participants used words such as ‘enjoyable’, ‘wonderful’, ‘interesting’ and ‘nice’ to describe how they perceived TED Talks. Similarly, one interviewee stated the following:

I really liked the TED videos. I liked the topics. They were very interesting, and I did not feel stressed when I listened to them (A10).

53 Translated answers are denoted by T.
Furthermore, most (85.4%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that TED Talks reflected what they considered a good presentation (the third statement in Table 4–12). In fact, one participant indicated that she encouraged her to be ‘as good as the TED Talks presenters’, as shown in Table 4–13.

Since MCOTT contained TED Talks that were less than six minutes long, the majority (76.7%) of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that TED Talks were too short to help them explore features of APs (the fourth statement in Table 4–12). It is also relevant, and according to the observation data (see Appendix 11), to note that thirty-four participants reported listening to more than one talk in preparation for the second, third, and fourth sessions, when they were asked to listen to only one talk. While this could demonstrate the participants’ interest in TED Talks, they might have been less likely to do this if longer talks had been selected. Furthermore, another seventeen participants indicated that the length of the talks encouraged them to listen to the same talk more than once, as per the observation data. (See Appendix 11.)

Finally, 84.5% of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that TED Talks were culturally irrelevant (the last statement in Table 4–12). Comments related to this theme were absent in the qualitative data, which could indicate that no substantial issues arose in terms of cultural irrelevance. However, 4.8% (N=5) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that TED Talks were culturally irrelevant. It should be noted that four of these participants were from rural areas, and the fifth one was from an urban area.

In conclusion, the results indicate that most of the participants perceived TED Talks as a useful resource to improve their AP skills and reflected what they considered a good presentation as well as found them interesting. Most of the participants also disagreed that the TED Talks were too short or culturally irrelevant. Such positive attitudes towards TED Talks could have enhanced the participants’ favourable attitudes towards MCOTT.

4.3.2 Perceived ease of use

Perceived ease of use, the second construct in the LAQ, was incorporated into the learner attitude questionnaire to explore the extent of potential difficulties experienced by the participants while using MCOTT. The items in this section can be grouped into
two categories: issues related to a lack of resources and to tasks. Table 4–14 presents
the respective questionnaire items relating to perceived ease of use and their
frequencies of distribution. In this study, most of the participants tended to agree that
MCOTT was quite straightforward and easy to use. Among the issues related to tasks,
concordance activities seemed to be the most problematic. In what follows, these
findings are illustrated with references from qualitative data (i.e. the observations and
the interviews) where relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to limited access to a computer/the Internet.</td>
<td>74.80%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to the speed of my Internet connection.</td>
<td>76.70%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to insufficient training.</td>
<td>73.80%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to unfamiliar vocabulary in the concordance output.</td>
<td>63.10%</td>
<td>16.50%</td>
<td>11.70%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to the limited number of sentences in the concordance output.</td>
<td>68.90%</td>
<td>13.60%</td>
<td>11.70%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to the large number of sentences in the concordance output.</td>
<td>68.90%</td>
<td>9.70%</td>
<td>14.60%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in using MCOTT due to the time and effort spent on analysing the data.</td>
<td>74.80%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in performing the search technique.</td>
<td>70.90%</td>
<td>14.60%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have some difficulty in performing the tasks, as they are mentally demanding.</td>
<td>73.80%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–14: Perceived ease of use**

**Lack of resources**

In terms of difficulties caused by a lack of resources, the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they faced difficulties using MCOTT due to limited access to a computer/the Internet or due to the speed of their Internet connection (the first and second statements in Table 4–14), with percentages of 84.5% and 86.4%, respectively. This was expected, as the majority of the participants indicated that they
owned laptops and smartphones, as is indicated in Section 4.2.8. In addition, the sessions took place in a language lab, where the participants were able to use PCs that were connected to the Internet. During these sessions, minor technical issues occurred, but they were solved promptly. These included slow PCs (N=8) and PCs freezing (N=13), as indicated in the observation schemes. (See Appendix 11.) In all cases, other PCs were available and prepared for the participants’ use. In fact, one technical issue caused a delay in the first session during the second phase of the study: MCOTT was not accessible from the PCs in the language lab but was accessible from other devices (i.e. smartphones). Troubleshooting the server did not reveal any issues, so the researcher sought support from the hosted service provider who checked MCOTT server and finally (as no obvious issues were detected) advised starting a new server. Accordingly, a new server was set up where MCOTT was uploaded.

In a similar vein, 83.5% of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they had difficulty due to insufficient training (the third statement in Table 4–14). This seems to align with the data from the interviews. Twenty-five interviewees referred to the teacher when responding to the question ‘What did you like most about the unit?’.

Some of their comments include:

All sessions were easy. I liked them. I understood everything, and the teacher made things easy for us (L05).

We learnt how to use the website because the teacher was there, and helped us (K10).

She [the teacher] explained, and then we practised. She gave us enough time to see and search (C06).

Such comments highlight the importance of scaffolding and training. It is also relevant to note that the training entailed both the technical aspects of MCOTT, as well as dealing with language data (e.g. analysing language, identifying phrases). With this in mind, an investigation of question types raised by the participants during the sessions revealed that the number of questions related to the technical aspects of using MCOTT during the first two sessions (N=86) was nearly triple that during the last three sessions (N=27). Examples of these questions included ‘How can I go back to the transcripts?’, ‘How can I search for all forms of a word?’ and ‘This is only the introduction. How can I see the video?’. This shows that the participants were quite familiar with the technical aspects of MCOTT by the third session, particularly compared to the first
two sessions. In fact, the same was reported by five interviewees who indicated that they experienced difficulty using MCOTT at first but not during the later sessions. Some of their comments are as follows:

It was difficult to move between tabs and to search at the beginning. But then the teacher let us practice again and again, so it became easy (A08).

MCOTT was easy to use and uncomplicated, but for people using it for the first time, it can be difficult and they may get confused. I felt there were some points that were unclear, but generally, it was easy (B02).

Also, people using the website for the first time may not know how. But because the teacher showed us how to use it, we knew it, and this was the only disadvantage (B10).

From the quotations, it is clear that the interviewees experienced difficulties at first but developed familiarity with MCOTT as they used it. It is worth noting that the number of students in each group did not exceed eleven, as indicated in Section 3.6.2, which helped with addressing concerns raised by individual participants. On a side note, it was felt that the participants generally viewed using websites as an independent activity and that they should know how to use it without the aid of the teacher. This was reflected in the third excerpt above and in the following one:

The problem is that I needed someone to tell me how to use it at first. The advantage is that the website is really beneficial. I also liked the presence of the transcript and the concordance (B01).

The perception that educational websites are a platform for independent learning was also suggested by fifteen participants, as per the observation data. (See Appendix 11.) This suggests that these participants are ready, at least at the attitudinal level, to take responsibility for their own learning. In fact, the participants’ attitudes towards autonomy were found to correlate with their perceived ease of use, as is indicated in Section 4.4.2.

Compared to the questions about the technical aspects of MCOTT, there were more questions related to language data during the last three sessions. In fact, questions about language data were rare during the first two sessions (N=35) but increased gradually during the last three sessions (see Appendix 11). Such questions were typical of language classrooms, such as ‘What does this word mean?’, ‘Does the speaker intend to elaborate here?’, and ‘Why is the conclusion so short?’. Accordingly, one
may assume that once the participants had become less concerned about the technical aspects, they became more focused on the subject matter.

**Tasks**

Considering concordance output, 79% of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they had difficulty due to unfamiliar vocabulary in the concordance output (the fourth statement in Table 4–14). Similarly, the majority of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they had difficulty due to the limited or large number of sentences in the concordance output (the fifth and sixth statements in Table 4–14), with percentages of 82.5% and 78.6% respectively. While most of the participants disagreed with having difficulty caused by the concordance output, it is clear from Table 4–14 that the statements related to concordancers were rated as the most problematic sources of difficulties. It was expected that the participants would have difficulty with concordance tasks, as they would be dealing with sentences retrieved from different talks with varying degrees of difficulty. Furthermore, the purpose of incorporating concordance tasks was to provide the participants with opportunities to observe language patterns and to make sense of contextual cues. Therefore, these tasks were introduced only after analysing a given section of a talk (as shown in the course plan in Appendix 10), guided by the teacher and accompanied by the use of the whiteboard, where the teacher wrote the participants’ notes regarding the given concordance task. Finally, while the participants were not asked to analyse concordance lines independently (as shown in the course plan in Appendix 10), seventy-eight participants used the concordance function in the three sessions. (See Appendix 11.) This may suggest that the participants found concordance activities useful and/or were motivated by these tasks, as was indicated by two interviewees:

> The most difficult part was understanding the unfamiliar vocabulary, but this was good. I was encouraged to look for their meanings and learn more (F02).

> There were some new words, and this pushed me to learn their meanings (F10).

While unfamiliar vocabulary could have been a source of difficulty, it was reported to be an incentive for the two interviewees to learn the new vocabulary they encountered.
This contrasts with the views of other participants who reported that they tended to work with easier TED Talks, as discussed in Section 4.3.3.

In terms of difficulties caused by tasks, the majority (85.5%) of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they had difficulties due to time and effort spent on analysing language data or due to search techniques (the sixth and seventh statements in Table 4–14). Similarly, most (84.5%) of the participants disagreed/strongly disagreed that they had difficulties due to the tasks being mentally demanding (the last statement in Table 4–14).

In a similar vein, the interviewees identified some tasks as being easy or difficult when responding to the two questions ‘What was the most difficult task?’ and ‘What was the easiest task?’. Among the most difficult tasks, analysing concordance lines (N=2), identifying phrases (N=1), identifying functions of linguistic patterns (N=1) unfamiliar vocabulary (N=1), and listening to TED Talks (N=1) were mentioned. As for the easiest tasks, the interviewees referred to navigating MCOTT (N=2), analysing concordance lines (N=1), identifying phrases (N=1), identifying functions of linguistic patterns (N=1), and listening to TED Talks (N=2).

Overall, the results pertaining to perceived ease of use illustrated that most of the participants did not experience significant difficulties during the sessions. Technical issues were minimal due to the availability of computers and Internet accessibility, and training seemed sufficient. Similarly, the introduced tasks did pose not major challenges for the participants, which can be due to the tasks’ relative similarity to what is often introduced in L2 classrooms (further discussed in Section 5.3.2.). In addition, the participants’ language proficiencies and interests in improving their AP skills might have contributed to minimising these difficulties, as can be observed from the behaviours of the participants who analysed concordance lines when they were not asked to do so. Perceived behavioural control, where one may maintain that the participants’ confidence about their abilities to perform such tasks might have influenced their perceived ease of use, is explored below.

4.3.3 Perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control, the third construct in the learner attitude questionnaire, served to explore the participants’ perceptions about their ability to understand TED
Talks and to use MCOTT and other resources to improve their APs. Table 4–15 presents the relevant questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution. In this study, the participants generally demonstrated positive perceptions about their ability to use TED Talks as well as MCOTT. However, the participants seemed less confident regarding their ability to use other resources to improve their APs. In what follows, these findings are illustrated with references from qualitative data (i.e. the observations and the interviews) where relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think TED talks are manageable to understand at my current English language level.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>40.80%</td>
<td>50.50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think MCOTT is manageable to use considering my current English language level.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>35.00%</td>
<td>53.40%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident about my ability to use MCOTT to independently improve my academic oral presentations.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>31.10%</td>
<td>43.70%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident about my ability to use MCOTT to improve my academic oral presentations, with the help of the teacher.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>13.60%</td>
<td>32.00%</td>
<td>53.40%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident about my ability to independently improve my academic oral presentations using other sources.</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
<td>16.50%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
<td>20.40%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–15: Perceived behavioural control**

The analysis showed that most (91.30%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that the TED Talks were understandable at their current language level (the first statement in Table 4–15). This reinforces the decision to use the RANGE programme to identify the vocabulary coverage of the talks, and select only the ones with a text coverage level of 85% or higher, as indicated in Sections 3.5.2 and 3.5.3. Since the talks were of varied levels of vocabulary coverage (see Appendix 9) and, accordingly, difficulty, it was expected that some of the participants would find some talks more difficult than others—which was reflected in the interview and observation data. When asked about the most difficult and easiest tasks, one interviewee reported listening to TED Talks as most difficult, and two interviewees identified it as the easiest task; another three interviewees reported that they found both easy and difficult talks. Similarly, nine participants, as per the observation data (see Appendix 11), reported that they found both easy and difficult talks. These participants also indicated
their preference to work with easier talks. Note that this is contradictory to what other participants reported in the above section; that is, they found the presence of unfamiliar vocabulary motivating and encouraging, as it would eventually help improve their language proficiency. These variations are expected and inherent to human nature, and so these opposing views among the participants may support the inclusion of talks with varying difficulty levels.

In the same vein, twenty-seven participants, according to the observation records (see Appendix 11), expressed their anxiety over the speaking rate of some TED speakers, as did three interviewees. Responding to their classmates’ concerns, seven participants suggested adjusting the speed using a feature offered by YouTube video settings. Following this, some of the participants used this feature to slow the speed of the talk and reported that it worked well but not with all videos. Other participants chose to change the talk. The participants’ suggestions were a by-product of using a platform (i.e. YouTube) with which they were familiar. Such familiarity may have both advantages as well as disadvantages (e.g. learners may resist using familiar platforms, which they perceive as a form of entrainment, for educational purposes). However, familiarity here yielded benefits, as it enabled the participants to adjust the tool according to their needs.

In terms of MCOTT use, 88.40% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that MCOTT was useable considering their current English language level (the second statement in Table 4–15). In response to the question ‘What do you suggest to improve MCOTT use?’, three interviewees suggested translating (localising) MCOTT interface, as it could help them navigate the website more easily. The same suggestion was offered by four of the participants who responded to the open-ended question ‘Add any additional comments about the difficulties of MCOTT’ in the LAQ. It should also be noted that four of the interviewees were against translating MCOTT’s interface.

Regarding their own independent use of MCOTT (the third statement in Table 4–15), 74.8% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they were confident about their ability to use MCOTT to improve their AP skills. A slightly higher percentage of the participants (85.4) agreed/strongly agreed that they were confident about their ability to use MCOTT to improve their AP skills with the help of the teacher (the fourth statement in Table 4–15). In this regard, two interviewees reported opposing opinions,
with the first indicating her ability to use MCOTT independently and the second reporting her inability to use it:

The website was really useful. I mean we can use it independently to learn (C10).

Honestly, if I want to use MCOTT now, I won’t be able. I feel I need someone to teach me because I do not think it is easy to learn (H10).

A different pattern was noticed in terms of the participants’ confidence in their ability to use other sources to improve their AP skills (the last statement in Table 4–15). Slightly less than half (48.60%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed with this, and 23.8% of them disagreed/strongly disagreed. This could be attributed to a lack of resources on APs or the participants’ lack of knowledge about possible available sources. In this regard, a comment made by one interviewee to the question ‘What strategies did you learn from the unit?’ is relevant:

I knew about a website, a good website that can teach me good English and when I can use some words. You got me? I was looking for ages for something like this and I could not find (E11).

In her comment, the interviewee demonstrated both her need for useful resources on language learning as well as a lack of resources. Thus, it is not surprising to see the overall positive attitude among participants towards MCOTT, as it helped fulfil their needs.

To sum up, most of the participants seemed to be confident about their ability to understand TED Talks and to use MCOTT to improve their AP skills. However, their level of confidence seemed to decrease when considering the use of other resources to improve their AP skills, which could be attributed to the lack of resources on APs.

4.3.4 Affective attitude

The fourth construct of the learner attitude questionnaire, attitude, was incorporated to gain an understanding of the participants’ positive or negative feelings (evaluative
affect) about the course and using MCOTT. Table 4–16 presents the relevant questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution. In this study, the majority of the participants reported having positive attitudes towards MCOTT. In what follows, these findings are illustrated with references from the qualitative data (i.e. the observations and the interviews) where relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think using MCOTT to learn about oral presentations is more effective than using a textbook.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>14.60%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>61.20%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think using MCOTT to learn about oral presentations is more effective than watching videos.</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>28.20%</td>
<td>23.30%</td>
<td>41.70%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally, I think I am interested in using videos to improve my oral presentation skills after this unit.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>27.20%</td>
<td>58.30%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally, I think the more I use MCOTT, the more I have come to like it.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>25.20%</td>
<td>59.20%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally, I think the process of preparing for oral presentations is easier after this unit.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td>25.20%</td>
<td>48.50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think using MCOTT has increased my confidence about improving my oral presentation skills.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>17.50%</td>
<td>27.20%</td>
<td>52.40%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–16: Affective attitude

The first two items investigated the participants’ opinions towards the use of MCOTT in comparison to using textbooks or watching videos. The majority (83.5%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that using MCOTT to learn about APs is more effective than using a textbook. In this respect, one interviewee mentioned that she liked MCOTT because it was different from the other resources she was used to:

The thing I liked the most was MCOTT because we need resources other than textbooks and the Internet (C10).

When compared to watching videos, MCOTT was perceived by 65% of the participants as more effective, yet 28.2% of the participants indicated their uncertainty/neutrality towards the statement. This issue also emerged during the

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54 As indicated in Section 3.9.1, some items were added to the factors they were found to load on, as was the case with the first, second and fifth statements in Table 4–16. These statements were initially included in the overall and tool usefulness factor, but it was later found to load on the affective attitude factor; hence, it was analysed in this section.
sessions, as per the observation scheme in Appendix 11. Nine participants indicated that they would use the TED website, rather than MCOTT, directly, where they could have access to more topics and talks, and still have access to the videos and their transcripts. Three of these participants, however, suggested that MCOTT was efficient, as it enabled them to view a particular section (i.e. introduction, main body or conclusion) across different talks and topics and to compare sections or topics, and contained videos that were comprehensible at their language level. Furthermore, the interview data reflected the preference of one interviewee for the TED website over MCOTT:

I liked using the videos. I liked TED more than MCOTT. I was able to understand things better. I even started using the TED website at home since we started the sessions (I08).

Three other interviewees indicated their preference for MCOTT or both MCOTT and TED Talks:

I especially liked the TED website. I liked how I could see the subtitles in Arabic, and MCOTT was really useful (H07).

I also liked the presence of the transcript and the concordance (B01).

I really liked the website. It is very easy, it is uncomplicated and it is actually interesting not just for learning (F02).

Generally, the participants seemed to like the availability of Arabic subtitles on the TED Talks website and the variety of topics it offered as well as the different features of MCOTT.

When asked about their interest in using videos to improve their AP skills (the third statement in Table 4–16), the majority (85.5%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they were more interested in using videos after the course. It is also relevant to note that the majority of the participants reported that they had never used videos to prepare for APs in the past, with the exception of twenty-two participants who declared the opposite, as per the observation data. (See Appendix 11.) Other types of resources that the participants reported included using Google to search for information about the topic or ready-made PowerPoint presentations to get some ideas on how to present the topic. This raises the question of whether these participants will sustain their attitude towards using videos after actually engaging in this behaviour for
a longer period of time, which could not be assessed due to feasibility issues (i.e. time and system constraints) in the case of this study. If the participants had been using videos prior to the course, their attitudes towards using videos would have been less likely to change. Furthermore, data from the interviews are relevant, where three interviewees, responding to the question ‘What did you like most about the unit?’, described videos as ‘interesting’, and a way ‘not [to] feel stressed’. While these are positive comments, it is important to note that these positive attitudes were associated with the mediated selection of videos, as described in Section 3.5.2.

Relevant to the question raised in the above paragraph regarding sustaining attitudes, the fourth statement in Table 4–16 investigated whether the participants believed that the more they used MCOTT, the more they came to like it, with which 84.4% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed. However, whether the participants sustain their attitudes towards MCOTT is also an important consideration, but beyond the scope of this research.

Furthermore, 73.7% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that preparing for APs was easier after this course (the fifth statement in Table 4–16), with 22.30% of them indicating their uncertainty. In this regard, one interviewee responded to the question ‘What did you like most about the unit?’ as follows:

I liked that we discussed everything. And we knew how, at the beginning, we said oral presentation is really difficult but then after we finish… And I… we learnt how everything that we said was difficult in the first lecture, and when we finish all lectures, it became easier just because we used the website (F10).

In her comment, the interviewee referred to the section search mode on MCOTT and illustrated that she could use it while preparing for APs, as it offered different ways to introduce or conclude a topic. The same view was reiterated during the sessions by the participants who found the section search mode a helpful tool that could aid them while preparing for APs.

In response to the question on whether using MCOTT increased their confidence in improving their AP skills (the last statement in Table 4–16), most (79.6%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed. This can be attributed to the participants’ need for resources on APs or to their confidence in the usefulness of MCOTT, as indicated by
an interviewee when responding to the question ‘What did you like most about the unit?’:

I am really enthusiastic and happy that I found a website that supports my independent learning (B01).

In her comment, the interviewee reported that knowing about a resource that provided her with opportunities for independent learning motivated her.

Overall, the results pertinent to affective attitude demonstrated the participants’ interests in using both TED Talks and MCOTT, to prepare for APs. The results also revealed some of the affective benefits of MCOTT, which included facilitating the process of preparing for APs and increasing the participants’ confidence about their ability to improve their AP skills. Such results might have influenced the participants’ intentions to use MCOTT in the future, which are presented below.

### 4.3.5 Future intentions

The final construct in the LAQ, future intentions, was incorporated to gain an understanding of the participants’ intentions regarding their future use of MCOTT and TED Talks (i.e. whether they plan to use these resources to improve their APs). Table 4–17 presents the relevant questionnaire items and their frequencies of distribution. In this study, the majority of the participants tended to agree that they plan to use MCOTT and TED Talks, and to recommend their use, as shown in Table 4–17. The participants, however, indicated divergent opinions about their needs for more training on using MCOTT. In what follows, these findings are illustrated with references from qualitative data (i.e. observations and interviews) where relevant.
In the future, I think I will use MCOTT to improve my oral skills.

In the future, I think I will use TED talks to improve my oral skills.

In the future, I think MCOTT should be used in English speaking classes in Saudi Arabia.

In the future, I think I will recommend other people to use MCOTT.

In the future, I think I will need more training on the use of MCOTT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I think I will use MCOTT to improve my oral skills.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>72.80%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I think I will use TED talks to improve my oral skills.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>12.60%</td>
<td>26.20%</td>
<td>60.20%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I think MCOTT should be used in English speaking classes in Saudi Arabia.</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>8.70%</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>71.80%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I think I will recommend other people to use MCOTT.</td>
<td>1.90%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>7.80%</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>69.90%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I think I will need more training on the use of MCOTT.</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>21.40%</td>
<td>16.50%</td>
<td>22.30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–17: Future intentions

Considering their future intentions to use MCOTT and TED Talks (the first and second statements in Table 4–17), the majority of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they would use the two resources, with percentages of 91.2% and 86.4%, respectively. While this indicates the participants’ interest in using both MCOTT and TED Talks, interestingly, the participants conveyed a strong intention to use TED Talks despite the fact that the focus of the course was on MCOTT use. In fact, the participants were briefly (10 minutes) familiarised with the TED Talks website and only during the first session. It is also relevant to note that none of the participants was aware of the TED website,\(^{55}\) and they had never used it to improve their English language skills, as they reported during the sessions.

This intention among the participants to use TED Talks was also manifested in thirty-seven occasions, as was indicated in the observation schemes in Appendix 11. For example, the participants asked several questions regarding the use of the TED website to improve their language skills. (See Appendix 11.) Examples of these questions included how to use TED to improve listening skills, whether it is possible to know which talks are suitable for their language level, whether it is better to listen to short or long talks, when to use Arabic subtitles and in what ways they can be helpful, and how to practise after listening to avoid forgetting what they have learnt. In addition, the participants offered suggestions. (See Appendix 11.) Examples of these included

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\(^{55}\) Some participants, however, were aware of TEDx and had attended a few TEDx events.
illustrating how one can display the Arabic translation and the English transcript at the same time on the TED Talks website and sharing YouTube videos about the use of TED Talks to improve pronunciation and presentation skills. These questions and suggestions were reiterated throughout the sessions, as was indicated in the observation schemes in Appendix 11. Reading these questions and suggestions, one could infer that they were based on actual use of the TED Talks website, which some participants reported during the sessions and which took place outside the classroom. This independent use of the TED website could also imply the participants’ intentions to use the TED website in the future for reasons other than improving their AP skills, which are indicated in the examples above. Finally, data from the interviews are also relevant here, where one interviewee declared that she would be using the TED website but not MCOTT, as is indicated by the interviewee (I08) in Section 4.3.4.

As with the TED Talks, the participants’ future intentions to use MCOTT were demonstrated on several occasions throughout the short course. For example, the nature of the questions, as per the observation data in Appendix 11, raised during the sessions indicates that the participants intended to use MCOTT in the future. There were fourteen questions reiterated during the sessions. Examples of these questions included ‘Will more talks be added to the website?’, ‘Can we suggest the topics and talks that we want to be added to MCOTT?’, ‘What should we do next when we finish working with the forty talks on the website?’, ‘Is there a tutoring video on how to use MCOTT in case we forget?’ and ‘Is there online support if we have questions in the future?’. Finally, seven interviewees explicitly stated that they would use MCOTT in the future. Some of their comments include the following:

Now there were some words that I did not know where to put or how to use. You got me? If I use MCOTT every day—I started and I will continue—and I read and so on, I will benefit a lot (G06).

I think in the future, the website will benefit me when I need to prepare for presentations. It will be easy to use the website and see all the introductions and things like this. And this will make it easy for me instead of looking for introductions and conclusions for my presentations separately (L01).

I feel if I practice more and I have more time to practice in the future, my pronunciation will improve. I wish I knew about this website before (K04).
From the quotations above, it is clear that the interviewees indicated different patterns for MCOTT use in the future. While some interviewees (N=4) reported their intentions to consistently use MCOTT (as in the case of G06 and L01 quoted above) to improve aspects of language proficiency such as vocabulary use, others (N=3) declared their intentions to use MCOTT to satisfy their immediate needs in relation to AP tasks (as in the case of K04).

In terms of recommending the use of MCOTT (the third statement in Table 4–17), the majority (90.2%) of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that MCOTT should be used in English-speaking classrooms in Saudi Arabia. In the same vein, an interviewee noted the following:

> We can open and use it and learn faster from it. If schools use it and have different levels and videos for each level, it will be really useful (B04).

In her quotation, the interviewee suggested using MCOTT in schools, which can be attributed to her appreciation of the tool. This could also be the case with the other participants. Participants’ awareness of the usefulness of MCOTT, and their overall positive attitudes towards MCOTT, as was indicated in previous sections, led them to recommend MCOTT for use in English-speaking classrooms.

As for recommending MCOTT to other people (the fourth statement in Table 4–17), 89.3% of the participants agreed/strongly agreed that they would recommend using MCOTT to other people. In fact, two interviewees reported that they had told their siblings or their friends about MCOTT and showed them how to use it.

Considering the need for more training on the use of MCOTT in the future (the last statement in Table 4–17), the responses of the participants varied considerably. The total percentage of the participants who agreed/strongly agreed (38.8%) was similar to the percentage of the participants who disagreed/strongly disagreed (39.8%). This could be due to several factors, including the short duration of the course. That is, perhaps it did not allow for enough practice time, and hence, some participants felt the need for more training in the future. In this regard, it is relevant to mention that one interviewee noted the following:

> I think I need more time to practice, maybe during the holiday when I have a lot of time to use it. It will be easier for me when I get used to it (A09).
This suggests that the perceived need for more training may not necessarily indicate the need for an instructor but rather sufficient time to practice and/or online support, as suggested by the participants earlier in this section.

Overall, the results pertaining to future intentions indicated that the majority of the participants intend to use both MCOTT and TED Talks in the future and to recommend MCOTT use in English-speaking classrooms and to other people. Given the overall positive attitudes presented in the previous section, the results discussed in this section seem to follow naturally. The case was different, however, regarding the need for more training to use MCOTT in the future. The reported disparate opinions may be inevitable in the case of this research given the practical constraints imposed by limiting the duration of the course to seven hours.

In conclusion, this section has presented the results pertaining to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT considering five attitudinal aspects (perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, attitude and future intentions). It has been shown that the majority of the participants manifested positive attitudes towards MCOTT. Such positive attitudes emerged due to factors related to the participants themselves (e.g. motivation), the course (e.g. meeting the participants’ attitudes), TED Talks (e.g. being interesting and informative), and MCOTT (e.g. usefulness in exploring features of APs). The following section, particularly, explores the relationships between the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT and learner-dependent factors.

**4.4 PARTICIPANTS’ PROFILE AND ATTITUDE**

This section delineates the results pertinent to the second research question:

> To what extent was the participant attitude towards MCOTT found to be influenced by the four variables of motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence?

As discussed in Section 3.8.1, WarpPLS (Version 6.0) was utilised to create a structural model that helped when answering the above-stated question. The structural model consisted of four independent variables, namely motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence, and seven dependent variables representing learner attitudes towards MCOTT (overall perceived
usefulness, tool perceived usefulness, content perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude, and future intention). (See Figure 3–7.) In what follows, the results are discussed in relation to the structural model as a whole, as well as in relation to the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. While the structural model measurement demonstrates the predictive relevance and power of the model, the relationships between the variables presents the magnitude of the relationships among the variables and their pertinent values of significance.

In terms of the structural model, the coefficients of determination (R²), and predictive relevance or Stone-Geisser indicators (Q²) are relevant here. The R² coefficients provide measures of “the variance which is explained in each of the endogenous [dependent] constructs, and is therefore a measure of the model’s explanatory power” (Shmueli 2011; Hair et al. 2019, p.11). These coefficients range from 0 to 1, where values of 0.25, 0.50 and 0.75 can reveal, respectively, weak, moderate and substantial explanatory power (Hair et al. 2014; Hair et al. 2019). From Table 4–18, it can be observed the R² values range from 0.268 to 0.538, indicating that the four independent variables (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) together explained 26% to 53% of the variances in the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. These percentages indicate weak, at minimum, to moderate, at maximum, relationships between learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) and attitudes towards MCOTT. As for the Q² indicators, they help in evaluating “how much the model approaches what was expected of it” (Ringle et al. 2015, p.69). Q² values above zero indicate that “the observed values are well reconstructed and that the model has predictive relevance” (Henseler et al. 2009, p.305). Similar to R² values, Q² values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 can indicate a small, medium, or large predictive relevance (ibid.; Hair et al. 2019). Table 4–18 shows the Q² values between 0.268 to 0.532, suggesting a good predictive relevance for all variables related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT.
Having dealt with the measures of power and relevance of the structural model, the rest of this section considers the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. These relationships are discussed considering their magnitudes and the values of their significance. As such, five measures can be relevant. The first is the path coefficient ($\beta$), which provides estimates of the relationships between two variables in a model (Kock 2018c). For example, the path coefficient for the relationship between motivation and perceived ease of use was 0.210. This relationship can be interpreted as one unit increase in the standard deviation of motivation was predicted to lead to 0.210 unit increase in the standard deviation of perceived ease of use. (See also below for a detailed discussion on the interpretation of path coefficients when the relationships are non-linear.) The second is the effect size ($f^2$), which helps determine whether the estimated relationships are small, medium or large, based on $f^2$ values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, respectively (Cohen, 1988; ibid.). In other words, effect sizes demonstrate the importance of the relationship between two variables within a particular research context (Field 2018). For example, motivation was found to be significantly related to perceived ease of use with an $f^2$ value of 0.091. Such an $f^2$ score suggests that while there is a significant relationship between the variables, the magnitude of this relationship is not substantial in the context of this research. The third is the probability value ($p$-value), which indicates whether an effect exists by noting $p$-values less than 0.05 (Field 2018). For example, it can be observed (from Table 4–19) that there is a relationship between motivation and future intentions, as is indicated by the $p$-value of 0.002<0.05. Confidence

Table 4–18: Coefficients of determination and predictive relevance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$Q^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>0.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.356</td>
<td>0.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56 Note that significance is indicated by the probability values or confidence intervals.
Intervals are also provided as another measure of significance. Confidence intervals indicate significance when zero does not fall within the interval (Field 2018). Finally, the fifth measure is the standard error of the path coefficient. Standard errors help in evaluating the accuracy of the path coefficients; the lower the standard errors are, the more accurate are the path coefficients (ibid.). These five measures are given below to explore the relationships between the learner-dependent factors and the attitudes towards MCOTT use. Note that all included values were calculated by WarpPLS, with the exception of the p-values, which were calculated by the researcher. Although WarpPLS offers the p-values of the path coefficients, it provides only one-tailed p-values, which assumes an increase or decrease association between two variables (ibid.; Kock 2015). Two-tailed p-values, on the other hand, do not impose assumptions about the sign of path of coefficients, which is similar to the case being investigated. Therefore, two-tailed p-values were calculated via the multiplication of one-tailed p-values by 2 (i.e. $P_2 = P_1/2$) (Kock 2015). Finally, the results reported below mainly focus on the results obtained with the outliers because this inclusion represented the reality of the obtained data, aligning with the philosophical worldview adopted by this research (pragmatism), as discussed in Section 3.3.1. However, the differences in significance between the results with and without the outliers are indicated in order to demonstrate the influence of the outliers. Appendix 14 provides a comprehensive overview of the results with the outliers removed.

**Note on the interpretation of path coefficients**

Before delving into the results pertaining to the relationships between the learner-dependent variables and the attitudes towards MCOTT, a note on the interpretation of the path coefficients can be relevant, given the nonlinear nature of the relationships among the variables involved in this study. In a linear analysis, the interpretation of path coefficients can be straightforward, compared to their interpretations when they are associated with non-linear relationships. That is, a one standard deviation variation in the independent variable is predicted to lead to an $x$ standard deviation variation in the dependent variable, where $x$ refers to the path coefficient of the given relationship (Kock 2018c). While the same interpretation applies to describe the overall trend in a non-linear analysis, the interpretation of the path coefficients can also be slightly different. This is important to demonstrate since all the relationships between variables are nonlinear in this research, as is indicated in Section 3.8.1. In a non-linear analysis,
“the path coefficient at each point is given by the first derivative [the amount by which a function is changing at one given point] of the nonlinear function that describes the relationship” (ibid., p.66). To illustrate, Figure 4–2 presents the best-fitting curve of the relationship between motivation and overall perceived usefulness, and is segmented based on a delta of 0.1, so that the variation of the first derivative of the nonlinear function is limited to 0.1 in each segment. Before discussing the figure in more details, it can be useful to indicate that the relationship between motivation and overall perceived usefulness is insignificant ($\beta=0.067, p=0.492>0.05$), as is indicated above. (See Table 4–19.) From Figure 4–2, however, one can observe several significant trends associated with some groups of the participants. For example, motivation seemed to be moderately and significantly related to the overall perceived usefulness of MCOTT ($\beta=0.42, p=0.001<0.05$) among the group represented in the shaded segment in Figure 4–2. In contrast, motivation appeared to be insignificantly related to the overall perceived usefulness among the group represented in the lined segment. Accordingly, while motivation is positively related to overall perceived usefulness, the magnitude of this relationship varied among the participants and, therefore, may be unpredictable and inconsistent. Such non-linearity offers important insights for integrating corpus use in L2 classrooms, as discussed in Section 5.4.

Figure 4–2: Curve of the relationship between motivation and overall perceived usefulness
4.4.1 Motivation

Table 4–19 presents the path coefficients, their standard errors, and values of significance. From the table, it can be observed that motivation is directly (given the direct arrow pointing from this variable to the dependent variables, as can be seen in Figure 3–7 in Chapter 3) related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. However, this relationship is not always significant. When such a relationship is significant, it can be considered a relationship of small effect, as in the case of tool perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.248$, $p=0.008<0.05$), content perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.219$, $p=0.02<0.05$), perceived ease of use ($\beta=0.210$, $p=0.026<0.05$), perceived behavioural control ($\beta=0.244$, $p=0.01<0.05$), and future intentions ($\beta=0.318$, $p=0.002<0.05$). As can be indicated from the effect sizes ($f^2$) of these relationships, all $f^2$ values ranged from 0.091 to .0146, suggesting relationships of small effects between motivation and the different variables of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients ($\beta$)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size ($f^2$)</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.248</strong></td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td><strong>0.121</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.008</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.067</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.429</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.219</strong></td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td><strong>0.210</strong></td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td><strong>0.091</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.026</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.028</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.393</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td><strong>0.244</strong></td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td><strong>0.121</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.01</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.064</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.425</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>0.319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td><strong>0.318</strong></td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td><strong>0.146</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.141</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.496</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–19: Relationships between motivation and attitudes towards MCOTT

When outliers were removed, it should be noted that only content perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.224$, $p=0.018<0.05$) and future intentions ($\beta=0.234$, $p=0.014<0.05$) remained significant. (See Appendix 14 for more details on the obtained results with the removal of the outliers.)

4.4.2 Attitude towards oral skills

Table 4–20 presents the path coefficients, their standard errors, and values of significance. From the table, it can be observed that the participants’ attitudes towards oral skills are related to their attitudes towards MCOTT. It can also be observed that all the relationships are significant, with the exception of content perceived usefulness...
In terms of the significant relationships, attitudes towards oral skills appeared to be significantly related to overall perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.188$, $p=0.048<0.05$), tool perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.335$, $p=0.002<0.05$), perceived ease of use ($\beta=0.303$, $p=0.002<0.05$), affective attitude ($\beta=0.191$, $p=0.044<0.05$), and future intentions ($\beta=0.218$, $p=0.02<0.05$). Similar to motivation, the relationships between attitudes towards oral skills and the attitudes towards MCOTT mostly indicated relationships of small effects, with $f^2$ values ranging from 0.05 to 0.132. Tool perceived usefulness can be considered an exception, and it is approaching a medium-effect relationship with an $f^2$ value of 0.157.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients ($\beta$)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size ($f^2$)</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.004 - 0.371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.159 - 0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>-0.153 - 0.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.125 - 0.481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.012 - 0.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.007 - 0.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.036 - 0.401</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–20: Relationships between attitudes towards oral skills and towards MCOTT**

With the outliers removed, attitudes towards oral skills were found to be significantly related only to two variables, namely tool perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.32$, $p=0.002<0.05$) and perceived ease of use ($\beta=0.224$, $p=0.018<0.05$). (See Appendix 14 for more details on the obtained results with the removal of the outliers.)

### 4.4.3 Attitude towards autonomy

Table 4–21 presents the path coefficients, their standard errors, and values of significance. It is clear that the participants’ attitudes towards autonomy are significantly related to all variables associated with MCOTT, with the exception of future intentions. These significant relationships can be divided into two groups. First, variables that demonstrated small-effect relationships with attitudes towards autonomy included overall perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.309$, $p=0.002<0.05$), tool perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.196$, $p=0.038<0.05$), perceived ease of use ($\beta=0.277$, $p=0.07>0.05$), and perceived behavioural control ($\beta=0.038$, $p=0.696>0.05$).
and affective attitude ($\beta=0.229$, $p=0.002<0.05$), with $f^2$ values of 0.133, 0.085, 0.115, 0.141, respectively. The second group demonstrated significant relationships of medium and large effects between attitudes towards autonomy and content perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.438$, $p=0.002<0.05$) with an $f^2$ value of 0.254, and perceived behavioural control ($\beta=0.543$, $p=0.002<0.05$) with an $f^2$ value of 0.353.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients ($\beta$)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size ($f^2$)</th>
<th>$P$ values</th>
<th>Confidence interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.131 - 0.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.013 - 0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.266 - 0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.098 - 0.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.543</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.376 - 0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.121 - 0.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>-0.017 - 0.352</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4–21:** Relationships between attitudes towards autonomy and towards MCOTT

Finally, the above-described results revealed similar tendencies of magnitude and significance. (See Appendix 14 for more details on the obtained results with the removal of the outliers.)

### 4.4.4 ICT competence

Table 4–22 presents the path coefficients, their standard errors, and values of significance. It can be observed that ICT competence can be significantly related to attitudes towards MCOTT. This is demonstrated by overall perceived usefulness ($\beta=0.197$, $p=0.038<0.05$) with an $f^2$ value of 0.067, and affective attitude ($\beta=0.268$, $p=0.004<0.05$) with an $f^2$ value of 0.114, suggesting relationships of small effects.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients (β)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size (f²)</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td>0.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>-0.088</td>
<td>0.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.914</td>
<td>-0.182</td>
<td>0.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>-0.216</td>
<td>0.168</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4–22: Relationships between ICT competence and attitudes towards MCOTT

The same relationships were observed when outliers were removed. (See Appendix 14 for more details on the obtained results with the removal of the outliers.)

In conclusion, the results showed that the four learner-dependent variables were significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, mostly reflecting relationships of small and medium effects. Attitude towards autonomy can be an exception, as it exhibited a relationship of a large effect with perceived behavioural control, which is further discussed in Section 5.4.3. These relationships were also non-linear, suggesting that they can be inconsistent among individual participants and therefore should be interpreted with caution.

4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the results that helped answer the research questions concerning the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, and the relationships between learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence) and attitudes towards MCOTT. In the first section of this chapter, the results obtained via the learner profile questionnaire have been reported, followed by the results gained through the learner attitude questionnaire, observation and interviews, which offered a detailed overview of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. The analysis revealed that the participants shared common characteristics particularly when considering background information, perception of the relevance of the English language to one’s academic and professional needs, and motivation. However, the participants reported divergent tendencies concerning
attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence, with the majority of the participants manifesting positive to neutral stances.

In terms of the participant attitude towards MCOTT, it has been indicated that most of the participants, generally, appreciated MCOTT due to its usefulness in meeting their needs in relation to raising awareness about the discourse of APs. Some of MCOTT features that seemed to be approved by the participants included the availability of different speech models covering a variety of topics, and the ability to view and compare individual sections of the available speech models. As indicated by the participants, such features facilitated the process of gaining an awareness of the common functions and the structure of APs, as well as of the common phrases that can be used to convey certain functions. In addition, TED Talks were viewed as a useful resource for raising awareness of the AP discourse, especially due to the availability of videos, which is congruous with the multimodal nature of APs. Furthermore, the length of the included TED Talks, combined with their perceived interesting nature, appeared to encourage the participants to listen to more TED Talks, or to repeat listening to a specific TED talk. Other benefits of TED Talks were also numerated and involved enhancing listening skills and pronunciation, expanding knowledge, and promoting independent learning. Considering the challenges related to MCOTT use, navigating MCOTT website could have initially caused some challenges that diminished gradually as participants developed more familiarity with MCOTT. However, other challenges were noted, and entailed the fast rate of speech of some TED Talks and new vocabulary. Despite such challenges, the majority of the participants indicated their confidence about their ability to use MCOTT, both independently and with the help of the teacher, to improve their AP skills. Affective attitude showed that MCOTT provided the participants with affective benefits, such as facilitating the process of AP preparation and increasing their confidence about improving their AP skills. Observations suggested that some participants preferred using the website of TED Talks directly to access a variety of speech models while others preferred using MCOTT. Features such as the accessible videos and Arabic subtitles were reported to enhance the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. Finally, the participants manifested their intentions to use MCOTT and TED Talks in the future, as these resources can help them improve not only AP skills but also other
aspects such as pronunciation and listening. Nevertheless, questions regarding potential attitude changes could be raised due to the short length of the course.

The final section of the chapter has provided the answer to the second research question by considering the relationships between learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence) and attitudes towards MCOTT. The analysis showed that the relationships between these factors and attitude towards MCOTT were evident, largely with small and medium effect sizes. Such relationships were also non-linear, indicating that they could be inconsistent. Having delineated the results in this chapter, the next chapter provides interpretations of these results in light of the discussions introduced in Chapter 2, in relation to L2 research on multimodal corpora, TED Talks and teaching the discourse of APs.
CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers a discussion of the findings of this research. It begins by providing an overview of the results related to the participants’ profiles and attitudes. Then, the results obtained to answer the first research question (i.e., the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT) are discussed, followed by a consideration of the results pertaining to the second research question (i.e., the relationship between learner-dependent factors and attitudes towards MCOTT). Throughout the chapter, the results are thoroughly discussed in order to highlight the complex, multi-layered, and interrelated issues involved in understanding the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, and the influence of the participants’ profiles on their attitudes.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESULTS

This research reported the implementation of a multimodal corpus of TED Talks in L2 classrooms and investigated the participants attitudes towards the corpus, particularly in relation to raising their awareness of AP discourse. In what follows, a summary of the results related to the participants’ profiles and attitudes is offered.

The results of the participants’ profiles suggest that the participants formed a fairly homogenous group in terms of their educational and cultural backgrounds. Education-wise, the majority of the participants were graduates of public schools, indicating that they learnt English in the context described in Chapter 1. The pedagogical challenges of learning English in such a context entail a lack of sufficient classroom time, and accordingly English exposure and practice, as English is not often used outside the classroom. However, the results also demonstrate that the participants used a variety of independent learning strategies to learn English by means of technology (e.g. social media, e-learning websites, and English movies), thus, creating a virtual environment for learning English. Therefore, the integration of technology in the English language classroom could be viewed as an extension of the participants’ learning practices outside the classroom, which could have influenced the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. The integration of technology also has its cultural implications in the context of this study, as described in Section 3.5.2. While TED Talks were carefully selected
in consideration of such cultural implications, cultural diversity appeared to partially explain the participants’ attitudes towards TED Talks, as further discussed in Section 5.3.1. Another common feature of the participants’ profiles is the importance of English for the academic and professional success for most of the participants, who expressed their intention to enrol in majors where English is used as the medium of instruction. Most of the participants were also motivated to learn English, which had a significant impact on their attitudes towards MCOTT, as indicated in Section 4.4.1.

Variations among the participants, however, were evident in terms of their attitudes towards oral skills and towards autonomy and ICT competence. While most of the participants manifest positive and neutral attitudes to these three variables, a few participants seemed to hold negative attitudes. It is also interesting to note that these three variables were found significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, as reported in Section 4.4.1.

The participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use have been discussed in terms of perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude, and future intentions. Generally, the participants demonstrated positive attitudes towards MCOTT use, with a few instances where negative attitudes were observed. In addition, the four learner-dependent variables (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) were found to be significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. These results are discussed below.

5.3 ATTITUDES TOWARDS MCOTT USE

This section discusses the results that helped to answer the first research question:

- How did the participants perceive the use of MCOTT as a reference tool for raising their awareness of spoken English discourse pertinent to APs?

In what follows, the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use are discussed in terms of the five attitudinal variables involved in the research, namely, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude, and future intentions.
5.3.1 Perceived usefulness

Perceived usefulness considers the participants’ perceptions of the usefulness of the introduced course, MCOTT, and the TED Talks in achieving the objective identified in the research question above, which was to raise the participants’ awareness of AP discourse.

Overall perceived usefulness

This section discusses the overall usefulness of the course, which includes the relevance of its objectives to the participants’ academic needs, the course’s efficiency in achieving these objectives.

Meeting the participants’ academic needs and goals

In terms of AP-related academic goals and needs, this course was introduced based on the grounds that there is “a strong polarization” (Biber 1988; Biber 2006, p.180) between academic spoken and written discourse combined with a lack of adequate resources on APs, particularly in EFL contexts (Zareva 2011; Chang and Huang 2015). Additionally, there is an increasing demand for equipping prospective graduates with communication skills including APs (Hill and Storey 2003; Morton 2009; Barrett and Liu 2016), as indicated in Section 1.4. Therefore, the objectives of the course were to 1) introduce the structure and common functions of the different sections of APs, 2) raise awareness of basic differences between oral and written academic discourse, and 3) familiarise the participants with sources that can be used to improve their APs, as is indicated in Section 3.6.3 and Appendix 10. Based on these learning objectives, the course was perceived as useful in meeting the academic needs and goals of most of the participants (71.9%). Similarly, other researchers (e.g. Basturkmen 2002; Busà 2010; Fellner 2011; Cheong 2014; Huang and Chang 2015; Leopold 2016), reported participants’ appreciation of AP courses with similar learning objectives. Accordingly, one can conclude that the aforementioned objectives can be considered an essential component in AP courses for L2 learners. In fact, these objectives are also in line with the design principles for developing oral presentation competence proposed by Van Ginkel (2015). Of the seven principles outlined by Van Ginkel (2015, p.68), one is concerned with providing “opportunities for students to observe models of peers or
experts to increase self-efficacy beliefs and oral presentation competence”, which the aforementioned learning objectives can help to do.

Since the AP course in this study was not intended to be comprehensive,\textsuperscript{57} it was important to consider the participants’ opinions regarding its adequacy. While some interviewees (N=10) indicated that the course was adequate, others (N=6) pointed out that the short course did not address body language and interaction with the audience during discussion sessions following the presentation delivery or while delivering a presentation. In this regard, Busà (2010) emphasised the importance of discussing hand gestures with a group of Italians learning about APs in English due to cultural differences that may cause issues of cultural misunderstanding. She used different media sources (i.e. videos, pictures and other graphic materials) to facilitate the discussion. Interestingly, the use of videos in this study stimulated the participants to comment on the presenters’ use of body language and how it enhanced their delivery, which perhaps demonstrates the effectiveness of videos in AP classrooms. However, due to the monologic nature of (nearly all) TED Talks, they may not be useful for raising awareness of issues related to interaction with audiences. Addressing academic interaction, Basturkmen (2002, p.30) reported that her participants enjoyed analysing an academic, naturally occurring, interactive talk. She also recommended the use of the Wellington Corpus of New Zealand Spoken English (Holmes, Vine, & Johnson, 1998), which is a collection of monologic and interactive talks. This corpus was collected from 1988 to 1994, and the publicly available (after purchase) interactive talks include radio talkback, broadcast interviews, parliamentary debates, and transactions and meetings.\textsuperscript{58} Thus, it is perhaps better to examine the relevance of the (Wellington) interactive talks before introducing them to EFL classrooms.

Also relevant to the discussion about meeting the academic goals and needs of the participants is the 28.1% of the participants who were uncertain about (21.4%) or disagreed with (6.8%) the usefulness of the course in meeting their needs. This uncertainty/neutrality could be related to the participants’ uncertainty about the usefulness of the short course, particularly given its short span, or about their needs, which could arise from the fact that they had never taken any AP courses, as reported

\textsuperscript{57} See Van Ginkel (2015) for comprehensive guidelines for AP instruction beyond the ESL/EFL context

\textsuperscript{58} https://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/corpora-default/corpora-wsc
in Section 4.2.6. The participants’ uncertainties could also be related to incomprehensiveness of the course, as discussed above. As for the participants who disagreed that the course was useful, examining their perceptions about the relevance of English to their academic needs revealed that they all perceived English as not being academically relevant across at least three out of the four language skills. (See Section 4.2.4.) These participants also indicated their intentions to enrol in academic programmes that are taught in Arabic. (See Section 4.2.2.) Accordingly, it is unclear whether these participants considered this particular course or English as a whole irrelevant.

*Raising awareness of structure and purpose, vocabulary, and grammar*

Most of the participants indicated that the AP course helped raise their awareness of the structure and purpose (85.5%), vocabulary (81.5%), and grammar (78.7%) of APs. These views were also expressed by the interviewees, as is indicated in Section 4.3.1. In this sense, the results here may provide empirical evidence that at an attitudinal level corroborates the premises of pedagogically relevant corpora (Braun 2005; Braun 2007a; Pérez-Paredes 2010) and the recommended approaches to teaching APs (McCarthy and Carter 1995; Jones 1996; Thornbury 2005; Richards 2008; Goh and Burns 2012) that are discussed in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2. On the one hand, introducing language in context and providing opportunities to observe and analyse language patterns seemed to help raise the participants’ language awareness. On the other hand, the inclusion of the different modes (i.e. text, audio, video) appeared to be supportive for learning, as indicated by one interviewee (F08) in Section 4.3.1 She demonstrated how the different modes helped enhance vocabulary learning. In addition, these results highlight the pedagogical values of combining discourse-based and corpus-based approaches to raise awareness of language discourse. Others following similar approaches (e.g. Cortes 2007; Henry 2007; Cortes 2011; Tribble and Wingate 2013; Flowerdew 2015b; Cotos et al. 2016; Poole 2016; Cotos et al. 2017) reported positive findings in terms of participants’ performance as indicated by improved drafts of participants’ essays. While most of these studies were mainly concerned with participants’ performance, Henry (2007), Tribble and Wingate (2013), Flowerdew (2015b), and Poole (2016) reported that most of the participants appreciated the usefulness of the corpus tools in achieving the given purpose identified in each study, which revolved around raising awareness of a particular genre.
In addition, a question can be raised in view of the results obtained by this research, namely whether prior language awareness positively influenced the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, as noted in Section 4.3.1. It is well documented that corpus use can promote language awareness (see Section 2.2.1), but whether the latter can improve attitudes towards corpus use is a question that has not yet been directly addressed. Nevertheless, language awareness involves knowledge about the language, which is related to the participants’ language proficiency. In this sense, language awareness may have provided the participants with the linguistic means that enabled them to appreciate corpus use.

**Tool perceived usefulness**

This section discusses the results pertinent to how the participants perceived the usefulness of MCOTT as a tool that can help raise their awareness of AP discourse, and provide opportunities for independent learning.

As indicated earlier in this chapter, the objective of the course was to raise the participants’ awareness of the AP discourse, which was mostly approached through MCOTT use. While the majority of the participants (89.4%) agreed that MCOTT was helpful in terms of exploring discourse features of APs, the interviewees elaborated on how the different features of MCOTT (e.g. the ability to browse topics and videos, the availability of videos and transcripts, the ability to compare different sections or topics) facilitated this task. These features had, possibly, rendered a meaningful platform for exploring AP features. (Section 3.5.3 for more details on these features.) As suggested by Cotos et al. (2017, p.123), such results “lend credence to uses of complex corpus-based platforms that extend beyond stand-alone concordancers”. Indeed, the inclusion of full texts facilitated the observation of the macro-textual features of APs and the examination of linguistic patterns, which is recommended when the purpose is to raise awareness of academic genres (Swales 2002a). Of similar importance to full-text inclusion is the incorporation of videos in the context of APs. As suggested by Knight (2011, p.409), “it is only when […] extra-linguistic and/or paralinguistic elements are represented in records of interaction that a greater understanding of discourse can be generated”.

It is also worth noting that 97% of the participants—the highest percentage of agreement in the learner attitude questionnaire—agreed that MCOTT is useful in
terms of drawing their attentions to things about the language they would not notice through textbooks. The qualitative data did not explicitly reveal why or in what ways MCOTT could help the participants notice things about the language that are not discernible from textbooks, with the exception of one interviewee (see Section 4.2.1) who indicated that MCOTT provided “broader perspectives” than textbooks. However, a likely explanation for such a shared perception among the participants is the difficulty of genuinely capturing the genre of APs in textbooks. On the one hand, there is a lack of readily available transcribed APs and a copyright restriction on publishing available ones, which is discouraging for EAP material writers and may be the cause of the current lack of adequate resources about APs (Barrett and Liu 2016). On the other hand, the multimodality of APs and the messiness of spoken discourse (Braun 2005; Braun 2010) impose limitations on what a textbook can introduce.

Unlike textbooks, multimodal corpora can better represent the multimodality of APs and can accommodate a far greater number of speech models. In this research, the need for various speech models was implied in some of the questions raised during the sessions (see Section 4.3.5), such as ‘Will more talks be added to the website?’ and ‘What should we do next when we finish working with the forty-five talks on the website?’ Due to the discursive and personal nature associated with spoken discourse, these questions could indicate the participants’ interests in developing nuanced understanding of academic spoken discourse, which can be gained by observing various speech models presented by different expert speakers. Accordingly, such questions highlight the participants’ needs for a large pool of speech models, from which they can select and analyse given speech models. Therefore, multimodal corpora seem like the natural approach for observing features of APs. It then follows that efforts may better be directed towards changing the current situation of publishing AP textbooks accompanied by CDs or supplementary online materials to developing pedagogically mediated multimodal corpora accompanied by textbooks. Textbooks are, therefore, shifted from being the primary resources with an often ‘what target’, to being complementary ones with a rather ‘how to target’. While the former textbooks introduce selective language patterns for given communicative functions, the latter textbooks provide L2 learners with step-by-step instructions and hands-on training about the use of corpora to achieve specific learning objectives. The recently published book *A Guide to Using Corpora for English Language Learners* (Poole 2018) is a
relevant example here, because it caters to L2 learners despite its focus on popular corpora including COCA and BNC, which were not developed specifically for L2 learners, and therefore may not be pedagogically-oriented.

Returning to the results of the present study, 93.2% of the participants—the second highest percentage of agreement in the learner attitude questionnaire—agreed that MCOTT provided opportunities for independent learning. This can be attributed to interrelated aspects inherent in the tool itself, in the training sessions, or in the participants. Training- and participant- related aspects are discussed in Sections 5.3.2 and 5.4, respectively. Regarding the tool, two issues linked to independent learning are important to discuss here. First, the results suggest that corpora can potentially provide an environment conducive to independent learning. O’Sullivan and Chambers (2006), O’Sullivan (2007), and Akıncı and Yıldız (2017) made similar suggestions. Yoon (2005, p.186), however, raised the question of “whether corpus use would enhance independent learning, or vice versa, that is, whether only already autonomous learners would like to use the corpus”. The results of this study also seemed to support the latter claim. Both the qualitative and quantitative findings (see Sections 4.3.1 and 4.4) suggested that the participants’ attitudes towards autonomy can explain their attitudes towards MCOTT. Section 4.3.1 indicated that the participants showed an interest in independent learning strategies, as demonstrated by the questions they raised during the sessions (e.g. ‘How to use TED Talks to improve listening skills?’ and ‘How to use text analysis techniques to improve their writing skills?’). Such questions may reveal the participants’ interests, at least at an attitudinal level, in autonomous learning. In addition, Section 4.4 reported that the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT was found to be significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards autonomy, which is discussed in greater details in Section 5.4. Second, MCOTT seemed to respond to the participants’ immediate needs, as three interviewees expressed. (See Section 4.3.5.) This coincides with the results reported by Yoon (2005, p.155), who suggested that “if the technology is not geared toward the students’ immediate needs, it may not capture their interest despite its value in improving their writing”. It should be noted, however, that this may not be true for all the participants, as some of the interviewees’ (N=4) comments (in Section 5.4.5) indicate by reflecting their interest in consistent use of MCOTT in the future in order to improve their language proficiency in areas such as vocabulary and pronunciation.
In terms of providing opportunities for thinking about learning processes, the majority of the participants (85.5%) agreed that MCOTT is helpful in this regard. This is in line with the benefits of using DDL, because DDL tasks encourage learners to assume an active role in their language learning process (Bernardini 2004; Flowerdew 2015a). Similarly, O’Sullivan (2006, p.289) suggested that involving L2 learners in corpus activities helped to enhance their “metacognitive abilities and awareness”. Based on the results obtained by this research, the case of the interviewee who reported applying strategies introduced in the sessions to prepare for her English exam (see Section 4.3.1) can serve as an example. It seems that corpus use helped her manage her learning process in areas beyond those that were discussed in the classroom.

**Content perceived usefulness**

The results pertinent to the participants’ perception of the usefulness of TED Talks are discussed in this section, particularly in relation to their effectiveness in raising awareness of AP discourse, and in providing good speech models. In addition, other issues are considered including the interesting nature of TED Talks, the length of the TED Talks selected for inclusion in MCOTT, and the cultural appropriacy of these talks.

In the current study, the participants perceived TED Talks as a useful resource to improve their APs and pronunciation and expand their vocabulary range and general knowledge. Similar results were reported by Huang and Chang (2015), Leopold (2016), and Lee et al. (2018). The participants in these three studies appreciated the awareness-raising tasks that involved analysing TED Talks. It is interesting to note that these findings were consistent despite the variations in the approaches involved in the selection of TED Talks, as well as the participants’ ages, language proficiencies, and expertise in APs. From a communication courses perspective, Hayward (2017) found that “showing students how many of the talks follow a similar format to what is taught in public-speaking courses creates external credibility for the outline format” of APs introduced in the classroom. In addition to the perceived benefits of TED Talks, while Lee et al. reported that participants found TED Talks helpful in improving pronunciation and encouraging independent learning, Huang and Chang’s (2015, p.78) participants suggested that listening to TED Talks repeatedly helped them become aware of “speakers’ intended meaning and use of strategies”, which highlight
the advantages of using videos and, particularly, their role in bringing authenticity to classrooms, which are discussed in Sections 2.3 and 3.5.1.

In terms of their evaluation of TED Talks, the participants in this study perceived the TED Talks as representing good speech models, with 12.6% of the participants indicating uncertainty. This aligns with the results reported by Huang and Chang (2015, p.76) and Leopold (2016). The participants in Huang and Chang’s study suggested that TED Talks are innovative, and complicated at times but also reflect the dynamic nature of APs, which makes them different from the “rigid, outdated, and boring” rules they had learnt in classrooms. Similarly, the participants in Leopold’s study were also impressed by TED Talks and felt excited about noticing and emulating expert speakers.

As for the participants’ affective attitudes towards the TED Talks in the present study, most found the TED Talks interesting and entertaining. Similarly, Huang and Chang (2015) reported that 95% of their participants enjoyed the “diverse content and speakers” of TED Talks. Lee et al. (2018, p.37) also remarked that their participants found TED Talks “really interesting”, “very attractive” and “very nice to watch”. In a social work classroom, the participants indicated that they became “addicted” to TED Talks (Loya and Klemm 2016). In this doctoral research, it is relevant to note that nearly half of the selected TED Talks were among the seventy-two most-viewed talks on TED.com, as indicated in Section 3.5.3, which may have improved the participants’ attitudes towards them.

One of the interesting results relevant to TED Talks is that most of the participants (76.7%) disagreed that the talks were too short to explore AP discourse. However, it is also interesting that 14.6% of the participants were uncertain about this, and that 8.8% of them agreed. Section 3.5.2 acknowledges that the selection of short videos helped accommodate for the short class time. In addition, Section 4.3.1 indicates that the length of the talks encouraged the participants to listen to the same talks repeatedly, and some were encouraged to listen to more talks. The role of repetition, which the short length of the talks encouraged, is valuable in language learning because it contributes to noticing and promotes language awareness (Kurita 2012). With talks that are between fifteen and twenty minutes in length, participants often complain about the time-consuming nature of the analysis tasks (Huang and Chang 2015). Accordingly, the selection of six-minute talks seemed to work for the approach
adopted in this study, especially given that the participants were novices in making APs in English. Students can be gradually introduced to longer talks to expand their exposure to moves and language patterns that may not be present in short talks.

In terms of cultural appropriacy, Section 3.5.2 indicates that the researcher attempted to exclude any TED Talks that could be perceived as inappropriate in the context of the study, which is governed by the Islamic framework as illustrated at various sections of this research (e.g. Section 3.5.3). While most of the participants (84.5%) disagreed that TED Talks were culturally irrelevant, 10.7% of the participants were uncertain, and 4.8% agreed. The careful selection of the TED Talks may explain the high percentage of participants who denied that the talks were culturally irrelevant. Another possible reason is that increased access to social media platforms promotes cultural tolerance, and so the participants were indifferent to issues related to cultural relevance. However, Section 5.2.1 also indicated that cultural diversity exists, which could explain the responses of the other participants. Scanning the data from the participants who denied the cultural relevancy of the TED Talks revealed that four out of five of them were from rural areas. While this could partially explain the disagreement responses, one should also consider that cultural relevance entails other aspects, besides cultural appropriateness, so it is not clear if these participants found the TED Talks culturally inappropriate or culturally irrelevant. It is useful to mention that three of these participants indicated that the English language is not at all/not very relevant to their academic and professional needs. (See Section 5.2.4). While the qualitative data in this research did not reveal aspects that might be perceived as provocative, a recent doctoral study found that EFL Saudi males who were introduced to a digital game-based language learning platform were annoyed by the music playing in the background as well as the way females were portrayed, though they indicated that this annoyance was manageable (Alsayegh 2016). Accordingly, in retrospect, such minor observations could also have influenced the participants’ attitudes in this study. While negative attitudes were found among a minority of the participants in both studies, navigating cultural sensibilities may be helpful in resolving these issues.

5.3.2 Perceived ease of use

Perceived ease of use entails the participants’ perceptions of the challenges they might have experienced while using MCOTT. These challenges can be divided into
challenges caused by a lack of resources and challenges caused by tasks. These issues are illustrated with references to relevant research.

**Lack of resources**

This section discusses the results pertinent to the challenges caused by a lack of resources, namely access to a computer/the Internet, the speed of Internet connections, and insufficient training.

Since the sessions took a place in a computer laboratory, all the participants had access to PCs connected to the Internet; therefore, unsurprisingly, most of the participants denied having challenges in terms of computers/Internet access or speed of Internet connection. However, as indicated in Chapter 3, gaining access to the computer laboratory for the allocated number of hours needed to complete the five sessions for the elven groups was challenging. This is because the available computer laboratories are used by different faculties for different purposes (e.g. computer-based tests, workshops). Aljohani (2017) reported similar findings, having surveyed 106 language teacher educators regarding their access to computer laboratories at their institutions in KSA, where 72.7% of the teacher educators indicated that they had access to a computer laboratory and 27.3% reported restrictions similar to the those reported above. In contrast, Liu and Jiang (2009) reported a lack of access to computers/Internet as a source of challenges encountered by their participants, which can be due to the changes in Internet access and digital literacy since the time of their study. In situations where access to computers/Internet is limited (e.g. Yoon and Hirvela 2004; Liu and Jiang 2009), or where participants are techno-phobic (e.g. Mukherjee 2004), researchers suggested using printed concordance lines (Boulton 2010). While this can be useful as an initial training point that focuses on familiarising L2 learners with concordance lines and DDL, it is not clear whether it can be useful for a long-term corpus use. As suggested by Boulton (2010, p.538) “the consensus seems to be that paper-based materials are not in themselves incompatible with DDL (e.g. Frankenberg-Garcia 2005; Breyer 2006)”. However, a mix of both direct and indirect approaches could also be beneficial. As indicated earlier in Chapter 3 that getting access to the computer laboratory was challenging, in similar circumstances, a mix of direct and indirect approaches to corpus use could be beneficial.
It is also relevant here to refer back to the discussion about the choice of a web-based corpus in Chapter 3, which indicates that a web-based corpus can be efficient in minimising the technical requirements for corpus access—one only needs a device that has a web browser and Internet access. However, while chiefly justified (see Section 3.5.1), this issue is more complex than alluded to by this simple statement, particularly when considering today’s surging technological innovations and learners’ expectations and increasing tendency to use smartphones for learning. Since 41.7% of the participants indicated that they used smartphones, compared to 48.5% who used laptops as the primary language learning device, it is important to acknowledge that MCOTT is not optimised for mobile web browsers. In this regard, it is suggested that:

… checklists for CALL courseware and for the growing number of Web-Enhanced Language Learning sites will change because learners’ expectations, uses and experiences change, and also because pedagogical software capabilities and functionalities will become more powerful if not better.

(Murray et al. 2005, p.80)

Accordingly, one may consider whether a mobile version of a web-based corpus should be made available to users (e.g. Compleat Lexical Tutor - Version 8.3), or possibly even a mobile application.

Most of the participants (83.5%) indicated that the training was sufficient. This perceived adequacy of training might be related to several factors. First, as indicated in Chapter 3 (Section 3.6.2), the number of students in each group did not exceed eleven, which was helpful in addressing the concerns raised by individual participants. While it was possible to train the participants in small groups in this study, this is not usually the case in EFL classrooms, which typically include twenty to thirty students. In such cases, Liu and Jiang (2009, p.73) suggested small group work as a way to help students “become more engaged” and to give them “more opportunities to participate and interact with one another”. In fact, more research is needed to determine the influence of the number of students on the efficiency of training as well as whether blended learning is useful in such cases. In addition, the participants were aware of the learning objectives of each session (see Appendix 10), which were clear and focused and thus possibly helped the participants to work closely towards achieving them. These objectives were combined with a process approach that “fosters metacognitive knowledge, making students aware of how they themselves learn
best” (O'Sullivan 2007, p.274). It is also reported in Section 4.3.2 that the interviewees referred to the teacher on twenty-five occasions, which is indicative of the scaffolding and instruction offered. The value of scaffolding associated with DDL activities is often emphasised (e.g. O'Sullivan and Chambers 2006; Chang and Sun 2009; Pérez-Paredes et al. 2011; Cobb and Boulton 2015). Similarly, Yoon and Jo (2014, p.113), suggested that “regardless of the type of corpus use, … teacher’s guidance and scaffolding was crucial in helping to lead learners to successful experiences in corpus analysis”. Finally, it should be noted that 10.7% of the participants were uncertain about the adequacy of training and 5.8% of them disagreed/strongly disagreed that training was adequate. This can be attributed to several reasons, such as the short length of the course, the participant’s unfamiliarity with corpora, and learner-dependent factors that are discussed in Section 5.4.

Tasks

In terms of challenges caused by the tasks, most of the participants denied having difficulties in performing the tasks due to time and effort spent (85.5%), search techniques (85.5%), or the mental effort required to complete the tasks (84.5%). These results stem from the fact that most of the tasks required the participants to practise skills they often use in any language classroom, including listening, answering comprehension questions, guessing, reading, skimming and scanning, and matching meaning/function to vocabulary. In addition, such positive results could be related to the use of the “pattern-hunting” approach proposed by Kennedy and Miceli (2017), who similarly reported the effectiveness of this approach with novice corpus users. However, a few of the tasks required a higher level of thinking and skills that are not often prioritised in language classrooms, such as analysing, comparing and contrasting, and explaining and defining; these tasks may explain the responses of the 15% of the participants who agreed or were uncertain about having difficulties while completing the tasks. Compared to Turnbull and Burston’s study (1998, p.17), where the minimum training was offered, time was shown to be a practical factor hindering the two participants from practising concordancing strategies to improve their essays despite their contentment regarding the usefulness of this practice. This theme was similarly reported by Yoon and Hirvela (2004), in whose study 75% (N=6 out of 8) of intermediate, and 64% (N=10 out of 15) of advanced participants reported having difficulties due to the time-consuming nature of data analysis. In the same vein,
Chambers and O'Sullivan (2004) and O'Sullivan and Chambers (2006) reported that one out of fourteen undergraduate and three out of eight postgraduate participants listed the time-consuming nature of corpus consultation as a disadvantage of this practice. In terms of search techniques, Aşık et al. (2015) reported that a mean value of 3.11 (based on a five-point Likert scale) was associated with the difficulties caused by the search techniques. Such negative attitudes associated with DDL tasks emphasise the need for “further pedagogical innovation” (Change and Sun 2009, p.294) in developing tasks that can be both motivating and effective.

5.3.3 Perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control is related to the participants’ beliefs about their ability to use MCOTT and TED Talks to improve their AP skills. It is been reported that the participants generally demonstrated positive perceptions about their ability to use TED Talks as well as MCOTT. However, the participants seemed less confident regarding their ability to use other resources to improve their APs. These issues are discussed below with references to relevant research.

In terms of the participants’ ability to understand TED Talks, most of the participants (91.30%) indicated that the talks were comprehensible at their current language level. The qualitative data showed that the participants reported that some talks were more difficult than others, which was expected due to the varying levels of vocabulary coverage. In fact, the potential challenges TED Talks can present for EFL/ESL learners were noted by different researchers (e.g. Nurmukhamedov and Sadler 2011; Takaesu 2013; Leopold 2016; Takaesu 2017). In order to minimise these challenges, participants were asked to listen to the talk before the class. This is in line with suggestions of Leopold (2016, p.55) who recommended “assign[ing] students to watch the speeches at home for comprehension before watching them in class for discussion”.

In the same vein, some of the participants found the speech rate of the TED Talks fast, which caused difficulties in comprehending the talk. Similarly, Takaesu (2013) reported that the fast speech rate was “a big stumbling block” for some participants at an intermediate proficiency level. In this regard, a recent study concluded that TED Talks “are spoken at a faster pace on average” than academic lectures (Wingrove 2017, p.93). In this study, the participants attempted to slow the speech rate using a feature
offered by YouTube. While some of the participants found this useful, others did not. It is relevant to note that there is an argument regarding the effectiveness of a slower speaking rate in improving comprehension, and that the results are inconsistent (e.g. Derwing and Munro 2001; Meinardi 2009; Chang 2018). In addition, questions of authenticity may be raised by slowed speech (McBride 2011; Tai 2016).

As for MCOTT use, the majority of the participants (88.4%) indicated that MCOTT was manageable to use at their language level. Additionally, three interviewees suggested translating the MCOTT interface, because this could help them navigate the website more easily. However, other participants indicated their preference for an English-only interface. This raises the question of whether the participants would prefer working with a translated interface when the option is made available, and whether this will lead to better performance. It may be useful to attempt to present the translation in a pop-up box when the cursor goes over a certain word in order to satisfy both groups, and see if the participants actually make use of this feature.

The results also showed that most of the participants felt confident about their abilities to improve their AP skills using MCOTT independently (74.8%), or with the help of the teacher (85.4%). Almost half of the participants (48.60%) also felt confident about their ability to improve their AP skills using other resources. Although the variations in these percentages were expected, the percentage of the participants who indicated their ability to use MCOTT independently was higher than expected, particularly due to the short length of the course. These results suggest several implications. First, these initial positive results should not obscure the challenges learners may face when using MCOTT independently. Second, the short length of the course did not allow the participants to use MCOTT to prepare for an actual AP required by one of the courses they were taking prior to collecting the data. Such experience is vital to evaluate MCOTT as a potentially useful tool for these tasks. Issues such as the time-consuming nature of using corpora may arise and prevent the participants from using the corpus, as in the case reported by Turnbull and Burston’s study (1998), which was discussed earlier in this section. Finally, different sections of this thesis illustrate that the participants manifested different independent learning strategies, which may partially explain the results pertinent to perceived behavioural control. In fact, it is been reported that the participants’ perceived behavioural control was found to be significantly related to their attitudes towards autonomy. (See Section 4.4.)
5.3.4 Affective attitude

This section discusses the results pertinent to the participants’ affective attitude, particularly in terms of their views on using MCOTT compared to other resources, as well as the potential affective benefits of using MCOTT. In what follows, these issues are illustrated with references to relevant research.

In terms of the participants’ perceptions about the effectiveness of MCOTT compared to other resources, most of the participants preferred using MCOTT to textbooks (83.5%), or to videos (65%) in order to improve their AP skills. These results can be attributed to the participants’ perception of MCOTT as is indicated in Section 4.3.2. The participants appreciated the features of MCOTT, which can better accommodate the nature of APs, particularly when compared to textbooks. In terms of videos, the different opinions reported by the participants in Section 4.3.4 with respect to their preference of accessing the TED website directly rather than MCOTT or vice versa may be due to individual learning styles. Therefore, it may be useful to focus on developing L2 learners’ skills, regardless of the tool. These skills may include predicting, analysing, making inferences and comparing (O'Sullivan 2007).

The results obtained from this thesis also suggest that MCOTT may offer the participants affective benefits including facilitating the process of preparing for APs, which 73.7% of the participants agreed with, as well as increasing the participants’ confidence about improving their AP skills, which 79.6% of the participants agreed with. Such affective benefits could stem from the participants’ need for resources on APs, as was suggested by the interviewees. (See Section 4.3.4.) Yoon (2005, p.238) made a similar suggestion; “corpus use provided the participants with not only textual help but also with a psychological advantage in writing”. While corpus use can help improve language skills, it may also enhance learner confidence. Also relevant to the discussion of the participants’ affective attitudes towards MCOTT is the ‘wow factor’, which

encompasses both extremely positive and extremely negative initial reactions in the user (teacher/learner) towards a software package. This immediate, instinctive evaluation can colour the user’s opinion of the program as a whole, even on a medium- to long-term basis

(Murray and Barnes 1998, p.250)
Several points in this thesis have acknowledged that the short length of the course may influence the participants’ attitudes from different perspectives. Such influence is also reflected in the question of whether the participants would sustain their positives attitudes towards MCOTT and TED Talks. Yoon (2005) found that prolonged engagement with corpora had yielded contradictory results; while some participants developed positive attitudes towards the corpus, others realised that it was not as sufficient as they initially expected. In the latter case, practical issues such as time may have caused the change in the participants’ perceptions. Accordingly, the results obtained from this thesis should only be considered tentative, and future investigations are recommended to uncover these issues.

5.3.5 Future intentions

This section discusses the results pertinent to the participants’ future intentions. The majority of the participants tended to agree that they plan to use MCOTT and TED Talks, and to recommend their use. However, the participants also expressed divergent opinions about their needs for more training in using MCOTT.

In terms of using MCOTT and TED Talks in the future, most of the participants indicated that they plan to use them, with percentages of 91.2% and 86.4%, respectively. These results can be related to the participants’ perceptions about the usefulness of these resources as well as their confidence in their ability to use them. Other researchers reported similar results when their participants were convinced of the usefulness of the corpus (Gaskell and Cobb 2004; e.g. Geluso and Yamaguchi 2014; e.g. Akinci and Yıldız 2017). In contrast, the responses of other participants—those who disagreed or were uncertain about their future use of MCOTT and TED Talks—can be attributed to their lack of confidence in the usefulness of the two platforms or their ability to use them. This coincides with the results reported by O’Sullivan (2006, p.278); a few participants were hesitant about future use of corpora because they “were not convinced it was helpful” or due to their need for the instructor’s help. It is also relevant to mention that three interviewees declared different patterns in using MCOTT in the future; while two of these reported that consistent use of MCOTT would help them improve their vocabulary knowledge and pronunciation, one indicated that she would use MCOTT when preparing for an AP. It is also worth noting that the participants’ intentions to use MCOTT and TED Talks
can be related to reasons other than improving AP skills, and included improving their listening skills and pronunciation. These results support the pedagogical recommendations regarding the inclusion of videos as well as full transcripts of the talks in the corpus (Braun 2005; Pérez-Paredes 2010). Finally, considering the need for more training in MCOTT use in the future, the results revealed divergent opinions among the participants. This was expected due to the short length of the course, the participants’ familiarity with traditional approaches to language learning, and the participants’ profiles, as was indicated in Section 4.4.

In conclusion, this section has discussed the results related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. The complexity of understanding such attitudes has been demonstrated through delineating factors pertinent to each attitudinal aspect and through highlighting the interrelationships between these attitudinal aspects. Having discussed the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, the next section considers the relationships between the participants’ attitudes and the learner-dependent factors.

5.4 THE PARTICIPANTS’ PROFILES AND ATTITUDES

This section discusses the results reported in relation to the second research question, which is:

- To what extent was the participant attitude found to be influenced by the four variables of motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence?

Section 4.4 indicated that the four independent variables were found to significantly relate to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. Attitude towards autonomy appeared to have the most significant influence, followed by attitude towards oral skills, and finally motivation and ICT competence. The general tendency of the relationships between these independent variables and the participants’ attitudes appeared to be positively monotonic, where an increase in the independent variables was nonlinearly associated with an improvement in the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. In what follows, these results are first discussed within the context of this study and then with references to relevant research.

First, it is useful to relate the aforementioned results to the homogeneity of the participants. It has indicated earlier in this chapter that the participants tended to form
a homogenous group. This could have influenced the significance of the relationships reported above. For instance, ICT competence may appear more problematic if a diverse group is engaged with corpus use. In addition, motivation can reflect more significant relationships in an ESL context. Accordingly, these results should be considered tentative and only representative of those who participated at the given time of the study. Nonetheless, one can find some support from previous research, despite its paucity, as is illustrated below.

5.4.1 Motivation

The importance of motivation in shaping L2 learner attitudes towards corpus use can be attributed to its role in meeting learners’ needs. In this research, all the participants were voluntarily involved in the short course, and the majority of them seemed to be motivated to learn English, as reported in Section 4.2.5. Motivation was found to be significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, reflecting a small-effect relationship. However, future intentions almost seemed to approach a medium-effect relationship, with an $f^2$ score of 0.146. This may seem unsurprising, particularly given that motivation can explain why some of the participants chose to use the corpus. As indicated in Section 2.6.2, several scholars indicated that their participants used a corpus mainly because it responded to their immediate needs (Turnbull and Burston 1998; Sun 2007; Liu and Jiang 2009; Kennedy and Miceli 2017). This can be similar to the case of this research, as most of the participants manifested motivation to learn the English language. It has also been noted that the participants expressed their needs for AP resources and indicated the importance of English for their academic and professional success, both of which could have influenced the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT.

5.4.2 Attitudes towards oral skills

Attitudes towards oral skills helped investigate affective, cognitive, and behavioural aspects pertaining to learning English speaking. Similar to motivation, the participants’ attitudes towards oral skills were found to be related to their attitudes towards MCOTT use, mostly exhibiting relationships of small effects as shown in Section 4.4.2. Tool perceived usefulness, on the other hand, demonstrated a medium-effect relationship with the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, with an $f^2$
score of 0.157. Tool perceived usefulness involved exploring the participants’ beliefs about the usefulness of MCOTT for exploring AP discourse, for learning independently, and for thinking about their learning process. Overall, these results are similar to the findings reported by Yoon (2005), who noted a relationship between participants’ lack of interest or experience in writing and initial negative attitudes towards corpus use. (See Section 2.6.2.) In contrast, Sun observed no significant difference between the participants who had experience in publishing and those who had not in terms of their appreciation of corpus use. Such variations in results emphasise the need for caution when it comes to generalising these results.

5.4.3 Attitudes towards autonomy

In this research, attitudes towards autonomy involved behavioural aspects of autonomy (e.g. the need for teacher support, the ability to learn English independently), and they were found to be significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards the MOCTT. The relationships between the two variables were of the largest magnitudes compared to the other three learner-dependent variables. With an $f^2$ score of 0.353, perceived behavioural control appeared to be associated with the a large effect size compared to the other attitudinal aspects (e.g. perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use). This may seem unsurprising since attitudes towards autonomy and perceived behavioural control revolved around similar behavioural aspects and psychological attributes that investigated learners’ capacity to take control of their learning process (as in the former) and of their MCOTT use (as in the latter). However, what is interesting is the relationship, of the second largest effect size, between attitudes towards autonomy and content perceived usefulness, which was a medium-effect relationship with an $f^2$ score of 0.254. Content perceived usefulness entailed gauging the participants’ beliefs about the usefulness of TED Talks in improving AP skills and about whether TED Talks are culturally relevant and interesting. Accordingly, one can assume that the participants who were more inclined to view TED Talks positively were also more positive about their attitudes towards autonomy. Overall, these results corroborate with previous research that suggested autonomy as a contributing factor to L2 learner attitudes towards corpus use (e.g. Turnbull and Burston 1998; Yoon 2005).
5.4.4 ICT competence

In this research, ICT competence refers to the participants’ ability to use ICT devices, and their beliefs about the efficacy of such use in enhancing their English language learning. ICT competence appeared to be significantly related to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. The effect sizes associated with this relationship seemed to be the smallest compared to the other three learner-dependent variables discussed above. The qualitative data indicated that the participants were initially concerned with the technical aspect of MCOTT use but became less concerned about it by the third session. In the sense, these results may corroborate Riordan’s (2005) findings (see Section 2.6.2) that training helped the participants overcome technical issues by the end of the semester. On the other hand, the manifested significance of the relationship between ICT competence and the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT demonstrates that ICT competence may discourage corpus use even when training is offered. In other words, learners who lack ICT competence may feel discouraged to use corpora despite training due to the challenge they may face, which is similar to the findings (see Section 2.6.2) reported by Farr (2008) and Leńko-Szymańska (2014). Finally, the small-effect relationship between ICT competence and the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use can be considered with reference to MCOTT itself. MCOTT is a web-based corpus designed with L2 learners in mind. Therefore, navigating the web-page of MCOTT can be similar to navigating other websites with which learners are familiar, as was also reported by Boulton (2015) when using Google as a concordance. (See Section 2.6.2.)

In consideration of all of the above relationships, a final salient issue to discuss is the nonlinearity of these relationships. This nonlinearity implies that although the learner-dependent factors may influence learners’ attitudes towards corpus use, such influence can reflect diverse patterns and therefore can sometimes be unpredictable. As is demonstrated in Section 4.4, the relationship between motivation and overall perceived usefulness was generally found to be insignificant. However, when exploring the segmented curve depicting this relationship (Figure 4–2), it became obvious that this relationship was significant in relation to a specific group of the participants, and irregularly (at varying magnitudes) abated in relation to other groups. Accordingly, while it is useful to be aware of the learners’ profiles and its potential impact on their attitudes towards corpus use, it is unwise to draw conclusions or make
decisions based on these results alone. Instead, it is recommended to introduce DDL for L2 learners regardless of their profiles. In this regard, Boulton’s (2011) findings (see Section 2.6.2) can provide a relevant example. Boulton noted a significant correlation between motivation and paper-based DDL, which subsided when introducing computer-based DDL. Another example can be drawn from the results obtained by this research (see Sections 4.3.2 and 4.3.3); while some of the participants found encountering unfamiliar vocabulary motivating and encouraging, others did not. Therefore, such diversity within the relationships between learner-dependent factors and corpus use highlights the need for versatility in L2 classroom DDL applications.

5.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the results obtained to answer the research questions regarding the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use, and the relationships between such attitudes and the participants’ profiles. The first section of the chapter has provided a brief summary of the results, highlighting their overall tendency. In terms of the participants’ profiles, the participants seemed to share common characteristics across different categories, such as cultural and educational backgrounds and motivation to learn the English language. However, the participants manifested distinct characteristics in relation to their attitudes towards oral skills, attitudes towards autonomy, and ICT competence and use, with the majority of the participants exhibiting positive attitudes.

As for the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, most of the participants had positive attitudes, which can be attributed to several factors. By introducing the structure and common functions of APs, the course seemed to satisfy the participants’ needs in terms of improving their AP skills. In addition, MCOTT facilitated the exploration of features of AP discourse by offering videos and transcripts of forty-five TED Talks, as well as different search modes that allowed the participants to browse the content of MCOTT, to define a particular section to analyse and/or compare section across a number of TED Talks, and to generate concordances. Furthermore, TED Talks seemed to provide the participants with rich AP input that they found beneficial, motivating, and interesting. While the participants, initially, encountered minor technical challenges, they were able to overcome these challenges as they developed familiarity with the corpus. The user-friendly interface of MCOTT, the
effectiveness of the training, and the participants’ ICT competence may have contributed to minimising the technical challenges that are often associated with corpus use. Additionally, the participants’ profiles (e.g. motivation, academic and professional need to learn the English language) may have positively influenced their attitudes towards MCOTT use. Moreover, aspects of behavioural control seemed interesting, where most of the participants indicated their confidence in their ability to use MCOTT and TED Talks to improve their AP skills, which emphasises the significance of considering the participants’ language proficiencies and needs. The affective attitudes, which might have been enhanced due to the inclusion of videos that the participants considered interesting and entertaining, may be of similar importance. Likewise, the participants might have gained affective benefits (e.g. promoting one’s confidence) from the accessible TED Talks, especially with the reported lack of resources that they can use to improve their AP skills. Accordingly, it was unsurprising that most of the participants indicated their intention to use MCOTT and TED Talks in the future. Nevertheless, negative attitudes were also observed, and can be attributed to the short span of the course, as well as the participants’ profiles.

Finally, this chapter has discussed the results pertaining to the relationships between learner-dependent variables (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) and attitudes towards MCOTT. It has been demonstrated that the four variables were found significantly related to participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. Such relationships mostly manifested small to medium effect sizes, and were non-linear. Therefore, while it is useful to acknowledge the factors influencing learners’ attitudes towards corpus use, one should not draw conclusions based on these results alone. Having discussed the results of the two research questions, the following chapter provides summary of the thesis, implications and recommendations.
CHAPTER 6 – SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a summary of the research, offering an outline of the research structure and a recapitulation of its findings. The chapter also highlights the research limitations, followed by the methodological and pedagogical implications for future research.

6.2 RESEARCH SUMMARY

The present research embarked on a pedagogical objective, concerned with raising awareness of AP discourse among EFL students in KSA. The rationale for the identified aim was both contextually driven and pedagogically informed. Context-wise, preparing for APs in English has been highlighted as a challenge facing EFL students in KSA, as is similarly the case in other EFL contexts (Hill and Storey 2003; Chang and Huang 2015; Barrett and Liu 2016). Implementing English as a medium of instruction in higher education institutions, the lack of exposure to academic spoken English, the lack of sufficient resources for teaching or learning academic spoken discourse of English, and the time-consuming nature of teaching AP discourse present challenges for teaching AP discourse in EFL contexts. In consideration of such issues, this research proposed the implementation of a multimodal corpus of TED Talks to facilitate awareness of AP discourse in EFL classrooms and sought to explore participants’ attitudes to corpus efficacy and the relationships between the participants’ attitudes and profiles.

Pedagogically, there are three central tenets (awareness raising, language discourse, and authenticity) closely related to approaches to teaching spoken discourse (e.g. McCarthy and Carter 1995), to teaching APs (e.g. Jones 1996; Richards 2008), and to DDL (e.g. Johns 1991a; Charles 2007; Flowerdew 2009; Pérez-Paredes 2010; Kennedy and Miceli 2017), all of which seem to support the research objective and its proposed teaching method. First, awareness-raising activities are suggested to enhance L2 learning process by assigning L2 learners active roles, and DDL is found to offer...
ample opportunities for noting language features, providing that sufficient conditions are met (e.g. scaffolding, affective engagement). Second, language discourse is emphasised for its role in developing effective communication. That is, understanding of language discourse entails an awareness of the different aspects involved in making communication. When combined with corpus-based DDL, a discourse-based approach to language learning can raise L2 learners’ awareness of common communicative functions, linguistic patterns, and rhetorical flexibility pertaining to a particular genre, which closely aligned with the pedagogical objective of this research. Thirdly, utilising authentic materials in L2 classrooms can help by offering rich language input in different communicative events, as discourse and task authentication is established. Such input may enhance learners’ functional language proficiencies.

Given the multiple affordances of multimodal corpora, it was assumed that compiling a multimodal corpus of TED Talks could enable the exploration of features of AP discourse in EFL classrooms. Multimodal corpora, when pedagogically driven, can provide the means to engage L2 learners in meaningful tasks. Pedagogic corpora, such as ELISA and Backbone, have demonstrated the values of enriching corpus content by incorporating videos and enabling full text access, and through careful considerations of learner needs and learning objectives, all of which have their implications for corpus design and annotation. As for TED Talks, they may offer rich input that assists in exploring AP discourse and can, therefore, be a valuable resource for L2 classrooms. Nevertheless, they have their shortcomings, such as their wide variety of topics, lengths, and difficulty levels. These shortcomings suggest the need to select appropriate TED Talks, based on learner language proficiency and needs—an approach that was practised in this research.

The focus of the research questions here was participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, thus the attitudinal aspects of learner corpus use were explored for a comprehensive overview of what may constitute learner attitude to corpus use. Accordingly, five aspects were identified, based on the C-TAM-TPB: perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude, and future intentions. In addition, four learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards language skills, attitude towards autonomy, and ICT competence) were discussed and considered as factors that could influence the participants’ attitudes to MCOTT use.
Based on the relevant L2 research, the methodological approach to this work was identified. A mixed-methods case study with a pragmatic worldview captured issues related to participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT in their situated context. In addition, methods of data collection (questionnaires, structured interviews, and classroom observations), data analysis (integrating quantitative and qualitative data), and research quality were demonstrated, highlighting both their strengths and their limitations. The process of compiling MCOTT and selecting TED Talks was also delineated, with the challenges described. Finally, Chapters 4 and 5 presented and discussed the results, by offering a comprehensive overview of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT and the relationships between such attitudes and learner-dependent variables. These results are summarised below.

6.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND QUESTIONS REVISITED

This section highlights the main findings of the research in relation to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use and the relationships between these attitudes and learner-dependent factors (i.e. motivation, attitudes towards oral skills, attitudes towards autonomy, and ICT competence).

6.3.1 Attitudes towards corpus use: Conclusions

This research presented a case study involving the use of a multimodal corpus of TED Talks in EFL classrooms in KSA, and the results pertaining to the participants’ attitudes towards corpus use. Gaining an understanding of the participants’ attitudes can highlight issues related to corpus use in L2 classrooms, informing future corpus design. Five attitudinal aspects were investigated; namely, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived behavioural control, affective attitude, and future intentions. In addition, the relationships between attitudes towards MCOTT and four learner-dependent variables were examined. The main findings obtained are outlined in what follows.

Perceived usefulness

The first attitudinal aspect of MCOTT use to be explored is perceived usefulness, which provides insights into the effectiveness of the course, the corpus, and the TED
Talks in raising awareness of AP discourse. Three main findings relating to the overall course, to MCOTT and to TED Talks, are presented below.

As essential consideration when determining the effectiveness of a course is whether it has been found adequate to meet the needs of the learners. The course introduced in the present thesis focused on raising awareness of the common communicative functions in the three sections (introduction, main body, and conclusion) of APs. For most participants, this focus was sufficient to address their needs and concerns pertaining to APs, perhaps implying the importance of incorporating similar learning objectives in EFL classrooms. In particular, the participants found the course useful for raising awareness of the structure, vocabulary, and grammar of APs. However, scaffolding was found important, as some learners cannot independently note the form and meaning themselves. Furthermore, discussions on body language appeared to be an indispensable to learning about the AP discourse for some participants, which underscores the role of videos in such courses.

Another measure of the effectiveness of a given course is to investigate the attitudes towards its medium. In this case, MCOTT was appreciated by the participants as it offered various features that facilitated the exploration of AP discourse. The inclusion of videos, full texts, and the four query functions (browsing the content of the corpus, section, concordancing and lexical list) enabled the participants to engage in a variety of tasks that were more pedagogically-oriented than traditional corpus-based DDL tasks. Examples of these tasks included watching TED Talks, examining the full text of certain talks, and comparing the introduced communicative functions across a number of talks. In addition, multimodal corpora can afford richer language input, compared to textbooks, due to their capacity to introduce far greater speech models, as well as to be made responsive and interactive.

The course content, similar to the course medium, is of considerable importance for determining course effectiveness. In this research, TED Talks were perceived as a valuable resource for improving AP skills. Other benefits were also highlighted, such as developing the four language skills, improving pronunciation and expanding vocabulary, were also highlighted. Additionally, the short length of the talks—as well as their interesting and entertaining presentation—encouraged the participants to listen again to specific talks and to listen to more of them.
Perceived ease of use

Another attitudinal aspect was perceived ease of use. The overall positive findings may highlight the value of pedagogic corpus design and the approach to corpus exploitation in L2 classrooms and training.

When exploring the participants’ beliefs about the challenges they encountered while using MCOTT, the concern was to find whether the frequently reported challenges with corpus use were also relevant in the context of this thesis. Access to computers and the Internet was reported, though this was not significant since the sessions took place in a computer laboratory, where all participants had access to PCs connected to the Internet. Most participants reported that training was sufficient. Training was also effective, possibly due to the small number of students in each group, as well as a training approach that included extensive scaffolding. The user-friendly web-based corpus may also have facilitated the training.

Potential challenges caused by the tasks were also investigated, and the participants demonstrated overall positive attitudes. Such positive attitudes could be related to the training and the types of tasks involves. The participants were offered scaffolding throughout the sessions. In addition, utilising a combined discourse-based and corpus-based approach helped in creating tasks that are common in the L2 classroom (e.g. listening, answering comprehension questions, guessing, reading), or less common tasks, such as concordance activities.

Perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control was also among the explored attitudinal aspects. In this research, the majority of the participants were confident of their ability to understand TED Talks and to use MCOTT independently. Most participants indicated their ability to understand TED Talks at their current language level, with a few participants reporting difficulties. The use of RANGE, or other similar tools, such as VocabProfile, to determine the vocabulary coverage provided a methodological approach to selecting appropriate talks. While most participants indicated their ability to use MCOTT at their language level, some suggested that translating the interface would aid in navigation of the web-based corpus. Despite the short length of the course, most participants indicated their confidence in using the website independently. Here,
learner-dependent factors (particularly participants’ attitudes towards autonomy) and the user-friendly interface of the corpus can be influential in such attitudes.

**Affective attitude**

Affective attitude was the fourth attitudinal aspect pertaining to the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT use. The results revealed affective benefits associated with using videos and MCOTT to improve AP skills. The participants’ preferences for MCOTT and TED Talks were related to the availability of videos that offered more perspectives than textbooks on AP discourse. Additionally, the variety of topics introduced by TED speakers seemed to capture the interest of some participants, who preferred using the TED website to MCOTT. Furthermore, the affective benefits related to MCOTT use included facilitating the process of AP preparation and increasing learner confidence in improving their AP skills. These results may be related to the reported lack of learning resources for developing AP skills. However, due to the short length of the course, it is not clear whether the participants would sustain these attitudes through prolonged engagement with MCOTT.

**Future intention**

Future intention was the fifth and final attitudinal aspect explored in this research. In this research, most of the participants indicated their interest in using—and intention to use—MCOTT and TED Talks in the future. These attitudes can be attributed to the fact that the participants were convinced about the usefulness of both MCOTT and TED Talks. There was an interesting variation on the question of the need for training in the future, with participants reporting divergent opinions.

**Attitudes towards corpus and learner profile**

Finally, the second research question was concerned with the relationships between learner-dependent factors (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence) and participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. Examination of these relationships revealed their non-linearity, suggesting that the participants have different tendencies in terms of their self-dependent factors and attitudes towards MCOTT. Such non-linearity emphasises the need for a variety of tasks and approaches in the L2 classrooms. In addition, the non-linear relationships imply the complexity of drawing conclusions with respect to the learner profile and
attitude. While the four learner-dependent factors were found significantly related to participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, these relationships were also found to be associated with small to medium effect sizes in the context of this research, with the exception of attitudes towards autonomy, which appeared to approach a relationship of a large effect with perceived behavioural control. Future research in this area may uncover whether large magnitudes can be associated with relationships between learner profile and corpus use.

6.4 LIMITATIONS

The first limitation of this work is related to the research population. The study was conducted in a single institution in KSA, where only female participants were accessible, and participation in the research was voluntary. Therefore, the findings of this work are representative only of those involved. Second, the short duration of the data collection and the course limit the relevance of the results. This includes issues related to the complementarity of the employed methods of data collection, particularly interviews where participants may have provided more data if engaged with corpus use for a longer period. Examining L2 learner attitudes towards corpus use in a longitudinal study can generate more data and would be an interesting area for future research. (See also Section 6.5.2.) Based on the evaluation and exploration of a number of attitudinal theoretical frameworks and on reviewing L2 research on learner attitude towards corpus use (see section 2.6.1), the adoption and adaptation of the C-TAM-TPB facilitated systematic investigation of the participants’ attitudes towards MOCTT in the context of this research. However, the limitations of the C-TAM-TPB should be acknowledged particularly due to its specific focus on attitudes without considering other areas of language learning such as possible gained benefits (e.g. measuring improved linguistic features) of corpus use, which can be an interesting area for future research. In addition, this study focused on four variables related to participants’ profiles (motivation, attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonomy and ICT competence). Other variables would also be worthy of investigation. In relation to these variables, the Likert scale for each variable reflected a number of statements which the researcher regarded as important, given the research context. Other researchers may be interested in different dimensions of these variables. The small number of selected TED Talks is another limitation. Other TED Talks are
likely to trigger different attitudes in the participants. Finally, this research proposed an approach that involved compiling and implementing a multimodal corpus of TED Talks in EFL classrooms to raise awareness of AP discourse, specifically targeting rhetorical structure and common functions of APs. Future research may investigate approaches that help address specific linguistic challenges faced by EFL learners in relation to APs. (See Section 2.5.1.) Despite these limitations, the researcher’s transparency throughout the different stages of the research has enabled the gathering of valuable insights that would be beneficial for future research.

6.5 IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

AP skills have emerged as a key criterion for academic and professional success. For undergraduates and postgraduates, therefore, enhancing these skills can be a means of empowerment. With the increasing globalisation of the English language, the challenges of teaching AP skills in higher education institutions are exacerbated by the added demand for training EFL learners to present in English. The multimodal elements of APs, associated with insufficient instructional time, and the lack of appropriate classroom materials call for pedagogical innovations that facilitate effective AP training. In this regard, this thesis offered a comprehensive overview of EFL learners’ attitudes towards a pedagogical approach targeting the discourse of English APs: a course of action that has pedagogical and methodological implications, which are highlighted below.

6.5.1 Pedagogical implications

This research proposed a course plan to raise awareness of English AP discourse, with a particular focus on introducing structure and common functions pertinent to APs. The findings of this research highlighted the participants’ need for such awareness, and their interests in other related areas that could be addressed in AP courses, such as, body language and interaction with audiences. It was noted that the multimodality of APs demands the use of multimedia in order to enable the exploration of different aspects of APs, including body language. In fact, the use of multimedia in this research helped participants to be critical of presenters’ body language. Therefore, it may be useful to introduce tasks in L2 classrooms that stimulate a discussion of body language in AP discourse. Examples of such tasks include predication activities in which
learners are asked to predict what speakers may say by noticing their body language or noticing/reflection activities in which learners are given opportunities to watch videos, note aspects of body language, and reflect on the use of such aspects. These activities can be particularly important for contexts in which body language can cause misunderstandings, as suggested by Busà (2010), who gave the example of the need to consider hand gestures with EFL Italian learners. In terms of interaction with audience, it was suggested that the monologic nature of most TED Talks renders them insufficient for addressing interaction with audiences. Accordingly, one may use online resources to expose L2 learners to the discourse of question and answer sessions. It can be challenging, however, to find authentic materials that are appropriate to learners’ levels and needs. In addition, questions arise regarding the efficacy of the available corpora (e.g. Wellington Corpus of New Zealand Spoken English, British Academic Spoken English) in L2 classrooms. Such corpora offer interactive talks (e.g. informal meetings, interactive seminars and lectures) that may be valuable as analogue corpora for meeting L2 learners’ needs, as related to awareness of academic interaction discourse.

The design of the course plan in this research was affected by practical constraints, such as insufficient classroom time. Similar practical constraints are often encountered when teaching APs. To overcome time-related issues, multimodal corpora may be integrated into a blended learning environment. This aligns with the views of various scholars (e.g. Hill and Storey 2003) on teaching AP skills, which regard blended learning as a potential solution to time issues. Blended learning environments have two components, namely, a face-to-face classroom component and a self-study component, as noted below:

The classroom component allows instructors to concentrate on academic content or linguistic instruction while students can create work, develop skills, and master academic discourse outside the classroom on the Internet (Brett, 2000).

(Barrett and Liu 2016, p.3)

In this sense, corpora can fit into blended learning environments, as they can offer opportunities for independent learning, as indicated by the results of this study and others (e.g. O'Sullivan 2007; Akıncı and Yıldız 2017). Future endeavours can investigate how the self-study component can be integrated. This component may include recorded tutorial videos that offer training in navigating the corpus and
analysing concordances, or focus on specific linguistic issues. It may also be helpful to create a discussion forum in which learners can discuss queries and share useful tips, whereby they then scaffold one another. In addition, one may need to refer to the evaluation criteria of, for example, multimedia language learning tools (Murray and Barnes 1998) and/or self-study resources (e.g. Cooker 2008) to ensure the efficacy of integrating corpora into blended learning environments. Such investigation can lead to the establishment of an evaluation framework for the integration of pedagogic corpora in blended learning environments, which, in turn, may contribute to bridging the gap between corpus linguistics and language pedagogy and between teaching AP skills and the lack of sufficient classroom time.

Another pedagogical implication is related to the use of TED Talks in L2 classrooms. Their wide range of topics and lengths and the availability of transcripts and videos make TED Talks suitable for classroom exploitation, provided that learners’ levels and needs are considered. In this research, vocabulary was regarded as a source of difficulty; thus, RANGE was used to select talks that corresponded to participants’ respective levels. However, the speed of the speech also posed a challenge. It is, therefore, important to consider the whole process of learner interaction, including the different aspects (e.g. visual, verbal, auditory) of multimodal resources. Such consideration does not imply the need to abandon authentic resources if difficulties arise; instead, one should seek ways to resolve these issues (e.g. scaffolding, use of transcripts while listening).

In addition, the results of this research suggested that TED Talks can be pedagogically valuable, as most participants found them useful and interesting, which aligned with the results reported by other researchers (Huang and Chang 2015; Leopold 2016). This raises the question of whether the use of TED Talks had a significant impact on participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. In other words, one should consider the influence of the content of the corpus on L2 learners’ attitudes towards corpus use. The answer to this question can offer insights into the different dimensions to which one should be attentive when selecting corpus content, including learner level, need, and interaction with the content, as well as the relevant affective effects (e.g. motivation, anxiety).
6.5.2 Methodological implications

The first methodological implication is related to the development and design of pedagogically motivated multimodal corpora and the value of open-source corpus tools in this regard. In this research, open-source corpus tools facilitated the process of corpus compilation. Rather than developing a new corpus tool, the researcher modified an existing one to fit the purpose of the corpus pertinent to this research. Similarly, researchers and practitioners can modify and/or develop existing tools, with the use of such open-source examples, which also provide opportunities for pedagogical innovations. In terms of the latter, one can integrate multiple open-source corpus tools in order to develop an innovative variation that responds to more complex needs than a single corpus tool can offer. Such efforts do not only make excellent use of available open-source options, but also contribute to advancing corpus technology, using cost- and time-efficient methods.

Another methodological implication concerns the adaptation of the C-TAM-TPB to explore the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT. The C-TAM-TPB facilitated systematic classification of the attitudinal aspects involved in understanding L2 learner attitudes towards corpus use. In addition, the C-TAM-TPB highlighted the complexity of understanding learner attitudes; it is not simply the course, the tool, or the content that influences learner attitudes; rather, the combined influence of these factors has a dynamic impact—of possibly a greater significance than the impact of learner-dependent factors. Although this research did not attempt to explore the relationships between attitudinal aspects of corpus use, some patterns were highlighted in Chapters 4 and 5. It was noted, for example, that the participants’ intentions to use MCOTT in the future could be related to their beliefs in both its usefulness and their own ability to do so. The examination of interrelationships between attitudinal aspects of corpus use can be an interesting area for future research, shedding light on important influences on L2 learners’ negative or positive attitudes towards corpus use. Such relationships can also provide insights into corpus design and exploitation and be compared to the proposed relationships pertaining to the C-TAM-TPB (reviewed in Chapter 2). For this, a valid scale would be required for each attitudinal aspect. The development of such scales can facilitate the comparison of results across different studies, assuming similar instruments were used. While attempts were made in this research to develop such scales and to examine their validity, the purpose was not to
examine the interrelationships between them. Nevertheless, the proposed approach could offer insights for future research seeking comprehensive understanding of learner attitudes towards corpus use.

In attempting to offer a comprehensive overview of the participants’ attitudes towards MCOTT, this research has provided an answer to a meaningful question for L2 research on DDL (demonstrated in Chapter 2); namely, what are the components of L2 learner attitude towards corpus use? However, the answer to this question should be viewed as evolving. As more research (deductively and/or inductively) attempts to explore these components, more attitudinal components will unfold. In addition, such an answer should reflect context-dependent elements. Context, in this case, involves factors, such as learner need and corpus experience, DDL tasks, corpus content, and user-interface. The importance of addressing the above-stated question concerns the role of learner attitudes in determining learner use of corpora. It is through understanding of learner attitudes that one can ensure the effectiveness of corpus use in meeting learner needs and achieving its proposed goals, and thus, contributing to the development and implementation of appropriate DDL classroom applications. Since this research approached such understanding by adapting an attitudinal theory, future research to confirm, modify or extend this approach would be valuable.
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical approval

2016-12-30-AHSS Using a Multi-modal TED Talks Corpus in an EFL Classroom; an Action Research on Saudi Learner Attitude towards the Instruction of Academic Spoken English

Jean.Conacher [Jean.Conacher@ul.ie]

To: ULStudent:SARA ALJOHANI
Cc: Liam.Murray; Ide.O'Sullivan; Elaine.Riordan; PAHSSEthica

Wednesday, February 01, 2017 10:45 AM

Dear Sara,

This email is to confirm that I have now reviewed your revised PhD ethics application (reference: 2016-12-30-AHSS), and it has been approved.

In implementing your study, please ensure that all initial approaches to participants are made in writing, rather than face-to-face. Also, be sure to proof-read your materials (letters, information sheets, etc.) carefully before use, as there are still a number of errors in them.

I wish you all the best with your research.

Best wishes

Jean

Dr Jean E Conacher
Chair, PAHSS Research Ethics Committee
Ollscoll Luimnigh / University of Limerick
IRL – Lainnneach | IRL – Limerick

Tel: +353-61-234218
Email: jean.conacher@ul.ie
Appendix 2: Information sheet

FACULTY OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
INFORMATION SHEET

This study, entitled ‘Using a Multi-modal TED Talks Corpus in an EFL Classroom; an Action Research on Saudi Learner Attitude towards the Instruction of Academic Spoken English’, is intended to your perceptions and attitudes towards the instruction of English academic oral discourse through a corpus of TED Talks.

As the researcher, I invite you to participate in a short study that will take place at your university. Your participation will involve attending classroom lectures and lab sessions and responding to questionnaires and interviews. I will also observe and take notes on any salient events during classroom activities. These data will be used to evaluate the teaching methodology used in this study and gain your reactions to this methodology.

A gatekeeper will talk to you independently about the research (without the presence of the researcher) to explain it to you and give you information and consent forms. If you agree to participate, you will be provided with four timetables for the short study, and you can choose one that does not clash with your courses. The researcher will be the instructor during this project.

Each questionnaire will take approximately 10–15 minutes to complete, and you may respond to them online. If you agree to be interviewed, you will also be asked to provide your contact information. Interviews will be one-to-one, carried out by a gatekeeper, and audio recorded. The observation will be recorded through note taking by the researcher at the end of each session.

There are no risks to you as a participant. Participation or non-participation is voluntary and will have no bearing on your grades. This study is in no way connected to your programme of study.

Your name will not be used in the data analysis stages. All participants will be assigned pseudonyms, and your identity will not be disclosed. The data, hard copy or otherwise, will be stored safely for a maximum of seven years in a filing cabinet in the main researcher's office and carefully destroyed during or
at the end of this period. Any electronic copies will be password encrypted and protected and will also be carefully disposed of and deleted during or at the end of a period of seven years.

Note that you have the right to withdraw from this project at any point and for any reason.

This research study has received approval from the Arts and Humanities Research Ethics Committee (reference: 2016-12-30-AHSS). If you have any concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent authority, you may contact:

Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
AHSS Faculty Office
University of Limerick
Tel: +353 61 202286
Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie

Dr. Liam Murray (Liam.murray@ul.ie)
Dr. íde O'Sullivan (Ide.osullivan@ul.ie)
Dr. Elaine Riordan (elaine.riordan@ul.ie)

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you need any further information.

Thank you for your consideration.

Yours sincerely,

Sara Aljohani
Postgraduate Researcher
School of Modern Languages and Applied Linguistics, University of Limerick
Ireland
E-mail: sara.aljohani@ul.ie
Appendix 3: Consent form

FACTOR OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
CONSENT FORM

Consent Section:
I, the undersigned, declare that I am willing to take part in research for the project entitled ‘Using a Multi-modal TED Talks Corpus in an EFL Classroom; an Action Research on Saudi Learner Attitude towards the Instruction of Academic Spoken English’.

- I declare that I have been fully briefed on the nature of this study and my role in it and have been given the opportunity to ask questions before agreeing to participate.
- The nature of my participation has been explained to me, and I have full knowledge of how the information collected will be used.
- I am also aware that my participation in this study may be recorded (audio) if I choose to be interviewed, and I agree to this. However, should I feel uncomfortable at any time, I can request that the recording equipment be switched off. I am entitled to transcribed copies of all recordings made (pseudonyms will be used) and have been fully informed as to what will happen to these recordings once the study is completed.

- Please indicate whether you agree be interviewed:
  o I agree to be interviewed □
  If agreeing, please provide your contact information:
  Email________________________ Phone no.________________________
  o I do not agree to be interviewed □

- I fully understand that there is no obligation for me to participate in this study.
- I fully understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without having to explain or give a reason.
- I am entitled to full confidentiality in terms of my participation and personal details.
- Please indicate the timetable that suits you: 1 2 3 4

____________________________________
Name of participant

____________________________________
Signature of participant

________________________
Date
Appendix 4: Information sheet (instructors)

FACULTY OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Instructor,

I would like to invite you to assist me in conducting a research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate Saudi learner perceptions and attitudes towards the instruction of English academic oral discourse through a corpus of TED Talks.

Your participation will involve one of the following: 1) talking to ELI students independently (without the presence of the researcher) to explain the research to them, or 2) interviewing learners (one-to-one).

Informing students about the research involves a) talking to B1-level students at the ELI about the research by visiting their classrooms (you will be given a list showing the times and rooms; b) handing out the Information and Consent Sheets to the students; c) receiving them back from the students who intend to participate; d) assigning a unique ID to each participant, asking students to use this ID in the questionnaires and interviews to ensure the anonymity of their data, and typing each participant's name along with their unique study IDs in a file kept separate from other data documents; e) ensuring that students use the correct study ID during the first and second questionnaires; and f) giving the ID document directly to the teacher who intends to interview the participants.

Regarding interviewing participants, this involves a) meeting participants at a pre-arranged time and place; b) interviewing the participants using a list of interview questions and recording the interviews (you will be provided with the list of questions and the recording device); c) ensuring that the participants are not identified throughout the interview (each participant will be identified by their study ID); and d) providing the researcher with the recordings of the interviews and ensuring that the ID document is carefully disposed of using a shredder.

Please note that there are no risks to you as a facilitator, and you may withdraw at any time. Please ask any questions if anything is unclear or you would like
more information. Feel free to take some time to decide whether you wish to support this research.

This research study has received approval from the Arts and Humanities Research Ethics Committee (reference: 2016-12-30-AHSS). If you have any concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent authority, you may contact:

Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
AHSS Faculty Office
University of Limerick
Tel: +353 61 202286
Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie

Dr. Liam Murray (Liam.murray@ul.ie)
Dr. íde O'Sullivan (Ide.osullivan@ul.ie)
Dr. Elaine Riordan (elaine.riordan@ul.ie)

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you need any further information.

Thank you for your consideration.

Yours sincerely,

Sara Aljohani
Postgraduate Researcher
School of Modern Languages and Applied Linguistics, University of Limerick
Ireland
E-mail: sara.aljohani@ul.ie
Appendix 5: Consent form (research facilitators)

FACULTY OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CONSENT FORM

Consent Section:

I, the undersigned, declare that I am willing to take part in research for the project entitled ‘Using a Multi-modal TED Talks Corpus in an EFL Classroom; an Action Research on Saudi Learner Attitude towards the Instruction of Academic Spoken English’, in the role of a gatekeeper/interviewer.

- I declare that I have been fully briefed on the nature of this study and my role in it and have been given the opportunity to ask questions before agreeing to participate.
- The nature of my participation has been explained to me, and I have full knowledge of how the information collected will be used.
- I am also aware that my participation in this study may be recorded (audio) if I agree to interview the participants, and I consent to this. I have also been fully informed as to what will happen to these recordings once the study is completed.
- I fully understand that there is no obligation for me to participate in this study.
- I fully understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without having to explain or give a reason.
- I am also entitled to full confidentiality in terms of my participation and personal details.
- Please indicate the role(s) you agree to assist with:
  Approaching participants and informing them about the research
  Interviewing participants

__________________________  __________________________
Name of gatekeeper/interviewer  Contact information

__________________________  __________________________
Signature of gatekeeper/interviewer  Date
Appendix 6: Learner profile questionnaire

Part 1: Demographic Information

* 1. Study ID:

* 2. In what area did you live most of your life?
   (أين احتملت معظم حياتك؟)
   - In an urban area
   - In a rural area
   Please specify the name of city or town:

* 3. What type of school did you graduate from?
   (ما نوع المدرسة التي تخرجت منها؟)
   - A public school
   - A private school
   - An international school
   - Other - please specify:

* 4. Have you ever studied English abroad?
   (هل قمت أن درست اللغة الإنجليزية في الخارج؟)
   - Yes
   - No

* 5. Please specify where, when, and for how long did you study English abroad:
   (أرجو تحديد أين ومتى وكيف درست الإنجليزية في الخارج)
   Where: __________________________
   When: __________________________
   For how long: ____________________

* 6. What is your intended major of specialisation?
   (ما هو التخصص الذي تخطط له ليستudies؟)

280
## Part 2: Perception of language level

* 7. On a scale from 1 (basic) to 5 (proficient), how do you describe your English language proficiency:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>1 Basic</th>
<th>2 Elementary</th>
<th>3 Intermediate</th>
<th>4 Pre-advanced</th>
<th>5 Advanced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25%  

## Part 3: Perception of language needs

* 8. Please indicate how relevant each language skill is to your academic needs and success:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Net at all relevant</th>
<th>Not very relevant</th>
<th>Somewhat relevant</th>
<th>Very relevant</th>
<th>Extremely relevant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 9. Please indicate how relevant each language skill is to your future job needs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Net at all relevant</th>
<th>Not very relevant</th>
<th>Somewhat relevant</th>
<th>Very relevant</th>
<th>Extremely relevant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

38%
Part 4: Motivation

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

* 10. I learn English only to succeed or to get a job.

* 11. If I was not obliged to learn English, I would not learn it.

* 12. I want to learn English because it is interesting to watch English movies and listen to English songs.

* 13. I want to learn English language because it is interesting to communicate with its various culture and speakers.

* 14. I like spending time improving my English even if I am not required to do so by the teacher.

(أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية فقط للنجاح أو للحصول على عمل)

(أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية만 성공을 위한 상황)

(أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية만 성공을 위한 상황)

(أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية만 성공을 위한 상황)
**Part 6: Knowledge of and attitude towards oral skills**

On a scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. I want to improve my English oral skills because I believe it is good for my personal development.

2. I consider it important to improve my English oral skills because English is, nowadays, spoken all over the world.

3. I want to learn any kind of English that is easy to learn and helps me communicate with English speakers.

4. I want to learn the English that native speakers use.

5. The grammar I use while speaking is different from the one I use while writing.

6. The range of vocabulary I use while speaking is different from the one I use while writing.

7. When I give a presentation, I know I will be praised by my teacher and my classmates.

8. I feel uneasy whenever I speak in English.

9. I encourage myself to speak English with others even when I feel afraid of making mistakes.
Part 5. Attitude towards autonomy and use of autonomous learning strategies

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

24. I know how to find ways of learning English that are appropriate to me.

25. I know which aspects of my English I need to improve.

26. I need the teacher to tell me which aspects of my English I need to improve.

27. I can learn more English through my independent study than through attending classes.

28. I always make use of English learning resources (i.e. websites, mobile applications, dictionaries, etc.) outside the classroom.

29. I make use of English learning resources (i.e. websites, mobile applications, dictionaries, etc.) outside the classroom, only when the teacher asks me to do so.

30. To learn English successfully it is important for me to be given a list of choices in class.

31. When I do poorly on an English test, I try to learn from my mistakes.

32. Please list any additional autonomous learning strategies that you use when learning English:

---

284
Part 7: ICT Competence

* 33. Do you possess any of the following ICT devices? (Tick all that apply)
(هل تملك أي من أجهزة تكنولوجيا المعلومات والاتصالات التالية؟ اختر كل ما ينطبق)
- [ ] Smart phone
- [ ] Tablet/iPod
- [ ] Laptop
- [ ] PC
- [ ] Other (please specify)
(آخر - فضلاً، حدب نوع الجهاز)

* 34. Do you use any of the following ICT devices in your studies? (Tick all that apply)
(هل تستخدم أي من أجهزة تكنولوجيا المعلومات والاتصالات التالية في دراستك؟ اختر كل ما ينطبق)
- [ ] Smart phone
- [ ] Tablet/iPod
- [ ] Laptop
- [ ] PC
- [ ] Other (please specify)
(آخر - فضلاً، حدب نوع الجهاز)

* 35. Identify the primary ICT device you use for learning:
(قرر الجهاز الأولي الذي تستخدمه في الدراسة)
- [ ] Smart Phone
- [ ] Tablet/iPod
- [ ] Laptop
- [ ] PC
- [ ] Other (please specify)
(آخر - فضلاً، حدب نوع الجهاز)
### Part 7: ICT Competence

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements: (Note that the word device, in the following statements, refers to the primary device you use for learning.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36. I feel confident using this device.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. I always learn faster using this device.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Some materials can be learned faster using this device.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. I prefer learning English through the use of this device.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Learning through this device gives flexibility to language learning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Using this device helps improving my English speaking skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Using this device helps improving my English listening skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Using this device helps improving my English reading skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Using this device helps improving my English writing skills.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 7: Learner attitude questionnaire

**Part 1: General Question**

1. Study ID:

2. Which sessions did you attend during this course (tick all that apply)?
   (ما هي المحاضرات التي حضرتها ضمن رحلة العمل الحالي؟ حدد كل مادة):
   - All sessions
   - First session
   - Second session
   - Third session
   - Fourth session
   - Fifth session

20%
Part 2: Overall Perceived Usefulness

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

3. Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of meeting my needs and goals with respect to improving my academic oral skills.

4. Generally, I think the process of preparing for oral presentations is easier after this unit.

5. Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of raising my awareness about the structure and purpose academic oral presentations.

6. Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of raising my awareness about vocabulary of academic oral presentations.

7. Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of raising my awareness about grammar of academic oral presentations.

8. Overall, the unit is helpful in terms of introducing strategies I can use independently to improve my oral presentation skills.
Part 2: Tool Perceived Usefulness

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

9. In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for exploring features of oral academic presentations.

10. In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for drawing my attention to things about language I would not notice through textbooks.

11. In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for learning independently.

12. In this unit, learning through MCOTT is helpful in terms of providing opportunities for thinking of my learning process.

13. Generally, I think using MCOTT to learn about oral presentations is more effective than using a textbook.

14. Generally, I think using MCOTT to learn about oral presentations is more effective than watching videos.
Part 3: Content Perceived Usefulness

On a scale from 1 (强列 disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

* 15. In this unit, I think TED talks are helpful as a resource to improve my oral presentation skills.
   (أعتقد أن مقاطع الفيديو في هذه الوحدة ممتعة كمصدر لتحسين مهاراتي في العروض التقديمية)
   ![Strongly disagree](false) [Neutral](true) [Strongly agree](false)

* 16. In this unit, I think TED talks reflect what I consider a ‘good presentation’.
   (أعتقد أن مقاطع الفيديو في هذه الوحدة تمكن معايير عرض جيد)
   ![Strongly disagree](false) [Neutral](true) [Strongly agree](false)

* 17. In this unit, I think TED talks are too short to help exploring features of oral presentations.
   (أعتقد أن مقاطع الفيديو في هذه الوحدة قصيرة جدًا للاستكشاف ميزات العروض التقليدية)
   ![Strongly disagree](false) [Neutral](true) [Strongly agree](false)

* 18. In this unit, I think TED talks have a variety of topics that are culturally irrelevant.
   (أعتقد أن مقاطع الفيديو في هذه الوحدة تحتوي مواضيع متنوعة غير متعلقة بالثقافة)
   ![Strongly disagree](false) [Neutral](true) [Strongly agree](false)

19. Add any additional comments about TED talks.
   (أضاف أي نشاط آخر عن عروض تيد التقليدية)

---

290
### Part 4: Perceived Ease of Use

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

20. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to limited access to computer/Internet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to the speed of Internet connection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to insufficient training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

23. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to unfamiliar vocabulary in the concordance output.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

24. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to the limited number of sentences in concordance output.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to the large number of sentences in concordance output.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

26. I have some difficulty in using the MCOTT due to time and effort spent on analysing the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. I have some difficulty in performing the search technique.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. I have some difficulty in performing tasks as they are mentally demanding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29. Add any additional comments about the difficulties related to the use of the MCOTT.

![Comment box]

---

291
Part 5: Perceived Behaviour Control

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

30. I think TED talks are manageable to understand at my current English language level.

31. I think MCOTT is manageable to use considering my current English language level.

32. I feel confident about my ability to use MCOTT to independently improve my academic oral presentations.

33. I feel confident about my ability to use MCOTT to improve my academic oral presentations, with the help of the teacher.

34. I feel confident about my ability to independently improve my academic oral presentations using other sources.

(أعط المعيار من 1 (غفل بشد) إلى 5 (واقف بشدة)، برجى بيان إذا ما كنت موافقا أو غير موافقا على العبارات التالية)
**Part 6: Affective Attitude**

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

(على المقياس من 1 (افقين بشذا) إلى 5 (وافقين بشذا). يرجى بيان إذا ما كنت موافق أو غير موافق على العبارات التالية)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (افقين بشذا)</th>
<th>Neutral (متفاوت)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (وافقين بشذا)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35. In this unit, I think TED talks are interesting and entertaining.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Generally, I think I am interested in using videos to improve my oral presentation skills after this unit.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Generally, I think the more I use MCOTT, the more I have come to like it.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Generally, I think using MCOTT has increased my confidence about improving my oral presentation skills.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

88%
Part 7: Future Intentions

On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

* 39. In the future, I think I will use MCOTT to improve my oral skills.
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(أوافق نهائياً)</td>
<td>(متوسط)</td>
<td>(社会ب)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 40. In the future, I think I will use TED talks to improve my oral skills.
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(أوافق نهائياً)</td>
<td>(متوسط)</td>
<td>(社会ب)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 41. In the future, I think MCOTT should be used in English speaking classes in Saudi Arabia.
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(أوافق نهائياً)</td>
<td>(متوسط)</td>
<td>(社会ب)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 42. In the future, I think I will recommend other people to use MCOTT.
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(أوافق نهائياً)</td>
<td>(متوسط)</td>
<td>(社会ب)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 43. In the future, I think I will need more training on the use of MCOTT.
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(أوافق نهائياً)</td>
<td>(متوسط)</td>
<td>(社会b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 8: Interview questions

Interview questions includes:

- What features of oral presentations did the unit help you to improve?
- What features of oral presentations did the unit not help you improve?
- What strategies did you learn from the unit?
- What did you like most about the unit?
- What did you dislike most?
- What was the most difficult task?
- What was the easiest task?
- In what ways do you think MCOTT use is helpful?
- What do you suggest to improve MCOTT?
### Appendix 9: Selected TED Talks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Talks</th>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Text Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Art and Culture</td>
<td>A Thousand Times No</td>
<td>775</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Street Art with a Message of Hope and Peace</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Technology of Storytelling</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Lost Art of Letter-writing</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>89%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>A warm Embrace that Saves Lives</td>
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<td>This Gel Can Make you Stop Bleeding Instantly</td>
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<td>Adjustable Liquid-filled Eyeglasses</td>
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<td>Remember to Say Thank You</td>
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<td>“Am I dying?” The Honest Answer.</td>
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<td>How to Succeed? Get More Sleep</td>
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<td>Less Stuff, More Happiness</td>
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<td>Our Natural Sleep Cycle is Nothing Like What We Do Now</td>
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<td>The Surprising Spread of Idol TV</td>
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<td>The courage to Tell a Hidden Story</td>
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<td>Reporting Crisis via Texting</td>
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<td>And Now, the Real News</td>
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<td>Keep your Goals to Yourself</td>
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<td>Don't Eat the Marshmallow!</td>
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<td>Try Something New for 30 Days</td>
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<td>Forget Multitasking, Try Monotasking</td>
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<td>Richard St. John: 8 Secrets of Success</td>
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<td>Technology</td>
<td>Building a Museum of Museums on the Web</td>
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<td>How to Control Someone Else's Arm with your Brain</td>
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<td>A Next-generation Digital Book</td>
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**Selected TED Talks**
Appendix 10: Course plan

First Session (70 minutes)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aims:</th>
<th>Materials:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introducing the structure and functions of the different sections</td>
<td>▪ Projector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Raising awareness of basic differences between written and oral</td>
<td>▪ Video of the talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Introducing the TED talks Corpus</td>
<td>▪ White Board</td>
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<td></td>
<td>▪ Handouts</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Activities and Content

1. Introducing the context (5 minutes):
   - The teacher leads a general discussion to obtain an idea of learner knowledge and experiences pertinent to oral presentations. Students are asked about their experiences, strengths and weaknesses and the resources they use to prepare for presentations.

2. Introducing the structure of presentations (25 minutes):
   - Students first listen to the TED talk, and answer the following questions (5 minutes).
     ▪ What is the purpose of the presentation?
     ▪ What are the main points introduced in the presentation?
   - Students are given the transcript of the talk and are asked to identify the introduction, main body and conclusion (5 minutes).
   - Students are then divided into groups of three and are asked to identify the information mentioned in each section and their functions. For this exercise, students are given a handout of a list of common functions in oral presentations (i.e. setting the scene, developing the topic, and offering speculation) (15 minutes).

3. Introducing basic differences between oral and written discourse (17 minutes)
   - Students are given a list of sentences, and are asked to identify whether these sentences belong to the oral or written academic discourse, and explain the reasons for their choice (10 minutes).
   - Students are given a list of features often found in oral academic discourse and are asked to find some of these features in the list of sentences they used in the previous exercise (7 minutes).

4. Introducing the website (20 minutes):
   - The teacher asks students to start using the computers available in the lab, and gives them the link of MCOTT (2 minutes).
   - The teacher gives students a general idea about the corpus and the topics of the talks included (3 minutes).
   - The teacher explains the different sections of the website while offering a brief idea of how these sections are utilized during the following sessions (15 minutes).

5. Closing discussion (3 minutes):
The teacher briefly reviews the points covered in the session and addresses any issues raised during activities.

Homework:
Listen to one of the talks in the TED Talks corpus. Identify the overall purpose of the talk and identify the different sections of the talk (introduction, main body, and conclusion). You will analyse the introduction of this talk during the next session.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Course plan – Session 1</th>
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</table>

299
### Second Session (90 minutes)

#### Aims:
1. Raise awareness of the rhetoric structure of introductions in TED talks.
2. Identify some common (obligatory and optional) functions of introductions, and their linguistic presentations.
3. Introduce some phrases that help to communicate certain functions (i.e. greeting audience, setting the scene, announcing the topic, and outlining structure).

#### Activities and Content

1. **Introducing the context (12 minutes):**
   - Students are asked to listen to a TED Talk, focus on the introduction, and answer the following questions (**8 minutes**):
     - What is the overall purpose of the talk?
     - What does the speaker say in the introduction?
     - What is the purpose of the introduction?
     - What functions does the introduction present?
   - The teacher then leads a brief discussion on how the linguistic choices help the speaker convey some functions, and how these functions serve the overall purpose of the talk (**4 minutes**).

2. **Exploring frequently-used words (15 minutes):**
   - Students are guided to generate a frequency list of the introduction section on the MCOTT.
   - Students scan the list and are asked to point out any unfamiliar words.
   - The teacher helps students understand the meanings of any unfamiliar words (**7 minutes**).
   - The teacher explains how this list may help display features of introductions while asking students the following questions (**8 minutes**):
     - Why do you think the use of X is popular in introductions?
     - Why do you think the use of X is less popular?
     - How does the use of X help convey some functions of introductions?

3. **Analysing the text—whole-class activity (25 minutes):**
   - Students are asked to keep the frequency list displayed on their PCs while the teacher presents (using the projector) the transcript of the introduction of the talk introduced in the first activity.
   - The introduction is analysed; the analysis is led by the following questions (**12 minutes**):
     - Can you find any of the frequent words in the introduction?
     - How are these words used? Would you be able to use these words in the same manner when writing an essay? Why?
     - Which words are less popular but still used in the introduction? Why do you think the speaker uses these words? How did the speaker use them?
   - The teacher then presents the frequency list again, and guides students on how to find the concordance lines of some of the words that are used in the introduction (**13 minutes**).
   - The teacher presents the concordance lines of one word, and guides students with a series of questions to identify similarities and differences in

#### Materials:
- White Board
- Projector
- Video and transcript of the talk
- Handouts
- PCs
- Projector
- White Board
the use of the given words among the concordance lines. Then, the same procedure is repeated with other words.

4. Analysing the text—individual task (15 minutes):
   - Students are asked to analyse the introduction of the talk they listened to at home. The following questions can help them with the analysis process:
     - What kinds of information are mentioned in the introduction? What are their functions?
     - Identify the function of each sentence in the introduction.
     - How these functions are conveyed?
     - Compare the frequency list with the words used in the given introduction.
     - Try to identify some fixed phrases and reflect on the possible functions these phrases may serve.

5. Constructing introductions (10 minutes):
   - Students are asked to start constructing an introduction about the topic they would like to present in the last session (pair work).

6. Closing discussion (3 minutes):
   - The teacher briefly reviews the points covered in the session and addresses any issues raised during the activities.

Homework:
Listen to one of the talks in the TED Talks corpus (preferably choose a talk that is relevant to an area you would like to specialize in). Identify the overall purpose of the talk and take notes of the main ideas. You will analyse the main body section of this talk during the next session.
### Third Session (90 minutes)

**Aims:**
1. Raise awareness of the rhetoric structure of the main body section in TED talks
2. Raise awareness of the frequency of technical terms pertinent to different topics
3. Identify some common (obligatory and optional) functions of the main body section, and their linguistic presentations
4. Introduce some phrases that help communicating certain functions (i.e. describing a process, presenting an argument, showing stance, offering explanations, establishing authority)

#### Activities and Content

1. Introducing the context (15 minutes):
   - Students are asked to listen to a TED Talk, focus on the main body section and answer the following questions *(10 minutes)*:
     - What is the overall purpose of the talk?
     - What does the speaker say in the main body?
     - How does the speaker move from one idea to another?
     - What do X and X mean? How does the speaker use them? And what functions do they serve?
   - The teacher then leads a discussion of how the linguistic choices help the speaker convey some functions, and how these functions serve the overall purpose of the talk *(5 minutes)*.

2. Exploring frequently-used words (25 minutes):
   - Students are guided to generate a frequency list of the main body section of the TED Talks corpus; students are divided into pairs, and each pair is asked to restrict their frequency list to a certain topic.
   - Then, each pair compares their list to the a list generated by another pair.
   - Differences and similarities in the generated frequency lists are discussed through questions such as ‘why is X less/more popular in this list?’ *(10 minutes)*.
   - Students are then asked to identify some unfamiliar words, and attempt to guess their meaning and usage from the concordance lines *(15 minutes)*.

3. Analysing the text—whole-class activity (25 minutes):
   - Students are guided on how to view the transcript of the main body section of the talk introduced in the first activity.
   - The main body is analysed; the analysis is led by the following questions *(12 minutes)*:
     - Identify the function of each sentence in the main body
     - Identify some fixed phrases that present common functions
     - Reflect on the other possible functions these phrases may serve.
   - The teacher presents the concordance lines of a word/phrase, and guides students with a series of questions to identify similarities and differences regarding the use of the given words among the concordance lines. Then, the same procedure is repeated with other words. Other corpora such as TCSE, MICASE and BASE are used if needed *(13 minutes)*.

4. Analysing the text—individual task (15 minutes):

#### Materials:
- White Board
- Projector
- Video and transcript of the talk
- Handouts
- Projector
- White Board
- Handouts
- PCs
Students are asked to analyse the main body section of the talk they listened to at home. The following questions can help them with the analysis process:

- What kinds of information has been mentioned in the main body?
- Identify the function of each sentence in the main body.
- How are these functions conveyed?
- Identify some fixed phrases that present common functions.

6. Constructing the main body section (5 minutes):
   Students are asked to start constructing the main body section of the topic they would like to present in the last session (pair work).

7. Closing discussion (5 minutes):
   The teacher briefly reviews the points covered in the session and addresses any issues raised during activities.

Homework:
Listen to one of the talks in the TED Talks corpus (preferably choose a talk that is relevant to an area you would like to specialize in). Identify the overall purpose of the talk and take notes of the main ideas. You will analyse the main body section of this talk during the next session.

Course plan – Session 3
Fourth Session (90 minutes)

Aims:
1. Raise awareness of the rhetoric structure of conclusions in TED Talks
2. Identify some common (obligatory and optional) functions of conclusions, and their linguistic presentations
3. Introduce some phrases that help to communicate certain functions (i.e. offering speculation, making generalisations, calling for action, expressing gratitude)
4. Raising awareness of the differences between using similar or different words to either introduce a talk or conclude one

Activities and Content
1. Introducing the context (10 minutes):
   - Students are asked to listen to a TED talk, focus on the conclusion and answer the following questions (8 minutes):
     - What is the overall purpose of the talk?
     - What does the speaker say in the conclusion?
     - What is the purpose of the conclusion?
     - What functions does the conclusion present?
   - The teacher then leads a brief discussion on how the linguistic choices help the speaker convey some functions, and how these functions serve the overall purpose of the talk (4 minutes).

2. Analysing the text—whole-class activity (40 minutes):
   - Students are given a handout of the transcripts of the conclusion section of five talks, and are asked the following questions (15 minutes):
     - What is the purpose of each conclusion?
     - What are the messages the speaker is trying to convey?
     - How does the speaker convey these messages?
     - Read the following topics, and then match each conclusion to the topic you think it belongs to.
   - The five conclusions are then analysed; the analysis is guided by the following questions (25 minutes):
     - Identify the function of each sentence in the conclusion.
     - Identify some fixed phrases and think of the other possible functions these phrases may serve.
   - Throughout this activity, students view and analyse the concordance lines of some words and phrases. Other corpora such as TCSE, MICASE and BASE are referred to if needed.

3. Exploring frequent words (20 minutes):
   - Students are guided to generate a frequency list of the introduction and conclusion sections of the TED Talks corpus.
   - Students scan the frequency list of the conclusion and are asked to point out any unfamiliar words.
   - The teacher helps students understand the meanings of any unfamiliar words (5 minutes).

Materials:
- White Board
- Projector
- Video and transcript of the talk
- PCs
- Projector
- Handouts
Students compare the two lists while indicating how these lists may help with identifying features of the introduction and conclusion of the TED Talks corpus (15 minutes).

- Why do you think the use of X is popular in one section (introduction or conclusion) but is less popular in the other one?
- How does the use of X help convey some functions of introductions/conclusions?

4. Constructing conclusions and planning presentations (15 minutes):
Students are asked to start constructing the conclusion of the topic they would like to present in the last session, and to generally plan their presentations (pair work).

5. Closing discussion (5 minutes):
The teacher briefly reviews the points covered in the session and addresses any issues raised during the activities.

Homework:
Complete working on your presentation. You will have 10 minutes to deliver your presentation and explain how you prepared your presentation. You will also submit the script of your presentation.

Course plan – Session 4
## Fifth Session (80 minutes)

**Aims:**
1. Provide opportunities for practice and reflection

**Activities and Content**

1. Delivering presentations: (70 minutes)
   - Students are asked to present in no more than 10 minutes. This time frame includes their prepared presentation and the explanation of the process by which they developed their presentation. This is pair work, and each student should take part in the presentation.
   - Students are encouraged to comment or ask questions after each presentation.

2. Closing discussion (10 minutes):
   - The teacher comments on the students’ presentations and the process they followed to prepare for their presentations.

**Materials:**

Students can use any of these tools to support their presentations:
- White Board
- Projector

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**Course plan – Session 5**
Appendix 11: Observation schemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session 1</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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</table>
| **Past experiences** | - Never been involved in a course on APs (N=101)  
- Lack of clear guidelines when required to prepare APs (N=103)  
- A supportive classroom environment that placed emphasis on speaking skills (N=44):  
  - Presenting a five-minute talk  
  - Getting involved in debates on relevant topics  
- Participants’ use of a variety of strategies to prepare for English AP tasks:  
  - Searching (through Google) for information or for PowerPoint presentations  
  - Writing whole speech in Arabic then translating using Google Translate (N=24)  
  - Using Google Translate when not certain about a specific language matter (N=37), and editing Google translated output through consulting Arabic-English or English-English dictionaries (N=37) and Google and a concordance (N=17)  
  - Listening to videos (N=22)  
- Need for resources to improve speaking skills |
| **Technical issues** | - Slow PCs (N=4)  
- PCs freezing (N=3)  
- MCOTT was not accessible from the language laboratory. The session was delayed. |
| **Raised questions** | - Questions about technical aspects of MCOTT (N=53)  
- Questions about language use (N=12) |

**Observation scheme - Session 1**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session 2</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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</table>
| **Technical issues** | - Slow PCs (N=1)  
- PCs freezing (N=2), |
| **Tool disapproval** | - The need for training to use MCOTT (N=9) |
| **Content approval** | - Participants listened to more than one talk to prepare for session (N=10)  
- Participants repeated listening to the TED talk of their choice (N=5) |
| **Content disapproval** | - Fast speech rate of some TED Talks (N=17)  
  - Some participants suggested adjusting the speech rate using YouTube settings (N=4)  
- MCOTT had both difficult and easy TED Talks. Participants preferred easier talks (N=5) |
| **Tasks** | - Participants used the concordance function independently (N=14)  
- Most participants were able to identify the functions, and their meanings, but needed support or reminder to consider grammar. |
| **Raised Questions** | - Questions about technical aspects of MCOTT (N=33)  
- Questions about language use (N=23)  
- How to use MCOTT to improve listening skills (N=9)  
- How to use the TED Talks to improve language skills (N=8) |

**Observation scheme - Session 2**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session 3</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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</table>
| **Technical issues** | - Slow PCs (N=2)  
- PCs freezing (N=3) |
| **Tool disapproval** | - The need for training to use MCOTT (N=4) |
| **Content approval** | - Participants listened to more than one talk to prepare for session (N=11)  
- Participants repeated listening to the TED Talk of their choice (N=12)  
- Some TED Talks were easy (N=5) |
| **Content disapproval** | - Fast speech rate of some TED Talks (N=7) |
| **Tasks** | - Participants used the concordance function independently (N=22)  
- Most participants were able to identify the functions, and their meanings, but needed support or reminder to consider grammar. |
| **Raised Questions** | - How to use MCOTT to improve listening skills (N=4)  
- How to use the TED Talks to improve language skills (N=15)  
- How to use text-analysis techniques to improve writing skills (N=2)  
- Body language  
  - Confidence and posture, hand gestures and eye contact (N=12)  
  - Communicating information (N=2)  
- Questions about technical aspects of MCOTT (N=17)  
- Questions about language use (N=38)  
- Questions regarding adding more TED Talks to MCOTT (N=2)  
- Some participants shared videos about improving pronunciation and AP skills (N=5) |

**Observation scheme - Session 3**
<table>
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<th>Session 4</th>
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<td>- PCs freezing (N=2)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Tool disapproval</strong></td>
<td>- The need for training to use MCOTT (N=2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content approval</strong></td>
<td>- Some TED Talks were easy (N=4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Participants listened to more than one talk to prepare for session (N=13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content disapproval</strong></td>
<td>- MCOTT had both difficult and easy TED Talks. Participants preferred easier talks (N=4)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>- Fast speech rate of some TED Talks (N=3)</td>
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<td>- Some participants suggested adjusting the speech rate using YouTube settings (N=3)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Tasks</strong></td>
<td>- Participants used the concordance function independently (N=42)</td>
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<td>- Most participants were able to identify the functions, and their meanings, but needed support or reminder to consider grammar.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Raised Questions and suggestions</strong></td>
<td>- How to use the TED Talks to improve language skills (N=14)</td>
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<td>- Body language</td>
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<td>- Confidence and posture, hand gestures and eye contact (N=10)</td>
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<td>- Communicating information (N=2)</td>
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<td>- How to use text-analysis techniques to improve writing skills (N=4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Questions about technical aspects of MCOTT (N=7)</td>
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<td>- Questions about language use (N=28)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Questions regarding adding more TED Talks to MCOTT and others (e.g. how to practise, tutoring videos) (N=3)</td>
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<td>- Some participants illustrated how one can display the Arabic translation of a TED Talk, along with the English transcripts (N=4)</td>
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Observation scheme - Session 4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session 5</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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</table>
| **Technical issues** | - Slow PCs (N=1)  
- PCs freezing (N=3) |
| **Tool approval and disapproval** | - Participants prefer using TED Talks (more topics and videos, and transcripts) (N=9)  
- Some participants some useful features of MCOTT (e.g. Section Tab, easier TED Talks) (N=3) |
| **Content approval** | - Question that show their interest “ e.g. how to use TED to improve listening skills, whether it is possible to know which talks are suitable for their language level, whether it is better to listen to short or long talks, when to use Arabic subtitles and in what ways they can be helpful and how to practice after listening to avoid forgetting what they learnt. |
| **Raised Questions** | - Body language  
  - Communicating information (N=1)  
- Questions about technical aspects of MCOTT (N=3)  
- How to use text-analysis techniques to improve writing skills (N=2)  
- Questions regarding adding more TED Talks to MCOTT (N=9)  
- Questions about TED Talks (e.g. finding suitable talks, shorter or longer AP, Arabic subtitles, online training) |

**Observation scheme - Session 5**
Appendix 12: Analysis of interviews

Thematic analysis of interviews – 1
Thematic analysis of interviews - 2
Appendix 13: Data screening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumptions</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Missing data</td>
<td>Missing values in the data can occur due to unanswered questions or inaccuracy in data entry.</td>
<td>Not missing values were identified. However, univariate outliers were treated as missing data, as is discussed in Section 3.8.1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outliers</td>
<td>Outlies are cases of extreme values in the data, wherein a univariate outlier can be “an extreme value on one variable” and a multivariate outlier is “a strange combination of scores on two or more variables” (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013, p.106).</td>
<td>A total of 28 values were identified as univariate outliers, and were considered as missing data (Aguinis et al. 2013; Christophe et al. 2019). In such a case, it is recommended to report the result with and without the outliers (ibid.; Field 2018), as can be seen in Chapter 4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Univariate outliers can be detected by calculating standardized values (i.e. $z$ scores) for each observed variable; any $z$ scores lying beyond the range of $\pm 3.29$ are often considered univariate outliers (ibid).</td>
<td>No multivariate outliers were found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multivariate outliers can be observed by means of Mahalanobis distance, which is “the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables” (ibid., p. 108). Mahalanobis distances at $p$ value &lt; 0.001 are likely to be considered multivariate outliers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Normality      | - Normality implies that the data fits a curved bell shape, which suggests that data points near the mean are more frequent in occurrence than data points far from the mean (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). To diagnose univariate normality, it is often recommended to use different methods such as quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plot, Shapiro-Wilk-test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov-test (ibid.; Oppong and Agbedra 2016).  
- Multivariate normality is the “assumption that each variable and all linear combinations of the variables are normally distributed” and is observed by means of Q-Q plot or probability-probability (P-P) plot (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013, p.112).  
- In addition, WarpPLS performs two tests to examine the univariate and multivariate normality. These tests are the classic Jarque-Bera test (Jarque and Bera 1980; Bera and Jarque 1981) and Gel and Gastwirth’s (2008) modification of this test.  
- Only three variables were found normally distributed (attitude towards oral skills, attitude towards autonym and ICT competence), the motivation variable and all dependent variables were found non-normally distributed. Note that PLS-SEM can accommodate for non-normal data (Kock 2018c). |
| Linearity      | - Linearity indicates “a straight-line relationship between two variables” (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013, p.117). Linearity between two variables can be examined by inspecting bivariate scatter plots (ibid.).  
- All the relationships between the independent and dependent variables were non-linear with and without the presence of the outliers. Note that PLS-SEM can provide solutions for non-linear data (ibid.). |
Collinearity

- Collinearity appears when the correlation between variables are very high, which can suggest that the involved variables measure the same notion, and so they can be redundant (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Collinearity can be diagnosed through the use of the average full collinearity score, which is provided by WarpPLS.

- The collinearity was found to be ideally acceptable, as indicated by the average full collinearity score, which reflects the average of variance inflation factors (VIF) = 2.028, (acceptable if \( \leq 5 \), ideally \( \leq 3.3 \)) (ibid.).

Data screening - definitions and procedures
Appendix 14: Results of the relationships between learner-dependent variables and attitudes towards MCOTT - outliers removed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients (β)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size ($f^2$)</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>-0.248</td>
<td>0.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.946</td>
<td>-0.186</td>
<td>0.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.224</strong></td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td><strong>0.018</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.042</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.406</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
<td>0.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
<td>0.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>-0.092</td>
<td>0.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td><strong>0.234</strong></td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td><strong>0.014</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.052</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.415</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships between motivation and attitudes towards MCOTT (outliers removed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients (β)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size ($f^2$)</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>0.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.32</strong></td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.143</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.497</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>-0.179</td>
<td>0.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td><strong>0.224</strong></td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td><strong>0.018</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.042</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.406</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships between attitudes towards oral skills and MCOTT (outliers removed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Path coefficients (β)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size ($f^2$)</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.303</strong></td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.125</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.481</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.255</strong></td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td><strong>0.006</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.074</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.435</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td><strong>0.437</strong></td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.265</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.609</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td><strong>0.326</strong></td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.149</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.503</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td><strong>0.59</strong></td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.368</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.425</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.755</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td><strong>0.297</strong></td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.119</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.475</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.488</td>
<td>-0.122</td>
<td>0.257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships between attitudes towards autonomy and MCOTT (outliers removed)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICT Competence</th>
<th>Path coefficients</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Effect size</th>
<th>P values</th>
<th>Confidence interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.037 - 0.401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-0.048 - 0.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>-0.074 - 0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived ease of use</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>-0.148 - 0.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>-0.127 - 0.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective attitude</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.178 - 0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future intentions</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>-0.317 - 0.056</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationships between attitudes towards autonomy and MCOTT (outliers removed)