

School of Education

**Digital Storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory
Study of its Impact on Students' Intrinsic Motivation and
Willingness to Communicate**

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

June 16, 2021

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Abstract

What has become evident from outcomes of communicative competence research is that the most effective way to attain communicative competence is through enough exposure to and, more importantly, frequent use of the target language. This highlights the seriousness of the problem this study attempts to address -students' reticence in English as a foreign-language-classrooms, where most of English language learning occurs.

This study investigates the possibility of reducing students' reticence in English language classrooms in EFL contexts, specifically in Saudi Arabia, through the integration of a communicative classroom activity, which is digital storytelling. Proposing this intervention addresses an important gap in the relevant knowledge of which there is a scarcity of studies investigating the problem of English language learners' reticence from a pedagogical perspective. The study argues that digital storytelling could increase oral classroom participation because it meets the criteria of communicative language teaching approach, the approach that is most capable of enhancing language learners' communicative competence. The study argues this activity could increase classroom participation also because it is flexible enough to be designed to promote English language learners' intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate, the two constructs that have a direct and strong influence on frequent language use.

As a first step, the principles of the communicative language teaching approach are presented so that the claim that digital storytelling is a good fit for this approach is supported. Next, the literature on the constructs of intrinsic motivation, of self-determination theory, and willingness to communicate and their perceived correlation to the solution of problem of the study is discussed. Moreover, reasons that informed the assumption that digital storytelling could have a positive effect on these two constructs are delineated. Discussion moves on to test the hypothesised effect of digital storytelling on intrinsic motivation, willingness to communicate, and communicative competence. To do so, the study incorporated a mixed method case study undertaken in a Saudi public school in the southern region with the participation of 32 female students at 10th grade level. A storytelling activity was

designed as a collaborative learning project facilitated by the researcher and implemented during three distinctive stages of preparation, production, and presentation over 12 weeks. Qualitative data obtained from the researcher's participant observation, the participants' responses to the interview questions, and their written drafts and recorded narration were the main source of information. Quantitative methods were also used to assess the participants' willingness to communicate prior to the study and their intrinsic motivation post the intervention.

Satisfaction of the participants' intrinsic motivation was the most evident effect of the digital storytelling activity. This result was due to the features of the activity that promoted the participants' need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Results also showed that the participants' willingness to communicate increased during the activity. The level of willingness was fluctuated throughout the activity, though. Attributions of such fluctuation are, among others, familiarity with the teacher and the activity and some linguistic and affective factors. Concerning the effect of using digital storytelling in English language classroom on the participants' communicative competence, results showed satisfactory improvement in the grammatical, strategic, and discourse aspects of the participants' communicative competence. The nature of the activity and the tasks required to produce digital stories were behind this positive effect.

These results led the study to conclude that the digital storytelling activity is an effective choice for English language teachers wanting to shift to a communicative language teaching approach. Its evident effect on the participants' intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate suggests that including this activity into the curriculum could lead to a more significant improvement in the language learners' communicative competence. These results have also led to a series of recommendations, for example, Saudi English language teachers should experiment with digital storytelling to create a participatory classroom; however, specifics of the learning context and English language level of language learners should inform the design and implementation of the activity to achieve the desired effect. In a broader sense, second language research on reticence, willingness to communicate, and intrinsic motivation still lacks pedagogical perspectives and, thus, needs more attention. Likewise, research on communicative competence in a second language

needs more practical interventions to facilitate language teachers' decision to shift to and embrace communicative language teaching approach.

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Abbreviations

| | |
|------------|---------------------------------|
| CLT | Communicative Language Teaching |
| DST | Digital Storytelling |
| WTC | Willingness to Communicate |
| IMI | Intrinsic Motivation Inventory |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |

Glossary of Terms

**Willingness
to
communicate
(WTC)**

Kang (2005) has proposed the following definition for willingness to communicate in a second language as, “An individual’s volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables” (p. 291). Willingness to communicate in a second language is, in this sense, a dynamic, rather than static, aspect of an individual that is greatly influenced by various contextual factors. Willingness to communicate, as conceived in this study, refers to EFL students’ voluntary and active participation in classroom discussions and activities during their digital storytelling project.

Motivation

In second language learning, motivation is viewed as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language” (Gardner, 1985, p.10). As language learning is more complicated when the target language is a foreign language and, thus, much of language acquisition occurs inside classrooms, Self-determination theory appears to be of specific importance. Self-determination theory puts far greater emphasis on intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000) defined intrinsic motivation as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed in the activity rather than because of external products, pressures, or rewards” (pp.56). That is, success to

integrate and involve EFL students in intrinsically motivating activities guarantees more engagement and, ultimately, more enhancements to their language proficiency.

This study was based on the assumption that Saudi students' reticence in EFL classroom, as its main problem, has, in part, resulted from the continuing embracement of traditional language teaching methods and prevalence of teacher-centred instruction. It is assumed that integrating digital storytelling could generate their intrinsic motivation due to its distinctive characteristics. With these considerations in mind, intrinsic motivation in this study refers to students' intrinsic feel of interest and pleasure while engaging in creating digital stories which can be reflected in their active and more productive classroom participation.

**Digital storytelling
(DST)**

This term denotes a specific concept depending on the discipline and the purpose for which it is being used. In a general sense, digital storytelling refers to “the idea of combining the art of telling stories with a variety of digital multimedia, such as images, audio, and video” (Robin, 2006). In the context of this study, digital storytelling is defined as a pedagogical method used in the English language classroom to engage students in a collaborative crafting of personal stories using multiple media tools.

**English as a foreign
language (EFL)**

According to the Cambridge Dictionary, this term refers to “English as taught to people whose main language is not English and who live in a country where English is not the official or main language”. This definition applies to the status of English in Saudi Arabia, where this study

was undertaken. The official language of the country is Arabic, but English is taught as a mandatory school subject from the early stages of school and is becoming more widely spoken.

Reticence

Reticence is defined in Merriam-Webster Dictionary as “the quality or state of being reticent: reserve, restraint”. Reticence in this study refers to students’ unwillingness to participate orally in the English language classroom.

Chapter 1. Introduction

The correlation between classroom oral participation and foreign language learning is well acknowledged in the relevant literature (Ellis, 1993; Ellis, 2005; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Liu, 2001; Long, 1996; Swain, 1995, 2005; Thoms, 2012; Zhou, 1991). Classroom oral participation is a mode of spoken communication that can take the form of responding to the questions asked about the lesson, communicating with classmates or the teacher and offering personal viewpoints. Or as put by Kurpa-Kwiatkowski (1998, p. 133), “Interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and taking of initiative in some way, activities, that in turn, are hypothesized to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning”. Oral participation enables learners from consolidating the knowledge they gained.

The significance of such forms of interaction in foreign language classrooms is based on the belief that actively participating in oral communication in classrooms means frequent use of the target language, which is crucial for the acquisition of the foreign language specially the spoken mode (Dornyei, 2013; Liu, 2005; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001; Tatasr, 2005). As explained by Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, and Linnell (1996. Pp. 59-60), “Participation in verbal interaction offers language learners the opportunity to follow up on new words and structures to which they have been exposed during language lessons and to practice them in context”. Swain (1998) condensed the importance of oral production in three functions: noticing, hypothesis testing, and metalinguistic. That means speech production is a great opportunity for language learners to notice and recognize what linguistic skills they possess or lack. Speech production is, moreover, the language learners’ way to test their hypothesis of language use. Finally, benefits of speech production go beyond reinforcing linguistic competence to enhancing other cognitive skills.

Considerable research over time lends support to this correlation between the frequency of oral participation and second language proficiency. For example, Seliger’s (1977) study of adults studying English as a second language in the United States concluded that students who participate more in classroom discussion demonstrate higher language proficiency compared to reticent students. Furthermore, in a conceptual framework for the dynamics of second language classroom

communication, Johnson (1995) concluded that allowing for more spontaneous patterns of interaction inside classroom had improved students' discourse competence. Consistent results linking second language oral production and development of communicative competence were also reported in recent studies (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2003; Shintani, Li, & Ellis, 2013; Tsou, 2005).

Classroom oral participation holds more importance if the target language is a foreign language in the context of learning. That is, the use of this language outside classroom walls is limited. This situation applies to the context of this study, which is learning English in Saudi Arabia. In Saudi Arabia, English language is a compulsory subject in general education, the language of instruction at many university departments, and the means of communication between Saudis and the expatriates. It, moreover, is becoming more widely used even among the Saudis. Still, it is not an official language of the country or real life communications. This status of English makes it a foreign language in the context of Saudi Arabia. This distinction was made by Edmondson (1999) who pointed out that if the target language plays a main social role in the surrounding culture, it is considered a second language, if it does not, it is a foreign language.

Research shows that students learning a new language, which is primarily used inside classrooms, need to exert greater effort in acquiring the language, compared to students learning a new language that is regarded a second language in the context of learning. While second language learners have an authentic need and many opportunities to use the target language in real life communications, foreign language learners lack such need and opportunities. This distinction between language learning opportunities based on the context of learning is acknowledged in relevant literature (Longcope, 2009; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Roever, 2012; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004).

Awareness of the necessity of oral production for foreign language learning highlights the seriousness of the problem this research attempts to address, which is students' reticence in English Language classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

1.1 Statement of the problem

As was discussed in the previous section, the frequent use of the target language by means of oral participation inside classroom is necessary to achieve communicative

competence. Operating from this belief, it is easy to realize how students' reticence in foreign language classrooms can be a serious problem that could decelerate, or worse, hinder their language development, especially oral proficiency (Hao, 2017; Jenkins, 2008; Zhiyi & Jun, 2017). The earliest paper to study reticence was by Gerald M. Phillips in 1965 and was the cornerstone for a new line of research in communication. Reticence has been defined as a communication problem activated when one believes remaining silent is better than speaking and appearing foolish and that it has cognitive, affective, and behavioural dimensions (Keaten, Kelly, & Finch 2000). Bao (2014) highlighted the importance to differentiate between silence and reticence. He claimed that silence is an important communication skill voluntarily practiced by the learner to process and understand language input. Reticence, on the other hand, is a barrier to language learning and is activated to cope with different internal and external inhibitors. In this study, reticence is discussed with reference to EFL classrooms. Thus, here it is defined as unwillingness to participate in oral communications inside the classroom due to various personal and contextual factors.

Reticence not only deprives language learners from developing their language, remaining reticent in the language classroom is one of the students' most frustrating behaviours to language teachers (Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Jackson, 2002; Zhang & Head, 2009). This behaviour disrupts the flow of the lesson as it makes teachers uncertain of their own performance and of their students' comprehension and level of language proficiency. The negative effect of reticence also extends to preventing other learners from benefitting from the knowledge constructed through sharing input, insights, and opinions of others.

Unfortunately, this problem prevails in most of the ESL/EFL contexts and is a problem faced by most English language teachers (Abebe & Deneke, 2015; Cheng, 2000; Donald, 2010; Reinders & Wattana, 2015; Soo & Goh, 2013), particularly teachers in Asian EFL contexts (Liu, 2005; Liu & Jackson, 2009; Tong, 2010). Likewise, students in Saudi EFL classrooms are characterised by their passivity in classroom and unwillingness to participate (Al-Ghamdi & Al-Bargi, 2017; Alhmadi, 2014; Hamouda, 2012; Reza, 2015).

As researchers became more aware of the negative consequences of reticence in language classrooms, they focused most of their efforts on identifying the factors

contributing to the existence of this problem. A review of a number of these studies revealed, as with any human behaviour, the complexity of the matter and the interference of different variables. The most cited factors were related to the students' linguistic competence, such as low English proficiency, lack of vocabulary, and poor pronunciation (Liu, 2005). Pedagogical factors also appeared to significantly determine students' desire to speak or not. Examples of the pedagogical factors include the physical arrangement of the classroom and the teacher's approach to error correction (Donald, 2010). Other most often studied factors are affective ones, such as motivation and anxiety (Tong, 2010); fear of making mistakes (Donald, 2010) and, fear of losing face (Liu, 2005; Tatar, 2005). Although not mentioned and investigated as much as the previous factors, it was interesting to see that some researchers have ascribed a great deal of students' reticence in the language classroom to the students' culture which emphasizes modesty and respect for authority (Liu, 2005; Tatar, 2005). This factor was specifically reported in Chinese and Malaysian studies. This also holds true to the culture in Saudi Arabia where seriousness and formality of relationship between teachers and student is the norm. Li and Liu (2011) pointed out that reticence can also be an indication that the learner is not interested in the topic or the learning process; the learner is not related to the community of learning; or the learner is overwhelmed by the incomprehensible input.

This problem of reticence is identified as a major barrier to students' acquisition of the English language in Saudi Arabia (Alhmadi, 2014; Ali, Shamsan, Guduru & Yemmela, 2019). As with the studies conducted in other EFL contexts, the bulk of studies that investigated this issue in the Saudi Arabia focused on identifying the causes of students' unwillingness to communicate, participate, and interact in the EFL classrooms (Al-Ghamdi & Al-Bargi, 2017; Hamouda, 2012; Reza, 2015). Findings reported in these studies were largely in conformity with those reported from different EFL contexts. However, it was noticed that very few studies have approached the problem of reticence in English language classrooms in Saudi Arabia practically. For example, there is scarcity of studies evaluating the effect of interventions such as an instructional strategy, classroom activity or language teaching approach on facilitating oral interaction inside English language classrooms, even though pertinent literature considers the classroom environment to have a profound factor on students'

willingness to communicate (Donald, 2010; Liu, 2005). This is the considerable gap that this study is attempting to fill.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The overarching aim of this study was to reduce students' reticence in Saudi EFL classrooms and to, ultimately, enhance their communicative competence. In this study, it is intended to provide a practical solution to this problem by exploring the potential of digital storytelling to create a participatory classroom. Besides its suitability for CLT approach, this study hypothesises that digital storytelling could enhance communicative competence because of its potential to positively affect two constructs that have direct influence on oral participation which are willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation. Thus, this study sought to address following research questions:

1. What is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate in a Saudi EFL classroom?
2. What is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation in a Saudi EFL classroom?
3. What aspects of communicative competence does digital storytelling enhance the most, as perceived by the participants?

1.3 Context of the study

A sound understanding of the context of this study is important to realize the extent of the problem in question and to recognize the significance of conducting this study. The information provided in the following sections discusses the status of the English language in Saudi Arabia as reflected in the educational system. It shows that the importance of the English language is constantly increasing in response to the vast changes that have touched every aspect of the population's life. It moves on to describe how despite the high status of English in Saudi Arabia, students demonstrate and maintain low English proficiency levels. Discussion will also highlight the inadequacy of the teaching methods, most English teachers still embrace, to equip students with

the degree of communicative competence needed in Saudi Arabia nowadays. Such discussion will, ultimately, justify the approach this study chose to address its problem.

1.3.1 English language in the Saudi educational system

Saudi Arabia has long recognised the increasingly significant importance of the English language as a lingua franca and a means to access most of the knowledge published in print or online. This recognition has given English a strong presence in the Saudi educational system. Until 2019, when the Chinese language was first introduced in the curriculum at all stages of education in Saudi schools and universities, English was the only foreign language that was taught as a core subject in Saudi public and private schools, from primary till secondary grade levels. At university level, students from all departments study English in their preparatory year. English, moreover, is the medium of instruction in the departments of medicine, engineering, science, and computer. Majors like English Literature, Translation, and Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) are among the most reputable majors that require a high GPA for admission and guarantee higher paid jobs after graduation. With this overall picture, a brief review of the major phases of English education in Saudi Arabia is given below.

The introduction of English to the Saudi educational system started when the country founded its first school in 1937 in Makkah, a few years after the country was established in 1932. The school aimed at preparing students to study abroad, primarily in the US and Britain (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Due to the shortage of Saudi teachers qualified, for teaching English at that time teachers from neighbouring Arab countries like Egypt and Syria were recruited to teach English in Saudi schools. English was taught four times a week (45 minutes each period) following the Egyptian curriculum, which itself was influenced by the French education system (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017).

In 1942 Saudi Arabia witnessed the introduction of English as a foreign language into intermediate and secondary education (Al-Hajailan, 2006). Each grade level had four classes per week for 45 minutes. In 1974, Ministry of Education endorsed the increase of English contact hours to six 45-minutes periods a week at both intermediate and secondary levels. This was changed again in 1980 and English instruction was reduced

to four times a week for 45 minutes and this has not changed since then (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017).

In 2004, the Saudi Ministry of Education allocated a budget worth millions of dollars for developing the English language curriculum and introducing the English language subject at grade six in primary school. In 2005, intensive English programmes were integrated to the preparatory year of all the departments at university level. In 2011, the Ministry of Education launched what is called the English Education Development project, one of its objectives was the introduction of English as a mandatory subject to grade four of the primary school along with developing English curriculum at the secondary school level (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017).

Vision 2030 which was launched in 2016 devoted an unprecedented amount of attention to education quality in general, and English education in particular. Many conferences and seminars were held to discuss the dissatisfactory performance of Saudi English learners and possible methods to solve this issue and align the outcomes of English education with the objectives of Vision 2030 (<http://vision2030.gov.sa/en>) Effective integration of information and communication technology, following the latest recommendations on language education research, partnership with international language institutes, constant teacher training, and curriculum development were the most emphasised.

In summary, the Saudi government has spent billions of dollars on the aim of developing Saudi students' linguistic and communicative competencies. This includes assigning English as the medium of instruction in most of higher education programs, opening the doors for Saudi students to learn English in English native countries, offering intensive training programs for English teachers and constantly developing the English curriculum.

1.3.2 Status of English language proficiency of Saudi students

Despite the tremendous efforts of the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia for providing high-quality English education, the very low English proficiency of Saudi students remains a perplexing phenomenon (Alhawsawi, 2013; Al-Johani, 2009; Khan, 2011; Rajab, 2013). Despite the long years Saudi students spend learning

English in schools, they cannot communicate effectively in English. Even English major students are not capable of showing advanced communicative competence.

A recent report released in 2019 by Education First (EF) (<https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/#>), the world's largest educational company with branches in more than 54 countries around the globe, ranked Saudi students in the very low English proficiency band which they have maintained since 2011. The ranking depends on data collected from English tests taken by hundreds of thousands of students from all participating countries. As a Saudi myself, I did not find these results surprising. From my personal experience in the English language classrooms, as a student and later a teacher, most students did not say more than a few words during the entire term. Students play a passive role in English classrooms which is largely limited to listening to the teacher. They speak only in single words or short phrases in response to the teacher's question about the translation of a new word, solving grammar drills, or reading a few lines from a passage. There were not any activities that create an opportunity to engage in lengthy discussions or sharing of personal opinions and experience.

Even though this issue of low English proficiency exists in almost all EFL contexts, each context is unique and thus the problem is best addressed when there is an understanding of all the cultural, religious, social, economic, and historical factors that distinguish each learning context. That said, I argue that, with the acknowledgment of the impact of many other factors, classroom climate, teaching instructions and the teacher's role hold the greatest effect in terms of the problem of reticence in the Saudi EFL context. Besides, there is a wealth of evidence from relevant literature to support this stance. For example, studies link the heavy reliance on the old grammar-translation language instruction, which predominates EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia, to low communicative proficiency (Eissa, 2016; Alrabai, 2016).

Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979), as cited in Brown (2000), characterized the Grammar Translation method as follows:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.

3. Long elaborate explorations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and **inflection** of words.
5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
6. Little attention is paid to the context of texts, which are treated as exercise in grammatical analysis
7. Often the only drills are exercise in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation. (Prator and Celce-Murcia, 1979, p. 3).

Based on my own experience as a learner in English language classrooms in Saudi Arabia, these points describe exactly how English language was taught. Many studies also showed the popularity of this method in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia in the 19th century (Abahussain 2016; Alqahtani, 2019; Eisa, 2020).

While this instructional strategy might succeed in teaching Saudi students the grammatical rules and vocabulary, it did not enable them to communicate fluently (Brown, 2000). In support of this point, Krashen (2003) argues that focusing on the linguistic aspect of the language could achieve “learning” but never “acquisition”. Wright (2012) maintains that language learners need to acquire the ability to use the new foreign language effectively in various social interactions. Allocating sufficient time in the classroom for oral interaction can, in turn, develop students’ communicative competence (Evnitskaya, 2018). The unfavourable outcomes caused by the predominance of grammar translation teaching is observed by Saudi and non-Saudi EFL researchers (Aba Hussain, Iqbal, & Khan, 2019; Eissa, 2016).

In a similar vein, instruction in the EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia lacks use of information and communication technology (ICT), despite the large and growing body of literature arguing for its effectiveness and necessity (Ezza & Bakry, 2014; Mollaei & Riasati, 2013; Oyaid, 2009; Warschauer, 1996; Wilkinson, 2016). ICT includes “radio and television, as well as newer digital technologies such as computers and the Internet” (Tinio, 2003, p. 3).

Studies revealed that ICT-based language learning enables teachers to differentiate instruction to meet students' diverse learning needs. It helps present learning materials in an attractive and entertaining manner. Most importantly, ICT-based language learning affords EFL learners a great opportunity to use the target language and be exposed to its native speakers. This notion of student-centred instruction is important to keep students engaged, interested, and motivated. Nonetheless, studies show that the actual availability and use of ICT in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia is almost non-existent (Alresheed, Raiker, & Carmichael, 2017; Alshumaimeri & Alhassan, 2011).

1.4 Organization of the thesis

This thesis consists of a further six chapters organised as follows. Chapter 2 continues the discussion established in the introduction and statement of the problem sections of this chapter. It includes a critical review of the current state of knowledge on four major lines of research: communicative competence in second language; willingness to communicate in a foreign language; foreign language motivation, with specification on intrinsic motivation as perceived in self-determination theory; and digital storytelling in EFL classrooms. The chapter will then conclude with a situation of this study in the context of related literature, which should help illuminate the significance and contribution of the study.

Chapter 3 commences with an explanation of the theoretical assumptions underpinning the methodology adopted in this study. This is followed by a discussion of the study paradigm with reference to some of the seminal works in this respect. Next is a detailed description of the strategic plan employed to undertake the study including the study site, participants, instruments, and data collection and analysis methods. Finally, the chapter will close with a discussion of a critical component, types of measurements incorporated in the study to enhance its validity and reliability.

Chapter 4 elaborates on the case of the study which is the digital storytelling activity in an English as a foreign language classroom in Saudi Arabia. Discussion will indicate the flow of the project, its major stages and steps, and students' actions and lived experience.

Chapter 5 presents the results gathered through both quantitative and qualitative methods in relation to each research question.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings reported in chapter 5 with reference to findings from relevant literature.

Chapter 7 concludes the thesis with a statement of what the found results indicate and how they could relate to and advance relevant lines of literature. The chapter will end with an indication to the possibilities for future research based on both the results and the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

This chapter will continue the discussion established in the introductory chapter and elaborate on the four major concepts this study operates from. First section focuses on the concept of communicative competence. It starts with a review of the basis and origin of the concept of communicative competence. Next, the discussion proceeds to the introduction of communicative competence into second language pedagogy and how it paved the way for the emergence of communicative language teaching approach CLT. In the following parts, the principles of CLT are presented along with the existing literature on the different classroom activities and teaching strategies used as part of communicative language teaching. Reviewing the literature of communicative competence and communicative language teaching approach supports the proposition of digital storytelling as a classroom activity compatible with the communicative language teaching approach.

The second section deals with the concept of willingness to communicate as a direct and fundamental determinant for the actual action of oral communication. It commences with a brief review of the origin of this concept. The discussion moves on to the introduction of willingness to communicate into second language research. The following highlights the importance of willingness to communicate as a predictor of second language proficiency. The section ends with the potential ways to engender students' willingness to communicate inside second language classrooms. This section illuminates the significance of willingness to communicate to increase classroom participation, and ultimately enhance communicative competence. It, moreover, enables evaluating the potential of digital storytelling activity to increase language learners' willingness to communicate.

The next section deals with intrinsic motivation, of self-determination theory. The first part highlights the importance of intrinsic in foreign language learning. The discussion moves on to provide details on the three psychological needs that should be satisfied to promote intrinsic motivation: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The following part review studies on how to promote these three needs inside language classrooms to promote intrinsic motivation. The section ends with an important part which concerns how intrinsic motivation can be expressed. This section shows the

importance of promoting intrinsic motivation of language learners to increase their oral participation inside the classroom.

The last section of this chapter introduces of digital storytelling, the proposed activity to increase students' intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate inside the EFL classrooms, and hence, communicative competence. This section begins with introduction of the activity, its uses in language classrooms, and its most reported benefits, and ends with an explication of what makes digital storytelling suitable for the purpose of this study.

2.1 Communicative competence

Because effectiveness of any language teaching approach is determined by understanding the theoretical assumptions underlying this approach, its importance, and its components, the following discussion will focus on these aspects in the communicative language teaching approach CLT. First, theories of communicative competence that led up to the emergence of communicative approach are presented. The following part review Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence in second language. Next, components of communicative competence are presented. Then, discussion moves on to the principles for developing an effective communicative approach. The chapter ends with reviewing some of classroom activities and teaching strategies used to enhance communicative competence inside EFL classrooms.

2.1.1 Communicative competence: Roots of the notion

The emergence of the concept of “communicative competence” can be traced back to the beginnings of 1970s. The concept of communicative competence was present in the writings of many scholars (Argyris, 1962; Goffman, 1959, as cited in Wiemann & Backlund, 1980) and was conceptualized in different ways. However, Dell Hymes was the first to give the term “communicative competence” its popularity through his writings in 1971. Hymes' (1971) definition of communicative competence broadened Chomsky's (1965) theories on competence and performance. Chomsky (1965) claimed that competence refers to the knowledge of grammar as internalized by an ideal native speaker of a given language whereas performance reflects the actual use

of a given language impacted by several psychological factors. This distinction between performance and competence makes competence equivalent to linguistic knowledge and performance as the acceptability of the perceived and introduced speech.

This performance-competence distinction, according to Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970), ignores the role of sociocultural knowledge to determine the appropriateness of speech within a certain situational and verbal context. In assertion of the significance of awareness of the social and cultural context in which language is being used, Campbell and Wales (1970) strongly emphasised that being able to understand and produce appropriate utterances is far more important than the ability to understand and produce grammatically flawless utterances. Hymes (1972) also put a great emphasis on the role social and cultural features have on ones' performance. In his words "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 278). In short, while Chomsky (1965) claimed that competence refers exclusively to grammatical knowledge, Campbell and Wales (1970) and Hymes (1972) proposed to broaden this sense of competence to that of communicative competence which involves both linguistic and sociocultural knowledge. Therefore, communicative language teaching approach is the first to give the cultural aspect of the target language as much significance (Cetinavci, 2011).

Several scholars followed Hymes' (1972) and Campbell and Wales' (1970) conceptualization of communicative competence. Among the most prominent are Canale and Sawin (1980) who viewed communicative competence as the relationship between grammatical competence and sociocultural competence. Another advocate of communicative competence is Savignon (1976) who viewed communicative competence as "the ability to function in a truly communicative setting— that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic of one or more interlocutors" (p. 12). A similar standpoint was embraced by Kiato and Kiato (1996) who observed that "the basic idea of communicative competence remains the ability to use language appropriately, both "receptively and productively, in real situations" (p.1). One major implication of these definitions is that communicative competence cannot be achieved through the knowledge of the grammar of a language alone. Rather, it depends greatly

on the ability to use this linguistic competence appropriately, which requires social and cultural awareness as well.

2.1.2 Communicative Competence in a second language

This notion of communicative competence was introduced into second language pedagogy by Canale and Swain's (1980). Canale and Swain (1980) delineated the major theories underlying communicative competence before they concluded with their proposed theoretical framework of communicative competence in a second language. Their proposed framework has become a major reference in subsequent studies in this respect.

Primarily, there are the theories of basic communication skills which emphasise the importance of the second language learner to possess a minimum level of communication skills necessary for the most common situations (Savignon, 1972). Likewise, Van Ek (1976) asserted that second language programmes' main objective should be to ensure that "the learners will be able to survive (linguistically speaking) in temporary contacts with foreign language speakers in everyday situations, whether as visitors to the foreign country or with visitors to their own country, and to establish and maintain social contacts" (pp. 24-25). Canale and Swain (1980) believed that this theory failed to specify what communication skills can be considered as the minimum required skills. They also criticised the theory's emphasis on the significance of the ability to communicate over grammatical accuracy of utterances, though they do not emphasise the opposite.

There are also theories that approached communicative competence from sociolinguistic perspectives. Canale and Swain (1980) believed the work of Hymes and Halliday constitute the cornerstone for most of the research in this connection. Hymes (1972) viewed communicative competence as the interaction of grammatical competence, which deals with "whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible; psycholinguistic competence, which focuses on "Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible"; sociocultural competence, which concerns "whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate"; and, finally, probabilistic competence, which deals with "whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done" (p. 281). Halliday holds a view of language similar to Hymes' notion of communicative

competence. Halliday (1973, 1978), as cited in Canale and Swain (1980), viewed language as the interaction between two sets of semantic options; what the language user can do and what the language user can say.

Canale and Swain (1980), moreover, reviewed theories that approach communicative competence from an integrative viewpoint. Integrative theories emphasise the importance to employ the principles of basic communication skills and sociocultural factors in accordance with the principles of discourse. A notable work in this respect is provided by Widdowson (1978) who emphasised the importance of two elements in spoken and written discourse, that of, cohesion and coherence. **Coherence is concerned with the unity of the text whereas cohesion has to do with the proper use of propositions and a lexical set of words to express meaning.**

After reviewing the previous theories of communicative competence and highlighting their shortcomings, Canale and Swain (1980) proposed an adequate theory on communicative competence in second language teaching which includes four main competences. Their proposed framework includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences. Canale and Swain's (1980) theoretical framework has become a reference point in the subsequent research on communicative competence in a second language.

2.1.3 Components of communicative competence

Each component of Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence will be discussed below along with what teaching strategies are used to teach it in language classroom.

2.1.3.1 Grammatical competence

Canale and Swain (1980) described grammatical competence as the "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology" (p. 29). Thus, this competence enables learner to recognize and produce accurate utterances.

Teaching grammar is one of two language teaching approaches language educators have embraced for centuries: those focusing on teaching about the language structure and those focusing on teaching language use (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

The most salient grammar teaching methods are presenting grammatical rules to the learners and having them practice these rules. However, grammar teaching can also be conducted through other ways that do not involve presenting and practicing. For example, making learners discover these grammatical rules on their own; exposing learners to input from the target language showing examples of correct grammar use; and correcting grammatical mistakes of learners (Ellis, 2006). Ellis (2006) maintained that explicit teaching of grammar, as in the traditional grammar translation method, through explanation of grammatical rules and drills does not enhance communicative competence. This is evident in the status of English proficiency of English language learners in Saudi Arabia, the context of this study. The traditional grammar-translation approach, which focuses mainly on grammar and form and neglects communication, dominated language teaching there for decades and still prevails to a great extent. This approach, while proved effective in teaching grammar, it fails at enhancing students' communicative competence.

With the recent rise of and shift to communicative approaches, grammar teaching is still crucial within these approaches. The difference is that while traditional grammar teaching approaches teach grammar through decontextualized lessons, communicative approaches focus on grammatical rules during communicative interactions. Larsen-Freeman (2001) proposed a three-dimensional framework that suits teaching grammar within communicative approaches. The first dimension of the framework is form/structure which deals with phonology, lexicon, and syntax. The second dimension concerns meaning/ semantics which refers to the lexical or grammatical meaning of a grammatical structure. The pragmatics/ use dimension refers to the effect of a context whether social, linguistic, or presupposition, on the structure.

2.1.3.2 Sociolinguistic competence

Canale and Swain (1980) also included Sociolinguistic competence to their proposed framework of communicative competence in a second language. They believed this component is crucial to possess for an appropriate use of language. This competence depends on the language learner's knowledge of the social and cultural factors governing the context in which the language is being used. This echoes Hymes' (1972) assertion that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 278). Wiseman (2002) referred to the appropriateness of language use as

intercultural competence that is acquired through the knowledge, motivation, and linguistic skills to interact with the speakers of the target language effectively and appropriately.

In a recent study by Ivygina, Pupysheva, and Mukhametshina (2019), they stated that language learners' achievement of sociocultural competence requires certain knowledge, skills, and abilities, which they referred to as KAS:

The knowledge of sociocultural types including the regional one; the knowledge of key term meanings that reveal the content of the sociocultural competence; the ability to perceive an unfamiliar culture, to understand the specifics of its bearers' worldview, to communicate with its representatives; the ability to perceive and understand sociocultural features and respect the sociocultural diversity of the foreign language culture under study and its representatives (Ivygina et al, 2019).

The achievement of sociolinguistic competence is thus hard because of the huge variance between the cultures even if these cultures speak one language. That is, what might be culturally accepted to speak about or discuss in one culture might not be culturally accepted in a different culture. Language learners need to adjust their speech to fit the cultural context. What makes achievement of sociolinguistic competence even harder is the difficulty to teach culture in the classroom in order to teach learners appropriateness of speech in the target language. Culture is a complex concept that is embedded in every aspect of life and the attempt to teach it could spread false stereotypes. **Therefore, immersion in the culture of the target language is the most effective way to recognise its speaking rules (Addai-Mununkum, 2019; Cross, 2000; Strunc, 2019).**

Unfortunately, immersion in the culture of the target language is not possible for most language learners. Computer technologies, however, facilitated development of sociolinguistic competence. These tools enable instant connection between language learners and language speakers. Many studies investigated the possibility to develop sociolinguistic competence through different computer technologies and reported a positive effect (Rakhimova, Yashina, Mukhamadiarova, & Sharipova, 2017; Mukhamadiarova, Merkish, & Kulkova, 2018).

In this connection, language researchers suggested some ideas to enhance sociolinguistic competence inside classrooms using information and communication technology. For example, Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2008) provided examples of classroom activities on the four language skills that could enhance sociolinguistic competence. For the listening skill, the language teacher could integrate video-taped cultural dialogues, songs, TV programmes, films, and interviews with the native speakers. For the reading skill, reading and analysing cultural situations, splitting a text on a cultural issue up to multiple chunks and asking learners to organize these chunks are some exemplary activities. While teaching the speaking skill, language teachers could enhance sociolinguistic competence by engaging language learners in face to face discussions with speakers of the language from different cultural backgrounds. Other sample activities are role-playing where learners could practice various speech situations such as apologies, compliments, and giving advice, or inviting a native speaker to the class to engage in cultural discussion with the learners. As for writing skill, information and communication technology is an important asset in enhancing sociolinguistic competence. Language learners could engage in corresponding with language speakers from different cultural backgrounds discussing a cultural topic. Another sample activity is writing stories based upon situations from the target language culture.

2.1.3.3 Discourse competence

Canale and Swain's (1980) framework of communicative competence in a second language also depends on the principles of discourse, primarily, cohesion and coherence of utterances, be it spoken or written. Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995) referred to the discourse competence as "the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, sentences and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written text." (p. 13). Concerning cohesion, it is achieved by using lexical and grammatical devices to connect the sentences of the text. Johnson (2017) pointed out that grammatical cohesion in English learners' writing has been the focus while lexical cohesion received less attention. He maintained that it is mainly because teaching lexical cohesion requires extensive text analysis.

The work of Halliday and Hasan (1976) is considered a cornerstone in this respect. They identified two major types of lexical cohesion: collocation and reiteration. Collocation refers to words that are associated, and reiteration is the repetition of a referent. They also pointed out four forms of grammatical cohesion, which are reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunction. Reference can be of three types: anaphor (when the referenced to is backward), cataphor (when the referenced to is forward), or exophora (when the referenced to is outward). Ellipsis can be verbal or nominal depending on the grammatical form that is omitted. Substitution is using a pronoun to replace a referent. Conjunction points to linking the different parts of the text using explicit markers.

Cutting (2002) identified the following lexical cohesive devices: repetition, use of synonyms, use of superordinates, and use of so-called general words, such as things, stuff, place, woman, man. These are all examples of reiteration. Likewise, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) pointed out that lexical cohesion includes the use of repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, syntagmatic, and collocations. In short, Synonymy, refers to lexical items that encode similar meaning (Eggins 2004); a hyponym is a word whose meaning is included, or entailed, in the meaning of a more general word”(Hurford, Heasley, Smith (2007); Meronymy is a semantic relation between a part of something and its whole; and syntagmatic is the combination of lexical items using rules of syntax.

Jaroszek (2013) followed a different approach towards identifying lexical cohesion which is through interactional cohesion, particularly, relexicalization. McCarthy and Carter (2000, p. 36) defined relexicalization as “the study of lexis would have to reorientate itself more towards seeing vocabulary choice as having interpersonal implications, and not just viewing lexical selection as a matter of accurate ‘wording’ of the world”. In Jaroszek’s (2013, p. 63) words, it is “a series of responses to each other’s content in which a speaker imperceptibly shifts from one segment of speech to another, without the use of discourse markers”. The concept of relexicalization as a means of achieving speech cohesiveness, therefore, depends on the interlocutors’ exchange of speech by ways of, for example, elaboration, explaining, repetition, or interrogation which usually happen subconsciously.

Many studies have been conducted to evaluate English learners' writing in relation to cohesion. Chanyoo (2018), for example, investigated the most used cohesive devices in the writing of Thai English learners using Halliday & Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesion. Four cohesive devices were identified: reiteration, reference, conjunction, and ellipsis. Another important finding of the study is that frequent use of cohesive devices increased quality of writing. Raman and Mathew (2020), however, argued that including a high number of lexical cohesive devices does not necessarily lead to a high-quality writing unless a various range of these cohesive devices are used across the piece of writing.

Johnson (2017) proposed a three-strand approach to teach lexical cohesion in English language classrooms; (1) the analysis of authentic texts, (2) the development of productive vocabulary, and (3) the development of information structure and vocabulary at the revision process. He provided a detailed description of each strand along with many examples. As there is not abundant materials on how to teach lexical cohesion to English language learners, this approach proves a valuable resource. The other component of discourse competence is coherence which refers to **the unity of a text**. Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguished two approaches to coherence: text-based and reader-based. Text-based coherence concerns semantic unity of the text which can be achieved by using cohesive ties; whereas reader-based coherence refers to the reader's knowledge of the context of the text to form a coherent meaning.

Many studies reported English learners' inability to formulate coherent texts (Ahmed, 2019; Mohseni & Samadian, 2019; Wirantaka, 2018). Different approaches and strategies were suggested to solve this issue. For example, Carrillo, Valle & Labre (2019) incorporated storytelling strategy and reported that it has increased the quality of students' writing coherence. Also collaborative writing have been repeatedly used to improve writing quality of language learners (Lin & Maarof, 2013; Anggraini, Rozimela & Anwar, 2020).

2.1.3.4 Strategic competence

Canale and Swain's (1980) proposed framework also included **strategic competence which refers to the verbal and non-verbal strategies language learner needs to employ to compensate for any insufficient knowledge of the rules of grammar or rules of language use**. Strategic competence in Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995)'s

framework is also conceptualized as the knowledge of communication strategies and the ability to use them. Canale (1983, p. 339) developed this competence to the “mastery of verbal and nonverbal strategies both (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence or to performance limitations and (b) to enhance the rhetorical effect of utterances.”

This purpose of communication strategies is also echoed in the definitions cited by Bialystok (1990, p. 3) in her book *Communication Strategies*: “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared” (Tarone, 1980); “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a); and “techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language” (Stern, 1983).

These definitions show that this component of communicative competence is specifically important for EFL learners, such as the participants of this study, who display much lower language competence compared to speakers of English as a second language. Despite the significance of strategic competence for EFL learner’s fluency and communication competence, how to teach strategic competence was neglected. Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) were the first to suggest practical ways to teach communication strategies. In their viewpoint, strategic competence can be enhanced by teaching language learners to use some strategies such as, fillers, going off the point, paraphrase and circumlocution, and appealing for help. Faucette (2001) also recommended communication strategies, such as circumlocution, paraphrase and approximation “empowers students to participate in communication by helping them to not give up in the conversation. We as teachers have a responsibility to provide our students with tools to communicate, such as through the development of strategic competence” (p. 28).

A recent study by Rabab’ah (2016) supported this claim that teaching communication strategies enhances language learners’ communicative competence. The results of this study showed that EFL students who participated in a 14-week communication strategies training significantly outperformed students, who participated in a communicative approach but without integration of or focus on communication

strategies, in IELTS speaking test scores. The results also showed that the participants who received communication strategies training have used these strategies more frequently.

The notion of communicative competence concept paved the way for the emergence of communicative language teaching CLT approach. The following parts will shed light on the essential principles for the development of an effective communicative language teaching approach along with examples of classroom activities and teaching strategies used in language classrooms as part of the communicative approach.

2.1.4 Guiding Principles for Developing an Effectives Communicative Approach

Communicative language teaching approach is as old as the notion of communicative competence. In late 1960s, Dell Hymes introduced and coined the term “communicative competence”. During this time, second language teaching approaches were re-evaluated and CLT was also introduced (Thamarana, 2014). However, communicative approach has gained more popularity in the recent decades for communicative competence has become the goal of 21st century second and foreign language pedagogy (Savignon, 2017). Thompson (1996) and Richards and Rodgers (2002) argued that the communicative approach is the most comprehensive language teaching approach and the one capable of achieving this goal. However, the achievement of this goal is not very simple and lies on careful development of the CLT approach based on certain principles.

Communicative language teaching approach was theorized in various ways. Oprandy (1999), for example, described the communicative approach as follows:

The communicative approach requires a complexity in terms of planning and a tolerance for messiness and ambiguity as teachers analyze students’ needs and design meaningful tasks to meet those needs. The pat solutions and deductive stances of audiolingual materials and pedagogy, like the grammar-translation texts and syllabi preceding them, are no longer seen as sensitive to students’ needs and interests. Nor are they viewed as respectful of students’ intelligence to figure things out inductively through engaging problem-solving and communicative tasks (1999: 44).

In Stern's (1983) viewpoint, what differentiates communicative language teaching approach from the six major language teaching methods, i.e., the grammar-translation, audio lingual, direct, reading, and audio-visual methods, and cognitive theory, is that communicative language teaching does not equate or view language learning as code learning. He maintained that because all these old methods "tend to place over-emphasis on single aspects as the central issue of teaching and learning, none of them are adequate" (p. 473). Therefore, he suggested communicative language teaching as the adequate alternative that focuses on all the aspects of communicative competence equally. Stern defined communicative language teaching as "the possibility of non-analytical, participatory, or experiential ways of language learning as a deliberate teaching strategy" (p. 473).

Likewise, language scholars characterised the principles for developing an effective communicative language teaching approach in different ways. For example, Savignon (2017) pinpointed that communicative language teaching approach should focus on writing and reading activities that engage learners in active discussions of meaning. This criterion is not applicable if learning materials and topics of lessons are not relevant to the learners' knowledge. She maintained that the communicative language teaching approach does not depend entirely on group or pair work, though it acknowledges the effectiveness of collaboration. Working in groups with familiar or close mates increases the possibilities of initiating or entering communication. Moreover, the communicative language teaching approach pays equal attention to both pragmatic competence aspects and linguistic competence aspects (Savignon, 2017).

Canale and Swain (1980) outlined five principles that must guide the development of CLT approach. Primarily, they emphasised that grammatical, sociocultural, and strategic competences should be paid an equal emphasis. Also, CLT approach must be tailored with language learners' communication needs in mind. These needs are assessed based on the grammatical, sociocultural, and strategic competencies necessary at each level of language learning. Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980) strongly emphasised the importance of making genuine interaction with native language speakers a part of developing an effective CLT approach. They acknowledged the difficulty teachers might face to meet this criterion. However, with the advancement of today's information and communication technology, interaction with native language speakers is readily accessible. They also noted the importance to

focus more on the aspects of communicative competence that were developed during the acquisition of the first language and existed in the second language rather than focusing on less universal competencies. Equally important is that the communicative language teaching approach should allow language learners an ample chance to practice and accumulate much experience required to acquire communicative competence. Canale (1983) further elaborated this theoretical framework to encompass discourse competence which refers to the ability to produce cohesive and coherent utterances.

Nunan (1991) further explained how communicative language teaching approach can be implemented in language classrooms. He pointed out the necessity for language learners to communicate through interaction in the target language. Frequent use of the target language fosters language acquisition. In EFL contexts where grammar-translation method is dominant, use of the first language is frequent and even part of the approach. He also emphasised the importance of using authentic materials. The significance of using a real communicative purpose based on what is real and authentic to the learners is highly stressed (Sato, 2003).

In Nunan's (1991) viewpoint, focus should not only be on the language, that is, on communication, but also about the language, which is attained through knowledge of grammatical rules. Extension of language learning outside classrooms is another highly stressed aspect of an effective communicative approach in Nunan's perspective. In EFL contexts where the use of English outside the classroom, information and communication technology offers endless opportunities to extend English language learning outside classrooms.

Another characterization of the communicative language teaching approach is provided by Brown (1994a) as below:

- Focus in a classroom should be on all of the components of communicative competence of which grammatical or linguistic competence is just part.
- Classroom activities should be designed to engage students in the pragmatic, authentic, and functional use of language for

meaningful purposes.

- Both fluency and accuracy should be considered equally important in a second language learning classroom. And they are complementary.
- Students have to use their target language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts under proper guidance, but not under the control of a teacher (Brown, 1994a, 245).

Brown (1994b), moreover, described communicative language teaching in six key words: learner-centered, cooperative (collaborative), interactive, integrated, content-centered, and task-based.

The above discussion shows the many similarities between the different suggested principles that should guide the development of an effective communicative language teaching. With these principles in mind, the following discussion reviews the literature on the ways communicative language teaching approach has been embraced in language classrooms.

2.1.5 Communicative Approach inside Language Classrooms

The goal of learning a second language has evolved over decades. This in turn dictated the types of language teaching approaches adopted in language classrooms. **In this era of globalization, the goal of learning a second or foreign language has become the ability to communicate well in this language with its native and non-native speakers alike.** Therefore, sitting in language classrooms studying a foreign language for many years and not accomplishing this goal is disappointing. Even worse, knowing this is a prevailing status of most English language learners worldwide. Of course, the language learning process is complex and several linguistic, cognitive, and psychological factors could be contributing to this condition. However, scholarship of foreign language pedagogy puts a huge emphasis on the impact on language teaching approaches adopted in the language classrooms on the development of learners' communicative competence (Sokolova, Golovacheva & Chernaya, 2015).

Without frequent oral production of the target language, communicative competence cannot be achieved (Ellis, 2005; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Long, 1996). That said, foreign language learners should be provided with enough opportunity to practice the language inside the classroom to compensate for the limited opportunities to use the target language in communications in everyday life. Among the different language teaching approaches embraced by language teachers, communicative language teaching approach is the most capable of enhancing communicative competence, as argued by Richards and Rodgers (2002), because it focuses on communication as a means and as a goal. This approach creates ample opportunities for learners to use their linguistic repertoire inside and outside the classroom. Not only does communicative approach enhance linguistic competence, it focuses on discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences, too.

Within English language classrooms, a wide variety of activities and teaching techniques have been proposed as compatible with the principles of communicative language teaching approach. A valuable reference in this regard is Klippel's (1984) book titled *Keep talking: Communicative fluency activities for language teaching*. For each activity provided, topic type, language level required, organization, whether it needed preparation, and approximate time for its execution were all detailed. Communicative activities should support interaction between the learners and the teacher and among learners themselves. Examples of these activities are games, information gap, jigsaw puzzles, role-playing, and problem solving.

In 1995, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell realized language teachers' need for an approach to the teaching of communicative skills. An approach that provides a reference for designing language syllabi and instructional materials. Therefore, they proposed a framework including the competences provided by Canale (1983), that is, grammatical, strategic, sociocultural, discourse competences, and actional competence. They provided a detailed description of each competence and specific examples of how it can be presented for language learners. This study enormously enriched subsequent studies on communicative competence in second language pedagogy. This study was a valuable guide for teachers wanting to embrace the communicative language teaching approach in their language teaching. An important note in this connection is that the suitability of the communicative language teaching

approach depends on the cultural and educational context where the approach is being applied.

Even though application of communicative approach has become prevalent in English teaching pedagogy, EFL teachers identified shortage of resources on examples of communicative classroom activities as one of the challenges to adopt the communicative approach (Rahmawati, 2019; Herouach, Hicham, Lahmar, & Bensehra, 2020; Gorsuch, 2001; Musthafa, 2001). This finding highlights the necessity for EFL teachers, specifically who learned English through grammar-translation method, to undergo sufficient training on what communicative language teaching approach entails. This includes a clear vision and understanding of the theoretical bases of the communicative language teaching approach and guided experience on how to design communicative activities. More important, EFL teachers often identify time constraints as a major impediment to the adoption of communicative language teaching approach. Therefore, training should introduce them to the available resources and pre-designed activities.

Focus on the following discussion is devoted to the studies implementing classroom activities and teaching strategies with similar characteristics to the activity proposed in this thesis, which is digital storytelling activity. Therefore, storytelling, ICT based activities, and cooperative learning have been of most interest. Their suitability with communicative approach along with their effectiveness in enhancing communicative competence of English language learners are presented.

2.1.5.1 Storytelling

Stories and storytelling are the oldest and most engaging method used in education. Stories improves higher order thinking skills, stimulates creativity, and develops linguistic, psychological, cognitive, social and cultural competences. The massive evidence on the role of storytelling on language development makes it one of the most adopted activities within the communicative language teaching approach (Munthe, 2016; Karlsson, 2012)

The following studies used storytelling as part of communicative language teaching approach to enhance language learners' communicative competence. Mokhtar, Halim, and Kamarulzaman (2011), for example, observed improvement in some aspects of

the communicative competence of 30 English language learners at an undergraduate level. During a 14-week semester, each student completed reading a total of 12 storybooks by week 4 and by week 5, as part of a group, would tell their part of the story chosen by the group. As described by the researchers, students were telling their stories void of emotions, facial expression, and body language. Two interventions were then introduced. At the beginning, students had to storyboard, to visualize their stories and describe their illustrations with their own words. Then students watched videos of other storytellers to see how facial expressions, tone, and gestures are employed. By week 14, students gave their storytelling presentations and the analysis of their performance showed progress in the students' non-verbal communication skills, linguistic competence, and discourse competence.

These results are in consistence with other results revealed more recently. For example, Akhyak & Anik (2013) found out EFL students' participation in storytelling activities positively improved their grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, and fluency. Likewise, Juraid and Ibrahim (2016) revealed that digital storytelling has significantly improved the oral and interpersonal communication skills of female EFL students.

2.1.5.2 ICT-enhanced activities

Although some scholars (Adair-Hauk, Willingham-McLain, & Youngs, 2000; Green & Youngs, 2001) state that integrating ICT-enhanced language learning activities made no significant difference, improper integration is to blame. If appropriately designed and incorporated, computer assisted language learning has a profound effect. ICT enhanced language learning, in fact, helped language teachers implement the principles of an effective communicative language teaching approach. Canale and Swain (1980), for example, emphasised the importance of facilitating language learners' interaction with native language speakers. While years back this principle was hard to meet in most of foreign language learning contexts, with the advent of technology, web sites and applications where language learners can practice with the native speakers of the target language are readily accessible.

Likewise, Brown (2000) noted that ICT enhanced language learning made it easier to accommodate his fourth characterization of a communicative approach. The characterization that language teachers should enable language learners to engage in

unrehearsed speech events was made possible through ICT. It is worth noting that language teachers might hesitate to employ this principle because, contrary to predetermined activities, it requires advanced proficiency, in this case, ICT can be of great help. ICT, moreover, has made it easier for language learners to develop better sociocultural competence in the foreign language. Movies for example are effective for enhancing listening skills, acquiring new vocabularies, and realizing the social and cultural norms of the population of the target language (Albiladi, Abdeen, & Lincoln, 2018; Kabooha, 2016; Yalcin, 2013).

By way of student reflective journal entries, student assignments and artifacts, observations and field notes, McKeeman and Oviedo (2013), examined the impact of integrating four different Web.2 tools (VoiceThread, Poll Everywhere, Animoto, and Xtranormal) into a language classroom on students' communicative competence. These tools provided students with a space to engage in various communication situations, which fed into the enhancement of their communicative competence. Students reported that these platforms allow more chances to try out the target language, compared to classroom opportunities because interaction with language extended to virtual audience and space.

There is also a wealth of research arguing for the uniqueness and richness of oral interaction where computers are involved over interaction in traditional classrooms. Jeon-Ellis, Debski, and Wigglesworth (2005) found that engaging language learners in collaborative web-based projects has generated learning opportunities through the resolution of linguistic problems and the provision of an arena for the practice of newly acquired knowledge. The analysis provided examples of naturalistic interaction at the computer where the learner does not merely repeat someone else's utterances, but reconstructs them and applies them in a different context (p. 141).

Combining the positive impact of ICT and storytelling on language learners' communicative competence was made possible through the recent advent of digital storytelling activities. An increasing number of studies indicate a big, noticeable improvement in language learners' communicative competence when digital storytelling is used (Harji, 2017; Abdelmageed and El-Naggar, 2018; BavaHarji, Gheitanchian, & Letchumanan, 2014; Rahimi, 2019; Cigerci & Gultekin, 2017; Hu, Oslick, & Wake, 2017)

2.1.5.3 Cooperative learning.

Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec (1998) define cooperative learning as a teaching strategy that involves distributing students into small groups to maximise learning outcomes for the learners and their peers. Cooperative learning is characterized by positive interdependence and individual accountability (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec 1998; Kagan and Kagan 2009). Positive interdependence appears in the students' sense of obligation and desire to help each other which creates a caring and supportive environment. Individual accountability is promoted in cooperative learning because students realize that the success of the whole group is bound to the contribution of each member.

CLT favours interaction between students (Larsen-Freeman, 2012) which can take the form of giving and receiving feedback, exchanging information, and making meaning in the target language. This makes cooperative learning one of the most compatible instructional strategies with CLT. Studies found cooperative learning positively impact communicative competence (Astuti & Lammers, 2017; Alghamdi, 2014; Almuslimi, 2016; Bejarano, 1987; Ghaith, 2003; Liang, 2002; Sachs, Candlin, & Rose, 2003, Wei & Tang, 2015).

This section argued that change from the old language teaching methods that focuses merely on grammar and decontextualized language to the communicative language teaching approach is the most successful way to enhance communicative competence. Examples of classroom activities that align with the principles of this approach were also given to help English teachers make this shift. The next section deals with the variable that directly influences the production of oral communication, which is willingness to communicate (WTC).

2.2 Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is considered one of the *individual differences* (IDs) variables, which Dörnyei (2005, p.1) define as “characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other”. These individual differences are what make persons react differently in identical situations, which prevents making generalizations for human behaviour in psychology (Dörnyei, 2005).

Willingness to communicate has recently been introduced to second/foreign language learning research as one of the IDs that plays a pivotal role in language learning.

Willingness to communicate is theorized to have a fundamental impact on the foreign language learning. MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, and Noels (1998) believed that willingness to communicate is the factor that immediately precedes the actual use of the second language. Therefore, it can be presumed that high levels of willingness to communicate would warrant more language use (Hashimoto, 2002), and hence, language proficiency (Richmond & Roach, 1992). If true, this construct has a profound role in foreign language learning and its enhancement should be a primary goal (Aubrey, 2011; Cao & Philip, 2006; Dörnyei, 2005; Kang 2005).

Before the discussion delves into examining the existing evidence on this impact, it is important to commence with an overview of the establishment of the WTC construct in first language communication research. Next, an introduction to willingness to communicate research is discussed along with the factors that might influence its level. Discussion will then proceed to review current studies on the relationship between willingness to communicate and foreign language proficiency. Finally, the section ends with practical ways to engender willingness to communicate inside EFL classrooms.

2.2.1 Willingness to Communicate: Origin of the Construct

Willingness to communicate is a construct that was established by McCroskey and his associates (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1991; Macintyre, 2007) originally with reference to first language communication.

In first language, McCroskey and his associates conceptualized WTC as the readiness to engage in communication when free to choose to do so. Even though they acknowledged the effect of situational variables on ones' WTC, their conceptualization of **willingness to communicate was essentially as a personality trait**, that is, consistent across various communication contexts and with various interlocutors. Further, the construct in first language focused on one mode of communication, speaking, overlooking other modes of communication such as writing, and listening and reading comprehension.

Much of the subsequent work by McCroskey and his colleagues was then focused on examining the influence of other personality variables such as introversion, self-esteem, anomie, alienation, and communication apprehension, and perceived competence on the degree of WTC (Burgoon, 1976; McCroskey & Richmond, 1991; Richmond, McCroskey, & McCroskey, 1989). Results showed the direct influence of these individual differences on ones' WTC. Many other variables were identified later on, such as the degree of familiarity with the speaker and topic of discussion, the number of people present, and formality of the situation.

2.2.2 Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language

MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, and Noels (1998) argued that change in the language of communication would significantly influence ones' degree of willingness to communicate. In other words, a person's WTC in the second language cannot be predicted from his WTC in the first language. In addition, "L2 use carries a number of intergroup issues, with social and political implications, that are usually irrelevant to L1 use" (MacIntyre et al, 1998, p. 546). Even more, there was found a negative correlation between WTC in the first and second language in beginning language learners (Charos, 1994). Therefore, understanding how WTC functions in a second language has become an important line of research. This started with the work of MacIntyre et al (1998) who reconceptualised **WTC in second language as a personality trait and a situational based construct.**

Observing that some students of advanced linguistics competence avoid entering communication as much as possible and that others of lower linguistic ability are more willing to communicate, MacIntyre et al. (1998) undertook a study to find out what other variables might have an impact on willingness to communicate in a second language. Building on the work by McCroskey and Baer (1985) MacIntyre and his associates came up with a heuristic model demonstrating different linguistic, sociocultural, and psychological factors that come into play and impact language learner's inclination to speak in a second language.

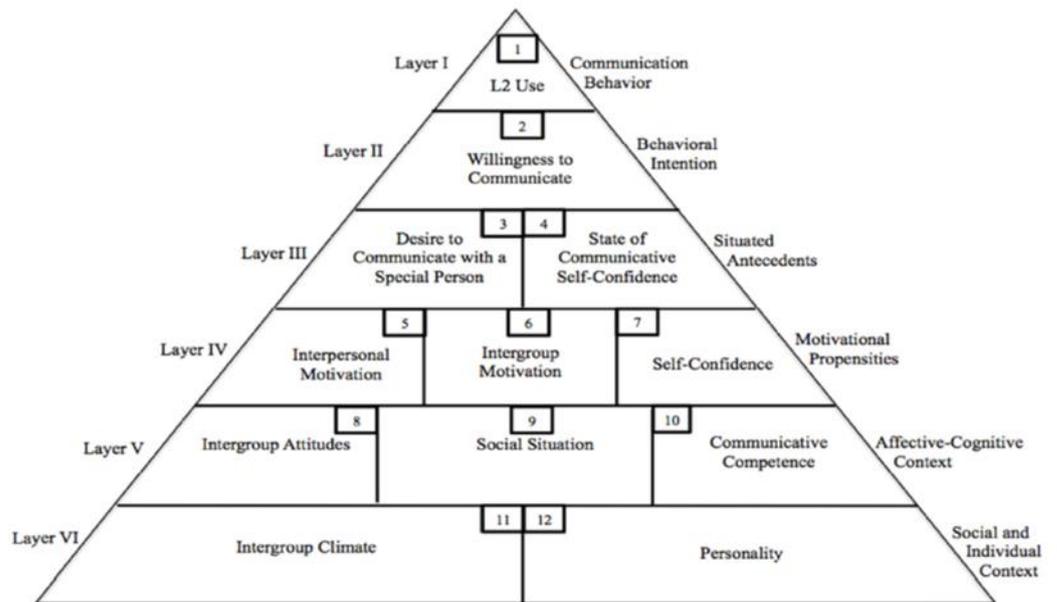


Figure 1 Heuristic Model of Variables influencing WTC (MacIntyre, Clemént, Dörnyei, Kimberly, & Noels, 1998)

As shown in Figure 1, these factors were layered in a pyramid-shaped model and according to a proximal-distal continuum. Each layer “captures the dimensions of time and concept specificity, with a distinctly intergroup flavour” (Macintyre, 2007, p. 567). The first three layers from the bottom (VI, V, and IV) represent personal factors and the top three layers (I, II, and III) comprise situational factors. According to Macintyre (2007), factors included in layer VI which are intergroup climate and personality are the most distal and most enduring. The individual has little control over these factors and their influence in language learning is the least. The next layer V includes intergroup attitudes, social situation, communicative competence. These factors determine the motivation to approach or avoid communication. The last layer of personal factors IV includes interpersonal motivation, which is influenced by the individual’s role in a social group; intergroup motivation, which is determined by belonging to a social group; and self-confidence that stems from the individual’s perceived competence in a second language and lack of language anxiety.

The top three layers (III, II, I) include the situational factors which are most proximal to second language use. At layer III is the desire to communicate with a specific person and state communicative self-confidence. These factors together constitute the behavioural intention and leads to the next layer II, which includes willingness to

communicate (WTC). Willingness to communicate is most immediate factor that determine the individual's initiation or entering communication with a specific person at a specific time when the opportunity arises.

In consistent with Macintyre et al's (1998) conceptualization of **willingness to communicate in a second language as a trait-like and situation-sensitive factor**, Kang (2005) put forward a definition of WTC as "an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and the conversational context, among other potential situational variables" (p. 291). Reconceptualising WTC in the second language as a situational construct was the starting point for numerous subsequent studies investigating different possible venues. In this study, willingness to communicate refers to the participants' engagement in classroom oral discussions taking place during the digital storytelling activity willingly, even if the first language is used. Justification as to why using first language was still regarded an indicative of willingness to communicate inside the classroom is provided in the Discussion Chapter.

For the purpose of this study focus on the following discussion will be on two lines of research; the relationship between WTC in a second language and ones' communicative competence in that language and classroom activities and practices that could have the potential to engender foreign language learners' WTC inside the classroom.

2.2.3 Willingness to Communicate as Indicative of Communicative Competence

An established line of research in willingness to communicate in a second language is the correlation between willingness to communicate and communicative competence (Mahdi, 2014; Merc, 2008; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Turjoman, 2016; Xie, 2011). These studies have been carried out in different contexts and grade levels. Results of these studies revealed that the higher the language learner's willingness to communicate, the higher the level of communicative competence and vice versa. Given this finding, WTC can be a suitable predictor of students' success in language learning (Kim, 2004; Alqahtani, 2015; Baghaei, Dourakhshan, & Salavati, 2012;

Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014). However, high levels of psychological readiness to learn English and use it to communicate with others does not necessarily translate into more communication frequency. Considerable resources pointed out the ambivalence between language students self-reported willingness to communicate and their actual participation in the classroom (Hamouda, 2012; Macintyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011; Xie, 2011). This discrepancy is due to various classroom constructs that come into play and influence students' desire to speak in a foreign language classroom. These classroom constructs include group size (Cao & Philp, 2006; Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, & Abdi, 2014), the topic of discussion (Aubrey, 2011; Kang, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Zarei, Saeidi, & Ahangari, 2019), and error correction (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998; Kang, 2005; Zarei, Saeidi, & Ahangari, 2019; Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, & Abdi, 2014). In the same vein, Kang (2005) postulated that students' sense of security, excitement, and responsibility must be satisfied to facilitate WTC in the EFL classroom. She maintained that these psychological antecedents can be influenced by three situational factors, which are; the topic of discussion, interlocutor, and conversational context. These findings lend more support to the characterisation of WTC in foreign language as both personality trait and situational.

2.2.4 Promoting Willingness to Communicate Inside EFL Classrooms

At the beginning, most of the research in WTC in a second language has been at the theoretical level. Researchers have focused on developing theoretical models, identifying antecedents that might influence WTC, and finding statistical paths between these factors. On the practical level, little attention was paid to studies conducted to measure the potential of a particular intervention or teaching approach to engender students' willingness to communicate. In the recent years, however, much more attention was paid to finding ways to increase language learners' willingness to communicate inside classrooms. Therefore, this study was to further enrich this line of research by examining the effectiveness of digital storytelling activity to engender students' WTC in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. In reviewing the relevant literature, the following parts present the most often examined strategies to facilitate WTC in EFL classrooms.

2.2.4.1 ICT-enhanced activities

ICT-based activities were probably the most frequently examined intervention to increase WTC inside language classrooms (Luo, Lin, Chen, & Fang, 2015; Reinders & Wattana, 2015; Lee & Drajati, 2019; Yeh, Hung, & Hsu, 2017; Ebadi & Ebadijalal, 2020). One of the earliest studies to examine and report a positive effect of ICT on WTC was conducted by Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006), who integrated online written communications into the language instruction to see its effect on students' WTC. The results indicated higher levels of WTC in favor of students using online chatting over students engaging in face-to-face oral communication. Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006) concluded that online spaces minimize the risk of losing face, which makes students more comfortable and willing to participate in discussion.

Experimenting with a different ICT-based tool, Reinders and Wattana (2015) integrated digital video games in an English course taught to EFL undergraduate students. Results showed a significant difference between the amount of interaction during face-to-face communications and digital video games in favor of the latter. During face-to-face interaction, students showed frequent use of their first language and limited discourse functions. To the contrary, analysis of students' interaction through chat and video calls during video game sessions revealed use of the language for a wider range of purposes, such as greetings, directives, self/peer corrections, questions, requests, responses, and humor. This result also indicated that not only the quantity of interaction increased during digital video games, but also the quality of interaction.

More recently, Buckingham and Alpaslan (2017) have investigated the potential to increase EFL willingness to communicate through the use of audio-visual speaking activity. Results showed a significant increase in WTC (assessed through two variables: extension, and response) by the end of the four months experiment. Ultimately, there also was found a significant improvement in the post test speaking test of the participants.

There is a plausible reason underlying the assumption that ICT enhanced language teaching is effective in facilitating WTC inside classrooms. Some of the factors that inhibit EFL students' WTC inside classrooms can be eliminated through the employment of ICT. For example, the use of web sites and applications to practice the

target language puts anxiety at low levels. Anxiety is the factor with the most negative effect on WTC- at low levels. Language learners' willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, Babin & Clément, 1999; Baran-Łucarz, 2014; Manipuspika, 2018). Anxiety results from the fear of making mistakes in front of the others due to language deficiency. ICT assisted activities, moreover, create ample communication opportunities which is crucial for increasing willingness to communicate (Macintyre et al, 1998)

Lee and Drajadi (2020) significantly contribute to research in this regard by developing a new scale of willingness to communicate in a second language in a digital and non-digital EFL contexts. A major limitation in the study concerns the particularity of the participants. Only Indonesian EFL students were recruited for the study. Therefore, robustness of the scale can be enhanced by using it with EFL students from different backgrounds. Lee and Drajadi (2020) maintain that including other types of digital activities and other demographic variables than the ones in the original scale is also needed to further strengthen the scale.

2.2.4.2 Effective teaching strategies

As stressed by Macintyre et al (1998, p.548) "intention must combine with opportunity to produce behavior". In classroom, it is the teacher's responsibility to create this participation opportunity for students. Thus, the amount of time allocated for students' talk should be more than the teacher's (Harmer, 2000; Zhou & Zhou, 2002). Researchers specified ways teachers can follow to make their interaction strategies inside classroom contribute to students' WTC. Of the most important steps suggested by Nazari and Allahyar (2012) are giving students equal participation opportunities, encouraging students' uncontrolled use of language.

Wait time is another effective strategy teachers should follow to increase students' desire to participate (Jackson, 2002; Rowe, 1986; Nazari & Allahyar, 2012). Wait time refers to giving student some time to think and process the question. Increasing wait time to 4 or 5 seconds was effective to make reticent students more willing to interact (Hu, 2004; Thornbury, 1996)

Teaching communicative strategies is a recurrent proposed way to increase students' willingness to communicate in language classrooms. Dörnyei and Thurrell (1994, p. 44) asserted that communicative strategies:

Enhance fluency and add to the efficiency of communication. Knowing such strategies is particularly useful for language learners, who frequently experience such difficulties in conversation, because they provide them with a sense of security in the language by allowing extra time and room to maneuver. (p. 44)

Therefore, researchers have experimented with a number of communicative strategies to examine their potential to increase students' WTC inside classrooms. Adopting Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy, Mirsane and Khabiri (2016), integrated into classroom instruction nine communicative strategies (Circumlocution, appeal for help, approximation, time-stalling devices, message abandonment, confirmation check, comprehension check, clarification request and all-purpose words). A significant increase in WTC was reported in favor of students who used these strategies over those who did not. This result is in consistence with a previous study by Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh (2014) who found that teaching communication strategies such as circumlocution, formulaic sequence, use of fillers, appealing for help, all-purpose words, and approximation made students more willing to communicate in the classroom.

2.3 Intrinsic Motivation

Don Hamachek (1989) defines motivation as the power that energizes and directs us to finding the most appropriate way to achieve our goals. For Brophy (2004), motivation is "the intention of acquiring the knowledge or skills that the activities are intended to develop" (p. 4). Thus, unmotivated person lacks the inner desire to pursue something. Because language learning is a long and often a tedious process, motivation is one of the most discussed topics in second language literature. Learning a new language requires a driving force to embark on and most important to sustain it. This

topic has thus gained a massive coverage resulting in expansive literature with various conceptualizations of motivation and, in turn, proposed motivational strategies.

Of the various motivation theories, the extrinsic/intrinsic distinction of motivation, has recently gained considerable attention. In a broad sense, intrinsically motivated behaviors are those driven by inner power whereas extrinsically motivated behaviors are performed for the sake of external rewards (Dornyei, 1994). Or as simply put by Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura (1989), “When the only reason for doing a thing is to get something outside the activity itself, the motivation is extrinsic..... When a person does something because he or she gets a reward directly from doing the activity itself, rather than because of a reward that comes after, the motivation is intrinsic” (p. 180). That is, an action is done either out of a mere interest and the fun experienced is intrinsically motivated while doing an activity to avoid punishment or get a reward for doing an activity is externally motivated.

Studies show that intrinsic motivation outweighs extrinsic motivation in terms of the desired impact on learners’ language learning outcomes. Taylor, Jungert, Mageau, Schattke, Dedic, Rosenfield, and Koestner (2014) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the relations of different types of motivation to overall academic achievement. The major finding of the study was that intrinsic motivation has the strongest and consistently positive effect on academic achievement. Furthermore, Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) conducted a meta-analysis of 128 studies that examined the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. They concluded that all rewards for engagement, completion, and performance significantly undermined intrinsic motivation.

2.3.1 Intrinsic Motivation in Self-determination Theory

The leading self-determination theory, originated by Deci and Ryan (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985, 1991), added a great contribution to intrinsic motivation scholarship. This theory, contrary to behaviorist model of motivation, adopts a dialectic view and explains motivation as “interaction between an active, integrating human nature and social contexts that either nurture or impede the organism’s active nature” (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 6). Self-determination theory believes that people are created with a tendency to discover, and that surroundings could either facilitate or

thwart that natural tendency. Therefore, activities that “individuals find interesting and would do in the absence of operationally separable consequences” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 233) are considered intrinsically motivating and, thus, are most likely to persist.

Self-determination theory, nonetheless, is far less discussed in second language learning compared to fields of parenting, sport, and stream education. One of the earliest studies that aimed to extend self-determination theory into foreign language learning was by Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand (2000). Noels and her colleagues’ study assessed the validity and reliability of a scale of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of self-determination theory for second language learning. The study also examined the relations between these types of motivation and orientations of second language learning such as travel, friendship, knowledge, and instrumental orientations, that were identified by Clément and Kruidenier (1983). The results found the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, of self-determination theory is valid in assessing second language learners’ motivation. The results also found a strong correlation between extrinsic motivation and instrumental orientations, and between intrinsic motivation and orientations of travel, friendship, and knowledge.

In describing intrinsic motivation, Ryan (2000) has referred to the factors necessary for its promotion, “perhaps no single phenomenon reflects the positive potential of human nature as much as intrinsic motivation, the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to learn” (p. 70). The factors necessary for promoting intrinsic motivation are the three basic psychological needs, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The following section will elaborate on each of these needs. The discussion will then proceed to presenting some of the teaching strategies or classroom activities that proved effective in promoting language learners’ intrinsic motivation.

2.3.1.1 Autonomy

Autonomy is one of the most widely used concept in education. It has been discussed from varying viewpoints and thus has been defined in various ways. Holec (1981, p. 3), for example, gave the earliest definition of autonomy as “the ability to take charge of ...[his or her] learning”. According to Little (1991, p. 81), autonomy is represented in behaviors like “capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and

independent action.” In self-determination theory, autonomous behaviors have an internal perceived locus of causality (deCharms, 1968), and are driven by interest or personal importance. To the contrary of autonomous behaviors are controlled behaviors, which have an external perceived locus of causality and are performed for external (Ryan, 1982).

A wealth of studies supports the significance of autonomy for students’ intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Grolnick, 1986; Deci et al., 1999; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Of the earliest studies to examine this relationship in classroom was Deci, Nezlek and Sheinman’s (1981). They found that students whose teachers were autonomy-supporting were more intrinsically motivated and had higher self-esteem. On the other hand, students were less intrinsically motivated when teachers were control oriented. Similarly, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) stated that autonomy can be fostered when teachers allow students to take initiative, make decisions, solve their own problems, and control much of their learning, or at least, are given explanation for obligation to do certain things. Noels, Clément, and Pelletier (2002) examined the relationship between language learners’ intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and their teachers’ communicative style and reported that the more controlling the teacher was the less intrinsically motivated the students were.

More important, activities need to be interesting to the students, so they seek these activities freely. Based on considerable research, Deci (1992) suggested two characteristics in an activity to be interesting to people: optimal challenge and novelty. People tend to freely seek activities that demand employment of cognitive skills or capabilities not experienced before.

2.3.1.2 Competence

In self-determination theory, competence is **one’s felt sense of effectance and capability to achieve (Ryan & Deci, 2002)**. They maintain that competence is thus not an attained skill or capability and that people’s need to feel competent is what drive them to seek optimally challenging activities.

Therefore, an effective way to promote students’ competence in educational settings is by providing them with optimally challenging activities. **Too hard activities make students give up and feel worthless, and too easy activities do not expand current**

knowledge (Alm, 2006). Or as Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura (1989) put it, “If the person sees the challenges as much greater than her skills, then the experience will be characterized by feelings of anxiety. If the challenges are considerably less than the person’s skills, the feeling will be that of boredom. When challenges and skills are equal, then the intrinsically rewarding flow experience is present”. (p. 184). The importance of presenting students with optimal challenges to construct knowledge is also central in Vygotsky’s (1978) zone of proximal development theory. The theory equally emphasizes the role of the teacher or more capable peers to assist during challenges.

Research shows that positive feedback is an effective way to enhance one’s competence (Joe, Hiver, & Al-Hoorie, 2017) and that negative feedback diminishes it. Of the earliest and huge studies to examine the effect of positive feedback on intrinsic motivation was Deci, Koestner, and Ryan’s (1999) meta-analysis study. One of the major findings in the study was that positive feedback enhanced both free-choice behavior and self-reported interest.

Dornyei (2007) also put emphasis on the role of feedback on students’ intrinsic motivation. He maintains that feedback should have three characteristics to be constructive. Primarily, it should be of a gratifying nature by offering compliments constantly. It should then be used to promote self-confidence in students by communicating encouragement and approval of work. In addition, feedback should be informative by indicating areas in students’ learning that need more improvement. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), moreover, highlighted that role of effective praise, which encourages effort and values achievement, in motivating students.

However, competence cannot be satisfied, even if the above-mentioned conditions of optimal challenge and positive feedback characterized an activity, if the person was forced to do this activity, as noted by Deci (2017). Therefore, satisfaction of competence is bound by the satisfaction of the need for autonomy.

2.3.1.3 Relatedness

Relatedness refers to one’s felt sense of connectedness with other individuals and the community, to care for others and being cared for (Ryan & Deci, 2002). They maintain that need for relatedness is not sought for external outcomes, rather, to satisfy a

psychological sense of belonging to a secure community. Self-determination theory posits that intrinsic motivation is promoted where one's sense of belonging and relatedness is satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It, moreover, emphasizes that autonomy support and relatedness is equally important for cognitive and affective outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Powelson, 1991).

In educational settings, relatedness involves students' relationship with their peers and the teacher. Among students, the need for relatedness is expected to be promoted through cooperative learning which assigns students a cooperative goal (Dörnyei, 2001; Jacobs & Goh 2007; Kagan & Kagan, 2009). In this situation, students realize that the contribution of each student is central to the achievement of the goal. This creates in students a sense of shared interest and being valuable, which promotes intrinsic motivation.

Considerable research supports the role of cooperative learning to promote students' intrinsic motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Hänze, & Berger, 2007). Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) argued that cooperation toward common goals is the most influential way to strengthen relationship between students. They suggested shared group history, the rewarding nature of group activities, and intergroup competition among other effective methods to foster intergroup relationships.

Moreover, the teacher plays a pivotal role in promoting relatedness. Considerable research contends that classroom social climate including teacher academic support, teacher emotional support, and classroom mutual respect promotes students' need for relatedness (Joe, Hiver, and Al-Hoorie, 2017; Patrick, Ryan, & Kaplan, 2007). The importance of support from the teacher is equally emphasized in **Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development theory.**

All in all, increasing evidence from findings of educational research indicates the relevance and significance of autonomy, competence, and relatedness on the success of students (Filak & Sheldon, 2003; King, 2002; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000). **The importance of satisfying these needs in students is well-established in prior theories. Piaget's Developmental theory (1932), for instance, believed autonomy arises from "free decision" which is in line with the self-determination theory conceptualization of autonomy.** In addition, Krashen's (1985) concept of input +1 postulates that instruction needs to be beyond the current state of knowledge of the

students, which echoes self-determination theory idea of satisfying students' need for competence by presenting them with optimally challenging activities. Finally, the need for relatedness in self-determination theory endorses Vygotsky's (1978) theory of constructivism, which stresses that learning occurs through social interaction.

2.3.2 Promoting Intrinsic Motivation in English language classrooms

The previous section discussed how intrinsic motivation is essential to educational success and is nurtured when the learning environment stimulates students to overcome optimal challenges autonomously (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Therefore, much research has been done to find teaching approaches and classroom activities that can promote intrinsic motivation.

2.3.2.1 ICT-enhanced activities

Practically, an established line of investigation has been focusing on the impact of integrating ICT on EFL learners' intrinsic motivation. The general notion argues for the potential of ICT-enhanced learning to facilitate intrinsic motivation through the satisfaction of the three basic needs, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Koh, 2016).

Alm (2006), for example, argued that computer-assisted language learning has greater potential to nurture the three basic needs of language learners. Using a wide variety of Web 2.0 applications (such as, a website, a video clip recorder, Wikipedia, a TV online recorder, a class blog, Wiki, iMovie, and YouTube), he involved 17 intermediate German language learners in, first, watching, reading information about, and discussing a unit topic and, next, producing a video clip on that topic. In adopting ICT-based language learning, Alm (2006) observed that the three needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness were satisfied. Completion of the final product gave students a feeling of achievement, which enhanced their need to feel competent. As for autonomy, it was much promoted through the different stages of the project that required students to make many decisions from the choosing of the topic of their produced video to the editing phase before sharing online. Relatedness was an important aspect of the experience and was supported through engaging students to working towards the same goal.

Even though these needs can be met in the absence of any form of ICT, integrating some forms of ICT can amplify the outcomes (Alm, 2006). That is, conventional language classrooms tend to be teacher-centered and learners have less control over the learning process. Such controlling environments are not ideal for promoting autonomy. When learners use digital tools, however, they have more responsibilities, more problems to solve, and decisions to make individually, which enhances autonomy (Schwienhorst, 2012). Concerning relatedness in language classrooms, it should be established between the learners and their teacher and classmates, and between the learners and the language speakers. In EFL contexts, interacting with the speakers of the target language to practice is not readily available, but instantly possible with digital tools such as texting, emails, video and audio calls. Search engines make the task of the teacher to find optimally challenging activities to promote students' competence more easier and choices are abundant. Many studies reported a positive effect of ICT-enhanced language learning on language development, particularly linguistic competence (Ahmad, 2016) intercultural competence (Chen & Yang, 2014). Competence is also promoted with positive and constructive feedback. Online platforms such as Wikis, instant messaging, vlogs, and blogs enable students from receiving continuous feedback and even from the target language speakers (Alm, 2006).

Another study by Hafner and Miller (2011) showed the positive impact of ICT on language learners' intrinsic motivation, specifically their need for autonomy. A group of 67 Chinese university students were required to produce digital stories as part of an 'English for Science and Technology' course. Data were collected from a questionnaire, focus-group interviews, and Weblog comments over a period of 13 weeks. Apart from the linguistic benefit, the digital storytelling project was reported as an intrinsically motivating activity for its fun and challenging characteristics. As discussed earlier, when people enjoy doing an activity in the absence of other external rewards, they are intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Promoting one's feeling of competence is crucial to nurture their intrinsic motivation, which can be satisfied when completing a challenging activity. Another important finding of the study was the project's enhancement of autonomous learning was represented in students' making responsible decisions and working independently on the project from the early stages of searching for information to editing the video.

2.3.2.2 Effective teaching strategies

In a similar vein, Dornyei (2007) overviewed characteristics of a motivating classroom environment as presented in different lines of research, educational psychology, educational, social psychology, and motivational psychology research. He argues that a great deal of the effort required for creating a motivating classroom depends on the teaching practice. A motivational teaching practice should, according to Dornyei (2007), generate initial motivation through some practices, such as, making the learning materials relevant and creating positive values about language learning; maintaining and protecting motivation by way of enhancing the learner's confidence and autonomy, and making learning enjoyably; and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation which can be achieved by the means of giving students positive feedback, and more important, helping students evaluate their past successes and failures constructively.

2.3.3 Indications of intrinsic motivation

Intrinsically motivated behavior can be identified through, among others, task interest (Reeve & Nix, 1997; Harackiewicz, Sansone, & Manderlink, 1985; Brophy, 1983; Mitchell, 1993; Schiefele, 1991; Schraw, Brunning & Svoboda, 1995; Stipek, 1996; Tobias, 1994), and task persistence (Reeve & Nix, 1997; Li, Lee & Solmon, 2008; Simon, Aulls, Dedic, Hubbard & Hall, 2015; Lucey, 2018). As for interest, it is the major sign of intrinsically motivated behaviors (Reeve & Nix, 1997) and it can be indicated by involvement, enjoyment, concentration, and activation (Weber, 2003). In self-determination theory, doing an activity out of interest without the fear of external punishments or desire for rewards reflects intrinsic motivation in its purest form. Many earlier studies hypothesized there is a relationship between interest and motivation (Brophy, 1983; Mitchell, 1993; Schiefele, 1991; Schraw, Brunning & Svoboda, 1995; Stipek, 1996; Tobias, 1994). Weber (2003), however, experimentally measured and proved that interest is significantly related to intrinsic motivation. He maintained that students of high interest achieve deeper learning.

Discussion of interest as the most significant indicator of intrinsic motivation leads up to identifying another behavioral sign of intrinsic motivation, which is persistence. Self-determination theory posits that intrinsically motivated behaviors are more likely

to persist (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which makes task persistence one of the major indicators of intrinsic motivation. Therefore, when students freely choose to do a task and their doing of this task become regular, it is indicative of their intrinsic motivation. Many studies highlighted the importance of promoting students' motivation to enhance their academic achievement and persistence (Li, Lee & Solmon, 2008; Simon, Aulls, Dedic, Hubbard & Hall, 2015; Lucey, 2018). Hence, motivated learners tend to have a deeper learning and higher academic achievement compared to unmotivated learners due to their longer engagement and concentration on the topic or the activity.

2.4 Digital Storytelling

The following discussion will delve into the digital storytelling literature with concentration on three main areas: 1) the emergence of the digital storytelling concept, along with its definitions and elements; 2) the integration of digital storytelling into the educational context, and 3), the effectiveness of digital storytelling in English language teaching and learning. The section ends with a rationale for proposing digital storytelling activity to address the problem of this study, which is students' reticence in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

2.4.1 What is Digital Storytelling?

The origin of the digital storytelling concept was a movement adopted by three names; Dana Atchley (1941-2000), whose role was integral in developing the art of digital storytelling, in the belief in the right of everyday people to tell their own stories, and Joe Lambert and Patrick Milligan, who advocated for the right of people who are not well versed in technology to tell their stories using easy-to-use technology. Driven by this belief, StoryCenter, formerly the Centre for Digital storytelling, (<https://www.storycenter.org/>) was established in the early 90s to spread the concept. To achieve the goal behind establishing the center, numerous workshops and training was held for individuals interested in using this innovative tool in their work. A number of universities had partnered with the StoryCentre to coach their instructors and many have integrated digital stories into their curricular.

Pertinent literature presents various, yet similar, definitions of educational digital storytelling. Robin (2006), for example, defined digital storytelling as the use of

multimedia tools to tell a story about a specific topic, and it is usually a few minutes long. Malita and Martin (2010) defined digital storytelling as a combination of technology and the old art of narratives. Alexander and Levine (2008, p. 40) pointed out that with the use of digital tools, stories have become “open-ended, branching, hyperlinked, cross-media, participatory, explanatory, and unpredictable”. Obviously, technology has given a new pulse to the traditional art of telling a story. The previous definitions introduced some of the elements of digital stories. In the context of this study, digital storytelling activity is defined as a pedagogical method that engages EFL students in a collaborative crafting of a digital story for the purpose of creating a more participatory classroom.

2.4.2 What Makes a Good Digital Story?

To achieve its utmost impact, the StoryCenter outlined some elements that need to be considered when creating a digital story. It emphasizes that a good digital story needs to convey one’s personal viewpoint. A good digital story should also attract the attention of the audience from the outset of the story by posing a dramatic question. Moreover, what differentiates a digital storytelling from a PowerPoint presentation is the emotional dimension and the ability to convey it to the audience. Another important element to amplify the effect is that the story should relate to the teller’s personal experience. Concerning the digital aspect, the choice of a suitable soundtrack is key in delivering the meaning of the teller. Also, the use of multimedia should be and limited to what is deemed needed to create a desired effect. Nonetheless, the fulfillment of the previous points will not ensure a good story if the incidents of the story did not unfold at a proper pacing.

Similar characteristics were suggested by Lambert (2013), who preferred to refer to them as steps because he views the process of storytelling as a journey. He stated that story should commence by identifying and clarifying what story will be told and for what purpose. The next major step lies in carefully reflecting emotion during each phase in a way that ensure the audience are emotionally provoked. Equivalent to the element suggested by StoryCenter of posing a dramatic question, Lambert emphasized the need for a dramatic turn that makes the listeners yearn for the next. Like the StoryCenter, Lambert also put emphasis on the choice of pictures that best convey the meaning and leave an impression. Equally important is the use of the teller’s voice

along with appropriate sound effects reflective of the state of the feeling intended for each segment of the story. The final step before sharing the story is skillfully weaving the visuals and sound effects taking into consideration the pacing at which the story should unfold. The proper integration of these elements can yield an impressive influence on the receptor.

2.4.3 Educational Uses of Digital Storytelling

Since the emergence of digital storytelling, extensive research has been done to evaluate its educational implications for students (Robin, 2008; Sadik, 2008; Yuskel, Robin & McNeil, 2011). According to Robin (2006), in educational settings, stories are created either by teachers as an instructional tool or by students as a learning activity. In the latter instance, advantages are even greater. Also, digital stories can be personal, which evolves around someone's own experiences; historic, which is a recount of historic and past events; or structured, which is told for a specific purpose and audience (Robin, 2006). A recent study by Wu and Chen (2020) reviewed literature on educational digital storytelling and pointed out that it was often used as a standalone strategy and sometimes it was accompanied by other teaching strategies.

Abundant research reports on the impact of digital storytelling on various aspects of students' learning. To mention a few, Harji (2017) found that at the end of a 16 weeks digital storytelling project, EFL students were able to produce more accurate, fluent, and complex language outputs. **Bumgarner (2012) concluded that use of digital storytelling to teach a secondary-level language art facilitated differentiated learning, learning motivation, and personalized experience.**

Porter (2005) emphasized the potential of digital storytelling to enhance the 21st century skills. These skills are a set of competencies students need to master in order to succeed in the digital age, such as creative thinking, multiple intelligences, higher-order thinking, information literacy, visual literacy, sound literacy, technical literacy, effective communication, teamwork and collaboration, and project management, which many recent studies have corroborated (Aktas & Yurt, 2017; Kalyaniwala-Thapliyal, 2016; Pardo, 2014). An increase in students' motivation and level of engagement in the classroom is one of the most reported benefits of digital storytelling (Aktas & Yurt, 2017; Brenner, 2014). Wu and Chen (2020) reviewed educational

storytelling studies and summarized the outcomes as affective, cognitive, conceptual, academic, technological, linguistic, ontological, and social.

The effectiveness of digital storytelling in classrooms can be due to its combining of two powerful components: storytelling (Alterio & McDrury, 2003; Ohler, 2013; Alterio, 2002) and ICT (Lindquist, Denning, Kelly, Malani, Griswold & Simon, 2007), both of which have an established literature base highlighting its positive influence on the learning process. Barrett (2006) maintained that effectiveness of digital storytelling activity comes from its involvement of various learning strategies, such as students' engagement, reflection for deep learning, project-based learning, and ICT integration. In Signes' (2008) view, digital storytelling is the most effective ICT-based tool because it is a flexible, creative, innovative, and motivating instructional method. More importantly, digital storytelling shifts the learning mode from teacher-centered to student-centered, which is the key to the students' achievement, which, in turn, provided a meaningful experience and an opportunity to be heard according to Hafner and Miller (2011) and Matilda and Martin (2010). The affordance and ease of use of the software needed to create and present digital stories is another essential reason for the prevalence of this activity in classrooms (Smed, Dakich, & Sharda, 2010; Yuksel, Robin, & McNeil, 2011).

2.4.4 Challenges of Integrating Digital Storytelling into Classrooms

As with any other strategy, there are some issues related to the integration of digital storytelling into classroom instruction. These issues can face teachers and students alike. From teachers' viewpoint, there are many hindrances to the effective integration of digital storytelling and, hence, positive effect. Primarily, technological related problems such as lack of necessary software and incompatibility with the operating system, and internet connection are the most disturbing (Çelik & Aytin, 2014; Clarke & Adam, 2012; Harju, Viitanen, & Vivitsou, 2014; Lowenthal, 2009; Thang, Lin, Mahmud, Ismail, and Zabidi, 2014). In fact, this issue is brought up in any information and communication technology enhanced learning.

Another frequently mentioned drawback of using digital storytelling concerns classroom management. As explained by some teachers in Çelik and Aytin's (2014)

study, the use of ICT can easily shift students' attention, which leads to another challenge, time management (Clarke & Adam, 2012; Lowenthal, 2009). The process of creating a good digital story can take many hours. Thus, teachers should carefully plan for each phase and its allotted time. Teachers should also consider their students' digital literacy ahead of commencing the project to get the most of this experience.

From the students' perspective, there are some challenges to the effective implementation of the digital storytelling activity. For example, anxiety and fear of uptake of a new form of ICT was a main hurdle (Gobel & Kano, 2017; LaFrance & Blizzard, 2013). In a recent study by Al khateeb (2019) on the benefits and challenges Saudi students faced when using digital storytelling in their English learning, they identified four challenges; extended time needed to accomplish the activity, especially if it was collaborative; effort needed to deal with collaborators of different attitudes and perspectives; some students' tendency to individual work; and poor digital competence.

Nonetheless, literature shows that presenting students with optimally challenging activity is necessary to enhance their intrinsic motivation through satisfaction of their need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Besides, integration of a new form of ICT can be an effective way to unlock students' digital potentials. However, when planning for the activity, students' level of technological competence should be considered to maximize the benefits of the activity. With EFL students, level of language proficiency is an additional consideration.

2.4.5 Digital Storytelling in EFL Classrooms

The positive outcomes of digital storytelling in mainstream classes have prompted researchers in the field of second language learning to see if similar positive effects can be achieved in language classrooms. They have been investigating the potential of this activity to enhance various aspects of language learners, specifically their motivation, language and digital proficiency, and different learning skills. Thus, there has been a well-established literature for the practice of digital storytelling in second/foreign language classes (Kim & Lee, 2018).

One of the most researched and reported benefits of digital storytelling in EFL classrooms is its positive impact on students' motivation and level of engagement

inside the classroom. Different explanations were given for this positive effect. Aktas and Yurt (2017) for example found students who used digital storytelling were more motivated compared to those learning English through the traditional curriculum. They attributed this positive effect to students' creation of a new product. A similar effect was reported by Liu, Tai, and Liu (2018) and explained by digital storytelling being a reflective learning. A recent longitudinal study by Liu, Yang, & Chao (2019) revealed an increase of motivation of English learners who engaged in a two year collaborative digital storytelling due to students' feeling of accomplishment, cognitive, and social support from collaborators.

Combining the positive impact of ICT and storytelling on language learners' communicative competence was made possible through the recent advent of digital storytelling activities. An increasing number of studies indicate a big, noticeable improvement in language learners' communicative competence when digital storytelling is used (Harji, 2017; Abdelmageed and El-Naggar, 2018; BavaHarji, Gheitanchian, & Letchumanan, 2014; Rahimi, 2019; Cigerci & Gultekin, 2017; Hu, Oslick, & Wake, 2017). There is a considerable research to support this effect. For example, Harji (2017) found that at the end of a 16 weeks digital storytelling project, EFL students were able to produce more accurate, fluent, and complex language outputs. A similar finding was presented by Kimura (2010), who added that digital storytelling has improved oral aspects, such as pacing, expression and volume, phrasing, and smoothness. Digital storytelling activity creates more chances for EFL students to practice the target language through the students' rehearsal of the text before the recording. Abdelmageed and El-Naggar (2018) and BavaHarji, Gheitanchian, and Letchumanan (2014) also reported an improvement in three aspects of the language learners' oral communicative competence as a result of their participation in different multimedia-based tasks: accuracy, fluency and complexity.

Pardo (2014) noticed that students exert much effort in this phase knowing their stories will be publicly displayed in front of the classroom or online. When designed as a collaborative task, chances to enhance communicative competence are even greater (Nishioka, 2016; Chao & Hung, 2014, Hafner & Miller, 2011). Language learners engage in long discussions during each stage of the production and jointly construct knowledge about the target language. This explanation can be supported by the theory of collaborative dialogue (Swain, 1997; Swain, 2000). Swain (1997) and Swain (2000)

define collaborative dialogue as peer-to-peer dialogue which gives language learners opportunity to solve l. In discussion of collaborative digital storytelling activities and target language development, it is important to note that some studies reported that first language was used and was identified as a positive strategy (Nishioka, 2016).

Because creating a good digital story depends mainly on a well-written story, the writing quality of EFL students is expected to improve. Rahimi (2019) considered digital storytelling activities a compelling method to begin writing in a non-native language because of the use of attractive multimedia elements such as text, photos, video and audio. Many studies have focused on examining this hypothesis and positive findings were reported accordingly (Akhyak & Anik, 2013; Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017; Yamaç & Ulusoy, 2017; Abdolmanafi-Rokni & Qarajeh (2014). When designed as a collaborative activity, Rahimi and Yadollahi (2017) found that EFL students' writing skill improved due to the peer feedback. Similar finding was reported by Nassaji and Tian (2010). They concluded that EFL students' writing, grammatical accuracy in particular, was higher in collaborative digital storytelling group than individual storytelling group.

This finding can be explained by the “numerous opportunities to interact and use language in authentic and personally meaningful ways” (Rance-Roney, 2008, p. 30). However, this reason can hold true to traditional storytelling, and yet, experimental studies report significant improvement in favor of students using digital storytelling to those using traditional storytelling. In this case, ICT is to account for this finding through its enormous motivational characteristics mentioned elsewhere in this chapter.

Studies on the impact of digital storytelling on EFL students' receptive skills are less than those focused on productive skills. However, considerable improvement in the reading and listening skills of EFL learners where digital storytelling is integrated are reported. While the majority of studies investigating the effect of digital storytelling on oral proficiency focused on adults, most of the studies on the effect of digital stories on receptive skills were performed with younger students. As for listening, researchers reported significant improvement in listening comprehension of students learning English through digital stories (Cigerci & Gultekin, 2017; Hu, Oslick, & Wake, 2017). Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi, Souriyavongsa, Tiang, and Kim (2011), who found a similar finding, attribute this improvement to digital stories' interactive and attractive

that promotes children's concentration, and internalization of the oral input; and the extended exposure to the target language through the possibility of playing and listening to the story multiple times. Likewise, several researchers, such as Morgan (2014) and Dawson (2018) found digital storytelling effective in promoting EFL students' reading abilities which is thought to be due to the students' motivation for reading visual rather than textual script (Leach, 2001).

These studies on the effect of digital storytelling on English language learners informed the conduct of this study. Factors that were reported to maximize the effectiveness of the activity were incorporated and factors that hindered its effectiveness were eliminated. To achieve optimal benefits, the activity was designed as collaborative, topics were chosen by the students, occasional use of first language was permitted, easy-to-use software was chosen, and sufficient guidance was given.

Likewise, based on these studies, many hinderances were avoided. For example, the sample size of the study is small, and the activity is extracurricular because previous studies described it as time consuming. Sites of loyalty-free materials were also prepared to save time and avoid breaching copyright.

However, certain areas were still under researched and need further exploration. Primarily, despite the much-researched effect of digital storytelling on EFL students' motivation, motivation was rarely understood as storytelling on EFL learners' motivation, self-determination theory was rarely used to guide the understanding of learners' motivation. The effect of the digital storytelling activity on willingness to communicate in English was also limited to ESL contexts, which difference from EFL contexts are well-acknowledged.

2.4.6 Compatibility of digital storytelling with the communicate approach.

This thesis proposed using digital storytelling to facilitate oral participation in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The first reason connects to the perceived reason for students' reticence in English language classrooms in Saudi Arabia, which is the heavy reliance on grammar-translation method. This approach is teacher-centred, form focused, and offers students limited opportunities for decontextualized language output. Current second language pedagogy urges for shift from grammar-translation

approach to communicative language teaching approach (CLT) which creates ample opportunities for language learners to engage in authentic, meaningful communication. Li and Liu (2011) claimed that other than psychological and personality related causes of reticence, communicative language teaching could be the most effective way to get reticent students to speak because this approach focuses on communication rather than memorization and values personal experiences and considers these integral components of the learning materials. Integrating digital storytelling into EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia facilitates this shift because it provides English language teachers with a classroom activity that meets the principles of effective communicative language teaching approach.

Particularly, it relies on authentic materials by way of having the students to tell their own stories and experience; it offers abundant opportunities for the students to interact through the target language and it involves steps that are usually executed or completed outside the classroom thus being a good way to keep the students surrounded by the target language for a longer time. Similarly, digital storytelling, when assessed against Brown's (2000) characterization of an effective CLT approach is, in fact, a good fit. It is a student-centred activity in which the teacher plays the role of a facilitator; it focuses on the linguistic, strategic, sociolinguistic, and functional aspects of communicative competence; and it depends on the students' own personal stories, which makes learning more meaningful.

Moreover, Littlewood (1981) distinguished two types of classroom activities in communicative language teaching approach: functional communication activities and social interaction activities. The latter type, which is social interaction activities require conversation and discussion sessions, negotiation, and role-playing. In creating a digital story, students engage in prolonged discussion sessions throughout the activity, but specifically during the preparation and production stages. Digital storytelling can also be designed as a collaborative task and this is how it is most often used in language classrooms. Collaboration is favourable in CLT and it facilitates spontaneous and frequent communication between the students.

Digital storytelling is also aligned with the communicative approach because it is a task-based activity. Heng (2013) stated that a good communicative classroom activity "asks students to do a task, gather information from a partner, or express an opinion

about an engaging topic” (p. 375). In creating a digital story students are required to perform a variety of tasks such as coming up with a story topic, gathering information, and writing up a story in the preparation stage. In the next stage of production, they also search for suitable media elements, record their stories, and last create the video.

This study attempts to build on this proposition and evaluate the effect of digital storytelling on two variables with a strong and direct effect on frequent language use, thus, less reticence. These variables are willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation.

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter started with section 1 which has discussed the concept of communicative competence as the goal of addressing the problem in question. Discussion included a review of the four aspects of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence. It proceeded to present the communicative language teaching approach, its principles, and ways to promote it.

Section 2 moved on to discuss the second area of investigation in the study which is the construct of willingness to communicate in a second language. It started with an overview of the roots of the construct in the first language and its introduction to second language research. As this study approaches its problem from a pedagogical perspective, literature on classroom practices used to engender EFL students’ willingness to communicate in classroom was reviewed.

Section 3 focused on the second area of investigation in the study which is intrinsic motivation. It included an overview of intrinsic motivation as conceptualized in self-determination theory and ways to promote intrinsic motivation in EFL students inside classroom.

Section 4 focused on digital storytelling as the activity that was proposed to address the problem of reticence among EFL students in classrooms. It started with a

reiteration of the rationale for the proposition of this activity. It then proceeded to introduce the concept of digital storytelling and how it was defined in the context of this study. Its benefits in English language teaching/learning as well as reported obstacles by teachers and students were provided. Next, literature on the effect of digital storytelling on communicative competence, willingness to communicate, and intrinsic motivation was presented.

Chapter 3. Research Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate the suitability of the adopted methodology to address the following research questions:

1. What is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate in a Saudi EFL classroom?
2. What is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation in a Saudi EFL classroom?
3. What aspects of communicative competence does digital storytelling enhance the most, as perceived by the participants?

It was intended to accomplish this by discussing, in detail, each aspect of the study that has an effect on the findings, starting with the philosophical views underpinning the conduct of the study; progressing to a description of the process of data collection; and concluding with the actual strategies implemented into the study to ensure it has been conducted ethically.

This chapter will present information in four major sections, and several sub-sections. The first section starts with an overview of the prevalent educational research philosophies and concludes with a situation of this study within one of these paradigms based on the philosophical orientations held by the researcher. Then follows a specification of the research design this study has incorporated along with an overview of the aspects of this design in light of the work of its prominent methodologists. The section will conclude with a rationale for the selection of this design to achieve the objectives of this study. Section 3 focuses on data collection procedure, which includes research setting, participants, data collection instruments, and data analysis. The chapter ends with a discussion of key components of any research study: its validity, credibility, and ethics.

3.1 Research Philosophy

This section describes the philosophical aspect of this study which is the basis that led to its establishment and development. The first part will commence with an overview of major educational research paradigms, which includes a brief explanation of the ontological, epistemological, and methodological view of each research paradigm, and concludes with a situation of this research study within one of these worldwide views. The discussion narrows down in the next part to specify the research design this study has incorporated. A brief account of case study design in light of the work of its seminal methodologists is presented. A discussion of the rationale behind the selection of the case study design as the most suitable approach to conduct the current research problem is then presented.

However, it is of specific importance to note beforehand that there is no consensus among scholars about research philosophies, approaches, and fields of study and subjects, or the so called “Paradigms Wars”, as Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) put it. The dispute extends to encompass the use of different terminologies and classifications of research paradigms depending on the relevant discipline (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). That considered, the discussion to follow does not claim to represent neither the sole nor the right evaluation. Rather, it reflects the understanding of the researcher building on the pertinent literature of research philosophies and methodologies presented in the disciplines of educational and social science.

3.2 Research paradigm

A paradigm, according to Bryman (2004), is “a cluster of beliefs and dictates which, for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done [and] how results should be interpreted” (p. 453). According to Guba (1981), a research paradigm can be characterised through its ontology, epistemology, and methodology. The following discussion will proceed to give an account of the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions underlying the common educational research paradigms. The section ends with an explicit account of the views held by the researcher which led to the position of this study under a specific paradigm. In doing so, the reader will be able to understand the basis behind the

decisions made throughout the study and will be able to evaluate the suitability and robustness of the adopted methodology.

The first component of a research paradigm is ontology, which is the study of being (Crotty, 1989). That is, the researchers' belief about the nature of reality represents their ontological stance, which subsequently determines the approach to construct knowledge about this reality; epistemology, and the approach to generate valid data-methodology. Hence, researchers in their ontological positions can be positivists, **interpretivist**, or pragmatists. Positivists are at one end of the continuum where reality is conceived as external and independent, while on the other side of the continuum are interpretivists who believe in the existence of multiple realities and, therefore, accept different interpretations of experiences (Dudovskiy, 2016). Pragmatists, however, do not lend themselves to any of these assumptions about reality (Scotland, 2012). That is, beliefs do not dictate their approach to the problem; rather, the nature and purpose of the research questions justify the use of any approaches (Creswell, 2014).

Next is epistemology which is concerned with "the very basis of knowledge; its nature and forms, how it can be acquired and communicated to other human beings" (Cohen et al., 2007, p.7). As mentioned previously, the kind of epistemology is determined by the ontological stance held by the researcher. For example, researchers who are driven by the positivist view believe that knowledge is objective and external to them; therefore, they maintain minimal interaction with the individuals involved in the study (Wilson, 2010). Positivists believe knowledge about a phenomenon can only be gained through measurable facts.

On the other hand, constructivists believe that knowledge is subjective and internal to the researcher; therefore, it can only be constructed through social interactions with individuals about their perspectives and viewpoints (Dudovskiy, 2016). Thus, while positivism is a perfect fit for natural science research, interpretivist is the best alternative in the study of human behaviour owing to the inadequacy of the quantitative approach to capture intangible meanings and concepts (Cohen et al., 2007).

Pragmatists, however, take a standpoint that "knowledge is not about an abstract relationship between the knower and the known" (Morgan, 2014, p. 5). Rather, their focus is on what the problem is and how to solve it regardless of the assumptions about the nature of reality.

Methodology refers to “the general research strategy that outlines the way in which research is to be undertaken” (Howell, 2013). As such, methodology is determined by the kind of ontological and epistemological philosophy held by the researcher and, in turn, determined by the research questions and objectives, and justifies the use of methods and approaches. Allan and Randy (2005) emphasised that the chosen methodology should be the most appropriate way to address the questions of the study and will allow it to be replicated by other researchers doing a research of the same nature. As the difference was made clear between positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism paradigms in relation to the ontological and epistemological views, there is a difference between these paradigms in terms of methodology. Primarily, positivists use quantitative approaches such as experiments and quasi-experiments to gather measurable and quantifiable data, whereas interpretivism rely mainly on qualitative approaches that probe the participants' account of a particular phenomenon. In between are pragmatists who use a combination of any quantitative and qualitative data collection methods as long as they best meet their needs.

After presenting the differing research philosophies and their impact on the way inquiry is designed, this section will conclude with a brief description of the **researcher's philosophical stance** and how it influenced the way this study was conducted.

3.2.1 Philosophical assumptions underpinning this study

The nature of the problem in this study and the objectives it sought to achieve influenced the ontological and epistemological stance of the researcher and what kind of methodology was believed to be the most appropriate. As discussed in the introductory chapter, this study is concerned with students' reticence in the EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia and thus the language acquisition opportunities they miss due to this problem. **Guided by personal experience as well as evidence from pertinent literature, the researcher chose to approach this problem with a practical solution by way of proposing a shift from the current predominant grammar translation approach to a communicative approach. Particularly, a digital storytelling activity was proposed as a perfect fit for this approach. It was believed that the impact of this intervention and its success in achieving the objectives of the study will be best measured by soliciting participants' perspectives. This view of the nature of the problem as internal**

and subjective and that knowledge about it can be best be acquired through interaction with the people involved lent this study to the interpretivism paradigm. Driven by this interpretivism stance, the qualitative approach was favoured to address the problem of this study and answer its research questions.

As it is recognised, amongst each of the qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches are different designs and each design, in turn, has different characteristics, types, and applications. The next section will focus on case study as the specific research design incorporated in this study together with an account of its specifications, and the instruments that can be used within it. Most of this discussion will be informed by the work of three case study research pioneers: Yin (2009), Stake (1995), and Merriam (1998). The section will conclude with a rationale for the use and suitability of this design to achieve the objectives of the study.

3.3 Research design

A research design encompasses the strategic plan the researcher intends to employ to address the research problem effectively. The selection of a specific design is determined by the selected research methodology, which depends mainly on the research's philosophical views. Based on the epistemological stance of the researcher, which was explicitly stated in the previous section, and the goal of the study, a qualitative research methodology was believed to be the best approach. Specifically, case study design was incorporated. The discussion to follow will introduce case study research and its use in educational contexts; provide an overview of its definitions, characteristics and types in light of the work of three seminal methodologists; and end with a rationale for the selection of case study among many other designs to go about the current research problem.

3.4 Case Study Research

Case study, in a broad sense, is a research method that investigates a social phenomenon, problem, or situation in detail within its real context. From Punch's (2011) viewpoint, case study is not a method, but rather a strategy for exploring a case using any combination of qualitative or/and quantitative methods. The acceptability of both quantitative and qualitative methods makes a preferable design. It, moreover, is

one of the most frequently used strategies in social sciences research because, as marked by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), case study design "provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles" (p. 253). Therefore, a case study design aims to give a holistic picture of the case in its natural setting. In principal, any entity can serve as the case in a case study design whether it is simple or complex, one or multiple, and a person or a thing. Thomas (2011), for example, stated that cases can be "persons, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, institutions, or other systems which are studied holistically by one or more methods" (p. 23).

Case study design is particularly prevalent in educational research for its potential to capture the complexity of human behaviour, or as eloquently put by De, Castro, Coimbra, Martins, and Martins (2013), "the intention of investigating reality, situated in the "here" and "now" of social interactions, privileges the case study for the research of practices and behaviours, in the educational community."(p. 1). One of the common purposes for using a case study in educational contexts is evaluating and developing a deep, authentic understanding of a particular program or intervention. Through the intensive description of the unit of analysis in educational case studies, teachers are offered with a unique opportunity for the improvement of teaching practices. Other important components of the educational process, such as teachers, students, and curriculum can be the unit of analysis in case study.

3.4.1 Overview of three seminal works on case study research

The definition of case study research varies considerably depending on the disciplinary background, and hence, its applications and practices. To conceptualize a case study research as employed in this study, the discussion to follow will start with an overview of the work of the three seminal scholars in this respect: Yin (2009), Stake (1995), and Merriam (1998). The next part will then indicate which one of these approaches this case study is aligned with.

According to Stake (1995), case study research is "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi). Stake's approach to case study rests on a constructivist

orientation in research. He believed in the importance of researchers to be involved in constructing knowledge while probing the participants' perspectives and lived experiences. As a result, he prioritized observations and interviews for generating information, although, he acknowledged the use of quantitative methods. Stake categorized cases as intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. The intrinsic case tends to be of an exploratory nature where the researcher investigates a case out of interest rather than testing a theory and generalizing into cases of class. In contrast the instrumental case study is designed to give information about a particular case to expand knowledge and generalize. Stake contends that a case can be categorised as intrinsic and instrumental at the same time. A collective case study, however, refers to the study of multiple cases to find similarities and differences.

Unlike Stake, Yin demonstrates a more positivistic perspective in his approach to case study research. This epistemological tendency is evident in his focus on the process of conducting a case study rather than the unit of study. He, for example, defined case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (2014, p.18). He emphasized the use of theories to generate propositions that operate as hypotheses so that results can be replicated for confirmation and falsification. He insisted on the necessity to use types of evidence other than interviews which, to him, are full of the researcher's bias. He classified case study research, according to its purpose and outcomes, into three types. These are exploratory case studies that serve to establish for a larger scale studies; descriptive case studies provide narrative description of interconnected relations and cause and effect; explanatory case studies strive to explain phenomena by testing theories.

Merriam (1998) conceptualized case study in terms of the final product and in her words, “a qualitative case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit” (p. 27). She argued for the importance of delimiting the case, that is, setting boundaries around it, otherwise, it is not a case. From her perspective, these bounded cases could be of two kinds depending on the purpose of selection. A case might be selected to be an instance of the whole class. A case might also be studied out of intrinsic interest. Like Stake (1995) and Yin (2009), Merriam (1998) accepted the use of any and all quantitative and qualitative methods as long as it serves the purpose of the inquiry.

Having briefly discussed the major approaches to case study research, it is suitable to mention that this study follows Stake's approach to case study research in the sense that it is an instrumental case study underpinned by constructivist assumptions.

3.4.2 The rationale behind the use of case study design in this study

This section concludes the discussion on research philosophies and how they guided the consequent decisions such as choosing the appropriate research approach, methods, and analysis. It presents the reasons behind the selection of a case study design as the most appropriate approach to address this study's research questions.

As discussed previously, the researcher's assumptions about the nature of reality and how it can be approached constituted the basis for the selection of the methodology used in this research. The researcher was driven by the interpretivist view and believed that real interaction with participants and deep involvement in the process of finding answers was crucial for reaching accurate explanations and authentic conclusions. This belief has consequently led to the embrace of a qualitative approach to address the questions in place.

As for the use of case study as its specific design, a number of reasons, besides the researcher's interpretivist viewpoint, were behind this decision. For example, the classification of this study as educational research because it is concerned with the collection and analysis of data related to aspects of education. Specifically, this study sought to evaluate the effectiveness of a collaborative digital storytelling activity in English language classrooms with regard to three aspects: its potential to increase language learners' intrinsic motivation, its effectiveness to engender their willingness to communicate in the classroom; and its potential to enhance their communicative competence. As such, this study is classified as an educational research, which makes it fit comfortably with case study research.

Additionally, based on the review of the pertaining literature, the issue of EFL students' reticence in classrooms from a pedagogical perspective needs more attention. Thus, this study is of an exploratory nature which proposes the use of case study research to generate rich, authentic information and draw a holistic picture of the students' lived experience.

The last, yet key, reason is related to the lack of sources mentioning the embrace and use of digital storytelling in the EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. This necessitates the adoption of an approach that permits the researcher to participate and play the role of the facilitator of this activity. The dual role of the researcher also restricted the time, resources, and the sample size. As has been demonstrated in the previous section, case study design suits addressing problems of the conditions described above.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The purpose of this section is to provide adequate information about the strategic plan and steps employed to access and gather information from the study participants to address its stated objectives. This section commences with the research setting, participants, and methods as relevant to each phase of the project; proceeds on to describe the data analysis process; and concludes with a discussion of the issues of validity, reliability and ethics.

3.5.1 Research setting

The study was conducted at a public girls' school in the southern region of Saudi Arabia. The selection of girls-only school as the location to undertake this study was determined by the fact that schools in Saudi Arabia were gender-segregated at K-12 grades at the time of conducting the study, which resulted in not including boys' schools, and particularly because this study required physical presence over extended period of time. That is, collecting data from male students is possible through surveys which can be administered online or arranged to be administered through a relative male. However, it is strictly prohibited for female teachers to teach male students and the same applies to the male teachers who are not allowed to be physically present in a female-only school. Recently, however, in 2019, teaching of boys at primary stages (grades 1, 2, and 3) was entrusted to female teachers.

Moreover, public schools (sometimes referred to as government education) were chosen for this study over private schools because the curriculum is consistent in all public schools while, private education has more flexibility in relation to the curriculum and guidelines. In addition, public schools accommodate the masses whereas private education is often the choice of individuals with a higher

socioeconomic status. Therefore, the selection of a public school to undertake this study was to achieve typicality of the setting, and hence, make the findings more applicable to a wider range of educational contexts.

However, no specific criteria for selecting a specific public girls' school was used. A request for entry was sent out to various schools located in the researcher's city and the selected school expressed an interest in the project and granted approval for the research to be conducted (See Appendix F).

3.5.2 Research participants

This study involved participation of 32 female students enrolled in a Saudi public secondary school, who are learning English as an ordinary school subject, along with the participation of the researcher, who facilitated the digital storytelling project. The sections below describe the qualities of the participating students and the role of the researcher in the study.

3.5.2.1 Student participants

A whole class consisting of 32 students at secondary level was selected to participate in this study. The decision of selecting secondary level was based on the recommendation of the regular English language teacher at the selected school who, after learning about the nature of the project, advised that 10th graders would be the most suitable candidates. According to the teacher, writing stories in some genres was part of their curriculum in the previous semester, and hence, they would be able to contribute.

Participants were all from the same class and had spent at least one semester together. The majority of students were Saudi nationals, with three Syrians, one Yamani, one Jordanian, and one Palestinian. They were all around the same age and shared similar cultural, religious, socioeconomic backgrounds, and Arabic was the mother tongue of all students. At this grade-level, all students would have studied English as a compulsory subject from 6th grade except for a few who were previously enrolled in private or international schools who would have started learning English from first grade. In reference to the Saudi English Language Framework (SELF) (<https://eelyanbu.files.wordpress.com/2014/02/english-language-curriculum-for->

schools-in-the-ksa-final.pdf), students at this stage are expected to perform at level B1.1 identified in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). These characteristics are typical to many students in public schools nationwide.

3.5.2.2 Researcher participant

Even though quantitative methods were used in this case study, the research is mainly qualitative, and the researcher was the primary instrument for data collection, which included observing the participants and conducting post intervention interviews. More importantly, the researcher is the primary instrument for data interpretation and was the facilitator of the activity which extended over 12 weeks.

This prolonged involvement could bring about some concerns in relation to the trustworthiness of the findings. One suggested way to deal with this issue and enhance the credibility of the research is to provide sufficient information about this human instrument in aspects of the possible effect of this involvement on the process of gathering and interpreting the data. This clarification will enable the reader to judge the rigor of the research and understand the accuracy of the interpretation of data. The discussion to follow will therefore shed some light on the role of the researcher in the study, whether any biases or presumptions are held and discuss the characteristics that make the researcher qualified to undertake this study.

My role as the facilitator of the digital storytelling activity involved me meeting with the participants for four learning periods per week for more than three months, each period lasted 40 minutes. Obviously, it included administering the two questionnaires of L2 WTC and IM, observing the participants' lived experience, and conducting interviews together with the tasks of the activity.

As for the qualifications of the researcher, I hold a bachelor's degree in Education with a major in English language. Driven by my passion for both teaching and using English language, I pursued my study and earned a master's degree in Education with a concentration in Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Afterwards, I had the experience of teaching English as a second language which lasted for nearly four years: 2 years in K-12 education and the remaining two years as an assistant lecturer in higher education. It is of equal importance to note that I share the

same native language (Arabic), cultural and societal norms, and racial origins as the population of this study. Most importantly, I am the product of the traditional approach of English language teaching which still predominates in classrooms despite the outstanding development in the curriculum. Familiarity with the learning context is critical for understanding the roots of the problem, deciding the suitable solution, and justifying for results contradictory to the results from similar studies conducted in other learning contexts.

Here are some examples of the effect of this familiarity with the learning context. Being well aware of the status of English language of Saudi students and their unsatisfactory level of proficiency did influence the decision to allow students to use Arabic if needed. Moreover, my familiarity with the formal nature of the relationship between teachers and students that characterized schools in the Saudi context made me realize to what degree it could affect this study. That is, participants' sharing of their real impression about the project and talking elaborately when interviewed is not expected. Therefore, attempts were made from the outset of the study to ease this formality and build a friendlier relationship.

These and other unconsciously held assumptions might have had their effect on my interpretation of the findings. However, I believe the commonalities I share with the population of the study enabled me to account for and realize the logic behind different situations I encountered during the study. Nonetheless, I constantly consulted the relevant literature to evaluate my judgment, and hence, enhance the credibility of the results

3.5.3 Research instruments

Apart from the researcher, this case study has employed mixed methods, which is in line with case study literature. Stake (1995), for example, acknowledged the use of quantitative and qualitative methods within case study research with priority given to interviews. In the same vein, Denscombe (2010) commented that case study design allows for using multiple data sources, types, and methods which enhances credibility and allows for sufficient description. Accordingly, this study combined multiple quantitative and qualitative data collection methods to address its research questions

adequately, with interviews and observational field notes being the major data generators.

The next section comprises two parts. The first will present the research instruments within the three major phases of data collection, mainly, identification, embarking on the project, and assessment. Information such as the purpose of the phase along with its length, and the research question it should answer is included in each phase. Part 2 is concerned with the validity and reliability of the quantitative instruments whereas the discussion of these issues in relation to the qualitative methods used in the study will follow the data analysis process.

3.5.3.1 Phase one: Identification

This phase extended for one week and included administrating the L2 WTC questionnaire to the 32 participants and analysing its data to use in the following phase. The questionnaire was translated into Arabic, the participants' native language; because it is the language they are most comfortable with and competent in. I, as a native speaker of Arabic and an English language speaker, was able to translate the questionnaire into Arabic and a professional translator translated the Arabic version back into English to confirm its accuracy. The back translation and the original version were conceptually equivalent. Further consultation with the supervisor has been conducted and minimal modifications were made as per her suggestions before it was pilot tested.

The purpose of this phase was to identify the participants' current level of willingness to communicate inside the regular English language classes. The first research question aimed to find out whether creation of digital stories had the potential to increase the participants' willingness to communicate inside the classroom. Hence, it was important to assess this predisposition at the outset of the study so that the emergence of behavioural indicators of willingness to communicate, if any, can be safely attributed to this specific intervention.

Additionally, since the digital storytelling activity was designed as a collaborative learning project, it was planned to assign the participants into various groups based on their levels of willingness to communicate. That is, each group would have participants with high, average, and low willingness to ensure groups are virtually equivalent.

Data generated during this phase helped answer the following research question: what is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate in a Saudi EFL classroom?? Data needed to answer this question were generated from the "willingness to communicate in a second language" (L2 WTC) questionnaire. This questionnaire was originally developed by Weaver (2005) and contains 34 items of classroom situations, 17 speaking situations and 17 writing situations. It measures second language learners' willingness to communicate within a language classroom and it has been used widely in various second and foreign language contexts.

To fit the purpose of this study, the questionnaire items have been refined to include 20 classroom situations. The majority of these situations focused on willingness to speak as the study was mainly concerned with evaluating the potential of an activity like digital storytelling for increasing oral classroom participation. In the questionnaire, language learners would indicate how willing they are in each of these 20 situations, with (1) being "definitely not willing", (2) being "probably not willing", (3) "probably willing", and (4) "definitely willing" (See Appendix A. 1).

After having modified the questionnaire, it was pilot tested. Pilot testing the questionnaire is important before its administration to the whole sample as it helps know the time required for its completion, identification of questions that do not make sense, and check the suitability and clearness of meaning to the participants. Therefore, before the distribution of the questionnaire, it was pilot-tested with five students at the same grade-level of the participant students but not participating in the study. Subsequently, they were interviewed to solicit their remarks. Ten minutes was required to complete the questionnaire and all items were clear except for item 12. Its wording was not clear enough. This was noted and after the distribution of the questionnaire to the whole sample, I clearly explained the meaning and made sure all participants understood this question clearly.

3.5.3.2 Phase two: Embarking on the project

This was the main phase in the study. It encompassed the actual execution of the digital storytelling activity. This phase extended over a span of 12 weeks. The implementation of the activity took place during extracurricular activity periods, which occurred four

times a week for 40 minutes per session. Hence, creation of digital stories was an extracurricular activity and participation did not affect the participants' grades in the English subject. This was made clear to the participants from the beginning.

The 32 participants who completed the L2 WTC questionnaire participated in this phase. They were organized into five groups where each group included participants with high willingness, moderate willingness, and low willingness to communicate levels. Information generated during this phase helped address the three research questions: the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence.

During this phase, data were mainly obtained through observation, which was carried out throughout the activity. Observation enabled the researcher to observe the flow of the activity and allowed for invaluable insights into the whole situation, particularly exploring unexpected patterns. It enabled seeing whether the participants' actions corresponded to their responses in the interviews, and even more important, to find explanations for any discrepancies. For Gillham (2010), observation is a central instrument in case study research to capture what people do rather than what they say or intend to do. In this sense, observation can provide a more authentic and valid information than would otherwise be the case with inferential or mediated methods (Cohen, et al., 2007).

Attention was specifically paid to any behavioural indicators of an increase in willingness to communicate especially among the participants who were categorized as least willing through data obtained from phase one. To achieve this, observation was planned as semi-structured with predetermined categories, taking advantage of the L2 WTC questionnaire and using it as a measurement of any improvement. Another classroom observation scheme developed by Cao and Philp (2006) was also used (See Appendix B). It consists of seven categories and measures willingness through the observation of specific behaviours. However, after three classes I did opt for a less structured form of observation as the nature of the project and the roles assigned to the participants did not perfectly fit into the Cao and Philp's (2006) observation scheme categories. Observation also provided information about participants' intrinsic motivation which was mainly recognised through concentrating on signs of excitement, interest, and dedication.

Additionally, observation was meant to document improvement in the participants' grammatical competence by comparing the first drafts of the stories to the final versions as well as the first recording attempts and the final recordings. The participants were closely watched, and notes taken by the researcher to evaluate their use of two communication strategies: fillers and paraphrasing. Finally, observation was used to describe the participants' lived experience of creating digital stories by means of documenting their activities, responses, and interactions. Rich information was obtained through memos, reflections, and field notes which were documented after each class.

3.5.3.3 Phase three: Assessment

At this phase, the participants had fulfilled the requirements and successfully completed creation of their digital stories. The main purpose of this phase was to give the participants the opportunity to report on their experience with special regard to the research objectives.

This phase extended for two weeks and comprised soliciting information by means of two instruments, the interview and the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory to address the three research questions: the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence.

After the completion of the project, it was time for the participants to evaluate how intrinsically motivated they were during their participation in the activity. To obtain this information, the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) developed by Ryan (1982) was used. It assesses participants' interest/enjoyment, perceived competence, effort, value/usefulness, felt pressure and tension, and perceived choice while performing a given activity. Each subscale consists of varied numbers of items which have shown coherence and stability across different activities and contexts.

The scale has been slightly modified to fit the digital storytelling activity. Four out of the seven subscales were preserved, resulting in a refined scale of 18 items distributed over 'Interest/Enjoyment', 'Perceived Competence', 'Usefulness', and 'Pressure/Tension' subscales. Students rated the scale using a seven-point Likert scale from (1) being "not at all true", (4) "somewhat true", and (7) "very true". (See Appendix A.3). It is acceptable and common for some subscale items and some

subscales to be excluded with no impact on the other (<http://selfdeterminationtheory.org/intrinsic-motivation-inventory/>). As with the L2 WTC questionnaire, the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory was translated into Arabic, the participants' native language; because it is the language they are most comfortable with and competent in. I, as a native speaker of Arabic and an English language speaker, was able to translate the questionnaire into Arabic and a professional translator translated the Arabic version back into English to confirm its accuracy. The back translation and the original version were conceptually equivalent. Further consultation with the supervisor has been conducted and minimal modifications were made as per her suggestions before it was pilot tested.

A face-to-face interview was used in this phase and was the primary source of data which extracted information about the participants' perceptions of the whole experience. A number of 20 out of the 32 who participated in the project were selected for the post-intervention interview. They demonstrated varied levels of willingness to communicate in order that interpretation would reflect different opinions and perspectives.

Each interview was semi-structured and tailored for each participant based on their performance during the activity and their responses to the willingness to communicate questionnaire as well as the intrinsic motivation inventory. The participants were interviewed individually with an average length of 10 minutes per an interview. It is worth noting that interviews were conducted in Arabic, the native language of both the researcher and participants, to ease their stress and encourage them to participate. Main questions focused on the participants' overall impression about the effectiveness of digital storytelling in the English language classroom with more concentration on its effect on three aspects: their willingness to communicate, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence. (See Appendix C).

3.5.3.4 Instrument's validity and reliability

It is recognized that the credibility of the interpretation of the findings depends, largely, on the validity of the instruments used for data collection. In other words, the extent to which the used instruments measure what they intend to measure. The issue of validity is less concerning if the instruments are gathering information to be used in

a practical rather than inferential way. However, some strategies should be considered to enhance instruments' validity. With regards to the quantitative instruments used in this study, both L2 WTC scale and IMI scale were validated by their developers and were extensively used in different contexts, nonetheless, they were revalidated before their use in this study due to the modification and translation done to each of them, as advised by Creswell (2014). As noted previously, reverse translation was conducted to check the consistency of the translations. Both scales were then pilot tested on five students from the population of the study. Subsequent interviews with these students were conducted to seek their opinions on the clarity of content.

Reliability, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which the results of a specific instrument are stable and consistent, which can be determined using different indicators, such as test-retest, split-half (Denscombe, 2010), or internal consistency (Creswell, 2014). Internal consistency was calculated to check for the reliability of instruments used in this study after they have been modified. In terms of the L2 WTC scale, Cronbach's alpha was .93, which is excellent. As for the IMI scale, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .78, which is still good.

3.6 Data analysis

Data analysis commenced with the collection of the first questionnaire and progressed simultaneously with the data collection process throughout the study. Emerging insights and meanings were used to guide observation and inform interview questions in the subsequent phases of data collection. However, intensive and rigorous analysis to aggregate final themes and draw conclusions started when all sorts of data were collected (Merriam, 1998). The next section will present the overall data analysis approach employed in this study. A detailed description of the process undertaken to analyse each data according to the method used will be provided.

The approach to analysing data started with preparing raw data, which involved transcribing interviews, typing up observational field notes together with gathering questionnaires. As in Yin's (2009) words, this preparatory step establishes the "case study database". Next, a descriptive analysis was run for the quantitative data obtained from IMI and L2 WTC scale together with a thematic analysis of the qualitative data

gathered through observation and interview. After analysing each set of data separately, findings were aggregated and interpreted.

3.6.1 Qualitative data analysis

The first step in qualitative data analysis comprised of translating interviews from Arabic into English and then transcribing them verbatim. The work of translating and transcribing the interviews was entrusted to an accredited person. Following that data were entered into NVivo11 (a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis program) for the coding process. Using the software, the participants' responses were categorised under three headings as relevant to the three research questions.

Next, each question-related response was analysed by breaking them into paragraphs and labelling those paragraphs with a descriptive phrase as illustrated in Table 1. Afterwards, similar categories were clustered together and assigned a code. Special attention was paid during this step to ensure assigned codes can most accurately represent the relevant data. In Merriam's (1998) description, this attempt to use a word that exactly captures the meaning is called "sensitizing". She highlighted that categorization should include all relevant data; the same unit of data cannot fall under more than one category; and that data should reflect the same level of abstraction, that is, refer to parallel concepts. The same task was conducted with responses pertaining to all research questions. The illustrative example in Table 1 shows the process of extracting two text segments relevant to one of the research questions, describing each segment, and finally coming up with a code. Representative quotes from the interview with the participants have been used and the participants have been identified by using their names.

Table 1 An example of qualitative data coding

| Question: What characteristics of the digital storytelling activity helped increasing your motivation the most? | | |
|---|--|-----------------|
| Response | Descriptive phrases | Code |
| “We loved participating in groups, and I liked talking about the Syrian war and the circumstances we are currently living” | They enjoyed working with each other | Cooperation |
| “We learnt from the digital storytelling activity. I learnt new words and I feel like my English has improved. I also liked expressing my feelings to let the people know about what happened in our country” | They viewed digital storytelling as a good learning tool | Perceived value |
| | They appreciated talking about personal matters | Self-expression |

3.6.2 Quantitative data analysis

The L2WTC scale and the IMI were analysed quantitatively. In both datasets, only descriptive statistics were calculated, including mean, median, range, and standard deviation. With regard to the L2WTC scale, descriptive statistics were conducted to classify students into high, moderate, and low levels of willingness to communicate. As for the IMI scale, descriptive statistics of the mean, median, and standard deviation was calculated to assess the participants’ intrinsic motivation in relation to the digital storytelling activity.

3.6.3 Dealing with validity, reliability, and ethics

It is indisputable that making a difference either at the practical or the theoretical level of the knowledge base is the ultimate pursuit of undertaking an educational research and all types of studies alike. This can be achieved through the assessment of the validity and reliability of the study, that is, its rigorousness, which should be established from the early stages of the conceptualization of the study through the presentation of the final results. In this respect, it is noteworthy to point out that there

is no consensus in the research community over the appropriate criteria for assessing validity and reliability in qualitative research. This debate extends to the naming of these criteria which may differ in congruence with the different philosophical assumptions underpinning qualitative research (Merriam, 1998). Nevertheless, while validity and reliability in quantitative research do not carry the same connotations in qualitative research, there exists a consensus among qualitative methodologists about the importance of incorporating some strategies to enhance the qualitative study's validity and reliability.

3.6.3.1 Validity

Validity concerns the accuracy of the findings (Creswell, 2014) that can be enhanced through the incorporation of some strategies. In this study, four strategies have been found plausible and thus integrated into the research design to enable the researcher to assess the accuracy of the findings, and ultimately, convince the reader of that accuracy.

- **Triangulation.** This study has adopted methodological triangulation to confirm the validity of its emerging findings. As endorsed by several scholars (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009), the use of quantitative and qualitative methods in case study research is acceptable, and hence, data were converged from several methods like questionnaires, field observations, and interviews. Besides the importance of this strategy in the enhancement of accuracy of the findings, it has by far enriched the content of the case report and bestowed interesting insights in a way using either qualitative or quantitative methods alone would do.
- **Member checks.** Major findings and themes have been taken back to the students a year later after conducting the study and follow-up interviews with some students were undertaken to discuss the findings.
- **Long-term observation.** The researcher played an integral role in the study as the facilitator of the project that extended over three months. Such a prolonged participant observation enabled the researcher to capture the students' lived experience, listening to their discussions, and noticing their behaviours. As a result, the researcher has developed an in-depth understanding of the case under study which increased the possibility of reaching more accurate findings.

- Researcher's biases. This included the declaration of the researcher's underpinning assumptions, worldviews, and theoretical orientations which have been made clear at the outset of this chapter. Of equal importance is the self-reflection about the researcher's background and how that might have shaped the interpretation of the findings, which has been included in the discussion of the researcher's role in the study.

3.6.3.2 Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the extent to which the study findings can be generalized to other individuals, sites, or programs that share similar characteristics with those under the research. In this sense, it is rare to make generalizations out of qualitative studies. This is, however, not to say that lack of generalizability makes qualitative research of less significant and impactful as compared to generalizable quantitative studies. Rather, the value of qualitative research lays in the particularity not the generalizability (Creswell, 2014).

In qualitative research that depends on small, non-random sampling, the concept of generalizability can be viewed differently. In her review of alternative conceptualizations of generalizability in qualitative literature, Merriam (1998) pointed out to four major notions: working hypotheses, concrete universals, naturalistic generalization, and user or reader generalizability. Working hypotheses was suggested as an equivalent to generalizability in hard science research. Rather than considering generalizability as an end in itself, qualitative researchers should focus on the conditions that make up their research situations and build on that towards their conclusions. Concrete universals are grounded in the idea that knowledge is formed as we transfer lessons from a particular situation to similar situations encountered in the future. Therefore, concrete universals drawn from unique, particular cases are what matters the most in social science research. Naturalistic generalization emphasizes the importance of personal experiences, events and uncontrolled situations in developing naturalistic generalizations applicable to similar situations. Last is reader or user generalizability which is concerned with leaving the reader to decide the applicability of the study findings to his own situation based on the comparisons he made between both situations (Merriam, 1998).

She went on to suggest the use of rich, thick description and typicality to enhance the possibility of transferring the results to cases in similar contexts. This study incorporated a rich description strategy by providing sufficient details about the case under study which is digital storytelling activity in an EFL classroom. This included providing thorough description of the characteristics of the participants, the setting of the study, and conveying the participants' actions and interactions throughout the project. This enables readers to determine the extent of commonality between their situations and the research situation, and hence, the possibility of transferring findings. Typicality which concerns describing how typical the research case is, whether it be a person, program, or event, to others at the same class (Merriam, 1998) was also incorporated. This study describes the typicality of the setting of the study and its participants to others of the same sort as illustrated in the discussion of the selection of study participants. Implementing this strategy enables readers to judge the applicability of findings to their situations.

3.6.3.3 Ethics

Ethics is another concern in all forms of research. It refers to a set of principles that function as guidelines for researchers to ensure investigations are conducted with honesty and integrity. While codes of ethics vary considerably depending on the discipline and field of study in which they are applied, in qualitative research, these principles are mostly concerned with the data collection and the interpretation of findings (Merriam, 1998). In the context of this study, a number of steps have been considered to promote the integrity and ensure it is being conducted in an ethical manner.

Prior to the study, the researcher made sure it was designed in compliance with the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research. The study was then approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of Curtin University in October 2017 (See Appendix G). Subsequently, official request to travel to Saudi Arabia and conduct the study has been made to the University of Bisha through the Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, which, in turn, approved the request (See Appendix H). Afterwards, to gain access to a school, an official request along with a copy of the information sheet, informed consent, and ethics clearance were sent off to some schools' principals. Upon the receipt of approval from one school (See Appendix F), travel to Saudi Arabia

was arranged and the study was conducted in the period from February 2017-April 2017.

Prior to the implementation of the project, I discussed the details of the project with the school's principal and the regular English language teacher of the proposed grade-level. Based on the provided information about the concept of the project, they advised to change the group age suggesting that higher-level students are more capable of contribution when considering their current level of English proficiency. Accordingly, a revised ethical application was submitted and then approved (See Appendix I). The following step was obtaining the students' permission. I have transparently informed the participants about the objectives of the study along with data collection methods, time requested, their role, and most importantly, their unconditional right to discontinue at any point of time. This information was detailed in the information sheet given to the participants so that their consent is truly informed (See Appendix E).

During the study, it was important to make the study as least disruptive as possible so that participation would not affect the participants' schooling in a negative way. Therefore, the project was carried out as an extracurricular activity outside their regular English class periods and had no effect on their grades. By way of minimizing the disruption, making clear participation was voluntary and withdrawal was allowed at any time, students did not experience much stress or tension.

Even though the study used quantitative data collection methods, mainly questionnaires, qualitative data obtained from interviews and observations were the main source of information. Merriam (1998) points out that interviewers may inadvertently awaken respondents' conscience of failure, pain, or lack, which might have long-lasting effect. She goes on to suggest interviewers handle such situations through orienting respondents to focus on the brighter side of their experiences and on taking proper actions. In the context of this study, the participants happened to complain during the interviews about the current teaching approach, their dissatisfaction with their limited English proficiency, and communicated their hope to improve. Following Merriam's approach, these responses were met with suggestions to invest more time in self-learning to compensate for the insufficient opportunities inside the class and to discuss these issues and seek assistance from reliable sources. As for the ethical problems that might arise when using observation, the extent of

concern is determined by things like the involvement of the researcher, the nature of the observed behaviour, and just as with interviews, how to react in certain situations. Given the circumstances under which students were observed in this study, perhaps the only ethical concern had to do with students' approval of videotaping. Considering the cultural norms of the population of the study, there was no choice but to discard using this tool of observation.

During data analysis, a great deal of integrity is needed at this point of research which involves the investigator making important decisions in terms of what to include and what to leave out. Because the investigator is the primary instrument for data analysis, chances are subjectivity and biases might shape interpretation of data. While part of the value of qualitative research lies in this subjectivity, some strategies in qualitative research literature are suggested to enhance the accuracy of the findings. In this study, a detailed account of the decisions the researcher has made throughout the study along with their rationale was believed sufficient to attend to this issue. Moreover, unexpected or even contradictory findings were reported.

During data dissemination, A fundamental ethical issue during this phase of research, especially in qualitative studies, concerns the anonymity of the participants. The intensively descriptive nature of qualitative studies which involves detailed accounts of the characteristics of the participants and places makes it easy for readers, particularly locals, to identify the participants which might put them in some risk. However, taking into consideration the nature of this study and the possible consequences of exposing the identity of the participants, there were no foreseeable risks. Accordingly, the researcher sought the permission of the principal to use the school's real name and the participating students to use their names when presenting and sharing the data upon which they have agreed.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has focused on the methodology this research study has embraced to investigate its research questions. Without the important step of describing the philosophical views held by the researcher, the whole picture of the research process would not be complete. The way to accomplish this step was as through the following steps. First, a synopsis of the worldviews and their implications for the research

approaches was given. The next step was to specify the research design incorporated into the study together with a justification of this selection.

The major portion of the chapter focused on the procedures of data collection. The population from which the sample has been drawn, setting, and the instruments used throughout the phases of the study were reviewed, along with an explanation of the data analysis process. The chapter closed with a discussion of major concerns of the study, as in any research study, its validity, credibility, and ethics. Strategies adopted to deal with these issues were presented.

Chapter 4. The Case of Digital Storytelling Activity in an EFL Classroom

This chapter describes the case of this study consisting of a class of EFL students, in a public secondary school in Saudi Arabia, collaboratively creating digital stories. The description is based on the researcher's prolonged observation while playing the role of the facilitator of this activity along with the participants' responses and reactions. To draw a full picture of the case, the description will also include a description of the events that are believed to have had a significant effect on the implementation of the activity.

The chapter is thus divided into three sections, which consist of other sub-sections. The first section shows part of the researcher's preparation to facilitate the digital storytelling activity, which necessitated living this experience first. This part is particularly important for EFL teachers intending to embrace a communicative approach in their English teaching as it provides additional useful resources on digital storytelling. It gives an illustration of the software that was selected as a platform for participants to create their digital stories. The next part moves to the classroom and conveys the participants' lived experience including their activities during each step of the activity along with links for their final products published on YouTube.

4.1 Researcher's Experience of Creating a Digital Story

One of the key roles of the researcher in this study was acting as the facilitator of the digital storytelling activity. As clarified in chapter 3, one important reason for the selection of case study design to achieve the objectives of this study was the lack of studies showing that digital storytelling is used in English language classes in Saudi Arabia. The thought of assigning this task to the current teachers was present, but it was faced with their refusal for reasons such as, time constraints, unforeseeable direct benefits, and heavy teaching load. Thus, along with the roles of observation, data collecting and analysis, the researcher played the role of the facilitator of the activity. To succeed at this role, it was important for the researcher to live this experience first, to experience the difficulties students might go through, time needed to complete each

stage of the process, and to choose the suitable software. Accumulating information about the idea of digital storytelling activity does not warrant successful implementation of the activity, experimentation does. In conformity of this point, Malaysian teachers, according to Thang et al. (2014), recommend using digital storytelling in the EFL classroom. They, however, state it can be “a chaotic experience” if teachers are not well prepared and familiar with the software. The teachers maintain that, if “instructors themselves are not well-versed with the software, or are not that technology-savvy, so [they] can’t expect the students to. If we cannot guide the students well, how we can expect them to do well in the project” (Thang et al., 2014, p. 321).

The StoryCenter (formerly Centre for Digital Storytelling) <https://www.storycenter.org> was the starting point to find out more about digital storytelling. The site provides many exemplary digital stories as well as online webinars helpful for novice learners. I also came across other worthwhile websites such as Jason Ohler’s <http://www.jasonohler.com/storytelling/assessmentWIX.cfm> and Educational Uses of Digital Storytelling by The University of Houston <http://digitalstorytelling.coe.uh.edu/page.cfm?id=27&cid=27>. These resources provide teachers, especially EFL teachers, with essential information from the concept of digital storytelling, to the tools, applications, and websites for editing, till rubrics for evaluation and platform for sharing.

The next step was to design the activity in a way that it could achieve the overarching goal of the study, that is, to reduce students’ reticence in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia by way of increasing their intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate, and, in turn, enhance their communicative competence. To this end, the activity was designed as a collaborative project, the choice of topics was left to the participants, and it was made clear to them that participation would not affect their marks in the English subject in any way. A more detailed explanation as to how such decisions could positively influence the participants’ intrinsic motivation and willingness to participate is given elsewhere in this study (See Chapters 2 & 5). Having thoroughly grasped the process of creating a digital story and carefully designed the activity for the participants following the steps outlined in the relevant literature, it was time to select the suitable software and attempt to create a digital story. In fact, deciding which software is the most suitable for creating digital stories as designed for the participants

of this study and its objectives took considerable time and effort due to the use and recommendation of many of these platforms in the pertinent literature.

I tried out many and familiarised myself with the description of some in order to choose an appropriate software, with suitable features. I had a number of considerations in mind to guide the selection process. The first and most important consideration was the ease of the use of the software and its compatibility with different operating systems and devices. In addition, since the project was designed to be collaborative, it was important to choose the software that facilitates the management of group work. With these considerations in mind, I selected, from a wide range of excellent choices, the “WeVideo” as the platform for digital story creation. Further illustration of the software is given in the following section.

4.2 “WeVideo” as the platform for digital story creation

WeVideo <https://www.wevideo.com/> is a cloud-based video editing and sharing platform compatible with Windows and Mac laptops or desktops. It has apps for IOS and Android which enables users to work anytime and anywhere. It is widely used in schools for purposes such as formative assessment and project-based learning. Among the various features it offers are motion titles, screen casting, green screen, music library, slow motion, voiceover, and customizable themes. It has two editing modes one for the beginners and one for the advanced users.

It also features collaborative work. The teacher can set up different groups and send out an Invitation Link to each student to join the specific group. Students will have to accept the invitation by simply clicking on the link which will take them directly to the dashboard. Meanwhile, teachers can manage and monitor each student’s progress and contribution to the work. Another noteworthy feature is the ability to assign a role for each member which helps organize projects and leaves students with definite responsibilities which, in turn, facilitate project completion. Figure 2 below displays the layout of the editing page.

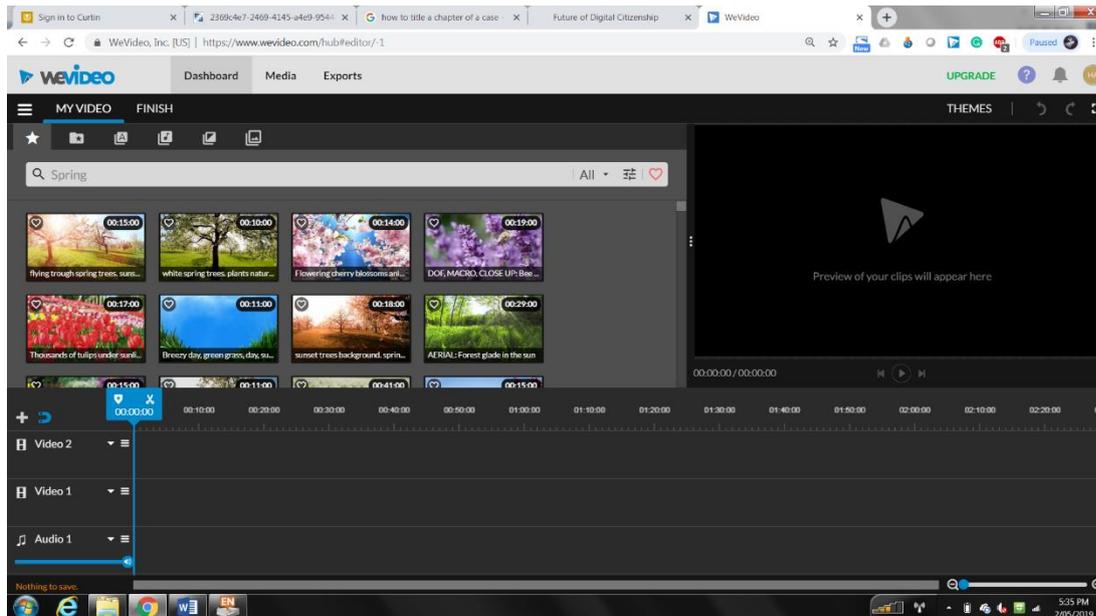


Figure 2 Typical layout of the advanced editing mode

Having decided on which software was most appropriate, I commenced creating a digital story as was intended for the students to create in the research project. The process flowed well as planned, except for one point (creating and collecting multimedia) which required a review of its allocated time. This step was found to be time consuming, therefore, it was given additional time across the project. Moreover, links to copyright-free websites were prepared to help students in their search for supporting multimedia elements and to avoid copyright infringement too, such as <https://mccoyproductions.net/free-music-for-videos/> and <https://musopen.org/> for free music and videos, and <https://www.flickr.com/search/?q=sad&l=9> for free pictures. The software that was selected for editing had numerous photos, video and voice clips available for use. In addition, it was deemed necessary to provide the students with handouts, accompanied with illustrating photos, detailing the steps from joining the assigned group on the platform through to the last steps of editing. The researcher's digital story was presented later on to the students as an example.

4.3 Participants' experience of creating digital stories

The digital storytelling activity was executed in three distinctive stages, namely preparation, production, and presentation. The discussion to follow will elaborate on these stages and provide a description of the purpose, length, and the participants' lived

experiences during each stage. Figure 3 shows these three main phases of creating a digital story collaboratively, which was designed by the researcher prior to the commencement of the project.

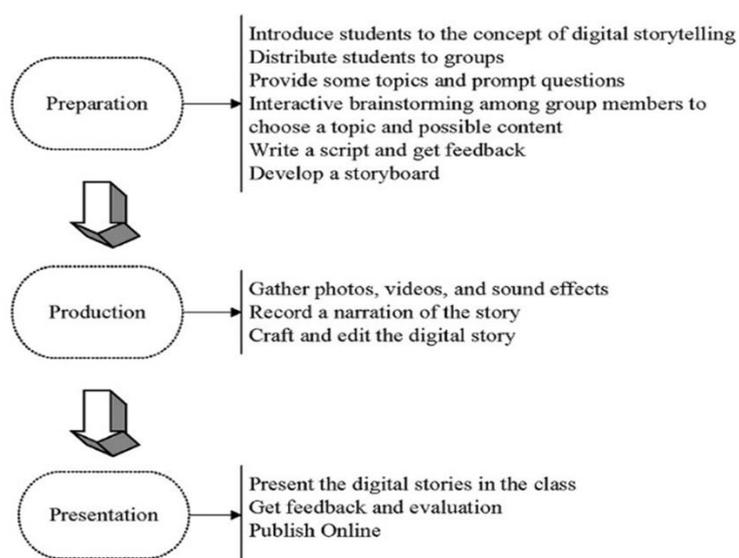


Figure 3 Steps of collaborative digital story creation as designed by the researcher.

4.3.1 Preparation stage

The success and quality of the next two stages of production and presentation depends largely on the preparation stage. It is in this stage the participants form their first impressions and attitudes about the whole project. They should be convinced that this activity is worth their effort. Thus, this stage needed thorough planning to ensure the cultivation of students' motivation to participate in the activity. This stage extended over four weeks with four 40-minute periods per week.

The main objective of this stage was to orient the participants to understand what a digital story was and how they could benefit from participating in this activity. I introduced the participants to the concept of digital storytelling, the elements necessary for creating a good digital story, and the steps to carry out this project. Subsequently, a demonstration of various digital stories created by English language learners at their grade level was given so the participants could envision what they were expected to achieve. I also displayed the digital story I had created as part of my preparation for

the study, which had an encouraging effect on the participants. This introductory stage included a discussion about the potential benefits and opportunities to reinforce the participants' English language skills. The hard part in this stage was to uplift the participants' motivation to participate in the activity. They conveyed their disappointment with the teaching approach and teaching strategies that have been used throughout their study of the English language and blamed the teachers for their low language proficiency.

The research study then proceeded with the dividing of the 32 participants, who took the 'second language willingness to communicate' questionnaire, into five groups. Each group included participants with varied willingness to communicate levels based on their responses on the questionnaire. However, the majority of the participants preferred to collaborate with their own friends reasoning this would make them more comfortable, willing to participate, and motivated. Consequently, the participants were reorganized so that all group members were self-chosen. Even though new the groups included unequal number of members, each group still had participants of varying willingness to communicate levels.

| Story titles | Collaborators | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|---|------------------------|
| | High willing | willing | Somewhat willing | Low willing |
| War in Arab countries | Afnaan | Shahad, rehab | Asmaa, weaam, Ameerah, Aiyah, Raneem H, | Zainab, Ghaida |
| Friendship | Tasneem, | Aseel, Turkiah, Jumanah, Amnah | Sabaah, Raghad, Mannar | Hajer, Raneem O, Manar |
| Racism | Hadeel, Ebhaar | | Renaad | Raneem S, |
| My role model | Remaas | | | |
| Memorable moments | Nuha, Arjwaan | Saja | Lana | Mozoon, Raneem M |

Figure 4 The participants' self-distribution into groups

The next step of the preparation stage was the participants' selection of topics for their stories. Findings from the literature of "willingness to communicate in a second language" assert that relevancy of the topic to the EFL students is one of the important factors in increasing their willingness to communicate in the classroom. With this information in mind, the participants were given the right to pick their topics, however,

the participants were provided with some ideas and prompt questions to spark their thinking. Figure 5 shows some digital story topics and question prompts that were designed by the researcher and given to the participants to stimulate their ideas. Various online story writing websites were consulted to come up with these prompts.

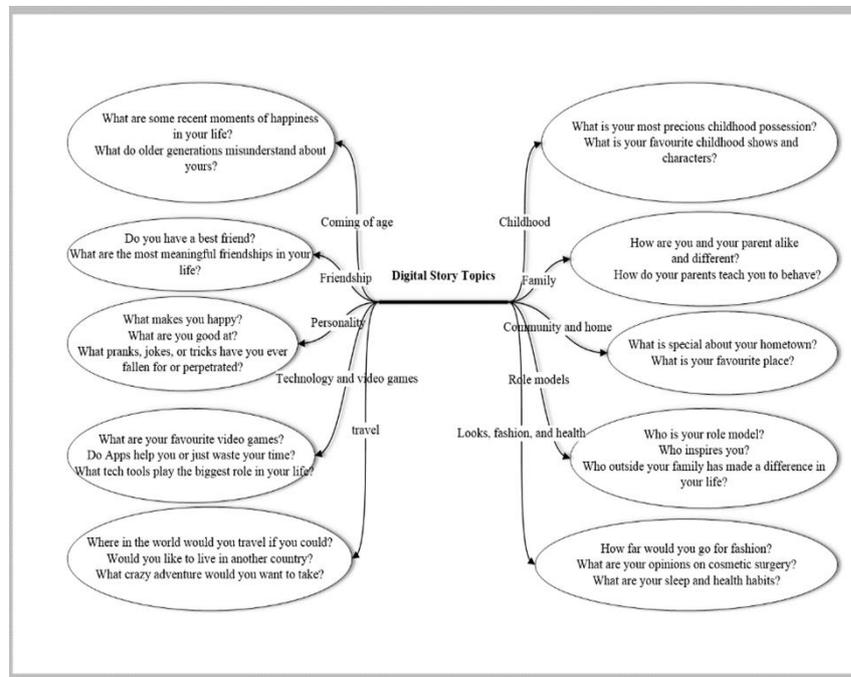


Figure 5 Topics with prompted questions to help students come up with story topics.

In their assigned groups, the participants brainstormed, and mind mapped their ideas to come up with a story topic that resonated with every member of the group. The researcher, as a facilitator, engaged in further discussions with each group about the possible story topic which also supported the participants to decide on their topic. At last, each group selected a topic that resonated with each one of the collaborators. These were the topics the participants come up with: *'My role model'*, *'Racism'*, *'Friendship'*, *'Memorable moments'*, and *'War in Arab countries'*. Figure 6 shows the participants in their group generating ideas for their story.



Figure 6 A group of participants during story writing process.

Next came the story script writing, of which most was conducted in the classroom. The stories ranged from 250-500 words length and each participant contributed to the story by way of including her own perspective or experience. The participants, especially those with an extremely low English language level, were advised to use online dictionaries and grammar checkers to help with their writing. As noticed, a few were able to write originally in English whereas the remaining needed to compose their stories in Arabic and then try to translate them into English. In nearly two weeks, the participants completed drafting their scripts and turned them in for revision and feedback. The following pictures show some of the story scripts.

Each group was provided with a template of a storyboard to complete before they began their search for the supporting multimedia elements. Figure 6 shows the template the participants used as a storyboard.

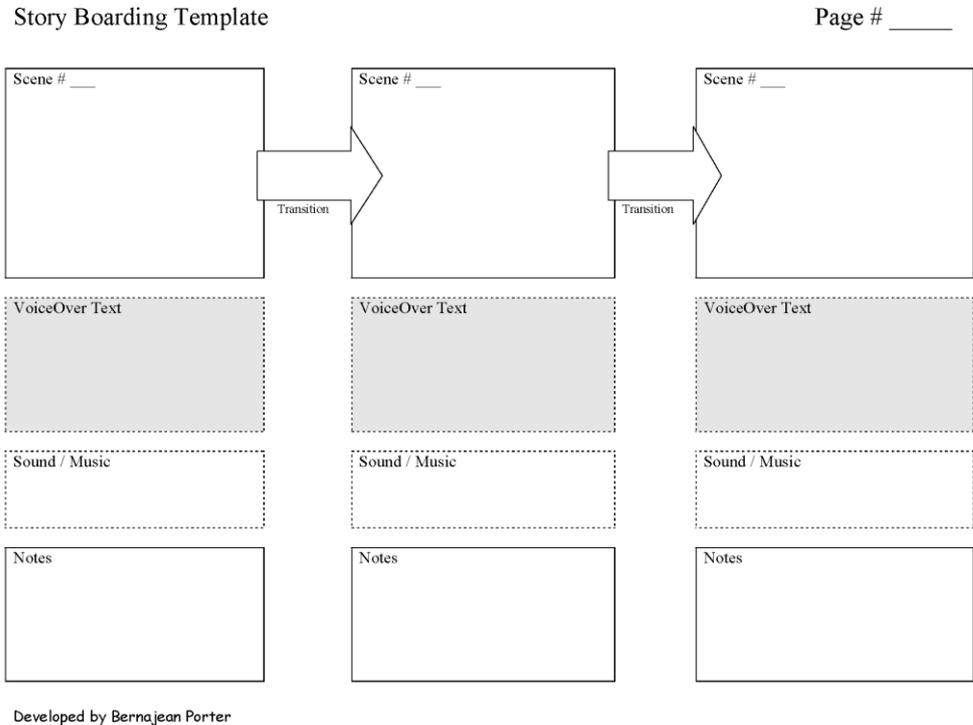


Figure 9 Storyboard template (Porter, n. d)

4.3.2 Production stage

After the preparation stage was completed the production stage began which comprised of; gathering the supporting multimedia elements the participants decided on during the storyboard step; the participants’ recording of their narrations and editing their videos using “WeVideo” software. This stage required six weeks to complete (four, 40 minutes sessions per week) with some work done outside of class time. It took longer than expected because the computers at the school’s lab that were intended for students’ use were not connected to the Internet. As a result, some work was done in the class using the researcher’s own laptop and the rest was completed at home.

The participants started this stage by gathering photos and choosing background music that corresponded well with the script, using the elements provided in the platform and

those in the copyright websites they were provided with. To ensure efficiency of work during this stage, each group created an electronic file bearing the name of their story on which they collected and stored selected multimedia elements.

The next step was the participants' recording of narrations of their stories, which occurred simultaneously with the first step. While one group was searching for photos, the other groups' members recorded their stories and vice versa. The researcher's iPhone was used for recording. The audio files were then uploaded to the editing platform to add to the videos.

It was observed that many participants hesitated to record their stories and stated that they wanted to skip this step or, at least, get a friend do it on their behalf. They were anxious they would make many pronunciation errors. Further steps were used to help with this issue and reduce the participants' anxiety. For example, the researcher read the script several times for each participant to demonstrate the correct pronunciation of the words. Another suggested approach was using online dictionaries which helped the participants know and correctly pronounce difficult words by way of listening and imitating. Some participants, however, followed a different method to recognize the correct pronunciation as they recorded. They wrote Arabic letters next to or above the difficult words representing how they are pronounced. Except for one advanced participant, all have employed this technique more or less as appears in the photos of the participants' scripts in figure 8 below.

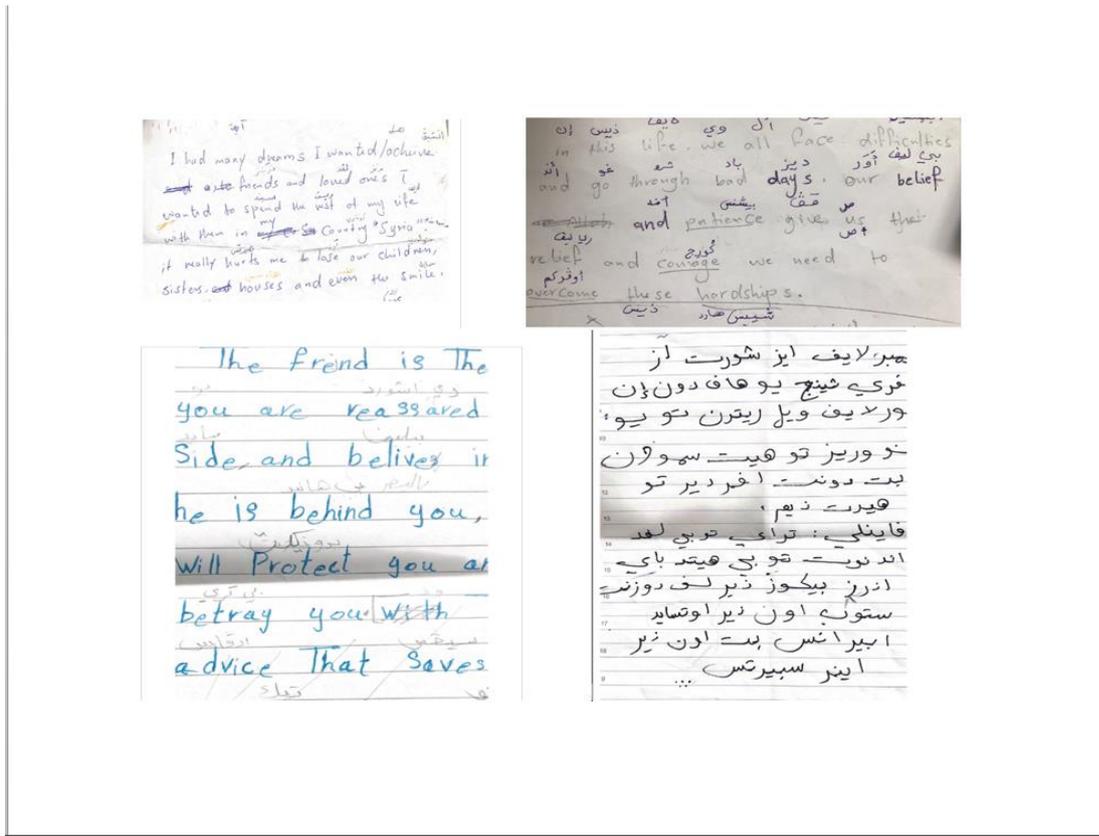


Figure 10 Participants' use of Arabic letters to recognize the pronunciation of the difficult words

It should be noted that not all the participants participated in this step. Some participants refused to record and they only helped their group in writing the story script or selecting the accompanying multimedia elements.

The last step of the production stage was using the software “WeVideo” for video editing. The participants were introduced to the platform and were given a demonstration of how to use it to create a digital story. The digital story the facilitator created before the commencement of the activity was given as an example. In addition, handouts outlining instructions on how to sign up, join assigned groups, and move from one step to another accompanied by illustrating photos were distributed. Following the explanation of the use of the software, the participants commenced producing their digital stories by uploading their narrations, integrating audio clips and images onto a timeline, and adding background music, titles, transitions, and effects. In a sense of authorship, group members added their names to appear as producers at the end of the video.

4.3.3 Presentation stage

This stage can be thought of as the rewarding time because the participants got to see the result of their effort and felt they were competent and their work deserved dissemination. It lasted two weeks and included, displaying the participants' edited stories in front of the classroom, and, sharing these stories online on YouTube after obtaining the participants' consent. Before the display of each story in front of the class, the title of the digital story and the names of collaborators were introduced to the rest of the class. During presentation, the participants demonstrated a great amount of focus and engagement. Following each presentation, the participants discussed the quality of the story and gave feedback to their peers. No specific rubric was used for evaluation and the participants' feedback was more of an opportunity to generate discussion between the participants.

With the participants' permission, the stories were published on YouTube. *War in Arab countries* was recorded by Shahad, Raneem, Weaam, Asmaa, Ayah, and Ameerah. Jumanah, Amnah, Turkiah, and Aseel recorded the digital story titled *Friendship*. Rehaab, Renaad, Hadeel, Ebhaar recorded the story about *Racism*. Remaas preferred to create her digital story alone to dedicate it to her mother, so she alone produced and recorded *My role model*. Arjwaan and Nuhaa recorded *Memorable moments*. Below are the links to the videos:

- War in Arab countries <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lrtKccnd-Is&t=2s>.
- Racism <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l6ZgtgvGnJY&t=34s>.
- My role model <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7zq1n7HVkig>.
- Friendship https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eWiYfo_G7m0&t=104s.
- Memorable moments <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1m3XW5Th-voV2sg2uuyT-ChyOrpR5JAo7/view>. (Storytellers did not want to share it online).

4.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the case of this study- digital storytelling activity in an EFL classroom in Saudi Arabia. It started with the researcher's preparation for taking up the role of the facilitator of this activity. Such information is especially helpful for

language teachers who are not familiar with digital storytelling. It provided links to important resources related to understanding the concept of digital storytelling, websites for copyright-free media elements, and examples of editing platforms. It ends with discussion of the participants' lived experience of creating digital stories. It described each phase of the activity, mainly, preparation, production, and presentation, and provided links to the participants' final digital stories that was published on YouTube.

Chapter 5. Results

This chapter presents the findings obtained from the used qualitative and quantitative methods to address the three research questions of this thesis. The chapter, thus, consists of three main sections: the first provides results of the analyses of quantitative and qualitative data with respect to the participants' willingness to communicate in their EFL classroom when digital storytelling is used as a learning tool. This section is further divided into three subsections: the first presents the quantitative data showing the willingness to communicate levels of the participants in their regular English classes; the next part moves on to present the qualitative findings related to the perceived reasons for the change in the participant's willingness to communicate levels during the activity, as observed by the researcher and indicated by the participants in their interview responses; and the final section highlights the perceived reasons for the change in the participants' willingness to communicate throughout the activity as indicated by the participants.

The second section reports on the results relevant to the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation. The IMI was used at the end of the activity to evaluate this effect along with the researcher's observations of the participants and post activity interviews with the participants to provide further insights. As with the first research question, the results relevant to this question are presented under two sub sections: the first section shows the quantitative data obtained from the participants' responses to the IMI; the second section presents the qualitative data from observation notes and responses of the participants explaining the reasons for these results.

The third section presents the results related to the third research question concerning the potential of digital storytelling activity to improve the participants' communicative competence given that digital storytelling is a communicative language teaching CLT based strategy. These results are explained in relation to the four aspects of communicative aspects outlined by Canale and Swain (1980): grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence. The answer to this question was mainly from the participants' viewpoint.

Observation notes were used to explain, contradict, or support the participants' responses.

Although predominantly qualitative, this is a mixed methods case study and the data obtained from the quantitative methods are valuable in explaining, supporting or questioning the results obtained from the qualitative methods. Qualitative and quantitative data are presented as relevant to the research question discussed.

5.1 Results relevant to the first research question: What is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate in a Saudi EFL classroom?

The aim of the first research question was to examine the effectiveness of a collaborative digital storytelling activity to engender willingness to communicate of a class of 10th grade students (N=32) from a participating school in Saudi Arabia. The results of this question supported one of the hypotheses of this study that digital storytelling activity could reduce reticence in the EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia through its positive effect on the learners' willingness to communicate. The following section presents the results that confirm this positive effect and the reasons for this effect as observed by the researchers and expressed by the participants.

To obtain accurate answers to this question, information was collated from three separate data sets; quantitative data from the "willingness to communicate in a second language" (L2 WTC) questionnaire (N=32), which was administered prior to the implementation of the activity, and qualitative data from the field notes and the post-intervention interviews conducted with 20 of the participants. Beside their approval, the most important criterion in selecting those interviewees was to select the participants who showed more or less willingness to communicate during the activity compared to their self-reported WTC responses. Thus, perceived reasons for the increase or decrease in willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity are identified.

5.1.1 Quantitative results

5.1.1.1 Participants' Responses to the Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language (L2 WTC) Questionnaire

The L2 WTC questionnaire was distributed to the 32 participants who agreed to take part in the study. The questionnaire consists of 20 classroom situations which the participants rated using a four-point scale from 1-4 based on how willing they were to participate in each situation: (1) represented “definitely not willing”; (2) “probably not willing”; (3) “probably willing”; and (4) “definitely willing”. The importance for assessing the participants' willingness to communicate prior to the intervention was to characterise the participants as highly, somehow, and unwilling to participate. Thus, any behavioural indicators of willingness to communicate shown by the unwilling participants in the classroom during the digital storytelling activity can be safely attributed to this proposed intervention. Table 2 summarises the nationalities of the study participants. Reporting of the nationality of the participants is especially important in discussing the reasons for the positive effect of this activity on willingness to communicate.

Table 2 Nationalities of participants

| | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|
| Saudi | 25 | 78.1 |
| Non-Saudi | 7 | 21.9 |
| Total | 32 | 100 |

Among the non-Saudi participants are two Jordanians, four Syrians, and one Yemeni.

Table 3 shows categorization of the participants into four willingness to communicate levels. The approach followed for placing the participants into each level was by calculating the frequencies and percentages for all the 20 questionnaire items. Next, a mean score for all the participants that averaged the scores for all the 20 items was calculated. This mean score was used to represent the participants' overall willingness to communicate. Then, a quartile split was conducted to split the participants into these four levels based on the mean score of WTC.

Table 3 Groups of participants based on their willingness to communicate levels

| | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Low WTC levels | 8 | 25 |
| Low to moderate WTC levels | 8 | 25 |
| Moderate to high WTC levels | 8 | 25 |
| High WTC levels | 8 | 25 |
| Total | 32 | 100 |

Table 4 presents the participants' self-reported willingness to communicate levels in different situations from the English language classroom.

Table 4 Participants' willingness to communicate in regular English classes (N=32)

| Item | Definitely | Probably | Probably | Definitely | Frequency |
|--|-------------|-------------|----------|------------|-----------|
| | Not willing | Not willing | Willing | Willing | |
| Valid | | | | | missing |
| 1 Volunteer an answer when the teacher asks a question in English in class | 50.0% | 21.9% | 21.9% | 6.3% | 0 |
| 2 Participate in English in group discussion in class | 6.3% | 21.9% | 40.6% | 31.3% | 0 |
| 3 Present your own opinion in English in class | 13.3% | 10.0% | 56.7% | 20.0% | 2 |
| 4 Do a role-play in English in your group | 46.9% | 21.9% | 15.5% | 15.6% | 0 |
| 5 Do a role-play in English standing in front of the class | 64.5% | 16.1% | 6.5% | 12.9% | 1 |
| 6 Give a short speech in English about a topic of your interest with notes | 35.5% | 19.4% | 38.7% | 6.5% | 1 |
| 7 Ask your teacher a question or a classification in English | 18.8% | 21.9% | 18.8% | 40.6% | 0 |

| | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|
| 8 Read out two-way dialogue in English from the textbook | 15.6% | 25.0% | 28.1% | 31.3% | 0 |
| 9 Tell your class in English about a story you read in a book or saw on TV | 50.0% | 34.4% | 12.5% | 3.1% | 0 |
| 10 Tell your class in English about a personal story | 43.8% | 40.6% | 6.3% | 9.4% | 0 |
| 11 Translate a spoken utterance from Arabic into English | 28.1% | 12.5% | 28.1% | 31.3% | 0 |
| 12 Ask your teacher how to say a phrase you know how to say in Arabic but not in English | 6.5% | 19.4% | 12.9% | 61.3% | 1 |
| 13 Interview your classmate in English asking questions from the textbook | 25.0% | 18.8% | 37.5% | 18.8% | 0 |
| 14 Interview your classmate in English asking your original questions | 37.5% | 25.0% | 21.9% | 15.6% | 0 |
| 15 Ask your teacher in English how to pronounce a word | 6.3% | 25.0% | 21.9% | 46.9% | 0 |
| 16 Translate a sentence from Arabic into English to use in the class | 19.4% | 29.0% | 19.4% | 32.3% | 1 |

| | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|
| 17. Write a descriptive paragraph in English about a Saudi cultural event | 46.9% | 21.9% | 21.9% | 9.4% | 0 |
| 18. Write in English about your feedback on the classroom instruction | 35.5% | 19.4% | 32.3% | 12.9% | 1 |
| 19. Write instructions in English on how to make your favourite dish | 21.9% | 18.8% | 43.8% | 15.6% | 0 |
| 20. Express your opinion about your peer's work in the class | 9.4% | 28.1% | 28.1% | 34.4% | 0 |

When looking into the participants' responses to the WTC in a second language questionnaire, major trends can be noticed. The questionnaire shows that most of the participants reported their high willingness to communicate in situations that required a relatively brief discourse. For example, at least 60% of the respondents indicated their willingness to ask questions about the translation of Arabic phrase in English (Statement 12). This high percentage can be explained by the dominance of the grammar-translation method, which focuses primarily on translation between the first and second language. Also, about 47% of the participants were willing to ask how to pronounce a word (Statement 15), and 41% willingly asked for a question or clarification (Statement 7). These situations do not require advanced communicative competence, which reduces the participants' anxiety, the most influential factor on willingness to communicate in a second language.

In situations that required a more elaborate communication, the percentage has dropped sharply. For example, over half of the respondents 65% were "unwilling" to do a role-play in English in front of the class (Statement 5). Around 50% of the respondents reported their unwillingness to tell a story in front of the class or answer a question in front of the class (Statements 9 and 1, respectively). These percentages are expected since these activities require some degree of communicative competence in English, which Saudi students lack.

The participants' unwillingness to communicate in these situations can also be attributed to having to speak in front of a large audience. This result is in conformity with previous studies emphasising the influence of group size on willingness to communicate in a second language, as will be discussed in the following chapter.

Moreover, it is clear that situations that involved writing were among the least favourable situations to participate in. For example, around 68% of the participants were unwilling to "write a descriptive paragraph in English about a Saudi cultural event". Likewise, over half of the participants were unwilling to "Write in English about your feedback on the classroom instruction". However, it can be noticed that the participants' willingness to communicate in writing has risen when they rated this item "write instructions in English on how to make your favourite dish", which around 59% indicated they would willingly do. This change in willingness to communicate in the later situation can be attributed to the relevancy of topic to the participants. The participants were less willing to communicate in writing when the topics were less relevant to them such as writing about a Saudi cultural event or writing feedback on the classroom instruction. When the topic was more relevant and personal as writing about one's favourite dish, the participants were more willing. This result is in consistence with the extensive literature identifying relevancy of topic as is one of the most influential factors on willingness to communicate in a second language, which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6.

In one situation, translating from Arabic to English (Statement 11), percentages of "willingness" (31%) and "unwillingness" (28%) were close. Table 5 shows the participants' level of willingness to communicate according to the mode of communication.

Table 5 Participants' willingness to communicate in written and spoken communication.

| | No. of items | Mean |
|--|--------------|------|
| Overall WTC level | 20 | 2.42 |
| Willingness to communicate in speaking | 17 | 2.45 |
| Willingness to communicate in writing | 3 | 2.23 |

Table 5 shows that the participants had slightly higher mean WTC in speaking scores compared to WTC writing scores. However, it cannot be concluded that the participants were more willing to speak than to write due to the unequal number of items distributed to each category.

5.1.2 Qualitative Results

5.1.2.1 Field notes

The second data set used to address the first research question was qualitative data obtained from the researcher's participant observation while playing the role of the facilitator of the activity and also from the participants' responses to the post-intervention interview questions. Each one of these data sets were analysed independently, and their results were merged together to provide a deeper understanding of the discussed point. Where appropriate, tables are used to summarise the emergent themes. Likewise, the participants' responses that represent the view of the majority will be cited.

The aggregated qualitative data relevant to the first question were categorised into three sections: the results indicating an increase in the participants' willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity; the next part moves on to present the participants' perceptions about the reasons this activity was able to engender their willingness to communicate, and finally the results showing the dynamic nature of participants' willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity. Further sub-sections were refined and added to provide more contexts to these three major sections.

5.1.2.1.1 *Increase of the participants' willingness to communicate in the digital storytelling activity.*

As was mentioned previously, Cao and Philp's (2006) observation scheme was used for the first few classes. Based on it, the most frequent indications of willingness to communicate were suggesting an opinion about the project, engaging actively in classroom discussion, collaborating with group members, working enthusiastically on the project, showing up in the class, and asking the teacher after the class. The least observed indications of willingness to communicate were asking the teacher a question in the class, offering a comment, and raising a hand to answer a question.

Showing up in the class was one of the most significant indication of their willingness to communicate because it was made clear from the outset of the study that their participation in the activity was voluntary and that their performance will have no

effect on their grades in the English subject. More important, they were informed they would not receive any external rewards for their participation.

All the participants who were categorised as somewhat willing or unwilling avoided asking or answering in front of the class despite the teacher/researcher's attempts to encourage them. Some did come frequently after the class and asked project relevant questions. The same somewhat willing and unwilling participants, however, engaged actively in group discussion, showed up in every class, and worked enthusiastically on their digital stories. It should be noted that these discussions were not entirely in English. As Amnah justified: "it is difficult to carry on the whole discussion in English, we wish we at this fluency level, but unfortunately we are not". Asmaa added: "our English is terrible, please allow us to use Arabic instead". At first, I was hesitant I thought this would lessen their opportunity to improve their communicative competence in English. After judging the situation and consulting the relevant literature, occasional using of Arabic was permitted. In fact, Arabic use was more frequent in the speech of the least willing participants.

After a few classes, L2 WTC questionnaire was used to guide the observation. This change was believed to yield more accurate information because it enabled observing any change in the participant's willingness using her own indicators. As in Table 4, which shows the participants' self-reported willingness to communicate, the participants avoided situations related to telling or writing stories. Half of the respondents (50%) were unwilling to tell the class about a story from a book or TV. Also, about the same percentage (44%) of the respondents were unwilling to tell the class a story even if it was personal.

However, those participants demonstrated a satisfactory degree of willingness to communicate in writing and telling their stories during the digital storytelling activity. In fact, they eagerly wrote and told their stories. Eagerness does not denote the produced digital stories were perfect, rather; it refers to the participants' high willingness to participate in the activity despite the linguistic and non-linguistics obstacles. One of the most notable examples was Raneem, who rated herself as unwilling. She was extremely excited about the project and the one who initiated discussion in her group, gave opinions about the possible story topics, and wrote up and recorded her part of the story first.

More importantly, the participants who reported their unwillingness to engage in group discussions or to present their ideas in the classroom were observed to contribute willingly to these situations during the digital storytelling activity. For example, Weaam, whose willingness to communicate was moderate was one of the creators of the digital story titled “War in Arab countries”. On the L2 WTC questionnaire, she rated herself on item 10: “telling the class about a personal story” as extremely not willing. Nonetheless, she and Raneem were the most active members in their group. In fact, she was the one who suggested publishing the stories on YouTube.

In general, the participants’ reticence during the activity was not frustrating given their English proficiency level. Reticence was minimal and interpreted as a silence needed to comprehend the input or prepare a comprehensible output. As noted previously, participation involved occasional use of Arabic where the participants experienced communication breakdown and were not able to communicate themselves in English. reticence was observed to increase and decrease throughout the activity.

However, five of the participants who were characterised as least willing to communicate continued to be reticent. Moreover, a few have identified themselves as high willing to communicate, yet they showed low levels of willingness during the study. The reasons for the increase and decrease in the participants’ willingness to communicate will be discussed in the next parts.

The qualitative data from observations was explained, supported, or contradicted by the participants’ responses to the interview questions related to their willingness to communicate. Next section will outline these reasons.

5.1.2.2 Interview responses.

Qualitative data was also obtained from the participants’ responses to the interview questions. These responses further confirmed the observation.

5.1.2.3 Perceived reasons for the increase in the participants’ willingness to communicate.

Interestingly, the participants did not let their English language deficiency prevent them from this opportunity. They were not obligated to complete the activity and were not receiving any external rewards or fearing consequences. Nonetheless, they

searched for ways to compensate for their language deficiencies. In order for their stories to get published, translation was the most suitable strategy to implement during the writing stage. They wrote their stories in Arabic and translated into English with the help of online dictionaries, a friend, or a family member. Narrating their stories were more challenging. Because they knew their stories will not be published unless each contributor to the story recorded their segment, they practiced a lot before recording.

When the participants were asked: “How do you rate your willingness to communicate in English during this project, compared to your willingness in regular classes?” 19 out of 20 answered “higher” while Remaas, who self-rated her willingness to communicate as high and was also observed to maintain it, responded: “no change”. The following part will start with presenting the reasons the participants believed were behind this increase. This information was obtained from the participants who self-rated themselves as least willing but were more willing during the activity as well as the participants who maintained high willingness to communicate prior and during the activity. The participants whose willingness to communicate was low prior and during the activity were also interviewed to find out the reasons along with the responses of the participants who rated themselves as high willing on the L2 WTC questionnaire but were less willing during the activity.

Table 6 summarises the participants’ overlapping views in relation to the aspects of digital storytelling activity which caused the increase in their willingness to participate in the classroom. These themes emerged in the responses of the participants who stated that their willingness to communicate was higher in this activity and their behaviour reflected this. They were asked: “You said your willingness to participate was higher during this activity when compared to the regular English classes, why?” The participants’ responses were categories into four major emergent themes: ‘communicative language teaching’, ‘relevancy of the topic’, ‘cooperative learning’ and ‘intrinsic motivation’. Some of these responses were coded under different themes. Observation notes were also used to provide examples from the participants’ activities, actions, reactions, and words during the activity.

Table 6 Participants' reasoning for the increase of their willingness to communicate during digital storytelling activity

| Emergent Themes | Frequency |
|--|-----------|
| Communicative Language Teaching “The activity was amazing; it gave me the ability to speak more English.” “This activity gives a better opportunity to practice English than normal classes.” | 15 |
| Relevancy of the Topic “We loved participating, and I liked talking about the war in Syria and the circumstances we are currently living.” “I liked expressing my feelings to let other people know about what happened in my country.” | 13 |
| Cooperation “The idea of teamwork with the girls excites me more.” “There is cooperation, and this is nice.” “It was very exciting because we shared ideas, and knew each other more because we talked to each other about this subject.” | 12 |
| Intrinsic Motivation “The idea of the activity was interesting.” “If the teacher supported you that is enough, you keep trying to be good.” | 12 |

5.1.2.3.1.1 *Communicative language teaching*

The most recurring theme for the perceived reasons for the success of the digital storytelling activity to engender the participants’ willingness to communicate in the classroom was its communicative nature. Responses relevant to this idea were labelled under communicative language teaching because they were describing the features of communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. The most important characteristic of the CLT approach is creating opportunities for language use inside the classroom. The participants reported that the digital storytelling activity offered them plenty of opportunities to interact in the classroom. When the participants were asked: “what made your willingness to communicate increase during the digital storytelling activity?” Amnah, commented: “The activity gave me the ability to speak more English”. Another participant, Shahad, echoed this point in her response to the question stating that “This activity gave me a better opportunity to practice my English more than normal classes”.

The amount of time allocated to participants' talk during this activity was abundant and teacher's talk was to facilitate learning and promote communication in the classroom. In this connection, the participants expressed their gratitude that the activity allowed them to use their English resources, which was often combined with complaints about the current instructional approach. They described their regular English classes as: "it is all on the board or the projector", "there is no role-play activities", and "the teacher only explains and asks questions". The participants did not find such classroom environments helpful to enhance their communication skills due to the absence of opportunity. On the other hand, the digital storytelling activity increased the participants' opportunity to communicate.

Equally important, these communication opportunities were used to communicate for real, authentic purposes. The participants had the right to choose the topics of the stories, which made the participants more willing to communicate. In their response to the question about what aspect of the digital storytelling activity helped increase their willingness to communicate, most of them have indicated the relevancy of the topic, which is also another important feature of the communicative language teaching approach. The following quotes illuminate this point: "I liked talking about the war in Syria and the circumstances we are currently living", "I liked expressing my feelings to let other people know what happened in my country".

5.1.2.3.1.2 Topic relevancy

The fact that the digital storytelling activity offered the participants the chance to express their own thoughts was a significant factor in increasing their willingness to communicate. These responses were labelled "relevancy of the topic" which is an important factor in the literature of WTC. The digital storytelling activity gave the participants the opportunity to choose personally relevant topics to write their stories about. Each group chose a topic of their members' interest and each participant, in turn, added her own experience, perspective, or understanding of the topic.

Even though most participants considered the relevancy of topic as an influential factor in increasing their desire to communicate, this aspect of the activity was noticed to be more significant to some. One participant, for example, was abandoned by her father and brought up by her mother. This personal experience instilled a deep appreciation

in her for her mother and a desire to always express this appreciation. According to the participant, the final video was “an expression of love and to tell her I am proud to be her daughter”. In fact, at the request of the participant, her mother was the first to watch the video before it was presented in front of the class or published online.

Likewise, other participants found, in digital storytelling, the means through which they can express their suffering and liberate their negative feelings. One Syrian participant, Asmaa, who had immigrated with her family to Saudi Arabia, commented: “We loved participating, and I liked talking about the Syrian war and the circumstances we’re currently living”. Another participant, Raneem, who escaped devastation in her country, Yemen, echoed this impression: “Indeed, this project gives us opportunity to share our longing to where we belong, where our loved ones are, and where we want to grow up”. For those participants, creating a digital story was more than an English language learning tool, it was a meaningful purpose for language use. **In other words, using English to talk about authentic, personal ideas makes use of English meaningful.**

5.1.2.3.1.3 Cooperative learning

Out of the 20 interviewed participants, 13 considered the cooperative aspect of the digital storytelling activity key to the increase in their willingness to communicate in the classroom, especially after they were able to choose who they wanted to work with to create their digital stories. Cooperation greatly influenced their willingness to communicate and, ultimately, generated extended discussions among group members. They were working willingly and passionately.

It was noticed that creating digital stories collaboratively has helped the participants in different ways. For example, the challenges posed by the activity were more bearable for the participants due to cooperation. The most challenging task in the digital storytelling activity was writing a story in a language they struggle with. Though the majority of the participants had low oral competence, some were better at writing. For those participants of low English proficiency, working with other participants made them less anxious about their writing quality as they could benefit from their peers’ advice and feedback. This point was particularly repeated among the participants of the group who created the digital storytelling about “Racism”. Hadeel was one of those members and she was fluent in English. She was their anchor. For

example, Renaad, said: “We are lucky we had Hadeel in our group, she helped us all in writing our story”. Another participant from the group, Ebhaar, added: “cooperation eased our anxiety about writing the story. Hadeel is good at English and she was a great help”.

Another challenging aspect of the digital storytelling activity was the use of new software. **The participants were at different levels in their language proficiency and their digital competence as well.** Thus, working in groups where there were more digitally competent peers made the less competent in technology participants more at ease. This was especially helpful during the production stage, which required some technological knowledge. One participant, Shahad, commented: “Groups are nice and helpful like putting pictures together or editing the clips we are talking about”. In summary, the anxiety that arises from the challenges of second language use and uptake of new technology were reduced by cooperative group work, making the participants more willing to communicate.

The participants benefitted from the group cooperation and a chance to strengthen relationships with each other. One participant, Aseel, commented: “Our involvement in the achievement of one activity did not only make us motivated but we also got to know each other well”. The same idea was echoed by another participant, Ayah: “The activity was exciting because we knew each other more because we talked a lot about the topic”. Beside enhancing relationships, it was also observed that collaboration has ignited a sense of competition among groups, which fed into the quality of their videos.

5.1.2.3.1.4 Intrinsic motivation

The participants frequently indicated specific reasons for the increase in their willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity. These reasons were labelled under “intrinsic motivation” because after searching these factors it was found they are all factors of satisfying intrinsic motivation.

The most frequently mentioned reason was that the activity satisfied their need to feel autonomous. During this activity the participants had very little guidance from the instructor and they took charge of their own learning. The role of the facilitator was to provide resources, monitor progress encourage participants to overcome obstacles, and to offer secure and warm relationship with the participants. On the other hand, the

participants took more responsibility over their own learning. This quote from Ameerah illuminates this point:” This project is different. In our regular classroom the teacher will ask us to read a paragraph, and then she will ask us about the meanings of the words.. she will make us close the books and if it is a conversation, we will recite it with her. In this activity we are in control of things”.

The participants’ feel of autonomy appeared in various forms. Primarily, they felt more responsible for their products. This sense of responsibility resulted in them thinking creatively and trying to solve problems. For example, because their pronunciation was poor they used Arabic letters to represent the pronunciation of new or difficult English words in their story script. This action is an apparent example that the participants felt responsible about the quality of their videos and that they used a coping strategy to compensate for their English language inadequacy.

Another frequently mentioned reason for the increase in willingness to communicate was that the activity was interesting and the participants enjoyed their participation. The participants repeatedly used these words to describe the reasons their willingness to communicate increased during the activity: “it was fun”, “the idea of the activity was interesting”, and “I liked this activity, our regular classes are boring”, “ this activity is fun , I feel like I learned how to make a video with sounds, I learned new words and I learned how to write a story”. Being an interesting activity was perhaps the most influential factor in increasing their willingness to communicate. The participants completed their products out of pure enjoyment; there were no external rewards or punishments.

Though it is not a feature of the activity, the participants often stressed and frequently stated how the facilitator’s support and encouragement during the activity increased their willingness to communicate. This effect of the facilitator’s positive feedback on students’ motivation, self-perception, and willingness to make an effort was profound. One participant, Amnah, repeatedly mentioned how encouragement had helped her: “Recording was challenging but when I saw you with us, you said my voice was nice and my reading was fine and my performance was good I felt motivated” she maintained, “If the teacher supported you that is enough, you keep trying to be good”. Another participant commented: “Writing was difficult...It got easier when you

inspired us”. In Hadeel’s words:” our regular teacher never joked with us or spread positive energy...we do not look forward for the class”.

5.1.2.4 Perceived reasons for the ineffectiveness of the digital storytelling activity on the participants’ willingness to communicate

As was mentioned previously, five participants were characterised as low willing based on their responses on the L2 WTC questionnaire. By observing those participants, it was noticed that their willingness to communicate did not increase during the activity. Likewise, there were two participants whose willingness to communicate was high on the questionnaire. However, this level of willingness was not reflected on their behaviour during the study. They were interviewed to find out the reasons and their responses were coded as follows:

5.1.2.4.1.1 Lack of interest in learning English

All the participants whose self-rated willingness to communicate was low explicitly said they do not have interest in the English language. This appeared in their response to the following question: “your willingness to communicate was low according to your responses on the questionnaire and I noticed it did not change during this study, Why?” Zainab said: “It is not about the project, English is difficult, so I do not like it”. In Hajer’s words: “no point in learning English, I will not major in English in the university”. Raneem S just responded with “nothing, I just do not like English”.

These participants were all noticed to have an extremely low English proficiency level. They were not capable of composing short sentences confidently. They avoided participating in front of the class and among their group members. Their contribution to the creation of the digital stories was limited to giving their opinions about the story topic, choosing the suitable multimedia. They did not participate in the recording and did not engage in the group discussion unless using Arabic. Therefore, they rarely entered these discussions.

5.1.2.4.1.2 *Personal characteristics*

Another factor two of the five participants identified to influence their degree of willingness to communicate is their personality. Ghaida, explained her reticence in the following words: “I am always like this, inside and outside classroom, I do not speak a lot”. Her answers to the interview questions were succinct and she was not very comfortable she needed the interview to end quickly. Mozoom also noted that her willingness to communicate did not change before and after the intervention for reasons external to the activity. She stated: “it is more about me not the class, true I sometimes feel more willing to communicate, but in general I do not feel talking”. Unlike the participants who expressed their lack of interest in learning English, these two participants were noticed to remain silent not only during discussions that required use of English, but even with their friends.

5.1.2.4.1.3 *Inaccurate responses*

The two participants, who self-rated themselves on the L2 WTC questionnaire as high willing but showed an average to low willing to communicate during the activity, were also interviewed to explain this contradiction. They did not give real reasons. Tasneem, for example, stated: “I liked the activity, it was interesting, I even think I participated during the activity more than in the regular English classes”. Turkiah also said: “I do not know, my desire to participate is the same”.

It seems their rating of the L2 WTC questionnaire was not an accurate description of their degree of willingness and that their willingness to communicate in the regular English classes was not high. A possible explanation is that they did not really read the questionnaire and they randomly completed it. It could also be that they did read it but did not want to show their weakness.

5.1.2.5 **The dynamic nature of the participants’ willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity**

The participants’ willingness to communicate, measured by the quantity of oral participation, was noted to fluctuate as time progressed. At the beginning of the digital

storytelling activity oral participation was low even in the participants who were categorised with high willingness to communicate based on their responses to the L2 WTC questionnaire. There were situations in the questionnaire such as “Ask your teacher how to say a phrase you know how to say in Arabic but not in English”, “Ask your teacher in English how to pronounce a word”, and “Ask your teacher a question or a classification in English”, which the participants indicated they were most willing to participate in during their regular English classes. Yet, those reported high levels of willingness did not correspond with the performance of the participants during similar situations while participating in this study. When they were also asked during the interview: “Do you think your willingness to participate changed from time to time during this project?” 16 out of 20 students answered with “yes” and the majority stated they were least willing to communicate during the first steps of the preparation stage, which corresponded with the researcher’s observation notes.

During the first steps of the preparation stage, participants did not show genuine desire for participation. Rather, the majority seemed anxious and expressed their fear of an inability to fulfil the requirements of the activity. Some participants, for example, argued their participation in the activity would be insignificant due to their limited English proficiency, and thus, their inability to compose, narrate a story, or engage in lengthy discussion. The participants’ willingness to communicate increased gradually so that during the final steps of the preparation stage, which included coming up with a story topic and writing the stories, the participants were demonstrating satisfactory levels of willingness to communicate. One participant responded to the interview question about when she was most and least willing to communicate during the activity: “The first two classes had no excitement, but when we started to write, when you gave us the things that we’ll be doing, and when we started to write the chosen subjects, that was nice”.

But then it was observed that the participants’ willingness to communicate slightly decreased during the final step of the production stage that required them to use “WeVideo” platform to weave the multimedia elements together. After they have finished this step, the participants’ willingness to communicate increased again reaching its highest towards the end of the activity.

5.2 Results relevant to the second research question: What is the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation in a Saudi EFL classroom?

Research question 2 aimed at finding out if the digital storytelling activity has the potential to increase language learners' intrinsic motivating. Dissimilar to previous research, this study focuses on intrinsic motivation as conceptualized in the self-determination theory. According to the self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation is the pleasure individuals experience when doing an activity. This pleasure does not stem from extrinsic motives like punishment or reward, rather, from the satisfaction of the three basic needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Answers to this question were obtained quantitatively from the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory administered after the end of the activity and qualitatively from in-class observations and post-intervention interviews. Thus, the following discussion will be under two sections. The first section presents the quantitative data obtained from the IMI. The second section presents the qualitative data from classroom observation and the participants' responses to the post-intervention interview to find out the reasons for which the activity was or was not intrinsically motivating.

5.2.1 Quantitative Results: Responses to Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI)

The first data set used to address research question 2 consists of the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory, which was distributed to the participants at the end of the digital storytelling activity. It consists of 18 items distributed over four subscales: Interest/Enjoyment (Statements 1-5), Perceived Competence (statements 6-10), Usefulness (Statements 11-15), and Pressure/Tension (Statements 16-18), which students rated on a seven-point scale from (1) being "not at all true"; (4) "somewhat true", and (7) "very true". The inventory was completed by the 32 participants who took the L2WTC questionnaire at the beginning of the study and participated in the tasks of creating digital storytelling. Table 7 reports on the participants' subjective experience in relation to their participation in the digital storytelling activity. It reports on the mean and standard deviation of the four indicators of interest, competence, usefulness, and pressure.

Table 7 participants' evaluation of their intrinsic motivation during the digital storytelling activity

| Subscale | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|----------------------|------|--------------------|
| Interest/Enjoyment | 5.79 | 1.09 |
| Perceived competence | 5.23 | 1.28 |
| Value/Usefulness | 5.67 | 1.03 |
| Pressure/Tension | 2.51 | 1.63 |

5.2.1.1 Interest/enjoyment

This variable ranged from 3.40 to 7.00 with a mean of 5.79, which was the highest subscale mean score. Within this subscale, the participants had five statements to rate from 1 being “*not at all true*”, 4 being “*somewhat true*”, and 7 being “*very true*”.

Table 8 The participants’ feel of interest while doing digital stories

| Interest/enjoyment subscale | 1 (not at all true) | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 (somewhat true) | | 5 | | 6 | | 7 (very true) | |
|--|------------------------|-------|---|------|---|------|----------------------|-------|---|------|---|------|------------------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| 1. I enjoyed working on the digital storytelling project very much | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 12.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 29 | 90.62 |
| 2. Creating a digital story was fun to do | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 12.5 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 9.37 | 25 | 78.12 |
| 3. Creating a digital story was a boring project | 21 | 65.62 | 1 | 3.12 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 2 | 6.25 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 18.75 |
| 4. This project did not hold my attention at all | 15 | 46.87 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 18.75 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3.12 | 10 | 31.25 |
| 5. I would describe the digital storytelling as very interesting | 1 | 3.12 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 6 | 18.75 | 3 | 9.37 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 62.5 |

As can be seen in Table 8, the majority of the participants (90%) chose “*very true*” for the first item “I enjoyed working on the digital storytelling project very much”. This is a strong positive indication the activity was intrinsically motivating because interest is the pure form of intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1992). More than half of the participants

(78%) and (62%) also described “creating a digital story was fun to do” and “I would describe the digital storytelling project as very interesting” as *very true*, respectively.

In addition, more than half of the participants (68%) considered the statement “creating a digital story was a boring project” *not at all true*. Four participants, however, chose *very true* for this statement. This percentage slightly dropped so that only (48%) considered the statement “this project did not hold my attention at all” *very true*, and about (32%) of the participants chose *very true* to this statement. The participants who thought the digital storytelling was boring and did not hold their attention were interviewed to find out why.

5.2.1.2 Perceived competence

This variable ranged from 2.00 to 6.60 with a mean of 5.24, which was slightly lower than the mean score of ‘interest/enjoyment subscale’ and ‘value/useful subscale’ 5.79 and 5.67, respectively. Within this subscale, the participants had five statements to rate from 1 being “*not at all true*”, 4 being “*somewhat true*”, and 7 being “*very true*”

Table 9 The participants’ competence at doing digital stories

| Perceived competence subscale | 1 (not at all true) | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 (somewhat true) | | 5 | | 6 | | 7 (very true) | |
|---|--|------|------|------|------|------|----------------------|-------|------|-------|------|------|------------------|------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| | 1. I think I did pretty well in the digital storytelling | 2 | 6.25 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 8 | 26.6 | 1 | 3.12 | 0 | 0 | 18 |
| 2. I am satisfied with my performance in this project | 4 | 12.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 15.62 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 20 | 62.5 |
| 3. I was pretty skilled at creating a digital story | 2 | 6.25 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 9 | 28.12 | 7 | 21.87 | 4 | 12.5 | 8 | 25 |
| 4. After working on this project for a while, I felt pretty competent | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 23.3 | 2 | 6.25 | 4 | 12.5 | 16 | 50 |
| 5. digital storytelling was a project that I could not do very well | 17 | 56.6 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 2 | 6.25 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 8 | 25 |

As indicated in Table 9, more than half of the participants (56%) believed they did pretty well in the digital storytelling project. A higher percentage of the participants of about (71%) were satisfied with their performance in this project, and (62%) believed they were pretty skilled at creating a digital story. The participants’ sense of

competence is another significant indicator the digital storytelling activity was intrinsically motivating.

Over half of the participants (68%) felt pretty competent in doing a digital story, however; 8 participants rated the statement: “digital storytelling was a project I felt that I could not do very well” to be *very true* to them. This drop can be partly attributed to the participants’ limited English proficiency. As obvious, the major component of the digital storytelling activity is the story writing, which needs a relatively vast vocabulary and knowledge of grammar. The participants’ unfamiliarity with the form of ICT used for story creation can also feed into their sense of incompetence. Nonetheless, those participants were interviewed to investigate the reasons for their sense of incompetence.

5.2.1.3 Value/usefulness

This variable ranged from 2.80 to 7.00 with a mean of 5.68, which is slightly lower than the interest/enjoyment subscale mean score of 5.79. Within this subscale, the participants had five statements to rate from 1 being “*not at all true*”, 4 being “*somewhat true*”, and 7 being “*very true*”. In this subscale, the participants evaluated the perceived value of digital storytelling for their digital and linguistic competence and their willingness to participate in the class, as well.

Table 10 The participants’ evaluation of the value of the digital storytelling

| Value/usefulness subscale | 1 (not at all true) | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 (somewhat true) | | 5 | | 6 | | 7 (very true) | |
|--|------------------------|------|---|------|---|------|----------------------|-------|---|------|---|-------|------------------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| 1. I think digital storytelling is important because it reinforces my digital skills. | 3 | 9.37 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 28.12 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.21 | 17 | 53.12 |
| 2. I think working on this project helped me improve my speaking skills | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3.21 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 15.62 | 2 | 6.25 | 2 | 6.25 | 22 | 68.75 |
| 3. I would be willing to work on this project again because it enhances my other English language skills (e.g., reading, writing, and listening) | 3 | 9.37 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 8 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 17 | 53.12 |
| 4. 5. I believe digital storytelling could increase my willingness to speak English in the class | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3.21 | 9 | 28.12 | 8 | 25 | 5 | 15.62 | 9 | 28.12 |
| 5. I think it is beneficial to integrate digital storytelling in the English language classroom | 1 | 3.21 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 18.75 | 2 | 6.25 | 2 | 6.25 | 21 | 65.62 |

Table 10 shows that most of the participants (62%) thought digital storytelling is important to reinforce their digital skills. Concerning linguistic competence, a higher percentage (80%) thought this project improved their English language. However, the participants thought improvement in English language skills could happen if they did this activity more often. About (84%) of the participants considered the statement: “I would be willing to work on this project again because it enhances my other English language skills (e.g., reading, writing, and listening) as *somewhat or very true* to them.

The effect of the digital storytelling on the participants’ willingness to communicate was positive. The majority of the participants (90%) rated the statement: “I believe digital storytelling could increase my willingness to speak English in the class” as *very true or somewhat true*. This finding also supports the finding reported in the previous section on the positive effect of digital storytelling on willingness to communicate. The last item in this subscale was to know the participants’ perception about the integration of digital storytelling in the English language classroom, which 93% of the participants indicated to a moderate or high extent.

The participants perception of an activity as useful is a positive indicator the activity is intrinsically motivating because, according to Deci and Ryan (2000), if an activity was not interesting in itself, students would still be intrinsically motivated to do it when they realise its value and embrace it till it begins to be interesting.

5.2.1.4 Pressure/tension

This variable ranged from 1.00 to 6.00 with a mean of 2.52. This means that the participants did not experience high levels of pressure while creating their digital stories. Experiencing pressure while doing an activity undermines intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). As with the previous subscales, the participants had three statements to rate from 1 being “*not at all true*”, 4 being “*somewhat true*”, and 7 being “*very true*”.

Table 11 The participants' experience of pressure during the digital storytelling activity

| Pressure/tension subscale | 1 (not at all true) | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 (somewhat true) | | 5 | | 6 | | 7 (very true) | |
|--|------------------------|-------|---|------|---|------|----------------------|------|---|------|---|------|------------------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| 1. I felt pressure while working on the digital storytelling project | 22 | 68.75 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 1 | 3.12 | 2 | 6.25 | 4 | 12.5 |
| 2. I was anxious while working on this project | 15 | 46.87 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 8 | 25 | 2 | 6.25 | 1 | 3.12 | 3 | 9.37 |
| 3. I did not feel nervous at all while working on this project | 3 | 9.37 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6.25 | 4 | 12.4 | 2 | 6.25 | 2 | 6.25 | 18 | 56.25 |

For about (64%) of the participants, they did not feel pressured while working on the digital storytelling project and were not anxious while working on this project. Likewise, the statement: “I did not feel nervous at all while working on this project” was *somewhat true* or *very true* to (90%) of the participants. However, for five participants, they felt pressure while doing the digital storytelling activity for a very to moderate extent. They were selected for interview to investigate the source of their pressure.

Table 12 Differences between the participants' intrinsic motivation based on their nationality.

| Subscale | Nationality | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|----------------------|-------------|------|----------------|
| Interest/enjoyment | Non-Saudi | 6.40 | 0.48 |
| | Saudi | 5.62 | 1.15 |
| Perceived competence | Non-Saudi | 5.97 | 0.65 |
| | Saudi | 5.03 | 1.35 |
| Value/usefulness | Non-Saudi | 5.85 | 0.71 |
| | Saudi | 5.62 | 1.11 |
| Pressure/tension | Non-Saudi | 1.94 | 1.55 |
| | Saudi | 2.65 | 1.65 |

By performing independent sample t-test, non-Saudi participants had greater mean interest/enjoyment scores compared to Saudi participants. Saudi participants, however, had greater mean score on the pressure subscale. There was no difference in the mean score between the Saudi and non-Saudis of the perceived competence and value.

This quantitative data was triangulated by qualitative data obtained from in-class observations and post-intervention interview with the participants. The participants Raneem, Nuha, and Amnah were specifically interviewed to investigate why they had high levels of intrinsic motivation. The participants Raghad and Turkiah were interviewed to investigate why they were not motivated and specifically to see if value/usefulness and pressure/tension were an issue.

5.2.2 Qualitative Results: observation notes and interview responses

The second data set used to address research question 2 consists of the researcher's participant observation and interview with the participants. Observation was a valuable instrument to watch for certain markers of intrinsic motivation, interest, task persistence and excitement. The observation also helped capture the participants' interactions and reactions during the different tasks throughout the activity which help interpret the quantitative data. Interviews with the participants provided a chance to probe unexpected, extraordinary, and even common actions observed throughout the study. Specifically, the participants who scored high levels of intrinsic motivation as well as those who was not intrinsically motivated were interviewed to find out the reasons that promoted or thwarted their intrinsic motivation.

Observation notes and interview responses were analysed together to understand the full picture of the participants' experience. The following sections presents, first, the qualitative data from observation indicating the effect of the digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation, and then the participants' perceived reason for this effect.

5.2.2.1 Effect of digital storytelling activity on participants' intrinsic motivation

The participants were observed throughout the activity for behavioural signs of intrinsic motivation, specifically, interest and persistence. The majority of the participants were interested in the digital storytelling activity. That is, they showed a reasonable extent of concentration, engagement in the different steps of the activity, and, above all, enjoyment while doing it. The degree of interest, however, was not

stable throughout the activity. For example, the participants were least interested in the first stage of the activity. It took them some time to perceive the nature and value of the activity and familiarize themselves with the facilitator. By the second stage, the participants' interest increased noticeably. They were entirely involved in the process of producing their digital stories. They found enjoyment in searching for suitable photos and background music, uploading their voiceover recordings, and merging them using the software. Nonetheless, some participants showed no to little interest in the activity. Both interested and uninterested participants were interviewed to understand the factors that promoted or thwarted their intrinsic motivation.

5.2.2.2 Factors promoting the participants' intrinsic motivation

The participants who showed interest in the activity were asked: "Did this project make your English classroom more enjoyable?" and 16 out of 20 interviewees answered with words like "Yes", "of course", and "a lot". The participants' feeling of enjoyment when doing the digital storytelling activity was an indication that their ongoing participation in the activity was an intrinsically motivated behaviour (Deci, 1992). In addition, when they were asked about their experience of creating digital stories, they described it with statements such as "it was fun", "unlike the regular classes, this activity was not boring", and "I liked the idea of the activity, it was interesting". Integration of an activity that is interesting to the participants ensured they would willingly do it again even in the absence of external punishment or rewards, as argued by (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The participants were probed further to find out the reasons that contributed to creating this positive effect. These reasons are presented in depth in the following section. Because a range of qualitative data was collected under this broad heading, the section was divided into further sub-sections: activity-specific factors and teacher-specific factors. There is an overlap between some of these factors and the factors facilitating the participants' willingness to communicate presented in the previous section.

5.2.2.2.1.1 Enhancement of autonomy

The participants attributed a great deal of the increase in their intrinsic motivation during the digital storytelling activity to its enhancement of their autonomy.

Participants had very little guidance from the instructor and they took charge of their own learning. In fact, the instructor's role was one of a facilitator, who provided resources, monitored progress and encouraged participants to solve problems. For example, during the preparation stage, participants chose their group members, what topics they wrote their stories about, and what multimedia elements to include. That degree of control over learning enhanced participants' problem-solving and critical thinking and empowered them to make responsible decisions.

An example of the participants making sound decisions out of their sense of autonomy and responsibility was when they were asked to choose their members. They made sure to include at least one with advanced English level and one advanced technical expert so that they could accomplish the requirements of producing English digital stories. They were observed embracing different approaches to overcome the challenge to write the stories and afterward to record their narrations. Due to their limited English proficiency, very few participants were able to write their stories originally in English. The majority wrote their stories, first, in Arabic and then used online dictionaries to translate the scripts into English. Other participants were at a higher level comparatively and so they were confident to use their English linguistic repertoire with minimal assistance from the instructor.

Another aspect of the participants' experience that reflected their autonomy was during the production stage. The participants' sense of responsibility to produce quality video was demonstrated when they had to record their narration of the stories. Their cautiousness not to make mistakes led them to use Arabic letters to represent the sound of the English words. Figure 11 shows the participants' use of this approach.

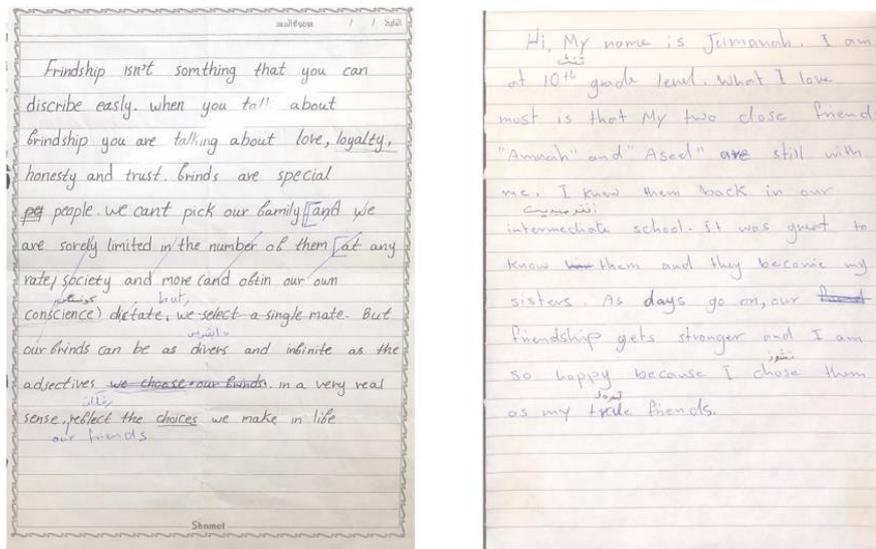


Figure 11 Participants' use of Arabic letters to represent the sound of English words

As can be seen in Figure 10, the participants wrote above the words, they feared they might pronounce incorrectly, while other Arabic words represented the pronunciation of these words. Most participants followed the same approach; one participant replaced the whole English transcript with Arabic words representing the sounds of the replaced English words. Regardless of the usefulness of this approach, linguistically speaking, it was effective and worked out. It was mentioned here as an example of the participants' incorporation of different solutions to the challenges they face during the activity, indicating their sense of autonomy.

5.2.2.2.1.2 *Optimal challenge*

The major challenge is that most of the participants were struggling with English and demonstrated low English language proficiency. Moreover, ICT was not used in language learning inside the classroom. The participants stated that the only form of ICT-based language learning they experienced was PowerPoint presentations which the teacher used occasionally to present lessons. Given these facts about the participants and their learning contexts, writing a story in English and using new software to turn it into a video were challenging tasks to the participants. However,

because these challenges were optimal, they were what the participants needed to feel intrinsically motivated to accomplish the activity. The digital storytelling activity presented the participants with the opportunity to prove themselves competent. When they were asked what was motivating about the digital storytelling activity, responses like “It made me feel like I can speak English and I do not have a weakness”, “It is a great thing that we produced videos in English” reveals this sense of achievement.

5.2.2.2.1.3 *Cooperative learning*

The cooperative aspect of the digital storytelling activity had a positive impact on the participants’ intrinsic motivation. When they were asked about this aspect of the activity, they stressed how working with their own friends was important. The following quotes from the participants’ responses clarify this point: “it is amazing to work with your own friend”, “It would not be exciting if you picked the group members”, and “The idea of teamwork with my friends excited me the most about the project”. It strengthened their relationships. One participant commented: “Cooperation was very exciting, we shared our thoughts, worked together, spent much time together to discuss the activity, we knew each other more”. This sense of connectedness was reflected in the choice of story topics. For example, the participants whose story was about “War in Arab countries” were immigrants, one Yemeni and three Syrians, another group chose to write about “friendship” as they were friends since primary school. Therefore, students found, in collaboration, a chance to satisfy their need to feel secure, valuable, and connected to their social circle. This, in turn, satisfied their need for social relatedness, which is a basic psychological need crucial for promoting intrinsic motivation and thus for developing self-regulation. They believed working in groups was important to their enjoyment during the activity.

Moreover, it was noticed working in groups ignited a sense of competition among groups, which fed into the quality of their videos. For example, one participant declared that she asked her older sister, who was an English teacher, to revise each member of the group’s script to make sure it was void of mistakes. One group insisted on not submitting their video till they had watched the work of the other groups in an attempt to produce a better video.

The participants found cooperation helpful especially during the production stage, as one participant commented: “Groups are nice and helpful like putting pictures together or editing the clips we are talking about”. The participants were at different levels of technology knowledge which made working in groups helpful for the novice and less tech savvy participants.

5.2.2.2.1.4 *Positive feedback*

Positive praise and encouraging comments from the researcher/facilitator constructively influenced the participants. From the classroom observations, positive feedback was found to be crucial for participants to maintain their intrinsic motivation during the activity. This was evident especially at some points of the digital storytelling activity. The first and more important occasion was at the commencement of the project. Many participants were noticeably demotivated and lacking in confidence that they would succeed at the activity. More accurately, they did not see value or significance of participating in this activity specifically when they are not earning points.

They even communicated their belief that mastering English is an unattainable goal because of the instruction method adopted to teach the subject. In Hajers’ words: “even if this activity was beneficial, what matters is what how learned English for the past years”. Another participant, Hadeel, added:

I studied at international schools where we had to use English to communicate with our friends in the class because they speak different first languages, when I moved to the public school, we all use Arabic, this did not improve our English language and the teachers did not care to find solutions”.

Confronted with this level of negativity, it was imperative for the researcher/facilitator to raise their awareness of the importance of mastering the English language and their potential to achieve this goal by putting in some effort. The effect of the facilitator’s encouraging words on the participants’ motivation was profound resulting in a noticeable shift in their attitude and more enthusiasm to participate in the activity to enhance their linguistic skills.

Another time where encouraging the participants and acknowledging their abilities worked very effectively was before and during the recording of their narrations. Participants were very nervous about recording because of their mispronunciation of many words. Some insisted on avoiding the step and asking a friend to do on their behalf. In such a situation, participants were in genuine need for encouragement and positive feedback. The consequences of this lack of confidence to speak out loud and be recorded were obvious on the participants' motivation, self-perception, and willingness to try. When the participants were asked, "what part of the project was the most challenging and how did you overcome this difficulty", participants' responses pointed to the impact of the instructor's feedback. One participant, for example, mentioned how encouragement had helped her: "Pronunciation was challenging, but I was determined to improve it, you said I was good and I did not want to disappoint you". Another participant commented: "Writing was difficult...It got easier when you inspired us, and I saw the girls writing".

Of similar effect was the feedback provided in the form of practical steps to help the participants overcome their fear of making pronunciation mistakes. Reading for them first was helpful and the participants appreciated it, as Remaas said: "When you read with me I felt like I'm getting better". Another Weaam commented: "I overcome the difficulty of reading the transcript because of your help, you were with me and you made it easier". The role of the teacher in lifting up the motivation of the participants was integral.

However, about seven of the participants were noticed not showing enjoyment during the activity and their participation was observed as being merely perfunctory rather than out of interest. These participants were also noted to be of significantly low English proficiency. This group rated their interest, perceived competence, value and tension on the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory the lowest. The next part is devoted to discussing the reasons for their low motivation.

5.2.2.3 Factors thwarting the participants' intrinsic motivation.

As was mentioned in section 5.2.1, there were some participants whose self-rated intrinsic motivation based on the IMI was low. Those participants were interviewed to

find out the factors contributing to the decrease of their intrinsic motivation. The following themes emerged from their responses:

5.2.2.3.1.1 Lack of interest in learning English

Those participants were asked “Did digital storytelling increase your learning motivation? If yes, how? If not, why?”. From the responses, the participants’ low intrinsic motivation can be mainly attributed to their unfavourable attitude towards the English language. For those participants, English is the subject they hate the most, besides Math. In Zainab’s words: “this activity did not increase my motivation, and this has nothing to do with the activity but I just do not like English”. From Hajer’s viewpoint: “this activity was fun, but English made it boring and difficult”. Raneem explained her low motivation: “I am not interested in enhancing my English language”. All those participants had an extremely low English language proficiency. It is also worth mentioning that those participants were characterised as low willing based on their responses on the L2 WTC questionnaire.

As was observed, those participants did not really engage with their group members in the creation of the digital stories. They only showed interest during some steps like choosing the story topic and selecting the photos and background music. Therefore, it can be concluded that the participants’ low intrinsic motivation was not caused by the features of the activity. It was largely due to negative affective factors such as lack of interest in learning English, lack of ambition and lack of perceived value.

5.2.2.3.1.2 Inaccurate responses

A few participants, Ghaida, Turkiah, Tasneem, lana, and Sabah were of more interest to be interviewed because their responses on the IMI showed that they experienced pressure during the activity. They were asked what caused this uncomfortable feeling. Interestingly, they all denied feeling any sort of pressure. They agreed they were not interested in the activity but never felt pressured. When they were told their responses on the IMI indicated otherwise, they gave reasons like: “I did not even read the items, I just chose the same choice number for all the items” Ghaida explained. For Turkiah: “I did not mean to say I was pressured, I followed a pattern in rating the items”.

5.3 Results relevant to the third research question: What aspects of communicative competence does digital storytelling enhance the most, as perceived by the participants?

This question sought to identify aspects of communicative competence participants had enhanced during their participation in the digital storytelling activity. This question was underpinned by an assumption that the characteristics and requirements for creating a digital story could touch on and improve some of these aspects. Answers to this question were obtained mainly through the participants' viewpoint. Classroom observations, and participants' story drafts and recordings of their narrations were also used.

The participants' communication patterns throughout the activity indicate that the digital storytelling activity had variably enhanced the participants' grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse aspects of communicative competence. Grammatical aspect of the participants' communicative competence was enhanced the most, particularly, phonology, grammar, and vocabulary. The aspects of discourse and strategic competence came next and were enhanced at a similar extent.

5.3.1 Phonology

The phonological aspect of the participants' grammatical competence witnessed a great deal of improvement during the digital storytelling project. This aspect is relevant to the pronunciation of words and includes, among others, intonation and rhythm. It is a crucial competence in English learners that they acquire skills and features of oral production which makes them more likely to be understood even if they were weaker in other linguistic aspects, as reinforced by Morley (1994) and Fraser (2000).

The participants were asked after the end of the activity: "what aspects of English language skills do you think your participation in the digital storytelling activity helped you to improve? How? 15 out of the 20 interviewee agreed that the most enhanced skill was "speaking". Shahad and added: "we developed confidence while speaking and recording". In Aiyah's words: "I learned how to speak some English words that I did not know to say before". Tasneem believed that the most enhanced language skills were reading and speaking, "I learned how to read well, and my speaking improved

because of writing and recording”. Jumanah said: “it developed my reading skill, I felt like I am slowly getting better”.

During the production phase of the digital storytelling activity, a major step was the participants’ narration of their segments of the shared story. Each participant had to record their segment of the story and upload it into the platform- “WeVideo”- to produce their digital stories. Most of the participants were so nervous about recording that they wanted to assign this task to someone else. One participant, Rehaab, pleaded: “Please I do not want to record, my pronunciation is horrible, I do not want to read my story out loud”.

Indeed, this step of the activity revealed, to a greater or lesser extent, the participants’ weakness and lack of confidence in their ability to read correctly. At first, their hesitation was thought to be normal because people usually recoil from having their voices recorded. Later, when participants began recording, it was obvious their awareness of their poor pronunciation was, largely, the reason. In realization of this weakness, the participants were observed to embrace some methods to help them tackle the issue of mispronunciation. One participant, Asmaa, described how she went about recognising the correct pronunciation: “I ask someone who knows English better to read it to me and then I write in Arabic letters the words I think I might forget”

Moreover, the participants highly appreciated the researcher’s role during this process. Reading for them before they read, allowing them to repeat, and encouraging them had powerful, although unintentional, impact to overcome their fear of making pronunciation mistakes. One participant, Amnah, commented: “Reading has a bit of difficulty, but with your help, you were with me and you made it easier”. This feeling was echoed in another participant’s response to the question on how she overcame her anxiety: “I saw you with us; you read for me, you said your reading was nice and your performance was good, you supported me”.

The participants’ reticence in the class and not having trained to read English out loud explains why the majority of the participants were poor at verbalising words in English. It was perceived from the responses of the participants that the regular classes follow primarily the grammar-translation method and lack incorporation of activities that offer ample opportunity for the use of the target language. When the participants were asked: “what teaching strategy the teacher used in the regular English class?”

Ameerah commented: “It’s all on the board or the projector, she only explains and discusses”, Aseel described: “The teacher uses the board and makes us participate, we sometimes read”, and Shahad confirmed “The teacher asks us to read a paragraph, and then she asks us about the meanings of the words”. Apparently, the traditional grammar-translation method dominates the instruction with little, or no, focus on enhancing the communicative aspect.

On the contrary, the extensive time the participants invested in reading and recording stories resulted in a noticeable improvement in their phonological competence. This improvement in phonology included, primarily, the participants’ recognition of the correct pronunciation of many words.

An obvious improvement in word pronunciation was observed when participants’ first and last recordings of their segments were compared. Even though participants still did not master the correct pronunciation of many words, the amount of improvement was satisfying given the participants’ low English proficiency and lack of opportunities to foster their learned words.

Improvement in phonology included the participants’ ability to use the tone and intonation that best convey their feelings, which are important in telling an emotionally provoking story. Listening to the participants’ digital stories, which was uploaded on YouTube and the links to these videos were provided in chapter 4, shows their understanding of the effect of using the right tone, which appears clearly in their employment of different tones to give life to the told stories.

5.3.2 Syntax

Syntax was another aspect of grammatical competence that was slightly enhanced during digital storytelling. Grammatical competence concerns the ability to recognize and produce correct grammatical structures. Using the correct grammar, among other criteria, is an indication of language learners’ advanced level of language proficiency. Therefore, it is important to incorporate teaching strategies that promote this aspect in language learners.

In the digital storytelling activity, the participants showed some weakness in grammar rules and sentence structure which was noticed when their first drafts of the stories

were revised. Figure 9 shows some grammatical mistakes in the first draft, which the participant recognised and corrected in their next draft following the instructor's feedback.

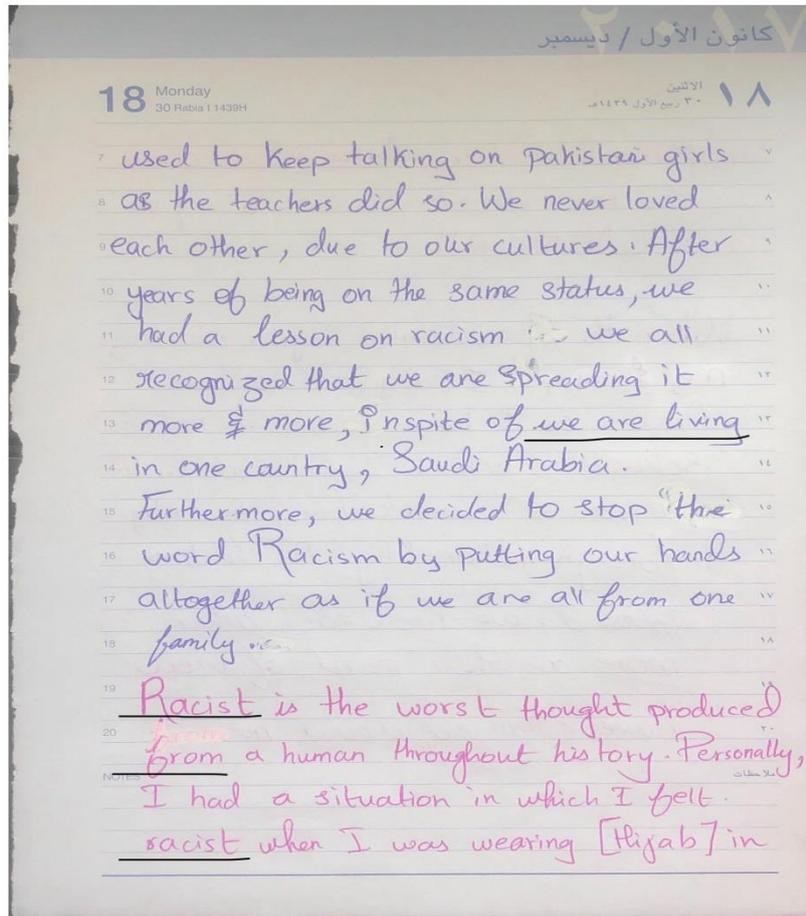


Figure 12 Examples of grammatical mistakes in the participants' first draft

These first versions included grammatical errors such as subject-verb agreement, use of suitable words and connectors, and verb tense. Constant feedback helped them spot these mistakes, know how to correct and avoid them. This fed into the overall quality of their writing skill. Remaas pointed out to this benefit: “I learned to form sentences correctly”.

5.3.3 Lexicon

Incorporating digital storytelling into an EFL classroom in Saudi Arabia was an effective way to promote this aspect in language learners. During the phases of

production, the participants selected their topics of interest in which they write their stories, which involved using vocabulary specific to these topics. Consequently, they acquired a few new words and learned how to use them correctly in a sentence, which has partly enhanced their lexical competence. These are some quotes from the participants' interview responses to illuminate this point. Aseel stated that speaking skill was the most enhanced during the digital storytelling activity and added: "It taught me new words and made me excited to learn more words".

Figure 10 shows samples of the participants' scripts which reveals their use of unfamiliar words for the purpose of telling their stories. Because the participants still do not know the correct pronunciation by heart, they underlined these words and use Arabic letters representing their pronunciation.

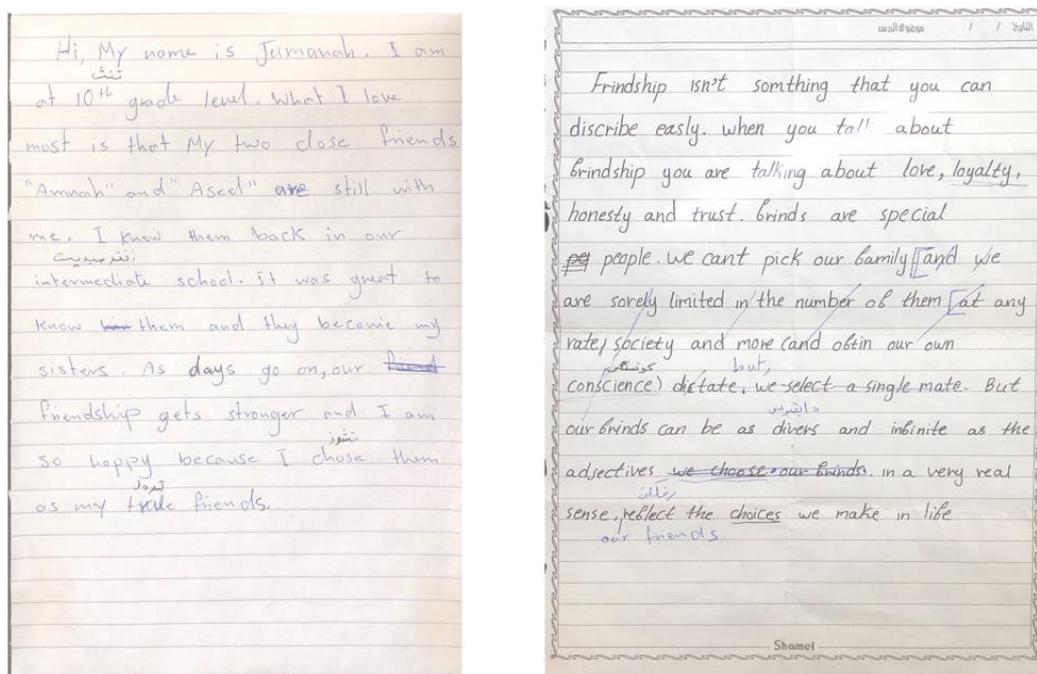


Figure 13 Participants' use of new vocabulary

5.3.4 Strategic competence

The participants were taught to use some strategies to compensate for their English language inadequacy, instead of, or along with, using the first language. Primarily, they were asked to try to use fillers and paraphrasing whenever they experienced

communication breakdown. Examples of fillers they could use were written on paper and remained on each groups' table during the entire activity. At first, they were reluctant to use these fillers because they were uncertain which of the provided fillers was suitable. With the passage of time, they used these fillers more frequently and with less reference to the paper on which these fillers are written. These were the words and short phrases provided to the participants to fill in communication gaps: “*well; I mean; actually; you know*”, or short phrases such as “*as a matter of fact; to be quite honest; now let me think; I'll tell you what; I see what you mean*”. They were advised to use expressions like “*well, I mean actually, let me think*” to give themselves some time to think of the appropriate response; “*as a matter of fact*” to introduce a sentence, explain, or give a contrasting point of view; “*I see what you mean*” to show interest in the discussion or affection. They, however, were noticed to use other fillers more frequently such as “*ok*”, “*right*”, “*uhu*”, “*um*”, and “*er*”.

The participants were speaking slowly and pauses made up much of their speaking time. Producing Speech in English was a conscious act of their brains. They needed time to mentally form the sentence and make sure it is grammatically correct. Their extremely limited repertoire of vocabulary made it hard to form long sentences or discuss unfamiliar topics.

Paraphrasing was the other strategy the participants had the opportunity to train through the digital storytelling activity. The participants were asked to, before they opt for their first language, try to explain and clarify the meaning in few simple words, give examples or similar objects the thing they are naming or referring to. The participants' use of the strategy of paraphrasing was less frequent compared to using fillers. With fillers the participants just needed to select one of the given examples, which were interchangeable most of the time. To the contrary, paraphrasing required some ability to recall learned words and correctly form a phrase.

5.3.5 Discourse competence

This aspect of communicative competence concerns the cohesion and coherence of the language, be it written or spoken. Developing this aspect in language learners is emphasised in the communicative language teaching approach through the incorporation of authentic classroom activities that offer abundant chances for

meaningful communication. Before the discussion proceeds, it is important to mention that this improvement cannot be described as significant because it was not measured statistically. Even more, the participants did not explicitly refer to it when they were asked what language skill could be developed when doing this activity. However, some signs of improvement in the participants' discourse competence was observed and thus, was worth noting and discussing.

In the process of creating their digital stories, the participants had the opportunity to develop their textual and spoken discourse competence. Primarily, creating a good digital story depends mainly on writing a good story. The participants learnt the elements and characteristics necessary to construct a distinctive kind of genre, that is writing a short story. While they might have studied this genre previously, this project further enhanced their knowledge because the stories were on topics of their own choice and interest. The communicative language teaching approach emphasizes this point of relevancy of the learning materials to the language learners to capture their attention and desire to learn. The participants' ability to produce a coherent and cohesive text can be seen in these excerpts from the final scripts, which the participants narrated:

Hi, my name is Nuha. I am 16 years old. The turning point in my life was when I discovered that I am diabetic. Even though it was painful, I thank Allah every day with every poke of a needle. Yes, as a type I diabetic, I have to inject myself everyday with these injections because my pancreas produces little or no insulin. So, this is my life with this chronic disease.

This segment shows that the participant focused on one topic, her suffering as a type I diabetic. The participant used simple, yet touching sentences to convey her story. Use of transition words to introduce the supporting sentences added to this cohesion, such as "even though" and "so".

Hi, my name is Jumanah. I am 10th grade level. what I love most is that my two close friends are still with me. I knew them back in our intermediate school. It was great to know them, and they had become my sisters. As days go on, our friendship gets stronger and I am so happy because I chose them.

Likewise, the participant in this excerpt was talking about one topic, friendship. The sentences were connected, and the participant was able to convey her feelings using simple language.

Even though these and the other final scripts were still imperfect, the results are satisfactory given the level of communicative competence of the participants. The improvement in the participants' writing of stories as they progressed in the project was evident. This improvement included the ideas, organization, word choice, sentence fluency, and use of transitions. More importantly, they came to learn about a specific kind of genre, namely, digital storytelling. Like all kinds of genre, creating a compelling digital storytelling necessitates participants' knowledge of the steps and elements of digital stories. It also enhanced their ability to maximize the effect of the story by carefully choosing the background sound, photos, and videos that best convey their emotions.

The digital storytelling activity also enhanced the participant's spoken discourse competence by creating ample opportunity to communicate inside the classroom. As was noted in section 5.3.1, in the participants' response to the question "which of your language skills improved because of your participation in this activity?", Out of the 20 interviewees 16 stated that speaking and confidence to speak improved the most, which is expected given the opportunity for frequent language use.

The activity was intrinsically motivating, the topics of discussion were relevant and personal, and, more importantly, there were many opportunities to communicate. These conditions facilitated the existence of lengthy, frequent discussions, which are critical to enhance oral proficiency.

5.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presented answers to the three research questions of the study, that is, the possibility of a communicative activity such as digital storytelling to enhance EFL students' intrinsic motivation, engender their willingness to communicate inside classrooms, and, ultimately, improve their communication competence. Data collected from L2 WTC questionnaire, observation, and interview showed an increase of the participants' willingness to communicate while performing the digital storytelling activity compared to their willingness to communicate in regular English classes. This

increase was best described as satisfactory given the level of language proficiency and the extent of the problem of reticence that characterised the participants. However, this willingness to communicate was not high throughout the activity. Factors such as language anxiety, familiarity with the teacher and the activity, anxiety of uptake of a new form of ICT accounted for this fluctuation in participants' willingness to communicate during the study.

The effect of digital storytelling on the participants' intrinsic motivation was the most salient effect. The results of the intrinsic motivation inventory IMI showed that participants enjoyed the activity, felt competent to achieve it, and that the activity was beneficial. They did not experience pressure while doing the activity. These scores indicate that the participants were intrinsically motivated while doing the activity. Features of the activity such as collaboration, optimal challenge, and student-centeredness were behind this result.

Data collected from observation, interview, and participants' recordings and drafts showed improvement in three aspects of communicative competence: grammatical competence, mainly, phonology, syntax, and lexicon; sociolinguistic competence, which was assessed through the participants' use of grammatical connectives and repetition of key words and ideas in their final drafts; and strategic competence which appeared in their frequent use of two communication strategies, that is, fillers and paraphrasing.

Chapter 6. Discussion

This chapter analyses and discusses the quantitative and qualitative findings reported in Chapter 5. Thus, it is divided into three sections: the first section discusses the effect of engaging the participants in creation of digital stories on their willingness to communicate inside the classroom, the second section evaluates the potential of the digital storytelling activity to promote the participants' intrinsic motivation, and third is to what extent did the participants' communicative competence improve as a result of their participation in the activity. The last section highlights the factors that have influenced the results reported in this study, namely, lack of Internet access, maintaining classroom discipline, low English proficiency, and time. Discussion will explain in what way each of these factors influenced the flow of activity. The results of each question are discussed in light of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

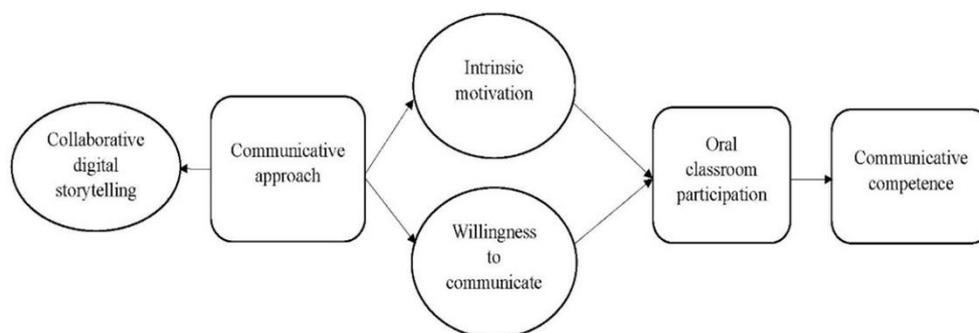


Figure 14 A representation of the variables of the study

6.1 Research question 1

The first research question explored the possibility of digital storytelling activity to increase students' willingness to communicate inside Saudi English classroom. The participants' willingness to communicate during their regular English classes was assessed through the L2 WTC questionnaire the participants completed prior to the study. The participant's willingness to communicate throughout the study was assessed through the researcher's prolonged observation along with the participants'

input. Analysing the qualitative and quantitative data related to this question showed a relative increase in the participants' willingness to communicate, which appeared in the frequent actual classroom participation during situations in which, according to their self-reported WTC, they would not choose to participate during regular English classes. The following sections in this chapter will discuss this major result in detail.

Before the discussion of this research question continues, it is important to note that the researcher acknowledges that the variable of willingness to communicate in a second language is viewed as "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998, p.547). The researcher also realizes that the communicative language teaching approach does not value use of L1. However, the main indicator of the study participants' willingness to communicate was not only initiating or responding to communication solely in English because research shows that high willingness to communicate does not necessarily translate into the use of the second language (Hamouda, 2012; Macintyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011; Xie, 2011). Subsequently, initiating or entering communication willingly during the digital storytelling activity even when Arabic was occasionally used to compensate for their limited English proficiency, was still considered an indicator of the success of this activity to engender their willingness to communicate. This study was underpinned by the belief that the problem of Saudi students' reticence in the English language classroom was mainly due to the nature of the prevailing teaching approach and strategies. Therefore, the aim of this study was to provide English language teachers with a communicative activity that has the potential to engender students' desire to participate in the classroom by creating ample opportunity for authentic and meaningful use of the language. In fact, the participants' occasional use of Arabic is their most familiar coping strategy for their English inadequacy. In support of this point, Willis (1981), who emphasises the role of the teacher to make English the language of instruction and communication in the language classroom, acknowledges that "occasionally L1 may still be useful" (p. xiv).

6.1.1 Increase of the Participants' Willingness to Communicate in the Digital Storytelling Activity

Comparing the participants' self-reported willingness to communicate in regular English classes to their willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity showed it has increased. This increase cannot be claimed to be significant because it was not measured statistically prior and post the intervention. However, this increase can be described as "satisfactory" based on the aggregated data of this study. The increase is considered satisfactory when we realize the extent of seriousness of the problem of reticence in the context of this study.

While about half of the participants were unwilling to write or tell a story in English, as they indicated in the L2 WTC questionnaire (Statements 9, 10, & 17), the majority did show satisfactory levels of willingness throughout the different steps of the digital storytelling activity, primarily, willingly writing and telling their stories despite their low English proficiency.

The participants eagerly engaged in group discussions and voluntarily asked and answered questions during the digital storytelling activity, which they would not willingly do in their regular English classes, as indicated in the L2 WTC questionnaire (Statements 1&2). Moreover, when the participants were asked: "How do you rate your willingness to communicate in English during this project, compared to your willingness in regular classes?" 19 out of 20 students answered "higher" while one student responded: "no change". This finding has been thought of as an indication of the effectiveness of the digital storytelling activity in engendering language learners' willingness to communicate in classroom.

Despite the rapid increase in the literature of digital storytelling, its effect on the variable of willingness to communicate is under-researched. Of the few found studies in one conducted by Norton (2014) who reported that digital storytelling project motivated students to produce more speech. A recent review study by Shen and Byfield (2018) on factors promoting English learners' willingness to communicate provided digital storytelling activity as an example of effective activities in which language learners have the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the culture of their native English speaking peers.

Next part discusses the reasons for this increase as indicated by the participants and observed by the researcher.

6.1.2 Perceived Reasons for the Increase in the Participants' WTC

This positive effect of digital storytelling on the participants' willingness to communicate reported in this study can be explained in terms of the wider relevant literature and with specific reference to the Saudi EFL context.

6.1.2.1 Communicative language teaching

The positive effect of digital storytelling on the participants' WTC can be partly attributed to the communicative nature of the activity, which has been theorized to be effective on WTC (Sato, 2003; Riasati, 2014). That is, the availability of frequent and varied chances to communicate that this activity could afford was significant to this increase in the participants' desire to participate. The implementation of the digital storytelling activity allowed the occurrence of different patterns of interactions: the teacher speaking to the whole class, the teacher speaking to a group of members, a student speaking to the teacher, one student speaking to another student, and one student speaking to group members. All these types of interactions were observed during the three distinctive stages of the activity, however, the type and frequency of interaction varied noticeably from one stage to another. For example, the preparation stage particularly the story-writing step facilitated many opportunities for interaction. Group members engaged in extended discussions in relation to the choice of the topics of their stories. They communicated frequently with the teacher concerning the revisions and feedback on the scripts. Equally, the production stage revealed frequent interactions between the teacher and the participants as well as among the students especially during the steps of selecting multimedia elements and recording of narrations. The presentation stage focused on displaying the completed videos and, therefore, involved less communicative opportunities compared to the previous stages, and were mainly between members of groups.

In support of this explanation, MacIntyre et al. (1998) state that "intention must combine with opportunity to produce behaviour" (p.548). This implies that "without such an opportunity, reticence will be encouraged as the learners' wish to

communicate is not stimulated” (Lee & Ng, 2009, p. 303). Nazari and Allahyar (2012) investigated how the teacher can contribute to EFL students’ willingness to communicate. They outlined a number of strategies teachers could implement to promote students’ level of participation. All these strategies contribute to achieving one goal: to increase students’ opportunity to participate.

Not only the participants had an ample opportunity to communicate but also, they got to communicate about authentic, real, and relevant knowledge. For example, the participants put much emphasis on the effect of giving them the opportunity to choose their stories on their willingness to communicate. The participants’ desire to communicate increased because the stories were reflections of parts of their own lives. The participant who was raised by her mother wrote her story: “My role model” with passionate, gratefulness, and deep love. The participants who escaped war in their countries expressed their pain, longingness, and hope in their “War in Arab countries” story. Each participant communicated willingly because the purpose of communication was meaningful.

Thus, this finding lends support to the hypothesis of this study that a shift from Grammar-Translation teaching method to a communicative approach is necessary to reduce language learners’ reticence in classroom.

6.1.2.2 Topic relevancy

Being a communicative activity was not the only reason for the positive effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants’ WTC because some studies experimented with different communicative activities and did not find an increase in WTC (Aubrey, 2011; Luo, Lin, Chen, & Fang, 2015; Wang, 2019). Thus, this finding can be partly attributed to another reason like enabling the participants to select the story topics. Writing about a relevant topic had a profound effect on the participants’ willingness to communicate. This effect was more evident in the case of non-Saudi participants. Giving those participants the choice to tell what they want was a great driver for them to accomplish this activity. This is in fact one of the most reported favourable aspect about this activity (Kronenberg, 2013; MacIntyre et al.; 1998).

This finding aligns with the numerous findings from previous studies on the positive influence of familiarity of the topic of discussion on language learners’ WTC in

classrooms (Kang, 2005; Aubrey, 2011; Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, & Abdi, 2014; Riasati, 2012; Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Bielak, 2016). When language is used for real and authentic purposes, willingness to engage in discussion will increase. Kang (2005), for example, reported that students feel anxious when discussing topics, they have limited knowledge of. He concluded that selecting topics of discussion based on the learners' interests and preferences make students more willing to communicate and participate in the classroom activities. Likewise, Aubrey (2011) emphasises the importance of topic relevancy and interesting lesson content in increasing students' WTC and interact in the classroom. He suggested two successful approaches for increasing topic relevance for students. The first approach is teachers' knowledge of their students' interests and, more importantly, how to adjust lessons to incorporate these interests. Second is the teachers' enhancement of students' autonomy and control of their learning by engaging them in decision-making, content choice, and classroom leadership (Aubrey, 2011). Coleman contended that 'student choice of a topic guarantees a degree of commitment and psychological involvement favourable to language acquisition' (1992, p. 36).

6.1.2.3 Cooperative learning

Designing the digital storytelling activity as a collaborative activity facilitated discussion in a small group, which made the participants more comfortable to communicate compared to speaking in front of the class. Abundance evidence shows that anxiety, fear of making mistakes and losing face which are main inhibitors of WTC (Al-Ghali, 2016; Manipuspika, 2018) are reduced when communication occurs in a small group of familiar members (Maftoon & Ziafar, 2013). Thus, desire to initiate or enter in discussions is more. Montasseri and Razmjoo (2015) also reported that cooperative rather than competitive digital storytelling resulted in higher willingness to communicate.

The participants indicated cooperation as another important factor for engendering their willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity. The effect of cooperative learning was easy to observe. As mentioned previously, the L2 WTC questionnaire was used to measure the participants' willingness to communicate prior to the activity so that any signs of WTC during the study can be attributed to this activity. It was also intended to use the results of the questionnaire to distribute the

participants into groups, each one consisted of participants with varied WTC levels. These groups continued for two weeks before the participants asked to reorganize the groups so that friends work together. The difference between their willingness to communicate during the first two weeks and after joining friends together is clear. This effect is explained through the literature of willingness to communicate in a second language which considers familiarity with the interlocutor, one of the most important factors in WTC in a second language (Cao & Philip, 2006; Liu, 2005). Another possible explanation for the effectiveness of collaboration in classroom activities and the increase in learners' WTC can be the group size. There is a wealth of past research on the relationship between group size and WTC in second language classrooms (Kang 2005; Cao & Philip 2006; Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, & Abdi, 2014; Riasati, 2012). It was observed that students who tended to speak less in whole-class activities produced much more speech when they were assigned to small groups. Working in a small group of familiar friends can also increase willingness to communicate because it decreases anxiety and shyness, which negatively influences learners' willingness to communicate (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996; Yashima, 2002; Croucher, 2013). In small groups, students feel less anxious to communicate their thoughts and ideas.

Overall, there is a wealth of studies on cooperative learning and learners' factors of achievement. One study in this respect was conducted by Montasseri and Razmjoo (2015). In investigation of the effect of teaching methods on EFL students' willingness to communicate, Montasseri and Razmjoo (2015) implemented competitive and cooperative classroom activities. The results showed a significant increase in willingness to communicate of students learning cooperatively. Similarly, Maftoon and Ziafar (2013) contended that cooperative learning creates a favourable classroom environment promoting EFL students' willingness to communicate.

6.1.2.4 ICT-enhanced activity

The positive effect of digital storytelling on WTC can be due to the use of ICT tools. Use of ICT facilitated different modes of communication, such as voiceover, video clips, images, hyper-text, and music. This employment of ICT is appealing to students and more entertaining than lectured lessons. This explanation is supported by the results reported in a large-scale study by Peng (2019), which was the first study to

statistically test the effect of multimodal resources on foreign language learners' WTC and report a positive effect.

The effect of multimodal activities on willingness to communicate is an established line of research. For example, Buckingham and Alpaslan (2017) investigated the potential to increase EFL willingness to communicate through the use of computer-mediated activities for homework speaking practice over four months. The results showed the participants' willingness to communicate, assessed through two criteria: "extension" and "response", has increased significantly by the end of the study. A more recent study by Chhum and Champakaew (2019) found that language learners' willingness to communicate has increased significantly when mobile assisted language activities were used.

6.1.2.5 Intrinsic motivation

The participants also attributed the increase in their willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity to the increase of their intrinsic motivation. Primarily, the activity had enhanced their autonomy. When the participants were asked to describe their regular English classes, their frustration with their passive role in learning and teacher-controlled instruction was apparent. On the contrary, they were responsible for making different decisions during the digital storytelling activity and in control of their learning. This feature of the activity had increased their willingness to communicate. This positive effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate was reported in Hafner and Miller's (2011) study. The correlation between intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate is well established.

The participants also found the activity interesting, which is in line with numerous previous studies describing digital storytelling as an interesting activity (Kasami, 2014). Deci (1992) suggested two characteristics in an activity to be interesting to people: optimal challenge and novelty. Digital storytelling was an innovative activity which captured the participants' curiosity. They found the idea of telling a story in a non-traditional way interesting. At the same time, it was a challenging experience, primarily, because the activity is in the language they struggle with and the activity required learning to use a new software.

Although positive feedback is not an aspect of the activity, the participants' stress on this factor makes it important to realize that the role of the teacher is still vital. The participants also highlighted the effect of positive feedback they received during the activity on their willingness to communicate. The digital storytelling activity was an autonomous learning experience, yet it required constant feedback from the facilitator on the scripts, the narration, the use of software, and evaluation of the produced stories. The facilitator's encouragement of the participants, subduing of their fears and inhibitions and approach to error correction during the activity positively affected the participants and their WTC.

Relevant literature stresses the role of the teacher on the learners' willingness to communicate (Wen & Clement, 2003; Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008). Dornyei and Csizer's (1998) suggested the creation of a pleasant atmosphere in which the teacher develops a good relationship with students. In an experimental study aimed at exploring the factors determining EFL students' willingness to communicate, Riasati (2012) and Peng (2012) also identified classroom atmosphere as one of the motivational strategies important in facilitating learners' willingness to communicate.

According to the self-determination theory, enhancement of autonomy, engagement in interesting activities and receiving positive feedback foster intrinsic motivation. The participants in this study identify these factors as reasons for the increase of their willingness to communicate, which also supports the correlation intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate of language learners reported in previous studies (Azmand, 2014).

6.1.3 Perceived reasons for the ineffectiveness of the digital storytelling on some participants' willingness to communicate

Though the digital storytelling activity satisfactorily increased the willingness to communicate of most of the participants, for some it did not make a difference. According to those participants, lack of interest in learning English and personal characteristic were the reasons.

Lack of interest in learning English can be considered as a negative attitude toward the foreign language, which research shows to have a negative influence on language

learners' willingness to communicate (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2018; Asmali, 2016). The participants did not have the inner desire to improve their English language. Even worse, they did not see the importance of learning English. In addition, because those participants had a low English language proficiency, their low willingness to communicate could be attributed to language anxiety, which is the most influential inhibitor to willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, Babin & Clément, 1999; Baran-Łucarz, 2014; Manipuspika, 2018; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Anxiety is defined as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, p. 15). This definition of anxiety helps explaining the participants' avoidance of communication. The participants feared of making mistakes and losing face in front of others as a result of their incompetence English, therefore, they preferred to remain reticent.

For other participants, unwillingness to communicate during the activity was justified as a personal trait. Those participants claimed that they enjoyed the activity, but they did not participate because silence is their nature. Burgoon (1976) linked unwillingness to communicate to anomie, alienation, low self-esteem, introversion, and communication apprehension. Therefore, those participants' unwillingness to communicate can be explained as a result of their introverted personality. This explanation is also consistent with the conceptualization of willingness to communicate in a second language as personal trait that could fluctuate depending on the situation (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, and Noels, 1998)

It was also found that unwillingness to communicate reported by a few participants were merely a result of their inaccurate choices on the L2 WTC questionnaire. This issue of inaccuracy of questionnaire responses is widely discusses in social sciences studies (Woodside & Wilson, 2002)

6.1.4 The dynamic nature of willingness to communicate

It was observed that the participants' willingness to communicate was not stable during the activity. It was low during the first steps of the preparation stage even in the participants whose willingness to communicate level was high based on the L2WTC questionnaire.

This finding can be ascribed to some factors identified in the pertinent literature to cause the fluctuation in students' willingness to communicate.

6.1.4.1 Use of first language.

During the first few classes, instruction was mediated in English only, about which participants expressed their uneasiness. All participants, except for one Jordanian student who studied in an international school before she moved to the current school, were weak in terms of communication skills, even the high achievers. Upon participants' insistence on using Arabic to compensate for their limited proficiency, they were given permission to use it occasionally, which led to a noticeable increase in their participation. Therefore, an increase in willingness to communicate could be attributed to the absence of language learners' anxiety, which, mostly, stems from an awareness of low English language levels (Sparks, Ganschow, & Javorsky, 2000). Allowing participants to use their native language reduces anxiety, which adversely affects their willingness to communicate (Chu, 2008; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Macintyre & Legatto, 2011).

6.1.4.2 Cooperation

Another possible reason is that at the beginning of the activity, the participants were assigned into different groups where they needed to collaborate with classmates whom, in many cases, they did not know well. This **low degree of familiarity with interlocutors could have been the reason for participants' reluctance to initiate communication**. Upon the request of the participants, they were regrouped so that friends will be working together, which greatly increased their desire to communicate. This explanation is supported by the results presented in Cao and Philip's (2006) study on the effect of different classroom factors on students' willingness to participate. The degree of familiarity with interlocutors was reported as a contributing factor on students' willingness to communicate. A similar result in Eddy-U's (2015) research highlighted the significance of partners on willingness to communicate during a task. Thus, willingness to communicate is most likely to increase when the students work with close and familiar peers.

On the same vein, the participants were not willing to communicate at first in the activity due to unfamiliarity with the instructor. The participants might have indicated

their high willingness to communicate in some situations on the questionnaire with their regular teacher in mind. Therefore, when the digital storytelling was facilitated by the researcher, their willingness was hindered by the unfamiliar new teacher. As mentioned previously, familiarity with the interlocutor determines willingness to communicate in a second language (Cao & Philip, 2006; Eddy-U, 2015). This situation then changed towards the end of the activity since the familiarity with the facilitator increased.

Another possible explanation for the increase of the participants' willingness to communicate towards the end of the study is the increase of their familiarity with the task itself. Many researchers have observed this dynamic nature in students' willingness to communicate during a classroom activity (Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017; Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, & Bielak, 2015; MacIntyre and Legatto, 2011). Any confusion or uncertainty students might have felt at the beginning of their participation in this novel learning activity reduced as they became more familiar with the activity. In line with this explanation, Cao (2014) contended that WTC fluctuates within a single task, lesson and sequence of lessons as a result of growing experience and confidence.

Nevertheless, the attribution of the ups and downs in the participants' willingness to communicate during the activity to these factors cannot be clear-cut. Indeed, a combination of psychological, affective, linguistic, cognitive, and educational factors determine readiness or reluctance to speak in classroom.

6.2 Research question 2

The importance to assess the effect of the digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation lies in the strong and direct relationship between intrinsic motivation and academic success (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and language learning (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000). The overarching aim of the study was to reduce reticence of the EFL students in classroom and increase their oral production, hence, enhance their communicative competence. One effective way to achieve this goal is by ensuring the kinds of activities used to facilitate language learning are intrinsically motivating. In other words, these activities are of interest to the students to the extent they would be willing to do these activities regularly even in the absence

of external rewards or punishments. Thus, research question 2 attempted to know whether the collaborative digital storytelling activity has the potential to increase language learners' intrinsic motivation.

The answer to this question was primarily obtained from a quantitative method. At the end of the digital storytelling activity, the 32 participants completed the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory, which assessed four aspects of their intrinsic motivation: interest/enjoyment, perceived competence, value/usefulness, and pressure/tension. The results obtained from the inventory were triangulated with the data obtained qualitatively from the observation and post-intervention interview. Qualitative data helped explain the results of the inventory and account for any inconsistency.

Quantitative and qualitative data were converged and discussed under two sections: increase of the participants' intrinsic motivation, and perceived reasons for the increase of the participants' intrinsic motivation. The first section discusses the results obtained from the IMI, which indicates an increase in the participants' intrinsic motivation, with reference to the results from similar studies. The second section discusses the reasons of how the participants identified the increase in their intrinsic motivation. These reasons are discussed in relation to three themes: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. These are the three innate psychological needs that must be satisfied to promote intrinsic motivation, according to the self-determination theory that guides understanding of motivation in this study.

6.2.1 Enhancement of intrinsic motivation

The IMI which the participants completed at the end of the activity measured their experience during their participation in the digital storytelling activity in terms of four aspects: interest, perceived competence, value, and tension. The following section will discuss the result related to each of these subscales.

6.2.1.1 Interest

Table 8 showed that interest/enjoyment subscale scored the highest mean (5.79). This subscale consisted of items such as: “I enjoyed working on the digital storytelling project very much”, “Creating a digital story was fun to do”, “I would describe the digital storytelling project as very interesting”. This means that the participants’ initiation and, more importantly, continuation of participation in the activity was an intrinsically motivated behaviour. There was no external reward and the only payoff was the enjoyment they experienced during the activity, which Deci (1992) asserted that this feeling alone is enough to make one wholly absorbed in an activity and willing to do it more often.

This finding corroborates with a similar finding from a prior study that digital storytelling promotes students’ enjoyment of the lesson. For example, Suwardy, Pan, and Seow (2013) used digital storytelling to teach an accounting course which students described as “an interesting, fun, engaging, interactive and dynamic way of learning” (p. 114). There can be several reasons that the digital storytelling activity was able to trigger the participants’ interest. Being meaningful, for example, is the most important. This was achieved in this activity when students were offered the opportunity to link the content of the learning tool to their own personal lives. In line with this argument, past research shows that students find interest in meaningful activities rather than mechanical tasks (Ortega, 2007).

Moreover, the participants might have found the digital storytelling activity interesting for its novelty and innovative idea, as explained by Renninger (2009) and Freiermuth and Huang (2012). While writing a story might not have been a new task for the participants, the medium of telling the story was innovative and appealing.

6.2.1.2 Perceived competence

As can be seen in Table 8, the mean score of the participants’ perceived competence was high (5.23), which is a positive indicator of intrinsic motivation. Deci (2017) contended that for students to be intrinsically motivated, they should be competent at the activity they are involved in, and for an activity to be intrinsically motivating, it needs to be optimally challenging. An activity that is too hard would be frustrating whereas an activity that is too easy would not benefit students. With the digital

storytelling activity, participants found it challenging to write a story in English, and to use a new form of ICT. However, there were optimal challenges which the participants were able to overcome, thus satisfying their need to feel competent.

Simultaneously, the slight drop in the mean score of competence (5.23), as compared to the mean score of the construct of interest (5.79) can be attributed to the same reasons that made the participants feel competent. That is, story writing needs a relatively rich vocabulary and competent knowledge of grammar. Contributing to this result was that participants were unfamiliar with the form of ICT used for the story creation. Apparently, for participants with very low proficiency in English and technology, the activity was too hard. As such, they could not accomplish the activity by themselves, to feel competent.

6.2.1.3 Value

According to the data presented in Table 8, participants' views about whether the digital storytelling was of value was high (5.67), next to the mean score of the interest construct (5.79). Participants' perception of an activity as useful is a positive indicator of it increasing their intrinsic motivation because, according to Deci and Ryan (2000), if an activity was not interesting in itself, students would still be intrinsically motivated to do it when they realise its value and embrace it so that it begins to be interesting.

This finding aligns with other findings presented in previous studies indicating students' belief that digital storytelling activities hold enormous value to their linguistic literacy (Oskoz & Elola, 2016), twenty-first century literacy (Brown, Bryan and Brown(2005), and many other non-linguistic skills (Robin, 2006).

6.2.1.4 Pressure

Table 8 shows that participants did not experience high levels of pressure while creating their digital stories as indicated by the mean score (2.51). The existence of pressure while involved in an activity can impede intrinsic motivation because, according to Deci and Ryan (2000), pressure is a kind of extrinsic motivation which undermines intrinsic motivation.

The introduction of the digital storytelling to the participants as an extracurricular activity meant their performance would not affect English grades. This resulted in the

participants not feeling pressured by the activity. However, experienced pressure could be attributed, mainly, to the uptake of a new form ICT, especially for low-tech participants. As was observed, some participants found weaving the different multimedia features using the website difficult. Anxiety resulting from using new ICT in classroom is a frequently discussed topic in related research (Aydin, 2011; Rau, Gao, & Wu, 2008).

6.2.2 Perceived reasons for enhanced intrinsic motivation

Why did the participants experience interest in creating digital stories? Deci (1992) states that “one experiences interest when one encounters novel, challenging, or aesthetically pleasing activities or objects in a context that allows satisfaction of the basic psychological needs and thus promotes development” (p. 49). The digital storytelling activity met these criteria resulting in the participants’ intrinsic motivation being enhanced. The idea of telling a story with the assistance of ICT was novel to the participants. Curiosity could be the reason for their accepting to participate in the first place. At the same time, it was challenging because it required learning new knowledge. On one hand, writing a digital storytelling is a genre that has its specific features, let alone the fact that the participants struggle with the English language. On the other hand, this activity introduced the participants to a new software which can be a source of anxiety. Also, the weaving of the different multimedia elements to produce a compelling story needs knowledge of different digital literacies. An important point in this context is that the activity was designed with the level of English proficiency and digital proficiency of the participants in mind to make sure it is of optimal challenge. The digital storytelling activity also allows the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

6.2.2.1 Autonomy

The participants’ feeling of autonomy was satisfied because their participation in the activity was driven by their own interest with no external reward or punishment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Moreover, digital storytelling was the kind of activity that required a great deal of decision-making and responsibility taking, which was entirely endorsed to the participants. For example, the participants decided the topics of their stories, which reflected parts of their own lives and conveyed their feelings. They chose the

supporting multimedia elements and weaved them to produce a good story. The role of the instructor was only to facilitate, encourage, and give feedback. In line with this, Deci and Ryan (2000) highlighted that giving people the right of choice and acknowledging their feelings significantly promoted their autonomy.

Additionally, autonomy was enhanced when participants realised that the accomplishment of the collaborative goal is bound to the contribution of each group member. Working towards a common goal instils a sense of importance and responsibility, which in turn, promotes autonomy. In comparison to a whole class lecture instruction, cooperative learning creates a better opportunity to enhance autonomous learning. While the participants were working cooperatively to produce their digital stories, they were aware the success and quality of the final work depended primarily on the work and contribution of every individual. They had control over the structure of their learning process, and this was a probable reason why participants attributed a great deal of their intrinsic motivation to working in groups.

Satisfying the participants' autonomy resulted in them solving the problems they encountered during the activity and getting creative in their solutions. This observation supports the postulation of self-determination theory that the degree of autonomy will determine how persistent the learner will be in the task. (Ryan & Deci 2002). Enhancement of autonomy through these and many other instances through the activity enhanced the participants' intrinsic motivation, a relationship asserted by Deci and Ryan (2000), Egbert (2003), and Alm (2006).

Another reason for enhancement of the participants' autonomy was that they did not experience any kind of external pressure. The results from the IMI showed that mean score of the pressure/tension scale was low (2.51). The participants' participation in the activity was voluntary and their performance did not affect their grades in the English subject. In addition, the distribution of the participants into groups was not for competition, which might be a source of pressure and diminish intrinsic motivation (Reeve & Deci 1996; Deci, Betley, Kahle, Abrams & Porac, 1981). In this study, however, it was noticed that a sense of competition had arisen and it had an effective role on the participants. This could be due to the fact that competition was not externally imposed. Instead, it emerged as a feature of group dynamics (Dornyei, 1997).

The potential of digital storytelling to enhance learners' autonomy, as reported in this study, aligns with Black's (2005, 2006, 2007) and Lam's assertion (2004, 2006) that an ICT enhanced environment is an effective way to enhance autonomous learning. Using the type of ICT implemented in this study, Hafner and Miller (2011) integrated digital storytelling into teaching an English for Science course to foreign learners. The results showed the activity promoted students' autonomy as reflected in their taking responsibility for their projects, monitoring progress and constantly reflecting on their learning.

The positive effect on language learners' autonomy was also reported in studies implementing different types of ICT enhanced strategies. In Mutlu and Eroz-Tuga's (2013) study, they delivered the English language curriculum to one group using some forms of technology, such as web page a blog page, online speaking class, PowerPoint, Yahoo, and email. The other group was taught the same curriculum without using ICT. The degree of autonomy was then measured in the two groups. They found that students in the experiment group showed more responsibility for their own learning while the other group was more dependent on the teacher. They also concluded that students' motivation increased accordingly. **Beside being ICT-based learning, digital storytelling is also a project-based learning. Numerous studies reported an increase in language learners' autonomy where project-based learning is applied (Yuliani & Lengkanawati, 2017; Hudaya, 2018).**

Positive effect of digital storytelling activity on EFL students' autonomy is not exclusive to the use of ICT. Another aspect of the activity contributed to this effect. For example, studies are abundant on the significant favourable effect of collaborative learning on language learners' autonomy (Jacobs & Tan, 2015; Yasmin & Naseem, 2019).

Additionally, effectiveness of digital storytelling activity in promoting autonomy can be attributed to it being a project-based learning. Numerous studies reported an increase in language learners' autonomy where project-based learning is implemented (Yuliani & Lengkanawati, 2017; Islami & Triastuti, 2020).

6.2.2.2 Competence

The results of the IMI showed that the participants' perceived competence during the digital storytelling activity was high (5.23). One way to promote competence in the classroom is by stimulating students to overcome their biggest challenges autonomously (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The digital storytelling activity presented the participants with some challenges which, when overcome, produced a feeling of competence. The activity is in the language participants struggle and it mainly depends on an effortful skill, which is writing. This activity required the participants to uptake a new ICT, a step that inherently involves anxiety and challenge. These challenges took their toll affecting the flow of the activity and time spent on some steps. Nonetheless, the participants repeatedly mentioned how satisfying it was to overcome these difficulties in their way; to create their stories. The reason incorporating an optimally challenging activity in the classroom increases students' intrinsic motivation is because it satisfies their need to feel competent.

Competence was also met through designing the digital storytelling as a cooperative activity. Each member of the group had the responsibility to write a segment of the story, determine the multimedia elements to accompany the script, and edit the video. Experiencing the sense of accomplishment and the feeling of how their personal contribution was crucial to the success of the final project satisfied their need to feel competent. There is consistent evidence that, unlike competitive and individualistic learning, cooperative learning holds more chances to promote intrinsic motivation (Ning & Hornby, 2014; Dornyei, 1994). According to Hänze and Berger (2007), cooperative learning has the potential to satisfy the basic needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

positive feedback is equally important to make students feel competent. The importance of positive feedback from the teacher on students' intrinsic motivation is emphasised in the pertinent literature for similar effect (Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008) and is ascertained in the Self-determination theory (Deci, 2017). The participants experienced various challenges during the digital storytelling activity which they might have not overcome without the constant praise and encouragement from the teachers. Appreciating their exerted effort, encouraging them, and giving only positive feedback significantly increased their sense of efficacy.

6.2.2.3 Relatedness

The digital storytelling activity allowed the participants to feel related. Relatedness in the classroom involves the relationship between the teacher and the students and between the students themselves. The quality of these relationships has its effect on intrinsic motivation, as ascertained in Self-determination theory (Deci, 2017) and by Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008). In terms of relatedness between the students, one effective way to promote relatedness is through engaging the students in a collaborative activity towards achieving a common goal. (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). Each member's contribution was integral to complete the production of the digital stories. This feel of being valued is important to promote relatedness. Sharing one story was a good opportunity to deepen the relationship between the participants. Feeling understood, belonging to, and that they shared their emotions promoted their relationship. The participants chose the group members with whom they share interests, memories and viewpoints. Intimacy between members made collaboration joyful and more interesting. This strength of relationship between group members contributed significantly to their intrinsic motivation as well as performance. In line with this finding, Clement, Dornyei, and Noel (1994) confirmed that group cohesion is an important determinant of motivation in the language classroom.

The positive effect of collaborative digital storytelling activity on the relationship between the participants reported in this study is consistent with findings from previous studies. In a recent study by Al khateeb (2019) on the benefits and challenges Saudi students experienced when using collaborative digital storytelling in their English language classroom, the students highlighted these benefits: “establishing interactive relationships”, “producing joint innovative ideas and solutions”, and “supporting mutual skills” (Al Khateeb, 2019, p. 134) The participants experienced a secure relatedness with the teacher. It was an influential factor and one of the most recurring themes in their identification of the most influential factors on their intrinsic motivation.

Even though the researcher's attitude towards the participants came naturally and was not intended to have an effect on participants' intrinsic motivation, participants highly appreciated it and it was one of the most influential factors. This effect lends support

to Deci and Ryan's (2000) assertion of the significance of the teacher's warm and caring attitude in promoting the students' intrinsic motivation.

All in all, the digital storytelling activity proved capable of promoting autonomy, competence, and relatedness through its appealing characteristics. Primarily, being a student-centric activity promoted students' need for autonomy. They solved some encountered problems, made decisions, and freely fulfilled the requirements of the activity. Also, because the activity presented the students with an optimal challenge, they felt competent at its completion. Lastly, cooperation aspect of the activity satisfied the participants' need to belong to others who have similar interests and can understand their feelings.

6.2.3 Perceived reasons for the ineffectiveness of the digital storytelling on some participants' intrinsic motivation

Classroom observation and analysis of the IMI showed that some participants were not enjoying the digital storytelling activity. Those participants attributed their low motivation to their lack of interest in learning English. For those participants, English subject is a nightmare. Their ultimate goal is to pass the course. Thus, when this activity was introduced to them and they knew their non-participation would not affect their grades in the course, they could not enjoy the activity. They, however, showed more interest during the steps of gathering multimedia elements and using the software to produce the stories with their group members. In fact, lack of motivation towards English is a critical issue in the Saudi and the broad English as a second and foreign language learning as well (Alrabai, 2016; Khan, 2011; Azar & Tanggaraju, 2020; Matsuda, 2000).

It was also found that some participants' low intrinsic motivation was not an accurate description of their motivation. They declared that they rated the responses on the inventory randomly without paying much attention to the statements. This issue of inaccuracy of questionnaire responses is widely discusses in social sciences studies (Woodside & Wilson, 2002)

6.3 Research question 3

The third research question asked, “What aspects of communicative competence does digital storytelling enhance the most, as perceived by the participants?”. Before discussing the findings relevant to this question, it is related to mention that digital storytelling is a suitable activity in classrooms adopting the CLT approach. This approach is believed to be the most capable of enhancing language learners’ communicative competence (Thompson, 1996; Richards & Rodgers, 2002). This question thus was to evaluate the possibility of digital storytelling as a communicative activity to improve the different aspects of communicative competence of the participants. Canale and Swain’s (1980) framework for communicative competence in a second language underpinned analysis and discussion of the data relevant to this question. The results to this question were obtained mainly from the participants’ interview, and supported by the data from observation, and analysis of recordings and story scripts.

Before the discussion proceeds, it should be noted again that there was occasional using of Arabic from the side of the participants and the teacher as well if the situation necessitates. Use of L1 is the most prevalent coping strategy for language inadequacies (Pun & Thomas, 2020). Indeed, Cummins (2001) highlighted the positive benefits of transferring between the languages the learner knows in language learning. This concept is referred to as translinguism or translanguaging and is becoming a burgeoning line of research in English language teaching. The explication of this point is necessary for understanding the perceived effect of digital storytelling on the study participants’ communicative competence.

6.3.1 Grammatical competence

The primary task of creating a digital storytelling is writing the story to be told. The participants of this study spent two weeks (40 minutes per day) in this step. The process involved a lot of revision and rewriting before the final drafts. This activity created ample opportunity for the participants to interact between each other and with the teacher. The preparation stage involved lengthy discussions between the participants to decide their topics, to choose the accompanying multimedia, and there was a lot of discussions with the teacher irrelevant to the activity. Such an interactive environment

enhanced the participants' communicative competence, with some aspects receiving more improvement than the others. Grammatical competence was observed as the most notable improvement, particularly the following aspects:

Phonology. It was observed that the phonological aspect enhanced well because it received lots of practice by way of the frequent repetition of the recording of narrations. A comparison between each participants' first and last recording illuminates this enhancement. The improvement in the participants' phonology included improvement of their pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm. In conformation of this explanation, Griffin (1992) argued that the practice of reading aloud enhances participants' awareness of the sound of the language. This positive effect of digital storytelling on language learners' phonology was also reported in previous studies (Akhyak & Anik, 2013).

Syntax. Syntax has been consolidated by the multiple manuscript drafts the participants needed to submit and revise as per the teacher's feedback on grammatical issues such as subject-verb agreement, use of suitable words and connectors, and verb tense. This finding supports results presented in other studies on the positive impact of digital storytelling on EFL linguistic structure and grammar (Kılıçkaya, & Krajka, 2012; Akhyak & Anik, 2013; BavaHarji, Gheitanchian, & Letchumanan, 2014).

This finding supports results presented in other studies on the positive impact of digital storytelling on EFL linguistic structure and grammar (Kılıçkaya, & Krajka, 2012). This finding can be attributed to the collaborative writing aspect of the activity. Many studies in the literature revealed the positive role of collaborative writing over individual writing in language classes. Nassaji and Tian's (2010), for example, compared individual and collaborative writing of low intermediate ESL in relation to grammatical accuracy. Reinders (2009) conducted a study with upper intermediate ESL. Findings of both studies indicate more accuracy in the work done by groups than individually written texts.

Lexicon. Lexical competence, moreover, was considerably promoted due to participants' need to recognize new words and even more importantly recognize how to use them to express their opinions. In line with this finding, Verdugo and Belmonte (2007), Akhyak and Anik (2013) pointed out to expansion of vocabulary as one of the benefits of using digital storytelling with EFL learners.

Lexical competence refers to the ability to recognize and produce words meaningfully. Of course, enhancement of this competence significantly advances language learners' proficiency. Echoing this importance, Laufer (1998) argued that "the most striking difference between foreign learners and native speakers is in the quantity of words each group possesses" (P, 255), an idea shared by Lewis (2000, p. 8) who argues that "the single most important task facing language learners is acquiring a sufficiently large vocabulary". In line with this finding, Verdugo and Belmonte (2007) pointed out that that expansion of vocabulary was one of the benefits of using digital storytelling with EFL learners. This expansion in vocabulary can be a result of the practice of reading aloud, as indicated by Griffin (1992). Moreover, Beck, McKeown, and Kucan, (2013) suggested, among other steps, repeating the words for vocabulary development. They claimed that this helps building a memory for the sound and the meaning of the word.

This finding can be attributed to the digital storytelling activity being an implicit way to lexical development. While explicit vocabulary teaching involves engaging students in activities that depends on the study of decontextualized lexis (Hunt & Beglar, 2005), implicit teaching of vocabulary is implemented through activities like reading and listening, as in the digital storytelling activity. The effectiveness of implicit lexical instruction to vocabulary development was established by Doughty (2003) and Ellis (1994).

6.3.2 Strategic competence

With the digital storytelling activity, the participants were able to enhance their strategic competence, to a certain extent, because the activity created the opportunity they need to communicate, but, because their language proficiency was low, they had to use different strategies to compensate for their low English proficiency. The participants were encouraged to use two types of strategies: fillers and paraphrasing. They were given handouts of examples of filler words to use to carry on discussion when they did not find the right word or was not sure of their understanding. These are examples of fillers the participants used: (well; I mean; actually; you know), or longer phrases such as (as a matter of fact; to be quite honest; now let me think; I'll tell you what; I see what you mean; etc.). They used these fillers in their group discussion and when interacting with the teacher as well. Paraphrasing was the other strategy the

participants were asked to employ in cases of communication breakdown. The participants were encouraged to use their own language to explain the ideas explained by the teacher.

The participants of this study were in most need of developing their strategic competence to compensate for their low English proficiency. As put by Dornyei and Thurrel (1991) strategic competence is “activated when communication learners wish to convey messages which their linguistic resources do not provide strategies which allow them to express successfully” (p. 18). However, because the grammar-translation method, which is still currently adopted, focuses on form and meaning while teaching strategic competence is neglected. Therefore, the shift to the communicative approach is the first step towards enhancing strategic competence because there will be a need to teach language learners what to do when they experience breakdown.

6.3.3 Discourse competence

In response to the question: “which of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) you developed, or you think can be developed because of participating in this activity?” the majority of participants (16 out of 20) said their ability to speak and read more fluently has improved the most. They believed this activity offered abundant opportunity to develop their interactional competence. As well, recording their stories and having to repeat the process several times enhanced the reading skill.

These findings on the positive impact of digital storytelling on EFL students’ oral performance follow a number of studies. Abdolmanafi-Rokni and Qarajeh (2014), for example, used a mixed methods design to compare the speaking skills of 21 Iranians EFL learners using digital storytelling with 21 students using the traditional way of storytelling. The results showed improvement in speaking skills in favour of the experimental group. Rahimi and Yadollahi (2017) found that EFL students using digital storytelling significantly improved their literacy skills. They highlighted the significant role of collaboration on EFL students’ writing. They maintained that collaborative writing helped students overcome writing difficulties through receiving and giving feedback on each other’s work.

Through the main task of the digital storytelling activity, which is writing a good story, the participants were able to enhance their textual competence. The step of story writing included several revisions and feedback from the instructor before the final version was ready. This process was a learning opportunity for the participants to recognize how to link the ideas of the story and construct a coherent text. There is consistent evidence from previous studies in support of this finding on the effectiveness of digital storytelling to improve EFL learners' narrative writing (Yamaç & Ulusoy, 2017). Benefits like an increase the number of total words, exact sentences and correct words (Xin, 2013), encouraging students to use their own styles (Lee, 2014) were reported. Moreover, Sylvester and Greenidge (2009) argued that the process of creating digital storytelling helps struggling writers to compose more strategically.

6.4 Obstacles encountered during the implementation of the digital storytelling activity

Throughout the course of the digital storytelling activity, a number of factors were identified to have negatively influenced the seamless flow of the project and challenged its execution. It is believed the absence of these factors would have amplified the benefits of the project. These factors are presented according to the extent of their adverse impact. The list starts with the factors having the most negative impact on the implementation of the activity and ends with ones that caused minimal disturbance. These factors overlap in the sense that one obstacle could have resulted in another obstacle or could have been caused by another one. The statement of these hindrances helps understand what contextual factors have influenced the reported outcomes.

6.4.1 Lack of Internet Access

A major hurdle encountered while executing the digital storytelling activity was the lack of Internet connectivity. The school had a resources lab in the basement that was equipped with eight desktops, a smart screen mounted on the wall with some outlets to connect a laptop or a projector into it. Additionally, there was a computer lab on the third floor prepared with banks of computers which were used mainly for Computer subject classes. I met with the teacher in charge of these labs and she informed me that

none of the computers was configured to connect to the Internet. Instead, students were taught on different built-in software programmes that needed no access to the Internet. Moreover, the school's Wi-Fi network was restricted to the school personnel's computers.

Furthermore, the participants were not allowed to bring their own laptops, which created a genuine challenge from the outset of the project. Just as the name implies, the digital storytelling activity was a computer-assisted learning method that required use of a computer to search for information, gather multimedia resources, and produce a vivid story. Due to the unavailability of the Internet on the school's computers, we relied on my own laptop and Internet where groups took turn working on their stories. This truly had a negative impact on the project resulting in the participants not having adequate time to edit their stories in the class and affected the quality of their productions.

This issue of Internet connectivity appeared to be prevalent in many schools in Saudi Arabia. In a qualitative study aiming to pinpoint the barriers into an effective integration of computer-assisted language teaching and learning into Saudi secondary schools, Albugarni and Ahmed (2015) found the majority of headmasters and teachers hold a negative attitude towards the use of the Internet in schools and, therefore, they restrict its usage. In another recent study by Alresheed, Raiker, and Carmichael (2017) it was revealed that the percentage of teachers who did not have access to the Internet in their classrooms was over 80%. Echoing this point, Al-Maini (2013) highlighted the unavailability or underuse of available Information and Communication Technology in Saudi intermediate schools despite the initiative undertaken by the Saudi Ministry of Education (Watani) calling for an effective integration of ICT in schools.

However, this obstacle appeared not to be exclusive to this study. In fact, teachers from different EFL contexts find technological issues including lack of access to the Internet, unavailability of required software and hardware as the major impeding factor to the implementation of digital storytelling (Çelik & Aytın, 2014; Thang et al., 2014). Such barriers prevent students from developing new and necessary skills for the 21st century such as presenting information through multimedia, problem-solving, creativity and other digital literacies.

6.4.2 Maintaining Classroom Discipline

Another factor that impeded the seamless flow of the project and, therefore, the utmost potential of the digital storytelling activity was classroom management. Even though it was not disastrous, some reasons made it difficult to maintain classroom discipline. Time spent waiting for the participants to arrive at class, to get organized, and to stay focused and engaged took away from the time dedicated to the project. Even though it is, partly, the responsibility of the facilitator to control the class, in the context of this study, this issue was due to other reasons. As mentioned earlier, the digital storytelling activity was introduced as an extracurricular held during the four, 40-minute periods per week allocated for activities.

For the participants, these periods were the ideal time to chat, finish assignments, or memorize for tests. Initially they expressed their excitement in wanting to participate in the project, but they did not want to spend their activity periods doing extra work for no marks and for the subject they struggle with. The participants' indiscipline could also be due to the absence of awareness of the importance of extracurricular activities. Because extracurricular activities do not give account for extra credits at college acceptance in Saudi Arabia, the participants did not take their participation in the activity seriously. Thus, the considerable amount of time wasted each class to maintain classroom discipline adversely affected the seamless implementation of the digital storytelling activity.

6.4.3 Low English Language Competence

According to the Saudi English Language Framework (SELF) (<https://eelyanbu.files.wordpress.com/2014/02/english-language-curriculum-for-schools-in-the-ksa-final.pdf>), the participants of this study were expected to perform at B1.1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Here are a few examples of the spoken language level expected from the students at 10th grade level, as identified in the framework (p. 55).

1. Can express oneself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.

2. Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate one's own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.
3. Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

In reality, the participants demonstrated much less communicational skills; to the extent it disrupted the efficient implementation of the activity. Even though the researcher was aware of this issue beforehand, it seems that the implication of this issue on the flow of the activity was underestimated. For example, the major component and element of creating a good digital a story is writing a good story. Unfortunately, participants lacked the linguistic competence required to achieve this, which necessitated using further strategies to help them at this point. It was satisfying to notice that participants benefited and improved but having to deal with this issue required additional effort on the part of the researcher as well as contributed to exceeding the time allocated for this step. Likewise, low language competence obstructed participants from putting their willingness to participate into an actual act of participation. To deal with situation, the researcher used Arabic occasionally and participants were permitted to use Arabic to compensate for their English language incompetence. This meant participants' participation did increase, however, opportunities to enhance English language competence did not improve substantially. This issue was also expressed by Thang et al. (2014). They reported that low proficiency was one of the main concerns expressed by Malaysian teachers who implemented digital storytelling into their EFL classrooms. In fact, many teachers identified low English proficiency as one of the challenges to adopting communicative language teaching approach (Li,1998; Al Asmari, 2015)

6.4.4 Time

One of the issues encountered during this project was the need to extend the time of the preparation and production stages beyond what was planned. The preparation stage included the step of story script writing, with which the participants struggled a lot. Despite the strategies that were implemented to help participants with their writing, it

was still not possible to get this step done within its time limit. As for the production stage, because of the unanticipated lack of Internet access for the participants, disapproval of the participants to bring their own devices, and thus the reliance on the researcher's laptop, completion of story production required additional time. In fact, this issue was not unique to this study and facilitators of participant-created digital storytelling activity were unanimous regarding time being one of the biggest challenges (Al Khateeb, 2019; Brenner, 2014; Bui, 2015; Clarke & Adam, 2012).

Indeed, integrating digital storytelling activity into EFL classrooms can be time consuming, especially when, as in this study, Internet access is restricted, and students' English proficiency is low. So, to maximize the benefits of this activity, EFL teachers should carefully consider the level of language proficiency of students, their technical skills, and availability of required software and hardware. Even in technically well-equipped classrooms, uptake of a new form of ICT requires spending intensive amounts of time explaining the software, demonstrating its use, and dealing with unexpected technical issues. Even more, in the absence of major technical issues and the advance of the language skills of students, the mere uptake of a new form of ICT can be intimidating to students (Brenner, 2014).

6.5 Chapter summary

This chapter attempted to evaluate, understand, and explain the qualitative and quantitative data reported in Chapter 5 in relation to the relevant perspectives and previous studies. This discussion of the results bestows some important insights. Putting theory into practice to achieve the theorized effect requires thorough knowledge of the theory and, more importantly, deep knowledge of the context into which the theory is being transferred. Though the experience of the Saudi students towards the introduction of digital storytelling activity into the EFL classroom somehow resembles that reported from different EFL contexts, there remain considerable differences. The participants of this study explicitly complained about the grammar-translation approach currently adopted in their EFL classrooms and were eager for a more communicative based approach. This was apparent through the increase of their willingness to participate during the activity. An important point to make here is that the participants' use of their first language was still considered a

positive indication of the potential of the digital storytelling activity to engender their willingness to communicate.

The positive effect of the digital storytelling activity on the participants' intrinsic motivation was explained through the theory of intrinsic motivation of self-determination theory. This theory postulates that intrinsic motivation is fostered when the innate needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied, which the digital storytelling activity succeeded at. The results show an overlap between the reasons for which this activity facilitated willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation.

The digital storytelling activity proved capable of enhancing the different aspects of communicative competence in a foreign language. Story writing and story narration were an effective way to enhance the participants' grammatical competence. This included aspects such as phonology, syntax, and lexicon. It enhanced the participants' discourse competence, both written and spoken.

The nature of the activity which focuses on interaction between the collaborators and between the participants and the teacher, discussion of opinions and about the activity was a perfect training for the participants to enhance their strategic competence. Besides offering ample opportunity to communicate, the activity was interesting and revolved around the participants' personal lives. These conditions made this activity perfect for training the participants to use communicative strategies when they want to communicate but their English repertoire fail them. In this study, the participants were trained to use the two strategies of fillers and paraphrasing.

The chapter ends with an important section discussing the factors that had influenced the implementation of the digital storytelling activity, and hence, the reported results. The explication of these factors gives a clearer picture of the case, and in turn, the reader's judgement on the researcher's explanation of results.

Chapter 7. Conclusion

The motivation to undertake this study was twofold: the concern about students' reticence in the English language classrooms in Saudi Arabia, which significantly impedes their English language acquisition; and the belief that classroom practices can substantially contribute to the solution of this problem. To this end, the current study

attempted to propose a communicative activity that English language teachers in Saudi Arabia could adopt to engender students' willingness to participate in the classroom.

Among a wide variety of English language teaching and learning innovations, digital storytelling was selected to assist in achieving the desired effect. Analysing the characteristics of this activity, it was deemed it has the potential of promoting language learners' intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate inside the EFL classroom. The fact that this method is ICT-enhanced was another reason for its selection, which aligns with the call of the Saudi Ministry of Education's Transformation Plan 2020 for the effective integration of ICT in English language classrooms.

In this study, I sought to address some research questions related to how integrating digital storytelling into English language classrooms in Saudi Arabia could decrease students' reticence and increase their participation in classroom. In particular, whether students' creation of digital stories can increase their willingness to communicate, increase their intrinsic motivation, and enhance their communicative competence. To address these questions accurately, the study has adopted a case study design incorporating a range of qualitative and quantitative research instruments including questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, artefacts, and participant observation.

The following discussion will include: a delineation of how the results of this study could contribute to the relevant fields of knowledge. Next, theoretical and pedagogical implications of the study are presented. It also presents a discussion of the limitations encountered throughout the study, which are deemed to have somehow affected its findings. Acknowledgement of these shortcomings will help the reader understand under which circumstances the reported results were interpreted, along with an explanation of how, despite the existence of these limitations, findings are still worthy.

Directions for possible future research avenues are also given. Finally, concluding remarks are closing the chapter.

7.1 Contribution of the study

The majority studies on students' reticence in EFL classrooms approached this issue from theoretical perspectives. These studies focused primarily on identifying causes behind this behaviour and on suggesting some strategies to decrease it based on these causes. **In the context of Saudi EFL classrooms**, heavy reliance on grammar-translation method in teaching is one of the main and most reported reasons for students' reticence. This method focuses on grammar drills, literal translation between the first and target language, and memorization of the meaning of new words. Communication, however, is neglected. This atmosphere creates reticent students whose communicative competence is unsatisfactorily low. Thus, change of the classroom atmosphere by adopting interesting activities that focuses on teaching communicative competence is the first step to create a participatory classroom. In fact, various studies suggested the use of communicative language teaching approach to facilitate communication inside EFL classrooms (Aubrey, 2011) and argued it is probably the most effective intervention to reduce reticence in EFL classrooms (Li & Liu, 2011).

This study thus proposed digital storytelling activity to address the issue of students' reticence in **Saudi EFL classrooms**. Besides its alignment with the principles of communicative approach, the flexibility and features of this activity made it capable of promoting language learners' intrinsic motivation and increase their willingness to communicate in the classroom. Success to enhance language learners' intrinsic motivation and increase their willingness to communicate might warrant less reticence in classroom and more oral participation.

The following section will highlight the theoretical and practical implications related to these findings.

7.2 Theoretical implications

This study showed the effectiveness of digital storytelling to decrease reticence in an **EFL classroom in Saudi Arabia**. This finding contributes to the theoretical research on reticence in language classrooms by supporting studies claiming that communicative

language teaching has the potential to solve the issue of reticence in language classrooms. It expands the literature of reticence in language classrooms by suggesting a correlation between the two constructs of intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate to reticence in EFL classrooms.

The results of this study presented a satisfactory increase in the participants' willingness to communicate when digital storytelling was introduced. This finding consolidates and adds to the growing body of literature arguing that willingness to communicate in a second language is situation sensitive. That is, even if willingness to communicate is a personality trait, contextual factors, specifically within the second language classroom have a huge impact on this disposition. This study puts high emphasis on the language teaching approach and the role of the teacher on willingness to communicate in EFL classrooms.

The effectiveness of digital storytelling to reduce language learners' reticence and increase their classroom oral participation enriches literature on examples of communicative classroom activities that can increase WTC. This result also lend support to the emerging line of research on the positive effect of multimodality on WTC.

In addition, the examination of the effect of a particular classroom activity, digital storytelling in this study, on EFL students' willingness to communicate expanded the literature on the possible practical interventions to facilitate a willingness to communicate inside EFL classrooms.

Reporting a positive effect of digital storytelling on EFL learners' willingness to communicate and on their intrinsic motivation consolidates the literature of digital storytelling by adding these benefits to the previously evaluated benefits. Moreover, Literature on digital storytelling is expanded by characterising this activity as a perfect fit for the communicative language teaching approach. This thesis expands evidence of the established positive effect of digital storytelling on language proficiency into a new EFL context, Saudi Arabia.

The positive effect of digital storytelling on intrinsic motivation expands existing literature on intrinsic motivation of self-determination theory, inside EFL classrooms. Specifically, it adds the digital storytelling activity to the practical solutions EFL

teachers can use to foster intrinsic motivation. This positive effect was due to the nature and features of the activity which satisfied the learners' autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This finding also contributes to the theoretical research on the correlation between autonomy, competence, and relatedness and intrinsic motivation.

7.3 Pedagogical implications

This study holds important implications in relation to the relevant pedagogies at the broad EFL context and the specific context of this study as well.

The methodology adopted to address the questions of this study was that of educational case study research. A methodology that is significant in learning environments because it can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of pedagogical interventions and detect areas that need attention and reformation. Through this study, English language teachers can make a sound decision and determine the possibility to apply this activity in their learning contexts based on the detailed description of the setting, participants, and the case analysis provided in this study. Moreover, this educational case study offered the participants a beneficial experience where they had the opportunity to acquire a new knowledge and skills.

This thesis is significant for English language teaching literature in Saudi Arabia because it addressed the issue of reticence in its EFL classrooms through a pedagogical perspective. It highlighted that classroom environment, including classroom activities, teaching approaches, and the role of the teacher, has the potential to engender willingness to participate in the EFL classroom. Giving an example of a classroom activity that has the potential to engender EFL learners' willingness to participate in classroom facilitates teachers' shift to a communicative approach.

Integrating digital storytelling into Saudi EFL classrooms is in line with the objectives of the Saudi Ministry of Education for English language teaching. The Ministry of Education calls for effective integration of information and communication technology into English language classrooms. It, moreover, emphasises enhancement of the Saudi students' communicative competence in English. By being a communicative activity that is based on the use of multiple digital tools, this activity is well-aligned with the objectives of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia. However, optimal results and effective integration of the digital storytelling activity were negatively impacted due

to the school's restricted access to the internet. Policymakers in the Saudi Education Ministry who call for the integration of technological advancement in English language classrooms must ensure all schools are equipped with the essential technological tools and have internet access necessary for equipping students with the 21st century literacy.

Based on results reported in this study, English language curriculum developers in Saudi Arabia are called to integrate digital storytelling activities into the core curriculum. Saudi EFL teachers are encouraged to use it to create a more active and participatory classroom. The results of using the digital storytelling activity are significant and could persist and amplify if the activity becomes embedded into the core curriculum. Informed by obstacles encountered in this study, however, there are some considerations to be taken into account to maximize the benefits of the activity in regular language classrooms. Because this activity is time consuming and teachers are under pressure to complete the curriculum, it could be appropriate to use it only as a project at the end of each unit. Use of ICT tools in this activity, such as hypertext, voiceover, and software is beneficial but has its drawbacks, too. It is imperative that the teacher experiments with the software before it is being introduced to the students. This helps discover any possible technical difficulties, allocate the needed time for each stage, and the produced story can be used as a demonstration. Making sure Internet access is readily available is equally important. Collaboration is key to the success of the activity. In this regard, it is advisable to leave selection of group members to the students. Compelling ideas and longer discussions happen when friends collaborate.

The fact that the participants in this study showed a satisfactory degree of willingness to communicate during the digital storytelling activity, despite their low proficiency, confirms the claims made previously that Saudi students' reticence in EFL classrooms is mostly caused by teachers' heavy reliance on traditional language teaching methods. Therefore, Saudi EFL teachers' shift into the communicative language teaching approach as an effective alternative should be mandatory. However, the effective implementation of the CLT approach requires high levels of communicative competence, which most of Saudi EFL teachers themselves lack. Therefore, Saudi EFL teachers need extensive professional training, primarily learning to research and follow

the latest on communicative approach literature. They also need to enrol in extensive language programs and courses to enhance their communicative competence.

Finally, an important implication of this study concerns the possibility of students' intrinsic motivation to be thwarted when the activity becomes a part of the curriculum. By being novel and optimally challenging, this activity was able to interest the participants in this study, so they freely chose to maintain it. Students' interest, however, could be diminished when external motivation such as grades are used, according to self-determination theory. Thus, one possible way to benefit from this activity in regular English classrooms is by assigning it at the end of each unit to reflect students' understanding but no grades are used. This is the most autonomous type of external motivation- to have students internalize the importance of this activity for their learning (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). They need to do it regularly for their benefit, but no external rewards or punishments are used.

7.4 Limitations of this study

An explicit articulation of the limitations of a study helps direct where new efforts are needed in research. Therefore, although the study's research questions were addressed which yielded insightful results, there have been some limitations. The next section provides an explication of these limitations and their perceived impact on the results, with an explanation of how the results are still worthy.

This study fits appropriately within the case study design, which yielded valuable results, however, some shortcomings inherent in this research design can be noted. Primarily, findings of this study are not generalizable to the whole Saudi EFL population because of the small size of the sample. Only thirty-two tenth-grade students participated in the study, which does not represent the majority of students at the same level. However, the statement of criteria upon which the sample was selected, the characteristics of the participants, the detailed account of the digital storytelling project including students' lived experiences and activities will enable readers to make connections and determine the degree to which the study is applicable to their contexts.

Despite efforts made from the outset of the study to build a close and informal relationship with the participants, the formal hierarchical nature of the relationship between students and teachers in Saudi Arabia imposed its impact on the study. The

responses of the participants to the post-intervention interview questions were succinct regardless of the use of probes which might have limited the researcher's ability to illuminate broader meanings. Nevertheless, the use of multiple methods and resources such as the researcher's prolonged observation of participants' behaviours, activities and feedback throughout the digital storytelling project together with the participants' self-reported questionnaires helped gain a thorough understanding and draw valid conclusions.

While a 12-week period was reasonable to predict and notice a change in the participants' willingness to communicate and their intrinsic motivation, it was not possible to record a noticeable change in communicative competence. Thus, the improvement in communicative competence would have been clearer if the study has been longitudinal.

On a similar note, because the study was undertaken during an unsuitable time at the school, the performance of the participants was affected to some degree. The participants were distracted by and focused on their mid-term tests, which adversely impacted the flow of the project and participants' effort and attendance. The negative effect of the time constraints has been limited by using participant observation as one of the data collection methods. The prolonged engagement with the participants compensated for the unexpected interruption in the project.

Along with the qualitative methods, this study used two quantitative instruments for data gathering. One of these was Weaver's (2005) WTC in second language questionnaire, which was used to assess the participants' levels of willingness to communicate prior to the implementation of the digital storytelling project. Results of the questionnaire were used to distribute participants into equal groups; each group consists of participants with high, moderate, and low WTC levels. Characterisation of the participants based on their willingness to communicate was used to enable the researcher observing any increase in willingness to communicate among the participants who reported their low willingness to communicate in regular English classes.

It is however believed the results relevant to the research question of the effect of digital storytelling activity on the participants' willingness to communicate could have been more accurate and informative if this instrument was administered pre-and post-

the intervention to assess the impact. Nonetheless, the qualitative data obtained from the interviews and the researcher's participant observation to answer the WTC related question yielded adequate results. Qualitative information illuminated important aspects that were unpredictable and could not be elicited solely by comparing the students' response to the questionnaire prior to and after the project.

Last, being an insider participant researcher enhanced the credibility of the study, however, it might have brought about some disadvantages. For example, acting as the facilitator and a data collector might have affected the researcher's performance at any of these roles. Likewise, thorough familiarity with the population of the study might have led to some events going unnoticed.

7.5 Directions for future research

The scarcity of studies on digital storytelling in the Saudi EFL context along with the difficulty to recruit a teacher to learn and execute the proposed intervention has partly dictated case study design as the suitable approach to go about this study's research problem and achieve its objectives. Hence, being of an exploratory nature, this study uncovered the need for future research on various avenues that are specific to the context of the study, Saudi Arabia. For example, while this study was conducted on a small scale, future research can be extended to investigate the effectiveness of integrating digital storytelling into English language classrooms at different study levels through higher education.

In addition, because Saudi students are gender-segregated at secondary education, girls constituted the whole sample of this study. Hence, for future research a researcher could replicate the study with male students and compare the results. Carrying out a longitudinal study particularly while examining the effect of digital storytelling on the communicative competence of language learners is another way to extend the study. Incorporating quantitative methods is suggested to compare the language proficiency of participating students with their peers using a control group. There is also need for inquiries investigating Saudi English language teachers' theoretical perceptions of the CLT approach and their in-class practices, challenges, and possible solutions.

As for the EFL context in general, future research can be directed in many ways. A research on the relationship between willingness to communicate and intrinsic

motivation as perceived in the self-determination theory is worth considering. The focus of this study was on the potential positive effect of digital storytelling on WTC and intrinsic motivation without looking into the correlation between these two constructs. However, based on this study, it is hypothesised that facilitating intrinsic motivation through the satisfaction of three needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness could significantly increase willingness to participate in the classroom. Moreover, none of the previous studies, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, has applied the self-determination theory in the evaluation of the impact of digital storytelling on students' intrinsic motivation. That said, a possible area of investigation is for language researchers to further examine this effect with a larger population. Approaching the topics of willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation in language classrooms with practical interventions, specifically classroom activities is worth more research. Thus, future research should focus on experimenting with other communicative classroom activities to engender students' willingness to participate in the classroom and their intrinsic motivation as well. The selection should be informed by the findings from previous studies together with well understanding of the distinctive features of each learning context.

7.6 Concluding remarks

What has become evident from this research project is that digital storytelling activity has proved its overall effectiveness in English language teaching/learning. It offers promising possibilities and serves different purposes including the benefits this study has found such as being capable of engendering students' willingness to communicate in a Saudi EFL classroom and promoting their intrinsic motivation as well. Of equal importance, digital storytelling is a perfect communicative activity that can be designed to enhance the different aspects of second language communicative competence, be it grammatical, discourse, or strategic. The potential of the activity to create ample communicative opportunities, be intrinsically motivating, and capable of engendering willingness to communicate at the same time should encourage English language teachers in Saudi Arabia to integrate the activity into their classrooms. The same results can also inform the broader EFL context.

Moreover, the gap between research and practice is enormous in the different lines of research discussed in this study. Digital storytelling has hardly existed in most of the EFL contexts in the Asian and Arab countries. The literature of digital storytelling in second and foreign language classrooms focused mainly on its effect on the learners' linguistic competence but hardly there existed studies using it to enhance strategic and sociolinguistic competencies. More studies on the effect of different classroom activities on EFL learners' willingness to communicate and intrinsic motivation are also needed to enrich the English language teaching literature.

The results of this study also highlighted the distinctiveness of its learning context and that the effectiveness of a particular classroom activity in a given context does not warrant similar results if it was applied in another context. Effectiveness of digital storytelling activity in this study was determined through awareness of the context of the study, the perceived reasons for the problem in question in the context and designing the activity accordingly. Even with careful consideration of the context and the designing of the activity, unexpected obstacles might still arise. Reporting these obstacles is as important as reporting the positive results to advance future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A Questionnaire Samples

A.1 Willingness to Communicate in a Foreign Language (English version)



Name: _____

Grade-level: _____

Directions: Below are 20 situations in which you might choose to communicate or not to communicate in English in the classroom. Presume that you have completely free choice. Please indicate how willing you are to communicate in each type of situation by marking any one of the four responses, from (1) “definitely not willing, to (4) “definitely willing”.

1 = definitely not willing

2 = probably not willing

3 = probably willing

4 = definitely willing

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Volunteer an answer when the teacher asks a question in English in class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. Participate in English in group discussion in class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. present your own opinion in English in class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. Do a role-play in English in your group | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. Do a role-play in English standing in front of the class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. Give a short speech in English about a topic of your interest with notes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. Ask the teacher in English for a question or clarification | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. Read out tow-way dialogue in English from the textbook | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. Tell your class in English about a story you read in a book or saw in TV | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. Tell your class in English about a personal story | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. Translate a spoken utterance from Arabic into English in order to participate in the class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. Ask your teacher how to say a phrase you know how to say in Arabic but not in English | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. Interview your classmate in English asking questions from the textbook | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. Interview your classmate in English asking your original questions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. Ask your teacher in English how to pronounce a word | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. Translate a sentence from Arabic into English to use it in the class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. Write a descriptive paragraph in English about a Saudi cultural event | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. Write a comment in English about what you think about your English class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. Write instructions in English for how to make your favourite dish | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. Write in English your feedback on your peer’s work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

A.2 Willingness to communicate in a foreign language (Arabic version)



التعليمات:

فيما يلي أمثلة لبعض المواقف في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية والتي قد تختارين ان تشاركي او لا تشاركي فيها، في كل موقف افترضى ان لديك حرية الاختيار.

استخدامي الأرقام من 1 _ 4 لتعبري عن مدى استعدادك للمشاركة في كل موقف من هذه المواقف علما بأن:

الرقم (1) يعني بالتأكيد لا أرغب.

(2) قد لا أرغب.

(3) قد أرغب.

(4) بالتأكيد ارغب.

- 1_ التطلع بالإجابة عند سؤال المعلم لسؤال باللغة الإنجليزية.
- 2_ المشاركة فالنقاش داخل الصف بين مجموعتك.
- 3_ عرض افكارك داخل الصف.
- 4_ القيام بدور تمثيلي باللغة الإنجليزية بين مجموعتك.
- 5_ القيام بدور تمثيلي باللغة الإنجليزية امام الصف.
- 6_ إلقاء كلمة قصيرة باللغة الإنجليزية حول موضوع يستهويك مستعينة ببعض الملاحظات.
- 7_ سؤال المعلمة او طلب التوضيح باللغة الإنجليزية.
- 8_ قراءة محادثة بين شخصين باللغة الإنجليزية من الكتاب المنهجي.
- 9_ إخبار الصف باللغة الإنجليزية عن قصة قرأتها في كتاب او شاهدها في التلفاز.
- 10_ إخبار الصف باللغة الإنجليزية عن قصة شخصية.
- 11_ ترجمة عبارة شفوية من العربية الى الإنجليزية.
- 12_ سؤال المعلمة عن كيفية التعبير باللغة الإنجليزية عن جملة باللغة العربية.
- 13_ إجراء مقابلة باللغة الإنجليزية مع زميلتك بالصف باستخدام أسئلة من الكتاب المنهجي.
- 14_ إجراء مقابلة باللغة الإنجليزية مع زميلتك بالصف باستخدام أسئلة من انشائك.
- 15_ سؤال المعلمة باللغة الإنجليزية عن كيفية نطق الكلمة.
- 16_ ترجمة جملة من العربية الى الإنجليزية.
- 17_ كتابة مقال وصفي عن مناسبة تخص المجتمع السعودي.
- 18_ كتابة تعليق باللغة الإنجليزية حول رأيك في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.

19_ كتابة تعليمات تحضير طبقك المفضل باللغة الإنجليزية.

20_ ابداء الملاحظات حول عمل زميلتك فالصف.

A.3 Intrinsic motivation inventory (English version)

| | |  Curtin University | |
|--|--|---|-----------|
| Name: _____ | | | |
| Grade-level: _____ | | | |
| Instructions: For the following statements, please indicate how true it is for you, using the following scale: | | | |
| | | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 |
| | | 5 | 6 |
| | | 7 | |
| | | not at all true | very true |
| Interest/Enjoyment | | | |
| 1/ I enjoyed working on the digital storytelling project very much | | 1 | 2 |
| 7 | | 3 | 4 |
| 2/ Creating a digital story was fun to do. | | 5 | 6 |
| 3/ Creating a digital story was a boring project. | | 7 | |
| 4/ This project did not hold my attention at all. | | 1 | 2 |
| 5/ I would describe the digital storytelling project as very interesting | | 3 | 4 |
| | | 5 | 6 |
| | | 7 | |
| Perceived Competence | | | |
| 1/ I think I did pretty well in the digital storytelling project | | 1 | 2 |
| 2/ I am satisfied with my performance in this project. | | 3 | 4 |
| 3/ I was pretty skilled at creating a digital story. | | 5 | 6 |
| 4/ After working on this project for a while, I felt pretty competent | | 7 | |
| 5/ digital storytelling was a project that I could not do very well | | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 |
| | | 5 | 6 |
| | | 7 | |
| Value/Usefulness | | | |
| 1/ I think digital storytelling is important because it reinforces my digital skills | | 1 | 2 |
| 2/ I think working on this project helped me improve my speaking skill | | 3 | 4 |
| 3/ I would be willing to work on this project again because it enhances my other English language skills (e.g., reading, writing, and listening) | | 5 | 6 |
| 4/ I believe digital storytelling could increase my willingness to speak English in the class | | 7 | |
| 5/ I think it is beneficial to integrate digital storytelling in the English language classroom | | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 |
| | | 5 | 6 |
| | | 7 | |
| Pressure/Tension | | | |
| 1/ I felt pressured while working on the digital storytelling project | | 1 | 2 |
| 2/ I was anxious while working on this project | | 3 | 4 |
| 3/ I did not feel nervous at all while working on this project | | 5 | 6 |
| | | 7 | |

A.4 Intrinsic motivation inventory (Arabic version)



المرحلة الدرامية/

الاسم/

التعليمات: في كل من العبارات التالية أثيري الى مدى صحة كل عبارة بالنسبة إليك مستخدمة المعيار التالي:

| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|------|---|---|-----------|---|---|-------------|
| صحيح | | | صحيح | | | ليس صحيح |
| جدا | | | الى حد ما | | | على الاطلاق |

المتعة:

- 1_ استمتعت جدا بالعمل على مشروع القصة الرقمية.
- 2_ صنع قصة رقمية كان شيئا ممليا.
- 3_ صنع قصة رقمية كان مشروعا ممل.
- 4_ هذا المشروع لم يشد انتباهي مطلقا.
- 5_ يمكن ان اصف مشروع القصة الرقمية انه كان ممتعا للغاية.

الكفاءة:

- 1_ أعتقد انني عملت جيد جدا في مشروع القصة الرقمية.
- 2_ انا راضية عن ادائي في هذا المشروع.
- 3_ لقد كنت ماهرة جدا في صنع القصة الرقمية.
- 4_ بعد العمل لفترة على هذا المشروع أشعر انني أصبحت متمكن.
- 5_ أعتقد انني لم أؤدي بشكل جيد في مشروع القصة الرقمية.

الفائدة:

- 1_ أعتقد ان مشروع القصة الرقمية مهم لأنه يعزز مهاراتي الرقمية.
- 2_ أعتقد ان عملي على هذا المشروع ساعد في تطوير مهارة التحدث.
- 3_ سأكون مستعدة للعمل على هذا المشروع مرة أخرى لأنه يطور مهاراتي اللغوية الأخرى كالكتابة والاستماع والقراءة.
- 4_ أعتقد ان مشروع القصة الرقمية قد يزيد من رغبتني في التحدث داخل الصف.
- 5_ أعتقد انه من المفيد إدخال مشروع القصة الرقمية في تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية.

Appendix B Observation guidance

Classroom Observation Scheme

Observer: _____

Name of student: _____

Date: _____

Time: _____

Description of digital storytelling process:

| Possible indicators of willingness | Examples/further notes for clarification |
|---|--|
| 1. Offer a comment | |
| 2. Raise a hand to answer a question | |
| 3. Ask the teacher a question in the class | |
| 4. Ask the teacher for clarification in the class | |
| 5. Ask about the meaning of unknown word | |
| 6. Answer a question voluntarily | |
| 7. Ask the teacher after the class | |
| 8. Give feedback to peers | |
| 9. Give an opinion | |
| 10. Respond to an opinion | |
| 11. Suggest an opinion about the project | |
| 12. Engage actively in classroom discussion | |
| 13. Collaborate with group member | |
| 14. Work enthusiastically on the project | |
| 15. Show up in the class | |

Observer reflection:

Appendix C Interview guidance

Student Interview Protocol

Date: _____ Time: _____

Name of student: _____ Sign: _____

A. Background information

1. How many years have you been studying English?
2. Describe your communicative competence compared to your classmates?
Low intermediate High
3. Do you usually use your English in communication when you have the chance to?
4. What type of classroom activities teachers implement in your English class?

B. Perspectives on digital storytelling

1. What is your perspective about using digital storytelling in your English classroom?
2. What process of digital storytelling did you like the most? What was the most exciting phase? Why?
3. What was the most challenging part of the digital storytelling process? Why? What do you suggest to make it more manageable?
5. What learning skills did you develop during this project?
3. Would you recommend that your teacher use digital storytelling? Why? Why not?

C. Digital storytelling Willingness to communicate in English the class

1. How do you rate your willingness to communicate in English in your regular classroom?
Low average high
2. How do you rate your willingness to communicate in English in this class?
No change Lower higher
3. Do you think your willingness to participate changed from time to time during this project? If yes, when was the time you were most willing and when was the time you were least willing?
4. Have you ever felt during the project that you are willing to participate but your English is incompetent?

D. Digital storytelling and motivation

1. Did digital storytelling increase your learning motivation? If yes, How? If not, why?
2. Did digital storytelling succeed to satisfy your needs to feel motivated? Explain?
3. Describe your motivation in reference to the following aspects of digital storytelling
Use of technology Collaboration project-based task

E. Digital storytelling and communicative competence

1. What aspects of language skills do you think that digital storytelling helped you improve? How?
2. Did this project give you more chance to participate and use your English language?
3. How would you rate digital storytelling as a learning tool that can reinforce communicative skills
Very helpful probably helpful not helpful

Appendix D Participants Information sheet

Digital Storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory Study of its Impact on Students' Motivation and Willingness to Communicate



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT

| | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| HREC Project Number: | |
| Project Title: | Digital Storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory Study of its Impact on Students' Motivation and Willingness to Communicate |
| Chief Investigator: | A/Prof Jenny Jay Associate Professor for Early childhood Studies |
| Student researcher: | Haifa Al-Amri |
| Version Number: | 6 |
| Version Date: | 12/SEP/2017 |

What is the Project About?

Digital storytelling is an emerging tool that has been integrated in English language classrooms in recent years. Many studies have demonstrated the positive impact of this tool on the improvement of English language learners' skills. However, little research has been conducted to investigate the impact of digital storytelling in the context of Saudi EFL schools. Therefore, this study aims to expand the knowledge and explore the influence of digital storytelling on Saudi students, in particular their learning motivation and willingness to communicate. We hope results of this study will contribute to the English education and pertinent research discipline. To achieve this objective, a total of 20 ninth-grade students in a Saudi school will take part in a digital storytelling creation project.

Who is doing the Research?

The project is being conducted by Haifa Al-Amri under the supervision of A/Professor Jenny Jay to obtain a Doctor of Philosophy at Curtin University and is funded by the Saudi Arabian cultural mission.

Why am I being asked to take part and what will I have to do?

You have been asked to participate because you are a Saudi student who learns English as a foreign language. The study will require you to complete a questionnaire at the beginning of the project measuring your level of willingness to communicate in your English class. We will use results of this questionnaire to divide the participants into groups. Each group will collaborate to create a digital story. Throughout this project, you will keep a journal and reflect on each class and we will observe your participation as well. At the end of the project, you will fill in another questionnaire that asks how digital storytelling have impacted your learning motivation. We will also conduct an interview with you and ask you about your experience. Interviews will be audio-recorded so we can concentrate on what you have to say and not distract ourselves with taking notes. After the interview, we will make a full written copy of the recording. This project will span

over 12 weeks including the required time to complete each questionnaire and the individual interview.

Time required

Each questionnaire: 5-10 minutes

Interview: 20-30 minutes

Are there any benefits to being in the research project?

There may be no direct benefit to you from participating in this research. However, we hope the results of this research will allow us to amplify learning outcomes of English language learners. .

Are there any risks, side-effects, discomforts or inconveniences from being in the research project?

Apart from giving up your time, we do not expect that there will be any risks or inconveniences associated with taking part in this study.

Who will have access to my information?

The information collected in this research will be identifiable. This means that any information we collect that can identify you will stay on the information we collect and it will be treated as confidential and used only in the project unless otherwise stated.

Electronic information will be password-protected and hard copy data will be kept in locked storage at Curtin University. Access to your information will be restricted to the chief investigator and the student researcher.

The information we collect in this study will be kept under secure conditions at Curtin University for 7 years after the research is published and then it will be destroyed.

The results of this research may be presented at conferences or published in professional journals. You will not be identified in any results that are published or presented. If you participate in this study, we would also quote you directly using your name.

Will you tell me the results of the research?

We will write to you at the end of the research (in about 12 months) and let you know the results of the research. Results will be based on all the information we collect and review as part of the research.

Do I have to take part in the research project?

Taking part in this research project is voluntary. It is your choice to take part or not. You do not have to agree if you do not want to. If you decide to take part and then change your mind, that is okay, you can withdraw from the project. You do not have to give us a reason; just tell us that you want to stop. If you choose not to take part or start and then stop the study, it will not affect you in any way.

What happens next and who can I contact about the research?

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at any time via contact details listed below.

Haifa Al-Amri
Email: Haifa.Al-amri@postgrad.curtin.edu.au
Jenny Jay
Email: jenny.jay@curtin.edu.au
Tel: [+61 8 9266 2170](tel:+61892662170)

If you decided to take part in this research we will ask you to sign the consent form. By signing it is telling us that you understand what you have read and what has been discussed. Please take your time and ask any questions you have before you decide what to do. You will be given a copy of this information and the consent form to keep.

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HREC number XX/XXXX). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

Appendix E Consent form



Digital storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory Study of its Impact on Students' Motivation and Willingness to Communicate

CONSENT FORM

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| HREC Project Number: | |
| Project Title: | Digital storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory Study of its Impact on Students' Motivation and Willingness to Communicate |
| Chief Investigator: | A/Prof Jenny Jay Associate Professor for Early Childhood studies |
| Student researcher: | Haifa Al-Amri |
| Version Number: | 5 |
| Version Date: | 12/SEP/2017 |

- I had read in my first language the information statement version listed above and I understand its contents.
- I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project.
- I voluntarily consent to take part in this research project.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.
- I understand that this project has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee and will be carried out in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
- I understand I will receive a copy of this Information Statement and Consent Form.

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| Participant Name | |
| Participant Signature | |
| Date | |

Declaration by researcher: I have supplied an Information Letter and Consent Form to the participant who has signed above, and believe that they understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of their involvement in this project.

| | |
|----------------------|---------------|
| Researcher Name | Haifa Al-Amri |
| Researcher Signature | |
| Date | |

Appendix F Permission for school access

Approval of your Request

Dear Haifa Al-Amri,

Thanks for your email and interest in our school. We have read your proposal and the attached information and consent forms. We see that using digital storytelling to increase students' motivation and English language skills is an innovative method and we are excited about the results.

We are always willing to contribute to our students' improvement and academic excellence. So, your request is delightedly approved.

We will contact you if we needed any further information.

Best Regards,

Sabah Al-Shehri

6/11/2017

Sabah
6/11



Appendix G Ethics approval



Office of Research and Development

GPO Box U1987
Perth Western Australia 6845

Telephone +61 8 9266 7863
Facsimile +61 8 9266 3793
Web research.curtin.edu.au

31-Oct-2017

Name: Jenny Jay
Department/School: School of Education
Email: Jenny.Jay@curtin.edu.au

Dear Jenny Jay

RE: Ethics Office approval
Approval number: HRE2017-0764

Thank you for submitting your application to the Human Research Ethics Office for the project **Digital Storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory Study of its Impact on Students' Motivation and Willingness to Communicate**.

Your application was reviewed through the Curtin University Negligible risk review process.

The review outcome is: **Approved**.

Your proposal meets the requirements described in the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)*.

Approval is granted for a period of one year from **31-Oct-2017** to **30-Oct-2018**. Continuation of approval will be granted on an annual basis following submission of an annual report.

Personnel authorised to work on this project:

| Name | Role |
|----------------|---------|
| Jay, Jenny | CI |
| Al-Amri, Haifa | Student |

Approved documents:

| |
|----------|
| Document |
|----------|

Standard conditions of approval

1. Research must be conducted according to the approved proposal
2. Report in a timely manner anything that might warrant review of ethical approval of the project including:
 - proposed changes to the approved proposal or conduct of the study

Appendix H Ethics approval for amended proposal



Office of Research and Development

GPO Box U1987
Perth Western Australia 6845

Telephone +61 8 9266 7863
Facsimile +61 8 9266 3793
Web research.curtin.edu.au

26-Feb-2018

Name: Jenny Jay
Department/School: School of Education
Email: Jenny.Jay@curtin.edu.au

Dear Jenny Jay

RE: Amendment approval
Approval number: HRE2017-0764

Thank you for submitting an amendment request to the Human Research Ethics Office for the project **Digital Storytelling in a Saudi EFL Classroom: An Exploratory Study of its Impact on Students' Motivation and Willingness to Communicate**.

Your amendment request has been reviewed and the review outcome is: **Approved**

The amendment approval number is HRE2017-0764-01 approved on 26-Feb-2018.

The following amendments were approved:

To study 10th graders instead of 9th grade students, and to increase the number of participants from 20 to 32.

Any special conditions noted in the original approval letter still apply.

Standard conditions of approval

1. Research must be conducted according to the approved proposal
2. Report in a timely manner anything that might warrant review of ethical approval of the project including:
 - proposed changes to the approved proposal or conduct of the study
 - unanticipated problems that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project
 - major deviations from the approved proposal and/or regulatory guidelines
 - serious adverse events
3. Amendments to the proposal must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Office before they are implemented (except where an amendment is undertaken to eliminate an immediate risk to participants)
4. An annual progress report must be submitted to the Human Research Ethics Office on or before the anniversary of approval and a completion report submitted on completion of the project
5. Personnel working on this project must be adequately qualified by education, training and experience for their role, or supervised
6. Personnel must disclose any actual or potential conflicts of interest, including any financial or other interest or affiliation, that bears on this project
7. Changes to personnel working on this project must be reported to the Human Research Ethics Office

8. Data and primary materials must be retained and stored in accordance with the [Western Australian University Sector Disposal Authority \(WAUSDA\)](#) and the [Curtin University Research Data and Primary Materials policy](#)
9. Where practicable, results of the research should be made available to the research participants in a timely and clear manner
10. Unless prohibited by contractual obligations, results of the research should be disseminated in a manner that will allow public scrutiny; the Human Research Ethics Office must be informed of any constraints on publication
11. Ethics approval is dependent upon ongoing compliance of the research with the [Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research](#), the [National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research](#), applicable legal requirements, and with Curtin University policies, procedures and governance requirements
12. The Human Research Ethics Office may conduct audits on a portion of approved projects.

Should you have any queries regarding consideration of your project, please contact the Ethics Support Officer for your faculty or the Ethics Office at hrec@curtin.edu.au or on 9266 2784.

Yours sincerely



Amy Bowater
Acting Manager, Research Integrity

