LANCASTER UNIVERSITY

English-Mediated Oral Presentations in Pharmacy: Exploring Literacy Practices among Saudi Female Undergraduates

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Abstract

Research within English for Academic Purposes (EAP) often focuses on textual analyses of specific linguistic features in written discourse to help develop relevant pedagogic materials (Lillis & Scott, 2008). Because of the decontextualized nature of these investigations (Dressen-Hammouda, 2013), calls have emerged for in-depth investigations that give greater attention to the social practices surrounding learners’ language use.

Focusing on oral presentations as a common academic genre for knowledge dissemination, this study employs an ethnographically-oriented case study to examine how eight year-five undergraduates in a Pharmacy College in Saudi Arabia engage with seminar presentations. The study adopts a social view of literacy to explore its complexity in this context (Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Pahl & Rowsell, 2006; Street, 1984). It also utilizes a social semiotic understanding of meaning-making to examine the presenters’ communicative choices (Kress, 2010; Kress, Jewitt, Ogborn, & Tsatsarelis, 2001; Leeuwen, 2005; Matusiak, 2013). Data for this investigation includes semi-structured interviews with participants, observations of seminar sessions, informal conversations with teaching and administrative staff and various students in the college, artefacts’ collection and research journal.

Emergent themes highlight the complex practices involved in students’ development as professionals in pharmacy and the need to reconsider common EAP understandings of English-language proficiency. While exploring how participants address the demands of English-language use, the analysis highlights how these multilingual learners engage with the full repertoire of their semiotic resources to represent and communicate their knowledge. The study concludes by considering the implications for EAP practice. It points out to the effect that a social account of literacy may hold for teaching students in similar contexts. In addition, it calls for the need to provide a deeper understanding of language learners’ needs which shape their engagement with academic activities.
STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature:

Date:
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this journey.
Dedication

To learners and their untold stories

“We delight in the beauty of the butterfly, but rarely admit the changes it has gone through to achieve that beauty”.

Maya Angelou
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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background: Researching English for Academic Purposes

With the increasing use of English as the main medium of academic instruction around the world, there is a growing reliance on specialized language teaching approaches, such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) which aim to assist learners in learning English for particular need-driven purposes. In relation to EAP, in particular, investigating how English is used in academic contexts provides “direct insight into the ways scholars across the university work, the kinds of knowledge they value and indeed the ultimate purpose of their discipline” (Charles & Pecorari, 2016, p. 4).

EAP is a needs-driven approach to language teaching that works to recognize and address language learners’ needs in different domains (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013). According to Hyland (2006, p. 73), learners’ ‘needs’ represents “an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating learners’ goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situation they will need to communicate in”. Understanding learners’ needs allows EAP teachers and policy makers to tailor the objectives and content of courses to the specific linguistic and disciplinary conventions that learners need to identify and work with (Mansur & Shrestha, 2015). Investigations of these needs, however, have been historically approached through textual-based analyses of common genres and authors’ personal experiences and intuitions which were not always built on sound theoretical grounds or clearly-framed research designs (Hyland, 2006). They tended to prioritize linguistic and discoursal features of texts to train learners to recognize, use and master these features. As a result, addressing learners’ needs was largely associated with provision of lists of objective and translatable linguistic features without much attention to the social contexts that underpin language use.

This perception of needs has had considerable influence on many EAP areas of investigations, especially in genre studies which present one of the primary lenses through which textual conventions associated with discipline-specific knowledge have been examined within scholarly research. Focus within these studies has been mostly directed towards written genres because of the common belief that mastery of writing paves the way to academic success (Lillis & Scott, 2008). Furthermore, it reflects the classical significance attached to written discourse in academia in relation to knowledge dissemination and assessment. Spoken genres, such as oral presentations, seminars and
lectures, on the other hand, have not received equal attention despite their significance and common use (Swales, 2004).

1.2 EAP in Saudi Arabia

Since the establishment of the first university in Saudi Arabia in 1957 (Smith & Abouammoh, 2013), the use of the English language as the main medium of instruction in departments that relate to science and technology in Saudi Arabia has been consistently growing. Although many of the academic disciplines in Saudi universities do not rely on English, such as the departments of Arabic, media and religious studies, many departments use English as the main medium of knowledge dissemination and communication among teachers and students. Most Saudi universities have implemented comprehensive English language courses in their Preparatory-Year programmes which are offered to all secondary school graduates, admitted for university study. These programmes aim to develop the basic skills of writing, speaking, listening and reading through usually implementing general English language teaching agendas regardless of the specialized field that a student intends to join in the university. These programmes, however, are rarely based on empirical investigations of learners’ needs (Al-Nasser, 2015). They tend to be operated under the common assumptions described earlier which associate recognizing and addressing English language learners’ needs with identifying generic linguistic and discoursal features through reliance on textual-based analyses and intuitions of policy makers and applied linguists (Hyland, 2006; Johns, 2013).

Research on English language teaching and learning in formal education, especially in academic settings in Saudi Arabia generally aligns with a skill-based understanding of literacy. This understanding is dominated by researchers’ “attempts to ‘fix’ problems with student learning, which are treated as a kind of pathology” by focusing on “surface features, grammar and spelling” (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159). These attempts reflect the normative stance dominant within EAP research around the world which prioritize “at one or more levels of grammar, discourse or rhetorical structure or genre – and on (or with a view to) exploring how students might be taught to become proficient or ‘expert’ and developing materials on that basis” (Lillis & Scott, 2008, p. 13).

Studies working to recognize the challenges and difficulties faced by English language learners are very common in language research in Saudi Arabia. urRahman and Alhaisoni (2013), for example, investigate the challenges that face English language
teaching in Saudi Arabia and offers some remedial suggestions to address these challenges. Al-Khairy (2013) examines common problems in university students’ writings. Alqahtani (2015) also examines the difficulties that Saudi language learners face while examining their willingness to learn English. Within these studies, attention is usually directed towards the writing skill more than other skills (e.g., Al-Khairy, 2013; Barnawi, 2016; Fageeh, 2011; Nash, 2016).

Focus within these studies on writing reflects a common tendency in this context to correlate development in learners’ writing skill with their progress in academic studies (Al-Nasser, 2015). Fewer studies direct their attention to other skills, such as speaking and reading. Mousawa and Elyas (2015) suggest a programme to teach presentation skills within an ESP programme. They examine the challenges that learners face in engaging with communication skills in general and oral presentation skills in specific to facilitate their success in language learning and build necessary skills for future professional employability. Al-Mohanna (2011) examines classroom interaction in English language teaching in public schools through classroom observation. His qualitative study seeks to examine aspects of classroom interaction which hinder the development of listening and speaking skills among language learners. Daif-Allah and Khan (2016) use quantitatively and qualitatively collected data to examine the effect of using extracurricular speaking activities on developing learners’ oral communicative skills.

While the majority of studies are concerned with recognizing academic conventions in order to highlight the challenges facing language learners and offer suggestions to address these challenges, there are increasing attempts to examine language learners’ practices. For example, Ababneh (2016) employs survey data to examine the literacy skills and practices in English and Arabic among female undergraduates. Barnawi (2016) examines how university students engage with pedagogical practices imported from the United States in a writing class. He sheds lights on the effect of these practices on transforming his own practices as an EFL writing teacher and changing how students engage with writing classes. Alzubi, Singh, and Pandian (2017) employ a survey to explore practices of autonomy among male undergraduates in a Saudi university.

Most of the studies carried within this context in relation to language teaching and learning tend to rely on quantitative methodologies which relies mainly on surveys (e.g., Alqahtani, 2015; Alzubi d., 2017; Javid, Al-Asmari, & Farooq, 2012; Liton,
In contrast, qualitative methods do not seem to share that popularity. Exceptions include Barnawi (2016) who employs a qualitative approach in his study to examine how student-writers work around imported pedagogical decisions to suit their needs. His study includes the use of teacher’s journal, students’ works and notes from teacher-student conferences. Ababneh (2016) uses two survey questionnaires distributed to 200 third and fourth female English major students in order to explore the literacy skills and practices of these undergraduates. She also utilizes her research notes and observations to deepen her understanding of literacy among the participants in her study. Mahboob and Elyas (2014) examine one of the textbooks used by the Ministry of Education to teach English in Saudi Arabia to look for linguistic and visual indications of a Saudi variety of English. Their textually-based analysis is supported by consulting linguists and experienced Saudi teachers of English regarding their analysis and interpretation of the collected data. Barnawi and Phan (2015) employ a qualitative case study approach to examine how two Western-trained Saudi TESOL male language teachers utilize their training to teach English and the effect of their use on issues related to knowledge construction and pedagogical practices. Nazim and Hazarika (2017) use qualitative and quantitative methods to examine how 40 teachers in the Preparatory-Year Programme in a Saudi university perceive students’ linguistic proficiency in relation to ESP standards.

Despite this growing use of qualitative data to support quantitatively-collected data within this context, there is a clear shortage of in-depth investigations of the social contexts in which language learners engage with language. Many issues remain under-researched, such as the social practices shaping learners’ use of the language, the complexity of meaning making beyond language and identity construction among learners. As far as learners are concerned, not much attention is devoted to learners’ voices and perspectives within the Saudi context. Overlooking learners’ perspectives seems to echo traditional approaches to learning which consider learners as passive recipients and views learning as a process involving knowledge transmission from teacher to learners. These are usually examined through quantitative methods to infer learners’ perspectives and practices without seeking to offer in-depth investigations of their experiences.

1.3 Statement of the Research Problem

Undergraduate oral presentations represent one of the genres which have not received adequate attention within EAP studies despite their growing use and significance in academic contexts. In addition to socializing undergraduates into the
necessary knowledge associated with their disciplines (Morita, 2000), presentations are also used to provide students with valuable opportunities to build and display their knowledge and expertise (Hyland, 2009). In relation to language education, investigations of oral presentations can be used by language educators to improve instruction of oral communication for graduate and undergraduate students (Zareva, 2011a). Despite this importance, the current “somewhat limited and fragmentary” research on spoken discourse within EAP practice has led to a situation in which spoken genres such as undergraduate oral presentations are rarely explored (Evans, 2013, p. 196).

Available research on English-mediated oral presentations by non-native speakers of English tend to focus on English-dominant contexts and formal settings such as academic and conference presentations (e.g., Kim, 2006; Kunioshi, Noguchi, Hayashi, & Tojo, 2012; Morton, 2009; Rowley-Jolivet, 2002, 2004). Few studies examine oral presentations in other contexts (e.g., Brown & Adamson, 2014; Chou, 2011). The majority of available studies on academic presentations within EAP echo the general preference among genre studies to prioritize linguistic features without in-depth investigations of the social contexts in which genres are produced and used (e.g., Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008; Chang, 2012; Ferguson, 2001; Lin, 2015; O'Boyle, 2014; Webber, 2005). Because of that, many aspects remain under-researched, leading to fragmented understanding of how the use of academic presentations in disciplinary fields can inform EAP practice. For instance, Chou (2011) warns that “other features of oral performance, such as organization, exposition of professional knowledge, fluency of phonetic and phonological appropriacy” are overlooked (p. 274). In addition, further investigations are needed, not only to examine issues such as how presenters organize their conference presentations, seminars or lectures, but also to explore the social practices surrounding participants’ engagement with these activities (Charles, 2013). These investigations are needed in all types of oral presentations, such as undergraduates’ oral presentations as in this thesis.

1.4 Motivation for the Study

Around nine years ago, one of my sisters who was studying at the College of Pharmacy asked for my help with an oral presentation she was preparing. Our discussion was not limited to my expertise as an English language teacher and we discussed different aspects that related to that presentation, such as organizing the information, preparing the talk, choosing the visuals and writing the references.
Although I was intrigued by that experience, I did not connect it to possible topics for a PhD thesis. My proposal for my PhD studies was for a quantitative study using corpus tools to address writing errors among English language learners in academic settings. The proposal echoed common trends in research in Saudi educational settings on language teaching and learning. This proposal was, however, rewritten after I enrolled in a course on digital literacies in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at Lancaster University in which I was introduced to social accounts of literacy. This course offered me a new perspective for examining how people use language while engaging with reading and writing and reminded me of my experience with my sister. As a result, I decided to adopt a social account of literacy and rely on qualitative research methodology to examine how female undergraduates in pharmacy engage with oral presentations.

1.5 Research Questions

Responding to the dearth of available research on oral presentations, this thesis employs an ethnographically-oriented qualitative case study to explore how a group of year-five multilingual, female undergraduates engage with English-mediated oral presentations in pharmacy in a Saudi Arabian university. These learners are described as multilingual because they rely on different linguistic identities to engage in this literacy event (Pahl and Rowsell, 2006b). Within this thesis, these identities are not, however, approached as being confined to participants’ use of English and Arabic as meaning-making systems, but extend to include a range of available semiotic resources that learners draw on to represent and communicate knowledge, establish themselves as active members in their community and embrace their developing professional identities.

The study seeks to address the following research questions:

1. Which literacy practices do multilingual learners draw on while engaging with oral presentations in pharmacy?
2. What available representational and communicational resources do these undergraduates employ to make meaning while engaging in these presentations and how?

To address these questions, the study employs a case study methodology with data collection techniques that provide an ethnographic dimension to examination of learners’ literacy practices and meaning making. These include observation, semi-structured interviews, informal conversations, research journal and artefact collection. This type of methodology aims to utilize available data to examine how learners engage
with their seminar presentations. Rather than continuing the current trends of looking at the linguistic and discoursal features of oral presentations, examination of undergraduates’ engagement in this genre as a social practice offers a more in-depth understanding of what it means to learners to make presentations within this specific context. Furthermore, attention to these resources “allows a move away from imagining languages as clear cut identities” (Busch, 2012, p. 507) to examine language as one of the resources that make up the semiotic repertoires which learners rely on to make meaning.

1.6 Research Design

Two interrelated, theoretical angles are employed to address these questions: New Literacy Studies and Social Semiotic Multimodality.

1.6.1 New literacy studies

I look at the social practices that underlie learners’ engagement with this genre by relying on the New Literacy Studies (NLS) to examine how learners engage with literacy, i.e. reading and writing, as a social, contextualized practice (Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Pahl & Rowsell, 2006b; Street, 1984). Contexts shape the meaning of literacy for people as they use and integrate it in their lives to achieve their goals. Considering that people “read and write specific sorts of “texts” in specific ways” which are “determined by the values and practices of different social and cultural groups” (Gee, 2010, p. 11), NLS represents a shift from the long-held educational approach underlying examination of learning as a cognitive process in individual minds towards examination of the social interactions that shape and are shaped by peoples’ engagement with reading and writing.

This view of literacy is relevant for this investigation considering the prevailing research trends within EAP studies which prioritize examination of decontextualized linguistic features of texts. Despite the importance attached within EAP to identifying these features and introducing them to learners, calls have emerged around the world to reconsider the extent to which the use of English in universities goes beyond mastering the code or structure of the language to include the complexity of academic practices and skills that learners are expected to engage with in their fields. In contrast to the current, prevailing investigations of oral presentations, drawing on a social account of literacy allows me to examine the social practices which the participants in this study draw on to engage with their presentations in pharmacy. As a study informed by available research on needs analysis and genre studies, paying attention to social
practices surrounding the use and production of oral presentations represents an integral aspect of understanding how English is used in this context.

1.6.2 Social semiotic multimodality

Although social accounts of literacy are usually concerned with examining people’s engagement with written texts, many texts are shaped by the incorporation of various modes to represent and communicate meaning (Pahl & Rowsell, 2012). In this case study, an essential aspect of examining the social practices underpinning undergraduates’ engagement with oral presentations lies in exploring the ways through which meaning is made. While EAP is understandably associated with linguistic instruction, the need to examine how language learners represent and communicate knowledge beyond language in academic contexts is increasingly brought to light. A growing number of studies examines the dynamics of meaning making, especially those related to science and technology (e.g., Jaipal, 2010; Kress et al, 2001; Matusiak, 2013). In the same way that examination of linguistic features is highlighted as a significant aspect of understanding genres within EAP, investigation of the various semiotic choices that learners incorporate and foreground within their texts is equally significant because it paves the way for in-depth understanding how knowledge is represented and communicated in diverse genres.

As “[g]ood control of genre involves an understanding of how different modes – visual, written and oral- interact” (Parkinson, 2013, p. 167), it is only reasonable to say that exploring how learners engage with any genre entails the need to examine how such interaction takes place. This is particularly relevant for a social understanding of literacy as in this study because meaning involves social and subjective designs that appear in the various semiotic choices people embrace for their communicative purposes (Kress, 2010). To examine how learners make meaning in their presentations, I draw on the interdisciplinary approach of multimodality which refers to “the coexistence of more than one semiotic mode within a given context” (Gibbons, 2012, p. 8). The study of multimodality involves investigation of modes or semiotic means that people rely on to communicate with each other (Jewitt, 2009b). Within an English-mediated setting, looking at meaning making beyond language helps to broaden research agenda within EAP practice beyond the prevailing dominance of textually-based analysis of genres. In terms of analysis, current research on multimodal meaning making tends to echo textually-based genre studies through demonstrating preference for examining
multimodal texts as stand-alone products while overlooking the social contexts surrounding production or meaning makers’ views and experiences.

1.7 Significance of the Study

I consider my study significant within the field of language learning because of the gap in the literature that it attempts to address. The study focuses on English-mediated oral presentations as an independent genre which, despite its increasing use and established significance in academic settings, has not received adequate attention in EAP research. The qualitative methodology and theoretical framework adopted in this study promises in-depth examination of the literacy practices that shape learners’ engagement in this genre. They also bring to light the complexity of meaning making surrounding learners’ engagement with this genre in which language functions as one of the semiotic modes available to learners. These aspects provide valuable insights on the complexity associated with using English as the main medium of instruction in similar settings in which engagement with English goes beyond knowledge of grammatical structures and specialized vocabulary to include an ability to incorporate it with other semiotic resources according to learners’ disciplinary demands, contextual constraints and personal interests. Investigating this engagement paves the way to explore significant issues in this account of literacy, including how learners develop membership within their community and establish relevant identities. The methodology adopted for this thesis allows learners’ voices to be heard to shed light on issues that could have been challenging to explore otherwise. These include learners’ social practices that surround production and use of oral presentations in this community and the wide range of motivated semiotic choices they resort to use to make meaning in their presentations.

The study also draws attention to the need to broaden research tools used in EAP research in this context. In contrast to the commonly-adopted quantitative methods used to examine language teaching and learning in Saudi educational settings, this study employs qualitative data-collection techniques to develop the in-depth investigation of social practices needed to address the research questions. Use of qualitative methods facilitates the study’s attempt to move beyond the prevalence of decontextualized textual analyses and ground language pedagogy in deep investigations of specific literacy events. Through these methods, the study questions long-held assumptions in relation to issues such as professional practice, identity construction and language proficiency which impact how issues of language teaching and learning are approached.
At the same time, the study contributes to EAP studies through the way it addresses methodological challenges associated with using qualitative methods, such as photographs and videos in this all-female context. Although these methods represent common choices in research investigating literacy and multimodal meaning making, the study works to address the specific cultural sensitivities that shape their use in this community and resorts to use other methods that are considered to be contextually more appropriate.

1.8 Outline of the Thesis

Chapter 2 describes in detail the theoretical framework employed in this thesis. It is divided into four sections: EAP and social practices, meaning making, developing a professional identity and oral academic presentations in EAP. I start this chapter with providing an overview of EAP research on needs analysis and genre analysis because they inform this study. I also look briefly at the challenges associated with traditional approaches to literacy and the significance of adopting a social account of literacy and what it can offer to address the research questions in this thesis. I, then, move to discuss the study of meaning making within EAP and the need to move from a linguistic-based understanding to adopt a multimodal approach that pays attention to meaning makers’ choices of semiotic resources. Discussion will focus on social semiotic multimodality to highlight the specific concepts governing this approach, the relation between investigations of multimodality and literacy and the status of multimodality within EAP research. Then, I consider closely available research on identity construction where I explore two interrelated theoretical angles: community of practice and issues of identity and investment. These angles are explored because of the insight they provide on examination of participants’ engagement in oral presentations and their meaning making. The chapter is concluded by considering available research on oral presentations in academic settings as an independent genre. Discussion will highlight how this case study relates to available research and what it can offer to EAP practice.

Chapter three discusses the research methodology adopted in this study; case study. It also looks at the setting of this investigation, how access has been obtained and an overview of participants. The chapter also discusses the data collection techniques used and highlights some of the challenges that I faced while collecting the needed data. I also briefly discuss how data analysis has been approached. The chapter is finally concluded by discussing issues of trustworthiness and rigour.
Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 present the analysis. Chapter 4 examines the context in which this investigation is situated through describing the College, the classroom and the course. Particular attention is given to relationships among members of this community and the significance they attach to participation in this event. Chapter 5 examines closely four major themes underpinning learners’ engagement in oral presentations. These include undergraduates’ efforts to stand out among their colleagues, the resources used to make oral presentations, the effect of prior experiences and the role played by rehearsal and practice. Chapter 6 looks at the semiotic choices surrounding slideshow design and speech which were highlighted by participants. Chapter 7 examines the textual choices shaping two of the slideshows displayed within the observed presentations. These choices are considered through social semiotic multimodal analysis which highlights the meaning makers and their textual productions as motivated signs. Chapter 8 concludes the thesis by summarizing the major findings discussed earlier. It also discusses methodological and pedagogical implications of this investigation. The chapter concludes by discussing limitations to this study and suggestions for further research.
Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will review the literature that informed this study in relation to my research questions. Although this investigation is not carried within an English-language classroom, it is relevant to EAP because it examines how year-five students engage with English-mediated presentations in this academic setting. The chapter is divided into four sections. Because of the common use of quantitative studies to examine issues around language learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia, I start my discussion by surveying available literature on needs analysis and genre studies to set the grounds for how this study contributes to pedagogical research in this context through qualitative studies that seek to offer in-depth examination of learners’ engagement with literacy and meaning making. I use this discussion to highlight the gaps that this study seeks to address and pave the way for my discussion of the theoretical framework upon which this study is built. I focus on the New Literacy Studies as the angle through which social practices surrounding learners’ engagement with reading and writing are approached. Then, I move to consider how meaning making has been examined within EAP which has been traditionally considered as a linguistic-based practice. Then, I examine two interrelated theoretical aspects which inform the investigation in this study. These include membership in a community of practice and identity construction. These aspects are closely related to examination of learners’ literacy practices and their meaning-making decisions. The chapter is finally concluded by looking at the status of oral presentations as an independent genre within EAP.

2.2 EAP and Social Practices

EAP is concerned with providing learners with access to recognize and embrace the communicative skills and competences they need to function effectively in relation to disciplinary knowledge and practices (de Chazal, 2014). Interests in these skills and competences, however, tend to be translated into concerns with textual production in terms of the linguistic and discoursal features of which texts consist without much attention to social practices that surround their production. Motivated by beliefs that EAP’s mission lies in identifying and addressing learners’ needs through introducing them to thorough linguistic analyses of academically-valued texts in their disciplines, two major areas of investigation within EAP inform this thesis: needs analysis and genre studies. I start this section by offering a brief view of research within these areas.
After that, I look at NLS as the theoretical angle adopted to examine the social practices that surround learners’ engagement with oral presentations. I will briefly consider traditional approaches to literacy to introduce NLS and discuss its contribution to educational research in EAP.

2.2.1 Needs analysis

EAP has been described as a needs-driven practice since its early beginnings in 1980s (e.g., Charles, 2013; Charles & Pecorari, 2016; Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2006). As a regular and ongoing component within language teaching and learning programmes (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Hyland, 2009; Munby, 1978), needs analysis is conducted to gather essential information needed to inform pedagogical materials in language classrooms (Brown, 2016). A key feature in many of the available definitions of needs analyses in the literature is the importance of offering clear, systematic and theoretically grounded criteria for collecting the needed information to build trustworthy understanding of learners’ needs. This understanding is used to tailor the objectives and content of language courses according to the specific linguistic and disciplinary conventions that learners are required to identify and use (Mansur & Shrestha, 2015).

Different approaches have surfaced over the years to understanding what learners’ needs are and how they should be collected and analysed. Early analyses were concerned with target situation analysis (TSA) in which learners’ needs were identified in relation to the target situation that learners were expected to encounter (Chambers, 1980; West, 1994). TSA worked to identify the lexical and syntactic features of the language that need to be highlighted for course design (Cowling, 2007). Studies adopting a TSA approach drew on a variety of resources to understand these features that shape the target situation, including register studies to identify lexical and syntactic features of written texts (e.g., Barber, 1985; Halliday, MacIntosh, & Strevens, 1964; Herbert, 1965), rhetorical studies which investigate the relation between grammatical features and the rhetorical purposes shaping texts (e.g., Berman, 1975; Lackstrom, Selinker, & Trimble, 1973; Malcolm, 1987; Selinker, Trimble, & Trimble, 1976; D. A. Smith, 1984), and genre studies (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990).

Another approach appears in present-situation analysis (PSA) which examines learners’ needs through exploring the gap between what learners know and what they should know by the end of their language courses (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980). Needs in this approach were often combined with terms such as lacks and wants. Rather
than focusing on listing linguistic items, PSA aimed to identify what learners have to do to acquire the language in their contexts (Widdowson, 1981). Task-based analysis presents a more relatively recent approach to needs analysis which describes the target tasks needed by specific groups of learners through investigating the specific activities that students are likely to encounter in their education and employment (Long, 2005b). By drawing upon domain experts’ input rather than intuitive views of linguists and teachers as in previous approaches to needs analysis, this type of analysis represents a step forward to explore the dynamic qualities of target discourse and provide contextualized data on target tasks (Long, 2005a).

Analyses within these approaches tend to be shaped by a skill-based view of needs at the macro level, highlighting linguistic features in relation to writing mostly (e.g., Jones, 1991; Paltridge, 2002; Ramani, Chacko, Singh, & Glendinning, 1988; Starfield, 2004; Swales & Feak, 1994; Tang, 2012). Examination of learners’ needs in relation to other skills tend to be under-researched, such as reading (Holme & Chalauiisaeng, 2006), listening (e.g., Ferris & Tagg, 1996; Flowerdew & Miller, 1997; Stoller, 2001) and speaking (e.g., Hoekje, 2007; Wozniak, 2010). Despite the vital contribution of these approaches, their focus on associating learners’ needs with provision of objective and translatable lists of linguistic features has been questioned in response to calls for grounding learners’ needs in a deeper understanding of the social and discursive practices that surround their use of language (Starfield, 2010).

Although linguistic features form an integral part of academic discourse which learners need to recognize and grasp, these calls point out that linguistic features should not be highlighted at the expense of other equally significant aspects of learners’ experiences in academic contexts. These aspects form an integral part of understanding the competences and skills expected from learners in academic settings and offer, therefore, an invaluable insight on understanding their needs. Available needs analyses rely on various sources and methods to gather subjective and objective information (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Quantitative and qualitative methodologies are increasingly adopted to support a broadening understanding of needs, such as interviews, observations, case studies, language tests, learner diaries and questionnaires (e.g., Belcher & Lukkarila, 2011; Brown, 2009; Evans, 2010; Flowerdew, 2013; Ho, 2014; Kassim & Ali, 2010; Long, 2005a; Robinson, 1991; Swales & Feak, 1994).

Rather than carrying on with the common association between learners’ needs and linguistic features, this thesis adopts a broader understanding of needs in English-
mediated activities that takes into account the social practices surrounding how learners engage with oral presentations. These practices shape and are shaped by learners’ experiences in their discipline and as such, recognizing and analysing these experiences facilitate our understanding of language in use and can inform and support language pedagogy with situated understanding of what learners need to recognize and adopt in this context.

2.2.2 Genre analysis

One way to address learners’ needs lies in supporting EAP instruction with “detailed analyses of the types of academic texts that students produce in diverse disciplines” (Molle & Prior, 2008, p. 542). Examination of academically-valued texts reflect scholarly work in genre analysis which represents one of the primary lenses through which texts have been examined and taught within EAP. Because genres are formed to fulfil specific, situated purposes (Tardy & Swales, 2014), they function as “community resources which allow users to create and read texts with some assurance that they know what they are dealing with” (Hyland, 2015, p. 33). In addition to using these genres to understand the communicative events in which they are used (Swales, 1990), genre analysis is believed to assist in improving learners’ writing and speaking skills (Kostova & Shamonina, 2014).

Three major approaches shape the study of genres in EAP. The first approach is associated with the North American Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) which understands genres as dynamic and changing social actions (Miller, 1984). Examination of these actions facilitates our understanding of textual productions and the cultures in which genres are produced and used (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). The second approach perceives genres as “a staged, goal-oriented social process” (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 7) and springs from the Australian work employing systemic functional linguistics (SFL). These genre studies, often referred to as the Sydney School, provide detailed descriptions of the linguistic and discoursal features of texts to facilitate explicit teaching of their construction. The third approach is associated with ESP work on move analysis (e.g., Bhatia, 1993, 2004; Swales, 1990; Swales & Lindemann, 2002). Move analysis perceives genres as communicative events “characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by the members of a professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs” (Bhatia, 1993, p. 13). While deciding the what, why and how associated with organization of discourse forms,
these purposes are achieved through rhetorical moves which represent prototypical organizational structures specific to their social context.

Genre studies within EAP are typically concerned with written discourse mainly because of the importance that is attached to writing in academic practice in relation to knowledge dissemination and assessment. In higher education, these studies have examined various topics such as medical journal editorials (Giannoni, 2008), attitudes among multilingual scholars of medicine towards writing research articles (Martín, Rey-Rocha, Burgess, & Moreno, 2014), publication practices of academics (McGrath, 2014), introductions in master’s theses (Samraj, 2008), academic genres in university classrooms (Molle & Prior, 2008), corpus-based research into student writings in higher education (Nesi & Gardner, 2011), stance-neutral formulations in introductory chapters in PhD theses (Sawaki, 2014), expression of stance in undergraduate students’ coursework writing (Lancaster, 2016) and presentations of claims in published academics and students’ master theses (Basturkmen, 2009).

In contrast, fewer studies have addressed spoken genres such as seminars, lectures and presentations in university. Available studies on these genres discuss issues, such as, examining if-conditionals in conference presentations, research articles and editorials (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2008), the use of questions in academic lectures (Chang, 2012), investigation of conditionals in spoken medical discourse (Ferguson, 2001), the effect of different discourse communities on spoken genre in an architecture degree (Morton, 2016), the use of modifiers in seminars and interactive lectures (Lin, 2015), personal pronouns in spoken academic learner discourse (O’Boyle, 2014), the use of computer-mediated practice to improve learners’ speaking proficiency and its effect on learners’ willingness to engage in communication effectively (Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017) and interactive features in scientific conference talks (Webber, 2005).

Genre studies tend to prioritize identification and examination of linguistic and discoursal features of genres as stand-alone products without considering the social contexts in which these products emerged. Although approaches to genre analysis within EAP share a general recognition of the significance of social context in the creation of texts (Charles, 2013), this recognition has not always resulted in thorough investigations of the contexts or social practices surrounding genres in specific literacy events within educational settings. Swales (1990), for instance, warned against superficial approaches to genres that limit analysis to examination of grammatical and
lexical features of texts and ignore the contexts in which they are created and used as communicative tools in specific discourse communities. Increasing interests within EAP continue to emerge calling for the need to examine the social contexts surrounding genres’ production and use to understand how they are organized and what it means for learners to engage effectively with any genre (Morton, 2016).

Examination of the social context and practices that underpin genre production and use can be used to raise learners’ awareness of disciplinary and genre practices beyond the boundaries of language classrooms (Hardy & Friginal, 2016). It is usually carried out through combining different approaches and methodologies. For example, Molle & Prior (2008) draw on RGS and ethnographic methods to examine academic genres in different disciplines and shed light on the variety, hybridity and multimodal nature of academic genres. They specifically call for adopting a genre-based needs analysis to take account of the specificity of genres produced by students. Working within an SFL-informed socio-semiotic approach, Martin and Rose (2008) examine the complex relations between visuals and texts in science to highlight the need to consider all the modalities within any instance of communication. Nesi and Gardner (2011) rely on SFL and ethnographic methods to examine the writing tasks that students encounter in tertiary education in order to highlight the importance of noting the variation in response among students’ writings in relation to the disciplinary requirements they face. Bhatia (2004) employs ethnographic methods to understand the tension existing between written discourse in the real world and discourse associated with educational texts. Lee (2009) also investigates the effect that the size of audience has over academic lecture introductions in relation to the rhetorical and linguistic features they employ.

To accommodate this increasing attention to the social contexts within which genres are produced, calls have risen within research on language teaching and learning to conduct more ethnographically-oriented studies that seek to provide in-depth contextualized understanding of diverse settings in specialized language research, such as ESP and EAP. According to Dressen-Hammouda (2013, p. 509), more studies are needed to examine how “non-native speakers of English learn to navigate and manage the communicative imperatives of interacting in situated settings”. While this would help to investigate what students do with reading and writing, it would also pave the way to develop better teaching materials in language classes. By highlighting the disciplinary demands associated with literacy and the increasingly varied genres in the
academy nowadays, these investigations can be used to examine significant aspects of learners’ needs (Hyland, 2009).

This thesis does not aim to offer a linguistic analysis of oral presentations as an independent genre, but it is informed by the growing calls within genre studies to move “from looking at language use, in general, to the use of language in specific settings and in specific genres” (Paltridge, 2013, p. 347). It examines learners’ engagement with English-mediated presentations in a specific literacy event. Rather than focusing on the rhetorical and linguistic features of this genre, analysis in this case study explores the social practices that underpin learners’ engagement in pharmaceutical presentations. In the next section, I discuss NLS as the theoretical angle employed in this thesis to examine these practices. I look first at how literacy had been traditionally examined in educational research and what a social account of literacy offers to examine how people engage with reading and writing.

2.2.3 Traditional approaches to literacy

Traditional views in literacy research have associated literacy with the technical skills of reading and writing (Graff, 1995), placing it within “a cognitive psychological approach in which attention is paid to individual development along a carefully traced trajectory” (Marsh & Larson, 2005, p. 4). This view has a long history within the field of education and is still dominant in many contexts, including the Saudi educational context. Street (1984) describes this approach as the autonomous model of literacy in which identifying specific code systems is associated with characterization of literacy as a measurable and transferrable activity. The ability to use these systems according to pre-defined rules determines whether a person is considered literate or not. In educational settings, those who fail to adhere to the required and valued skills will be considered underachieving and in need of remedial solutions to fix their problems.

Because attention within this understanding of literacy is usually preserved to people’s engagement with specific, highly-valued types of reading and writing, many everyday activities which involve reading and writing are ignored (Papen, 2005). While this understanding is important in terms of facilitating how acquisition of basic skills is assessed, it ignores the impact that engaging with reading and writing has on learners; not only in terms of access to the functional and technical skills of reading and writing, but also in terms of the social practices that surround its use among people (Street, 1995). Such understanding fails to take note of the various ways through which learners
engage with reading and writing that extend beyond language and written texts in formal settings.

Approaches to language education within specialized language teaching in general and EAP in particular tend to align with the autonomous model of literacy. According to Paltridge and Starfield (2013), pedagogies within ESP have been geared towards identification of commonly-employed literacy skills and linguistic features within educational and professional contexts. This tendency, which is associated with common approaches in genre and needs analysis discussed earlier (See 2.2.1 and 2.2.2), is based on the assumption that identifying lists of skills or linguistic items and training students to master these lists will lead to higher level of literacy and linguistic competence among language learners. Reading, speaking, listening and writing are treated as discrete skills that are often taught separately and are usually considered through decontextualized examination of learners’ command of linguistic features in these skills.

Considerable challenges surround an exclusively skill-based understanding of literacy. A psychological model of literacy, for example, fails to pay attention to the considerable variety of activities in which people engage while reading and writing beyond formal schooling. These include everyday situations in which people use literacy not only in different ways but also for different purposes (Papen, 2005). In addition, as people continuously face new situations and unfamiliar codes and expectations, they use reading and writing to respond to these situations in different and innovative ways (Barton & Tusting, 2005). Similarly, students’ participation in academic activities in higher-education institutions is shaped by new types of information, emergent genres and situated, disciplinary norms and expectations. Although it is unlikely that students in higher education have considerable problems with the coding and decoding skills of reading and writing, their involvement in reading and writing within academic activities is mediated by other situated factors that are not always foregrounded in academic research.

### 2.2.4 Examining literacy as a social practice

In contrast to traditional approaches to literacy, social accounts of literacy view literacy as “an activity, located in the space between thought and text” (Barton & Hamilton, 1998, p. 3). Rather than dismissing traditional views that consider literacy as a psychological and cognitive ability, social views of literacy have come to appreciate the relation between cognitive understanding and sociocultural perspectives in
understanding human behaviour and capabilities. This understanding of literacy began in the 1980s and is generally associated with the New Literacy Studies as one of the most influential approaches which views literacy as a social practice that can only be understood in relation to specific social and cultural contexts (Barton, 1994; Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Gee, Hull, & Lankshear, 1996; Pahl & Rowsell, 2006b; Street, 1993). These studies highlight the need to go beyond the functional values of reading and writing in order to understand what literacy means for people and how it is used.

Encouraged by the continuously growing discussion of the low literacy levels which dominate public discourses (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003), researchers draw on a variety of disciplines, such as social anthropology, psychology and language studies to examine how people of different ages and cultural backgrounds engage with literacy.

Scribner and Cole (1981) for instance, have investigated the uses of literacy among the Vai people in Liberia who use three scripts to engage with literacy: English in formal schooling, Arabic for learning the Koran and an indigenous Vai script used for personal purposes and financial transactions. Each of these scripts is associated with a specific context that has its own expectations, norms and requirements. Through describing their participants’ engagement in literacy, Scribner and Cole point out how literacy functions as a communicative tool that people use to accomplish specific goals in their cultural and social everyday lives without being directly related to cognitive ability that divides people according to what they can or cannot achieve. Arguing against the overemphasis that exists in long-standing and more conventional views in which literacy is seen as a cognitive ability, the authors describe literacy “as a set of socially organized practices which make use of a symbol system and a technology for producing and disseminating it” (p. 236). They also note that formal education does not necessarily dictate how people engage with their everyday activities as, according to their observations, people often make use of higher cognitive skills, such as abstraction, memory and communication beyond formal schooling. For example, they point out that while schooling may improve learners’ ability to verbally express themselves, it does not necessarily impact their ability to carry out specific tasks in better ways compared to learners who do not have access to formal schooling.

Examination of the various purposes for which people use literacy represents a major area of investigation among social accounts of literacy. In his ethnographic study of literacy in a village in the northern part of Iran, Street (1984) examines the role literacy plays in villagers’ engagement in commercial transactions. These villagers draw
upon practices they have been exposed to in their education within the traditional Maktab schools which introduce learners to phonemic codes of religious scripts written in Arabic. The villagers build on their school-based knowledge and skills to develop new practices that serve their goals, including writing bills, keeping record books and skimming to retrieve needed information. Two models of literacy are described in Street’s study: autonomous and ideological. The autonomous model views literacy as a neutral technology, independent of the context in which it exists. Literacy is, thus, seen as a transferrable set of value-free skills that people either have or lack. The ideological view, on the other hand, questions this skill-based understanding of literacy and stresses the importance of seeing literacy in terms of the uses and values that people attach to it in different contexts. These, according to Street (1984, p. 180), represent “part of a complex ideology, a set of specific practices constructed within a specific infrastructure and able to be learned and assimilated only in relation to that ideology and infrastructure”. It is important to note, however, that Street’s classification of these models is not meant to draw clearly-cut lines between the conceptual grounds behind each model. While the basic, technical skills form the essence of schooled understanding of literacy, Street’s fieldwork highlights the situated uses of literacy and examines their effects on people’s lives.

These situated uses of literacy affect how people engage with formal schooling. This has been highlighted by Heath (1983) in her prolonged ethnographic study in which she compares the literacy and language practices of three different communities in the Piedmont Carolinas in the United States: Roadville (a small white working class community), Trackton (a small black working class community) and Townspeople (black and white mainstream middle class). She examines how language use at home and school by members of these communities in different ways and the effect that these ways have on how young children are initiated to literacy in their communities and schools. She points out, for example, how the shared set of cultural values and linguistic practices among Townspeople, such as engaging in bedtime stories and elaborate description and discussion of events, have successfully prepared their children to participate in accepted practices in schools. At the same time, Heath notes that the same success was not observed among the other groups because of the distance that exists between home-based practices and school-promoted values of Roadville and Trackton children which impact children’s schooled-experiences with learning language and literacy.
One of the significant issues in Heath’s investigation appears in her views on the potential benefit that improving practitioners’ knowledge and understanding of children’s involvement with language and literacy in their homes can have on educational practices. Her discussion of “how teachers’ knowledge of children’s ways with words enabled them to bring these ways into their classrooms” (p. 343) has been highlighted through exploring teachers’ willingness to build on knowledge of children’s literacy background in order “to build a two-way channel between communities and their classrooms” (p. 354). Although Heath’s discussion was directed towards young children’s literacy and language practices, her suggestions are relevant to learners of all ages and all backgrounds, including those working within higher-education institutions. These suggestions, for example, echo the assumptions upon which needs analyses are built in which pedagogical materials are supported by identifying what learners need to know to participate successfully in language classrooms.

In addition to examining the common uses of literacy and their relation to formal schooling, social accounts of literacy seek to explore the different meanings and levels of significance that people attach to reading and writing in their everyday lives. Barton and Hamilton (1998) examine the everyday literacy practices of a local community in the northwest of England, tracing how individuals use literacy in their everyday lives according to their ‘ruling passions’ which dictate the importance of literacy in these contexts. The concept of ‘ruling passions’ helps to explain how people’s interests in reading and writing differ from one another and these interests shape and mediate their literacy practices. Despite the role that these personalized interests play in dictating how people engage with reading and writing in their lives, Barton and Hamilton note that these interests are often overlooked in formal education practices in which attention is directed towards measurable skills rather than situated uses of literacy.

These key studies among others have marked the emergence of what has been considered at their time to be a new approach to the study of language and literacy. This is not only in terms of exploring the social practices that surround people’s engagement in literacy, but also in the methods adopted to carry out these investigations. All of these studies were carried out through ethnographic investigations which entail prolonged engagement in research sites (Street & Leung, 2010). These investigations employed qualitative tools such as interviews, observations, photography and document collection to provide a deeper understanding of how people use literacy and what it means to them in specific contexts.
2.2.4.1 **Literacy events and literacy practices**

Two analytic concepts are frequently identified within NLS: literacy events and literacy practices. Literacy events refer to “any occasion in which a piece of writing is integral to the nature of the participants’ interactions and their interpretative processes” (Heath, 1983, p. 50). The term itself is seen as a descriptive one to refer to what can be seen, observed, documented and recorded while observing how people engage with literacy (Papen, 2005). It facilitates researchers’ ability to describe how people use reading and writing for specific purposes that differ from one context to another. Examining literacy events sheds light on the cultural patterns and social practices that shape and are shaped by people’s engagement in these events (Street & Lefstein, 2007). While literacy events are observed within particular situations as empirical units of analysis, literacy practices are inferred from the way people engage with these events as they “are shaped by social institutions and power structures, and influenced by nonvisible elements, including social relationships, values, ways of thinking, skills, and structured routines and pathways” (Matusiak, 2013, p. 1579).

Literacy practices refer to “the general cultural ways of utilising written language which people draw upon in their lives” (Barton & Hamilton, 2005, p. 7). They include the social conceptions of literacy that participants hold and draw upon to engage meaningfully in any literacy event (Street, 1995). Understanding of literacy practices in any social context involves exploration of regular activities, habits, aspirations, identities, expectations, demands, challenges, values, concerns, regulations and relationships. This requires researchers to bring to light people’s views and accounts of their engagement in any literacy event to explore the underlying social practices that shape the specific meanings of literacy. Events and practices exist in an interrelated, complex relationship with texts. This relationship needs to be examined as a whole to explore what literacy means in any context. According to Barton and Hamilton (2005, p. 9), literacy “is best understood as a set of social practices; these are observable in events which are mediated by written texts”.

2.2.4.2 **Investigating literacy in academic settings**

As new disciplinary fields and technological advances continue to emerge while increasing numbers of students from different backgrounds join universities and engage with evolving and challenging academic norms and practices (Hyland, 2006), increasing number of scholarly research within EAP attempts to investigate this complexity to broaden the support offered to language learners in tertiary education. Within academic
contexts, social accounts of literacy are mostly associated with the ‘academic literacies’ approach which builds on the principles of NLS and embraces calls within EAP to move beyond its traditionally-devoted attention to decontextualized analysis of texts. It represents a move forward from the ‘study skills’ and ‘disciplinary socialization’ approaches which generally work within a technical understanding of literacy and knowledge in academic education (Lea & Street, 1998). In contrast to these approaches, the ‘academic literacies’ approach calls for the need to highlight the social practices that student writers who come from diverse backgrounds draw upon to participate in different disciplinary fields with the aim of identifying the conventions, norms and expectations that underlie academic practice. A common understanding of literacy in higher-educational policies is usually associated with students’ “ability to read and write the various texts” in university (Spack, 1997, p. 3). In contrast, the ‘academic literacies’ approach questions such understanding because it challenges “assumptions of student deficit” while calling for academic institutions “to be made more accessible to a diverse student body” (Paxton & Frith, 2014, p. 172).

Reflecting the common perception that literacy within higher education involves an extensive use of formal writing (Thesen, 2001), this approach focuses on the ways students engage with written assessed texts that mark them as members of their academic communities. Text production in this approach represents a complex process that cannot be understood through looking solely at texts without considering their makers and the contexts surrounding their production. In addition to exploring “how power and authority are experienced locally in relation to identity” (Curtis & Gillen, 2017, p. 3), textual practices are examined to highlight the richness of meaning-making in academia and the effect of the socio-political contexts in which students engage (Lea, 2004).

By focusing on issues, such as the construction of meaning in written texts and the nature of power relations between teachers and students, the ‘academic literacies’ approach claims to offer a transformative agenda to the study of students’ writings (Murray & Nallaya, 2014). This agenda contrasts with the common normative agenda of EAP studies in which language research is equated with identifying linguistic features in academic texts and training students to recognize and employ these features (Lillis & Scott, 2008). In addition, this agenda moves away from identifying problems and fixing them in students’ writings to providing in-depth understanding of learners’ experiences with text production and use. An integral part of this agenda lies in the
academic literacies work to “provide diverse students access to academic practices in ways that utilize and value their resources” (Huang & Archer, 2017, p. 63). While the majority of research adopting the academic literacies approach focus on assessed writing in academic settings, increasing studies extend their research interests to include topics, such as lecturers’ everyday writing (Lea & Stierer, 2009), multimodal composition (Huang and Archer, 2017), disciplinary teachers’ engagement with student writers (Tuck, 2012), digitally-mediated literacy practices (Coleman, 2012, 2016), examination of non-textual elements to provide holistic understanding of students experiences with text production (Richards & Pilcher, 2018), investigating research productivity among academics (Nygaard, 2017) and the benefit of examining disciplinary knowledge in relation to exploring academic literacy practices (Clarence & McKenna, 2017).

To address the research questions in this thesis, I adopt a social account of literacy to examine learners’ engagement with reading and writing in English-mediated pharmaceutical presentations within this academic setting. Without seeking to fit within the transformative agenda that shapes works within the ‘academic literacies’ approach, my analysis in this thesis focuses on exploring the literacy practices that surround learners’ engagement in this event. I also examine the social practices that shape and are shaped by learners’ meaning-making decisions.

2.3 EAP and Meaning Making

Social accounts of literacy look at texts as effective tools that mediate how people read and write (Barton and Hamilton, 1989). Although the original reference to texts within NLS has been associated with written genres, increasing attention is given to examine how people engage with other types of texts (Pahl & Rowsell, 2012). These texts rely on a variety of communicative systems that must be examined to explore the literacy practices that shape how people read and write. The principles of NLS acknowledge people’s use of various semiotic resources to represent and communicate knowledge while reading and writing. This incorporation is specifically valuable within educational contexts because of the benefit that recognizing the promoted literacy practices and meaning-making choices can offer to understand knowledge dissemination and communication (Bartlett, 2008).

Research on learning in educational settings has been traditionally approached as a generally linguistic process that perceives the use of language as the only or major way to represent and communicate knowledge (Kress et al., 2001). Despite the
traditionally-institutionalized significance of language in literacy policies and research, an unquestionable focus on language threatens to ignore other semiotic tools that learners engage with and employ to represent and communicate knowledge. Attention, thus, needs to be paid to how people utilize different semiotic resources for their purposes. In contrast to the dominance of studies investigating print-based shapes of literacy, a growing body of research highlights the need to examine how learners engage with literacy through multiple shapes of meaning making (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000). In this section, I will look at multimodality as the theoretical angle I adopt to examine meaning making in this thesis. I will discuss its definition, theoretical assumptions and approaches to meaning making. I will then discuss social semiotic multimodality as the approach adopted within this case study. The section will be concluded by considering research on multimodality in relation to EAP.

2.3.1 Multimodality

As an interdisciplinary approach, multimodality is concerned with “approaches that understand communication and representation to be more than about language, and which attend to the full range of communication forms people use - image, gesture, gaze, posture and so on - and the relationships between them” (Jewitt, 2009a, p. 14). Multimodality represents an inherent aspect of people’s communication with each other (Matthiessen, 2007). People of all ages regularly use different communicative forms for different purposes as they move from language to gesture to drawing to posture and other forms to communicate with others. This use, however, has not received adequate attention to examine the role that each form plays within the meaning-making process (Kress, 2010). Language has always been the focus of research investigating meaning making in general and literacy in particular for understandable reasons as learning is generally perceived as a process carried out through language. Yet, as people increasingly rely on a variety of communicative tools and as they continue to come into contact with new ways to communicate with each other, a focus on language alone becomes threatening to provision of deep understanding of meaning making. This is because communicative forms do not only affect the surface shape of meaning, but also impact the underlying meanings in any instance of communication. They represent specific choices which reflect social and subjective designs that come to life through the specific semiotic choices people embrace (Bezemer & Kress, 2008, 2015).

Four theoretical assumptions underlie investigations of multimodal meaning making as a general field. First, meaning making is too complex to be reduced to the
use of language alone without consideration of other modes that people rely on (Jewitt, 2009b). Because a material can only be considered as a mode when people use it to make meaning while interacting with each other, engaging in the processes of identifying, using and understanding modes requires consideration of the dynamic and contextualized practices surrounding meaning making in various settings and that includes recognizing the semiotic resources that people use in addition to language. Language is, thus, perceived as one of the modes that people rely on, in addition to others, for representation and communication “as part of complex sets of interconnecting forms of human semiosis” (Christie, 2005, p. 3).

The second assumption relates to how modes in any instance of representation and communication work together to make meaning. Since “no text can exist in a single mode” (Kress, 2000a, p. 187), modes are usually combined in specific arrangements described as ‘multimodal ensembles’ (Kress, 2010). Because each mode in these ensembles has a specific function and serves specific purposes, “the meanings in any mode are always interwoven with the meanings made with those of other modes co-operating in the communicative ensemble” (Jewitt, 2013, pp. 251-252). Any attempt to examine meaning making, thus, requires recognition of how meaning within multimodal ensembles is constructed and arranged using different modes (Jewitt, 2008). Examination of the complex interrelationships which exist between modes in multimodal ensembles is essential to highlight the communicative work assigned by meaning makers to each mode individually and in combination with other modes.

The third assumption is related to the status assigned to meaning makers in studies of multimodality. As people engage in the dynamic process of meaning making, their agency as active sign makers is highlighted. According to Jewitt (2009b), the role that people play in orchestrating meanings through the specific choices they take to make meaning is emphasized within multimodal approaches to meaning making. Sign makers are seen as designers whose design and orchestration of meaning making is mediated by factors, such as their interests, contextual constraints, modal affordances and aptness of resources (Bezemer & Kress, 2015).

These assumptions are relevant to the investigation in this case study. Considering the semiotic resources that presenters rely on to make their presentations is essential to support my examination of the literacy practices that underlie undergraduates’ engagement with English-mediated presentations in pharmacy. Despite the traditional status attached to language within EAP research as the most basic and
important means of communication, ignoring other semiotic resource which interact with language within multimodal ensembles that learners produce and engage with may lead to a fragmented understanding of meaning making in educational research. Research needs to open up to the full repertoire of communicational tools that learners rely on to make meaning in any instance of communication to understand the construction of meaning within multimodal ensembles and explore how language is used with other semiotic choices by meaning makers. Understanding these aspects paves the way for a deeper understanding of learners’ experiences with disciplinary demands in this context and can thus be used as an access point to improve our understanding of learners’ needs in this context.

2.3.2 Social semiotic multimodality

For this study, a social semiotic approach to multimodal meaning making is chosen to address the research questions in this thesis. The origin of this approach springs from Halliday’s (1978) theoretical view that language represents a semiotic system or “a conventionalized coding system, organized as sets of choices” in which choices are understood in relation to the other potentially possible choices which were not taken (Eggins, 2004, p. 3). Building on this theory, Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) extend the principles of SFL to explore how meaning is multimodally constructed. Their work, however, represents what Jewitt describes as “a looser reading of Halliday” that seeks to highlight “people’s situated choice of resources rather than emphasizing the system of available resources” to present detailed descriptions of meaning making (2009a, p. 29).

2.3.2.1 Basic concepts

Three basic concepts underlie how this approach understands meaning making: modes and resources, context and sign-makers.

2.3.2.1.1 Modes

Modes represent the materials through which meaning is conveyed. A mode is “a socially and culturally shaped resource for making meaning” (Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p. 171). However, Jewitt (2009a, p. 22) notes that “in order for something to “be a mode” there needs to be a shared cultural sense of a set of resources and how these can be organized to realize meaning”. Modes entail regular features and organized patterns of use which have come to existence through culturally regular uses in specific contexts.
(Kress, 2003). They are investigated because they serve as indications of the sign-makers’ selective choices and interests.

2.3.2.1.2 Semiotic resources

Within multimodal ensembles, meaning makers can choose to highlight certain resources over others depending on their needs, contextual demands and available affordances (Bezemer & Kress, 2008). According to van Leeuwen, semiotic resources represent

the actions, materials and artifacts we use for communicative purposes

………… together with the ways in which these resources can be
organized. Semiotic resources have a meaning potential, based on
their past uses, and a set of affordances based on their possible uses,
and these will be actualized in concrete social contexts where their use
is subject to some form of semiotic regime (2005, p. 285).

Semiotic resources, therefore, are never static or fixed (Kress, 2010). For example, writing as a mode is associated with resources, such as font, colour and size. Meaning makers can choose to foreground or background some or all of these resources to make meaning.

Because the process of sign making is always subject to the availability of semiotic resources and to the aptness of the resources to the meanings that the sign maker wishes to realize, semiotic resources are investigated to describe their potential for making meanings; how they have been used in the past, how they are used now and the possibilities they carry for future use (van Leeuwen, 2005). For instance, Bezemer and Kress (2008) investigate a corpus of learning resources in secondary school materials in science, maths and English from 1930s and 1980s, highlighting how the use of particular semiotic resources have changed within learning materials over time. Investigation of semiotic resources is pedagogically relevant because it can pave the way for “the articulation of principles applicable in the development of learning materials and environments” (p. 193). In addition to the valuable insight that examining changes among semiotic resources in educational materials can provide into our understanding of the situated nature of meaning making, the authors point out that it can also inform our understanding of “unused affordances of modes and media, which may not be apparent to sign makers” (p. 193). For this thesis, examination of the semiotic resources that learners choose to foreground or background provides invaluable insight on their experiences and literacy practices in this event. While learners work within
disciplinary demands and requirements, their chosen resources help to explore what they consider significant for their meaning making.

2.3.2.1.3 Context

Context represents a key concept within this approach because it helps to illuminate the particular choices that people take while representing and communicating meaning. According to van Leeuwen (2005, p. 4), a context “may either have rules or best practices that regulate how specific semiotic resources can be used, or leave the users relatively free in their use of the resource”. Attention to contexts in investigations of multimodal meaning-making highlights the subtle ways in which meaning makers relate to specific contextual norms, expectations and demands of representation and communication in terms of embracing, manipulating or resisting situated norms and practices of meaning making. The importance of context is already acknowledged in social accounts of literacy which understand people’s engagement with reading and writing as situated practices.

2.3.2.1.4 Meaning makers

Another significant aspect of this approach lies in acknowledging the agency of meaning makers. Bezemer and Kress describe meaning makers as an integral part of “the plethora of factors that make up the environment” and shape the process of meaning making (2015, p. 8). By noting that each mode in a multimodal ensemble “has been developed into articulated semiotic systems made up of networks of interlocking options or alternatives”, meaning makers are acknowledged as active agents in terms of the distinctive choices that they make in order to use “the most apt and plausible signifier for the expression of meaning in a given context” (Kress et al., 2001, p. 15). They engage in a complex and elaborate process of design or the “intentional deployment of resources in specific configurations” to serve their purposes and project their active role in shaping the materials needed to make meaning (Kress, 2000b, p. 340).

Looking at meaning makers as active agents is relevant to the social understanding of literacy adopted in this case study to examine participants’ engagement with oral presentations. Despite the general tendency within EAP research to consider genres as “dynamic, flexible, and open to change in response to community members’ needs and contextual changes”, there is a general recognition that genres are shaped by “differing degrees of choices and constraint” which learners need to recognize and address to participate successfully in their disciplinary communities (Lee,
In this way, investigating how learners make meaning requires attention to all their choices whether they comply with or violate the common norms and conventions they face. These choices shape and are shaped by their social practices while reading and writing and are therefore relevant to address the research questions in this thesis.

2.3.3 Multimodality and social practices in educational research

Although examination of multimodal meaning making within educational research tend to focus on younger learners, interests are growing in examining students’ semiotic choices within higher levels of education in which learners’ engagement in meaning making is mediated by their use of English as a second and foreign language (e.g., Nesi & Gardner, 2011; Roozen, 2009; Tardy, 2005). Studies, however, tend to examine learners’ semiotic choices by focusing on texts without much attention to their production practices through which they have come to represent and communicate knowledge. Weiss (2014), for instance, examines the health-promotion materials produced by medicine undergraduates through considering how they communicate their knowledge in multimodal forms. While her examination focuses on analysing the produced materials, the analysis excludes the text makers and draws exclusively on her personal expertise as a medical doctor, a health sciences teacher and a social scientist to examine the semiotic choices that text makers project in their brochures. Textually-based explorations which overlook meaning makers’ accounts of their semiotic practices and decisions threaten to offer fragmented understanding of the processes of meaning making among learners. Within genre studies, the negative impact of this fragmented understanding has been pointed out in relation to understanding how English is used for text-production (See 2.2.2). Exploring multimodal meaning making can enrich genre studies within EAP with a more in-depth understanding of how knowledge is represented and communicated in academic settings. Because genres are not always based on language alone, looking at semiotic choices in terms of textual structure and the practices of meaning making is invaluable to understand what genres are, how they are constructed and how they are produced and used.

Within multimodal ensembles, modes and semiotic resources serve different purposes and identifying them can enrich educational research. In science classrooms, for instance, learning has been described as “a multimodal process drawing on image, action, and linguistic resources each of which does far more than illustrate the meanings realised through speech or written language” (Jewitt, Kress, Ogborn, & Tsatsarelis,
2000, p. 328). In line with research which calls for the need to investigate learners’
needs to inform pedagogical plans and address these needs, recognizing learners’
semiotic choices can be used to draw attention to preferred specific modes or
combination of modes in different contexts. These can be used to help learners
“replicate production practices as they are lived, used and understood in the workplace,
in the home and on the street” (Pahl & Rowsell, 2012, p. 29). While writing is a
traditionally preferred form of communication and assessment in academic settings, it is
important to recognize that other semiotic forms are used in academic disciplines. Such
recognition is detrimental to learners’ progress because their achievement is not only
measured by being able to master linguistic codes needed to read and write, but also by
being able to engage effectively with available and valued forms of representation and
communication which differ from one genre to another. As norms and expectations
differ from one discipline to another, learners are required to expand their semiotic
repertoires of meaning making to establish themselves as active insiders in their
communities.

For this thesis, I look at seminar presentations as multimodal ensembles which I
examine through focusing on participants’ accounts of their experiences with using
language and slideshow design to represent and communicate their knowledge. These
are significant not only to understand the social practices that underpin their
engagement in this event, but also to highlight the meaning-making decisions that shape
these presentations. The two theoretical angles used in this thesis are closely connected
and, in fact, they complement each other. The use of a multimodal approach to meaning
making in this case study extends our understanding of literacy in educational settings
beyond learners’ mastery of technical skills associated with reading and writing to
include the examination of how learners engage with “a set of social practices related to
a set of signs which are inevitably plural and diverse” (Archer, 2006). This examination
is vital to address the research questions in two significant ways. First, a focus on
language alone will miss significant semiotic choices in multimodal texts which employ
different semiotic resources. Second, in the same way that decontextualized
linguistically-based textual analyses within needs analysis and genre studies have been
questioned, the social practices that surround multimodal text production should also be
examined and highlighted.
2.3.4 Multimodality in ESP/EAP

Attention to meaning making beyond language has been around for some time within ESP/EAP research. Examples include Dubois (1980) who examines how presenters design their slides in biomedical conference papers. As their slides contain different semiotic means to support meaning making, Dubois points out how some presenters rely on their slides for communicating their knowledge while others preferred to place the greater responsibility on their audience to understand combinations of language, visuals, photographs and other means. Shalom (1993) also examines presentations within an ecology conference to explore how writing, visuals and talk are used. Working within a language-socialization frame, Johns (1998) investigates how an undergraduate is apprenticed into the norms and conventions of an economics class in relation to the student’s independent visual note-taking and its effect on her learning and engagement with activities such as writing and taking exams. Rowley-Jolivet (2002) investigates the different types of visuals used within a conference and their functions. Molle and Prior (2008) conduct a genre-based needs analysis and highlight out how students in three different disciplines appropriate multimodal meaning making as an essential element in undergraduate genres. Dressen-Hammouda (2008) examines how a geology student’s textual practices have helped him to engage with complex semiotic frameworks while doing field work. Roozen (2009) examines a student’s engagement with fan art and fiction across different activities and the use of this type of art to prepare for a graduate examination in English.

These increasing interests in examining multimodal choices were hardly translated into dominant research focus or concrete decisions within EAP pedagogic practices. First, concerns with written genres continue to dominate EAP teaching and learning materials and practices, reflecting a language-focused agenda. Research questions, thus, continue to be framed within traditional language theories which tend to be geared to investigating written genres due to their importance in maintaining and extending academic growth. Moreover, these questions and interests show a biased preference towards analysis of texts as stand-alone products without seeking to understand the social practices behind their production or use (Belcher, 2006). In relation to ESP/EAP studies, examining multimodal meaning-making is consistent with the theoretical grounds in specialized areas of language teaching which originally developed as a reaction to the perceived inadequacy of general language teaching that did not seem to address learners’ interests or needs. As fields such as ESP and EAP...
developed to face “conceptualizations of a general English language competence”, their understanding of language teaching and learning continues to grow beyond a linguistic-based framework to include “a notion of language as more heterogeneous, dialogic, and situated, as a mosaic of registers and genres organized around specific domains of social practice-disciplines, professions, workplaces, recreation, home, and community/public life” (Prior, 2013, p. 519). Variation, thus, is seen to be an integral part of language use that needs to be addressed in language pedagogy.

This variation surfaces in the semiotic choices that language users engage with to make meaning which Prior (2009) describes as a “routine dimension of language in use” (p. 27). In other words, as scholarly research increasingly acknowledges the complexity and multiplicity of meaning making, language teachers and researchers face the responsibility to develop their understanding and treatment of multimodal meaning making in order to assist learners in developing their communicative competence which includes language, but is not restricted to it (Royce, 2002). This responsibility is even highlighted in academic settings in which understanding “the multimodal nature of meaning-making in academic apprenticeship and professional life” is essential in order to “better prepare our students for their current and future academic and professional life” (Guo, 2004, p. 215).

In relation to genre analysis within EAP, there is a tendency to restrict the definition of multimodal texts to digitally-mediated texts, such as blogs, web pages and emails (Nickerson & Planken, 2009). This tendency is even heightened by a focus on examining the structural design of these texts as decontextualized products. Although many of the emerging investigations of multimodality within ESP/EAP claim to seek a deep understanding of multimodal meaning making, “analyses have focused attention almost exclusively on texts, screens, and semiotic objects” while practices behind the production or use of these texts “are almost always inferred from, or imagined off, the pages, screens, and three-dimensional objects under analysis as opposed to being described through observational and ethnographic attention to the dynamics of situated semiotic activity” (Prior, 2013, p. 524). Texts continue to be approached as stand-alone products to examine their structures. While textually-oriented investigations are important to understand how texts are constructed and train the students consequently to produce them according to specific features and regulations, examining the practices surrounding multimodal text production is needed to explore “the scope, complexity, and pervasiveness of multimodal practice” (Shipka, 2013, p. 12).
2.4 Developing a Professional Identity

Engaging with oral presentations in this thesis requires undergraduates to develop their professional identity to participate successfully in this event. While they are still participating as students under formal assessment, their participation is shaped by their attempts to identify and align with the professional community they are studying to join after graduation. To explore issues of identity, I draw upon two interrelated concepts. First, I discuss the concept of ‘community of practice’ as a window through which participants’ membership in their community is examined. Then, I look at what the concepts of identity and investment offer to understand the construction of identity among participants in this study.

2.4.1.1 Community of practice

The concept of communities of practice is closely linked to investigations of social practices in learning because they associate learning with the social context in which it takes place. Communities of practice are defined as “the basic building blocks of a social learning system” (Wenger, 2000, p. 229). Looking at learning as a social process, a community of practice is characterized by three dimensions: mutual engagement, a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire.

1. Mutual Engagement: Members of a community of practice “sustain dense relations of mutual engagement organized around what they are there to do” (Wenger, 1998, p. 74). This engagement paves the way for similarities and differences among members of the community in a way that brings to light how each member contributes to their community in specific and complementary ways.

2. A Joint Enterprise: Members of a community of practice engage collectively in specific, meaningful activities. However, “[t]heir understanding of their enterprise and its effects on their lives need not be uniform for it to be a collective product” (p. 79). In other words, their joint enterprise is shaped by outside conditions and their responses to these conditions which are not necessarily uniform. It, thus, creates grounds for creativity and sometimes unpredictability in members’ contributions to their community.

3. Shared Repertoire: As members of a community of practice engage in a specific enterprise, they make use of “routines, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols, genres, actions, or concepts” that form the repertoire of the community and distinguish it from other communities (p. 83).
Although these elements have established meanings within every community, they are, at the same time, open to new uses when needed.

Learning in a community of practice represents “an interplay between social competence and personal experience” (Wenger, 2000, p. 226). In this interplay, competence in a community of practice is associated with a member’s ability to appropriate successfully the three dimensions above. Personal experience, on the other hand, represents a member’s engagement in practice which does not necessarily align with the concept of competence in the community. Learning in a community of practice entails a member’s ability to move forward with his or her practice in a way that allows them to claim control over social competence in their community. It starts with legitimate peripheral participation through which newcomers begin on the fringe as they learn from more knowledgeable and experienced members of the community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Through this process, a learner is given the opportunity to develop gradually and assume more central and knowledgeable roles within the community in order “to be trusted as a partner …. To have access to [a shared] repertoire and be able to use it appropriately” (Wenger, 2000, p. 229).

Putting in our minds that learners engage with their communities of practice gradually through a socialization process, there is an ongoing and inevitable interplay between the practices that learners bring with them to their communities and the practices they are required to recognize and embrace. Examination of this interplay is significant to understand learning within a community of practice because “[f]or individuals, it means that learning is an issue of engaging in and contributing to the practices of their communities. For communities, it means that learning is an issue of refining their practice and ensuring new generations of members” (Wenger, 1998, pp. 7-8). As members engage with the practices of their community, they shape and are shaped by their communities. They are, thus, seen as active agents and not passive members in their community.

The concept of ‘community of practice’ is relevant to explore the development of professional identity among the participants in this study. According to Duguid (2005, p. 113), members in this type of community “need not just acquire the explicit knowledge of the community, but also the identity of a community member” to be seen as active members. As students engage with pharmaceutical oral presentations and work with other members in this community, their work to develop as learners and professionals exceed the pharmaceutical knowledge they have acquired over the years.
to include the ability to assume the identity expected from them in this literacy event. Assuming this identity was associated with practices, such as adopting an appropriate stance that conveyed sympathetic and non-judgmental attitude towards patients while presenting. Another practice appeared in demonstrating deep knowledge of alternative medications that took into account medications’ prices in relation to patients’ financial abilities. This identity is closely related to what is considered to be acceptable practices in reading and writing and what is seen as successful meaning making. As professional identity develops in relation to other members, rather than individually, investigation of how members interact with each other represent an important aspect of their experiences with literacy and meaning making.

2.4.1.2 Identity construction

Participation in a community of practice depends on members’ ability to engage and suspend their identities in a way that allows them to engage in new practices, embrace new identities and position themselves differently in relation to other members of the community (Wenger, 2000). According to Duguid (2012), members of a community of practice do not only establish their membership through acquiring the community’s knowledge and practices, but also through developing an identity that would distinguish them as members of their community. Within educational settings, issues of identity are brought to light “as students go about forming and maintaining social relationships” in their communities (Preece, 2018, p. 10).

Examining issues of identity surfaces regularly in social accounts of literacy (e.g., Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Heath, 1983; Pahl & Rowsell, 2006b). Considering identity as “the filter through which we present ourselves to the world” (Pahl & Rowsell, 2012, p. 119), investigation of issues of identity connects people’s personal world with the social context with which they engage. Identity can be defined as “the way a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and spaces, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2013, p. 4). In this way, identity is not a fixed or stable position adopted by a person. It is rather constructed over time as people go on with their lives and interact with others.

Two theoretical constructs within studies of identity and language learning have been examined and are of relevance to this case study: investment and imagined communities. The construct of investment has been proposed to complement the psychological construct of motivation (Peirce, 1995). According to Norton and Toohey
(2011, p. 415), this construct “seeks to make a meaningful connection between a learner’s desire and commitment to learn a language, and the language practices of the classroom or community”. It highlights the relation between language learners’ identity and their commitment to learning which is dependent on their relation to the language, community and their desire to learn. This construct calls for reconsidering the importance given to motivation to determine the nature of language learners’ engagement in their learning because high motivation among learners is not necessarily transferred to actual achievement in language learning.

The construct of investment is built upon economic metaphors (Bourdieu, 1991; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) use the term ‘cultural capital’ to describe how different classes and groups in societies are characterized and distinguished by their knowledge, credentials and modes of thought whose cultural value is situated and dependent on their use and value within the social group. For Norton, the construct of investment signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their often ambivalent desire to learn and practice it. If learners ‘invest’ in the target language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic resources (language, education, friendship) and material resources (capital goods, real estate, money), which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital and social power (2013, p. 6).

Acquiring these resources sharpens learners’ awareness of themselves and shape their desires towards learning in a way that connects their memories of the past with their hopes for the future too (Norton & Toohey, 2001).

Examining the construct of investment allows researchers to acknowledge the changing nature of language learners’ identities which combine the different valued assets of the social context and the individual targets and positions that shape learners’ engagement in their society. It recognizes the complex and changing identities of language learners whose development is closely connected to the interaction between the social context that learners find themselves in and the personal challenges they face (Norton & Toohey, 2011). Moreover, this construct is relevant to explore learners’ agency and active participation. According to Kramsch (2013, p. 195), Norton’s understanding of ‘investment’ “accentuates the role of human agency and identity in
engaging with the task at hand, in accumulating economic and symbolic capital, in having stakes in the endeavor and in persevering in that endeavor”.

The concept of investment has been widely used in applied linguistics research. It was originally connected to examination of immigrants’ engagement in North American settings (e.g., McKay & Wong, 1996; Norton, 2013; Skilton-Sylvester, 2002) with increasing studies examining identity and its relation to language learning around the world (Mutonyi & Norton, 2007; Norton, 2015). Angélil-Carter (1997) employed the concept to examine literacy in academic settings. She points out that ‘investment’ “can usefully be broken down from its broad idea of investment in a target language such as English to investment in literacies, forms of writing or speaking …. discourses” (p. 268). She also notes that examining learners’ investment in literacy “is historically constructed and inextricable from relations of power in the wider society” (p. 269) because it can facilitate or hinder learners’ ability to embrace new discourses. Similarly, Norton (2015) notes how acknowledging and recognizing “the value of the linguistic or cultural capital learners bring to the classroom— their prior knowledge, home literacies, and mother tongues” can “impact the extent to which learners will invest in the language and literacy practices of their classrooms” and therefore mediate their participation in their communities (p. 380).

The second theoretical construct is related to imagined communities and their associated imagined identities. Imagined communities refer to “groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination” (Norton, 2013, p. 8). These reflect the communities that learners aspire to join and the identity options that they may embrace to join these imagined communities. As Norton and Toohey put it, “[a]n imagined community assumes an imagined identity” (2011, p. 415). The construct of imagined community holds specific importance within Wenger’s view of communities of practice who associate learning within the community with active participation in the community’s activities and engagement with other members within the community. At the same time, Wenger points out that imagination can provide a valuable source of community membership for learners because it gives rise to the significance of specific imagined communities (1998). These imagined communities are as real as the real communities in which learners are involved on a daily basis and may even have a stronger effect on learners and their attitudes towards language learning (Norton, 2013).
Within literacy studies which examine issues of identity, Gee’s concept of using ‘Discourses’ with a capital ‘D’ as an ‘identity kit’ has been widely used. According to Gee, Discourses refer to distinctive ways of speaking/listening and often, too, writing/reading *coupled* with distinctive ways of acting, interacting, valuing, feeling, dressing, thinking, believing with other people and with various objects, tools and technologies, so as to enact specific socially recognisable identities engaged in specific socially recognisable activities (2015, p. 171).

Gee’s description shows that there is more than language at stake to assume a specific identity. For people to display a specific identity, there is a series of decisions and positions they need to take and adopt in order to assume specific identities within their social groups. Because Discourses are closely connected to the “distribution of social power and hierarchical structure in society” (P. 179), they appear as ideological stands that are not easy to resist or question among members of the community. Their power lies in the consequences that may occur with a person’s inability or unwillingness to assume the specific Discourses that s/he needs to relate to. Failing to display valued Discourses within a community can set the person as an outsider and prevents them from participating fully in designated activities.

Both concepts of community of practice and identity are relevant to this investigation. Examination of the literacy practices that underpin undergraduates’ engagement in oral presentations and the semiotic choices they take to represent and communicate knowledge requires attention to how the participants in this study relate to the community they belong to and the community they aspire to join in their profession. It is also important to examine how participants in this event relate to the requirements and norms that shape oral presentations in a way that addresses their position as learners and developing professionals. These issues are integral to address the research questions because they shape and are shaped by how learners engage with oral presentations in this English-mediated setting.

### 2.5 Oral Presentations in EAP

Oral undergraduate presentations represent one of the genres which have not received extensive attention within EAP in comparison to research on written genres. This is despite the fact that undergraduates’ engagement in this genre is often seen as an essential part of students’ development in higher education as they are expected to
search for information and use their presentations to provide evidence of their developing knowledge and growing experience. Available research on speaking skill has pointed out some significant issues which are relevant to this thesis. Considerable attention, for instance, has been devoted to examining the value of a native-like accent in specialized language teaching. Early approaches considered a native-like accent as the norm that learners should be taught and encouraged to follow. Having a non-native accent was believed to disadvantage learners, hinder their engagement with their surroundings and question their ability to assume the cultural and symbolic capital needed for successful engagement with language learning (Kubota and Chiang, 2013).

Concerns with learners’ inability to attain a native-like accent have been usually associated with investigations of English-speaking contexts. These views came under attack in later approaches with studies beginning to point out that absence of a native-like accent does not necessarily hinder learners’ engagement with using the language. The significance attached to developing a native-like accent among learners was questioned because of the increasing awareness among scholars that it is more likely for second language learners to use the language with non-native speakers. For these users, developing their competence as language users was more important and relevant than a native-like accent (Feak, 2013). Learners’ practical needs came to be appreciated as the major drive to assess the value of a speaker’s accent and its effect on speakers’ use of the language and interaction with others.

Competence came to be associated with the functional uses of language that allow learners to communicate efficiently with others in different environments regardless of their accent (Barrett & Liu, 2016; Mauranen, Hynninen, & Ranta, 2010). As a result, learners were encouraged to focus on their communication needs rather than to attempt to develop and adopt the standards of a native speaker who may not even be available in their context as in this thesis (Charles, 2007). An example appears in Lima’s (2016) quantitatively-driven examination of the relationship between Chinese learners’ foreign accent and comprehensibility in oral presentations within an American academic setting. Her study points out that not only there was no correlation between presenters’ accent and comprehensibility, but also that accent had no considerable effect on how Chinese speakers were assessed by their Chinese and non-Chinese audience.

In terms of learners’ level of education, available research on English language learners’ oral presentations is mostly concerned with advanced levels of proficiency within formal settings such as academic and conference presentations (e.g., Kim, 2006;
Kmalvand, 2015; Kunioshi, Noguchi, Hayashi & Tojo, 2012; Morton, 2009; Rowley-Jolivet, 2002). Studies on oral presentations have covered a variety of topics, such as analysis of linguistic features (e.g., Fernández-Polo, 2014; Kao & Wang, 2014; Zareva, 2011a, 2016), investigation of differences between presenters’ performance in L1 and L2 (Hincks, 2010), apprenticeship into oral academic discourses (Morita, 2000; Zappa-Hollman, 2007), the relation between written discourse and talk (Webber, 2005), needed skills and difficulties in academic listening and speaking (Kim, 2006), comparing between native and non-native presenters (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002), investigating multimodal literacy and numeracy practices among international students (Alyousef, 2013), comprehensibility and liveliness in non-native student oral presentations and analysis of moves (Kunioshi et al., 2012). Less attention is devoted to younger and less advanced L2 speakers. Gwee and Toh-Heng (2015), for example, examine high school students’ engagement with video review of their oral presentations in formal and informal settings.

Many of the available studies on oral presentations have been concerned with second/foreign language speakers operating within contexts in which English is used as a lingua franca “which is with an international study body for an international audience” (Barrett & Liu, 2016, p. 1252). Other studies have also begun to examine this genre in other contexts. For example, Brown and Adamson (2014) explore the perspectives and expectations of a group of Japanese faculty in English-medium content classes in a Japanese university. They highlight the effects of local academic norms on EAP classroom practices within a variety of activities, including oral presentations. In Taiwan, Chou (2011) examines learning strategies used by French major college students while engaging with group and individual oral presentations, and the effect of these strategies on the development of speaking skills among these learners. Baumgarten (2016) adopts a longitudinal study design that examines the use of multiword sequences among second language users in their oral presentations. In addition to using quantitative surveys, the author relies on qualitative interviews and a socially grounded perspective on second language learning to examine learners’ habits of language use and socialization patterns.

In relation to examination of multimodal meaning making, there is currently an acknowledged limited availability of data on students’ multimodal texts in higher levels of education (Levy & Kimber, 2009; Matusiak, 2013) with few studies examining the multimodal nature of texts within oral presentations. For example, Rowley-Jolivet
(2002) examines the use of visuals in conference presentations to support comprehension and compares these visuals to the published proceedings of the conference in order to assess their use in these two different genres. Tardy (2005) traces the expression of disciplinary knowledge and individuality among multilingual graduate student writers in an American university through vocabulary, structures, visuals and colour choices while highlighting the opportunities that coordinating PowerPoint slides with talk provides for presenters that may not be available in written genres. Zareva (2011b) also examines what novice international graduate student presenters consider to be effective PowerPoint slides and compares their views with expert views in relation to organization, style and typography as essential elements of design. Morell (2015) examines the use of verbal, typography, written, non-verbal materials and body language in multimodal academic discourse of oral presentations. This examination aims to explore how effective communication can be enhanced among multilingual academics using English as a Lingua Franca. Zhao and Van Leeuwen (2013) investigate the effect of using PowerPoint as a semiotic technology in cultural studies lectures and their pedagogic effects. Zhao, Djonov and Van Leeuwen (2014) adopt a multimodal social semiotic approach to understand the relation between semiotic technology and its use through close examination of slideshows, PowerPoint as a software and PowerPoint-supported presentations.

Current investigations attempting to examine multimodal meaning making in oral presentations tend to remain faithful to the prevalent EAP traditions of textual analysis, focusing on texts as stand-alone products with minimum investigations of the situated nature of their production. Despite the potentially pedagogic benefits associated with textual analysis, we need to support this type of analysis with thorough examination of how these texts come to existence. Available studies, however, tend to overlook the importance of highlighting the sign-makers’, i.e. learners’ perspectives and experiences in how they engage with their presentations. This tendency has led to a considerable gap in our understanding of the multimodal practices that learners draw upon to participate in this activity and the multimodal nature of academic presentations, especially in scientific disciplines in which meaning making is classically acknowledged to utilize different modal choices (Kress et al., 2001).

Within ESP/EAP traditions, the practices underlying multimodal meaning making are often inferred from texts rather than through empirical in-depth investigations (Prior, 2013). There are many reasons that have led to this status in
relation to the limited range of research on oral academic presentations as an independent genre. Methodological issues are especially challenging. We cannot ignore the difficulty associated with video/audio-recording and transcribing spoken genres and the complexity involved in managing the data involved in this type of investigation (Hyland, 2009). Furthermore, researching practices that surround literacy requires ethnographic methodologies that may not be acceptable or accessible in some contexts, especially where literacy is associated with a skill-based understanding of reading and writing without acknowledging the use of other semiotic means or recognizing its situated nature and implications on the learners. In addition, ethnographic methods may not be seen as appropriate or acceptable within hard-to-reach contexts in which cultural and religious sensitivities shape people’s engagement with their daily lives, including educational practices. These issues are relevant to this study and will be discussed in the next chapter as I describe the methodological choices taken to answer the research questions in this thesis.

2.6 Chapter Summary

As EAP research interests continue to grow, there is an urgent need to reconsider some of its well-established and taken-for-granted concepts. In this chapter, I explored theoretical concepts which are relevant to address the research questions in this thesis. These include the need to support the growing understanding of learners’ needs with a broadening agenda that takes into account the social practices learners engage with in valued literacy events. In addition, I looked at research within genre studies and the attention that has been given to texts as stand-alone products and the social contexts in which genres are produced and used. In this regard, I discussed the use of the new literacy studies to examine the literacy practices in this event that shape presenters’ engagement with oral presentations and social semiotic multimodal approach to examine meaning making in this study. The chapter also looked at the interrelated theoretical concepts of community of practice, identity, investment and Discourses to examine the development of professional identity among learners. The chapter was finally concluded by surveying available literature on oral presentations as an independent genre and examining the gaps in the literature that this thesis attempts to address. In the next chapter, I will examine in detail the methodology adopted to conduct this study.
Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss the research methodology used in this thesis. The chapter first starts by an overview of qualitative case study research. The discussion will also include a description of participants in the study and how access to the research site has been obtained. After that, I will discuss the data-collection techniques I have relied on and the analytic framework I followed to analyse the collected data. The chapter is concluded by discussion of some of the challenges that I faced and how I attempted to enhance the rigour and trustworthiness of this study.

3.2 Paradigm

This study is underpinned by an interpretivist paradigm which understands reality as socially constructed. According to Glesne,

The ontological belief that tends to accompany interpretivist traditions portrays a world in which reality is socially constructed, complex, and ever changing. What is of importance to know, then, is how people interpret and make meaning of some object, event, action, perception, etc. These constructed realities are viewed as existing, however, not only in the mind of the individual, but also as social constructions in that individualistic perspectives interact with the language and thought of the wider society. Thus, accessing the perspectives of several members of the same social group about some phenomena can begin to say something about cultural patterns of thought and action of that group (2011, p. 8).

I relied on a case study approach, employing ethnographically-oriented qualitative research methods to explore how Year-five female undergraduates at a Saudi Arabian university engage with oral presentations in pharmacy. This exploration examines the literacy practices that underpin undergraduates’ engagement in this event and highlights the specific semiotic choices they draw upon, in addition to language, to represent and communicate disciplinary knowledge. The use of ethnographically-informed qualitative methods is appropriate for this study because of their relevance to social accounts of literacy in which

[the principal empirical methodology inherent in an ideological model of literacy is that of ethnography, involving both observation of the practices surrounding the production of texts – rather than focusing]
solely on written texts – as well as participants’ perspectives on the
texts and practices” (Lillis & Scott, 2008, p. 11).

These methods facilitate the examination of how learners engage with a specific literacy event in this academic setting, considering their perspectives and experiences while also highlighting how this engagement is socially situated in this context and how meaning is multimodally made.

However, an ethnographic perspective was adopted, in contrast to undertaking an ethnography, in order to take “a more focused approach (i.e. do less than a comprehensive ethnography) to study particular aspects of everyday life and cultural practices of a social group” (Green & Bloome, 1997, p. 183). According to Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 169), the value of ethnographic approaches is undeniable “when not enough is known about a context of situation”. This is especially important in this study with the scarcity of research that offers in-depth description of the social context in educational settings in relation to language teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia. As Heller puts it,

> [f]undamentally, ethnographies allow us to get at things we would otherwise never be able to discover. They allow us to see how language practices are connected to the very real conditions of people’s lives, to discover how and why language matters to people in their own terms, and to watch processes unfold over time. They allow us to see complexity and connections, to understand the history and geography of language (2008, p. 250).

For my study, I relied on data-collection tools which would allow to provide in-depth exploration of this case. These tools include observing the seminar sessions, engaging with different members in this community through recurrent and informal conversations, participating in one of the practice sessions that presenters held to rehearse their presentations and collecting relevant and accessible documents. I used these tools to familiarize myself with the research site and familiarize members of this community with who I was and the purpose of my study, aiming to establish myself in this community in accordance with available and accessible data.

### 3.3 Case Study

A qualitative case study approach is adopted to answer the research questions stated earlier (See 1.4). The term refers to empirical investigations of particular phenomena within their real-life context (Yin, 2003). Case study research has been
described by some qualitative researchers as a method on its own “typically useful for answering ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions” because of its exploratory nature that allows close interaction with participants (Stewart, 2014). It has also been described as a research strategy that “involves an empirical investigation of a real phenomenon” (Robson, 1993, p. 146). As a qualitative approach, it is associated with in-depth investigation that employs qualitative techniques to collect data and examine the case.

Case study research is characterized by a “a focus on the unit of investigation – rather than on the methodological execution of a particular set of methods” (Stewart, 2014, p. 147). According to Stake (1998), this type of research requires approaching a clearly bounded and integrated system in which the working parts show consistency and order in the behavioural patterns of its participants. Because the system under investigation is bounded, case study research tends to be small in scale. Early case study research was connected with ethnographical studies of remote cultures. In these studies, researchers relied on prolonged engagement in research sites to provide detailed descriptions of these cultures (e.g., Malinowski, 1913). This prolonged nature of engagement continues to represent a key aspect of case study research without being confined to conducting full ethnographies.

In terms of data collection tools, case study research is flexible because it allows the use of tools, such as observation, interviews and document collection (Glesne, 2011). This flexibility paved the way for researchers in many disciplines, such as economics, history, politics and education to rely on case study research and address a wide range of topics and problems. Using different research methods, however, need to be appropriately planned and set to suit the topic under investigation (Stewart, 2014; Yin, 2003). Case studies are differentiated through the particular methodological choices that researchers take in relation to what is put under investigation (Stake, 1998). This thesis is linked with ethnography because of its use of research methods commonly associated with ethnographic research tools. These include observation, interviews, research journal and artefacts collection (Table 3.1). These methods do not stand independently of each other, but they are used together to develop a better understanding of the case by examining different angles of the literacy event under investigation.

3.3.1 Challenges in case study research

Despite its flexibility and appropriateness to investigate a wide range of topics, case study research raises considerable concerns in relation to the issue of
generalization. Since it is often linked with small-scale investigations, such research aims at providing in-depth investigation of the case and exploring its uniqueness through highlighting the distinguishing characteristic features that set the case apart from others (Simons, 2009). Rather than attempting to generalize from a specific and unique case study, the researcher aims at understanding the case as deeply as possible. Communicating this understanding, in turn, requires attention to the fine details and special features that make a case different or unique. Despite the fact that generalization may not be possible in relation to other cases in other contexts or even in the same context, Yin (2003) points out that case study research is potentially useful in providing the grounds for generalizability when taken to address issues of theoretical concepts. It enables researchers to approach their research interests and sites without being closely framed by previously-formulated assumptions that usually shape and govern quantitative research. Case study research, thus, entails an element of discovery and open-mindedness, consistent with the nature of qualitative research.

Although case study research aims at providing in-depth and detailed investigation of particular social phenomena, it is not possible for any research to understand all aspects of a case regardless of how small or focused it is in scale. Researchers are rather advised to be transparent in their works by aspiring to offer detailed analysis of specific aspects of the case that relate to the purpose of the research. As Stake (1998) recommends, choices in case study research are rather strategic and should be stated clearly for the reader to appreciate the analysis. While maintaining that “not everything about the case can be understood”, Stake notes that the researcher should focus on deciding what needs to be highlighted and the reasons for doing that (p. 93). It is indeed these strategic and particular choices that give case study research its value which “lies in its ability to draw attention to what can be learned from the single case” (Schram, 2006, p. 107). This is even apparent in the final report through which a case study is presented which tends to offer detailed description of the case (Glesne, 2011).

Though a case study may not be applicable to other cases or contexts, it can be used to shed light on different aspects of the social phenomenon under investigation and develop our understanding of it. For my thesis, I aim to explore how year-five female undergraduates engage with seminar presentations in pharmacy. Focus will be directed towards exploring the social practices that underpin their engagement in this event and the semiotic choices they highlight. As this thesis is informed by a situated...
Table 3.1 Data Collection Instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Instruments</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Detailed observational fieldnotes written during each of the three observed seminar sessions (Appendix A)</td>
<td>Each seminar session lasts between 120-180 minutes</td>
<td>Once weekly (I observed 17 presentations distributed across 3 seminar sessions).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant Observation</td>
<td>I was invited to attend the practice session organized by the presenters participating in the second seminar session to rehearse their presentations. I kept detailed notes about this session to record how presenters finalized their preparations before presenting in front of the course convenor, what their priorities were and their relationships with each other (Appendix B).</td>
<td>The practice session lasted around 90 minutes.</td>
<td>Once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-Structured Interviews</td>
<td>Audio-recorded interviews with 8 undergraduate presenters (Appendix C).</td>
<td>Each interview lasted around 60 minutes</td>
<td>Six presenters were interviewed once while two were interviewed twice each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal conversations</td>
<td>Short, informal conversations with different members of this community, including teachers, undergraduates and administrative staff. I wrote what I remembered from these conversations within the research journal at the end of each of the days I visited the College.</td>
<td>10-15 minutes</td>
<td>Throughout the study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Journals</td>
<td>I kept a journal in which I wrote my reflections and memos from observations, interviews, conversations and collected documents (Appendix D).</td>
<td></td>
<td>Throughout the study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artefacts Collection</td>
<td>Samples or screen prints of relevant materials: Online Course description (Appendix E) Participants’ presentation slideshows Course guideline (Appendix F) Course evaluation form (Appendix G)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Throughout the study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
understanding of literacy, the investigation provides an in-depth exploration of literacy practices in this event which may not be generalizable to other events, but can be used to offer valuable insights at learners’ engagement in similar events and contexts.

3.4 Setting and Participants

3.4.1 Setting

In Saudi universities, separate campuses are assigned for male and female students. This case study was conducted in the College of Pharmacy within the female students’ campus in one of the major universities in Saudi Arabia. In this university, male and female campuses are not usually located near each other except for campuses assigned for medically-related colleges which are adjacent to each other. Many teachers and trainers work in both campuses and benefit from this adjacent location in facilitating their movement between classes and labs. Observations of seminar presentations took place in the assigned year-five classroom in the College of Pharmacy. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in one of the available and unoccupied offices in the College.

3.4.2 Participants

Eight presenters volunteered to participate in this study. The participating presenters volunteered through the year-five group leader to participate in the study (Table 3.2). These presenters were all residents in the same city in which the university is located except for Rahaf who came from the northern region of Saudi Arabia to study her bachelor’s degree after finishing high school in her hometown. All presenters joined the College of Pharmacy after they finished their Preparatory-Year Programme immediately except for Fatin who joined the College of Medicine first. After studying there for one year, she transferred to the College of Pharmacy because of her growing interest in pharmaceutical sciences.

3.5 Data Collection

Aiming to explore the literacy practices that underpin participants’ engagement in seminar presentations, there is need to utilize available research methods to explore the social practices and meaning-making decisions that surround representation and communication of knowledge among participants. This qualitative case study employed ethnographic methods to collect the data, including observation, interviews, research journal and artefacts collection to explore “the cultural meanings and beliefs the participants attach to their activities, events, and behaviours” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 130).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Title of presentation</th>
<th>Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salwa</td>
<td>Canagliflozin</td>
<td>A newly-approved drug to treat kidney problems in relation to type 2 diabetes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maram</td>
<td>Obesity</td>
<td>Types, causes and health risks associated with obesity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samya</td>
<td>Counterfeit Medicines Awareness</td>
<td>Problems associated with fake drugs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatin</td>
<td>Poly Cystic Ovarian Syndrome</td>
<td>A common syndrome among females.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahaf</td>
<td>Trichotillomania</td>
<td>A rare hair-pulling disorder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hind</td>
<td>Treatment and Prevention of Chemotherapy Induce Nausea and Vomiting</td>
<td>Treatment of nausea and vomiting resulting from chemotherapy treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamar</td>
<td>Onychomycosis</td>
<td>Fungal infection of nails.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Layla</td>
<td>Opioids Dependence</td>
<td>A neurobehavioral syndrome associated with prolonged opioids addiction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, an ethnographic perspective was adopted rather than a full ethnography which takes “a more focused approach (i.e. do less than a comprehensive ethnography) to study particular aspects of everyday life and cultural practices of a social group” (Green & Bloome, 1997, p. 183). According to Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 169), the value of ethnographic approaches is undeniable “when not enough is known about a context of situation”. This is especially important in this study with the scarcity of research that offers in-depth description of the social context in female educational settings in relation to language teaching and learning. As Heller puts it,

[f]undamentally, ethnographies allow us to get at things we would otherwise never be able to discover. They allow us to see how language practices are connected to the very real conditions of people’s lives, to discover how and why language matters to people in their own terms, and to watch processes unfold over time. They allow us to see complexity and connections, to understand the history and geography of language (2008, p. 250).

3.5.1 Access

Access to the research site was obtained through two stages. The first stage occurred in 2014 when I emailed the Vice Dean for Graduate Studies and Scientific Research in the College of Pharmacy to gain initial approval to visit the College, introduce myself, and conduct the study. The ethics Application forms in Lancaster University and the host university were prepared before the course took place.

The second stage started with my first visit to the female campus in the College on October 20th. I met the Vice Dean of the College of Pharmacy for the female campus and provided her with a list of all the forms regarding my study and introduced myself as a researcher and a teacher in the Preparatory-Year Programme at a different campus in the university. These forms included Lancaster University ethics approval forms (Appendix H), an overview of the research project (Appendix I), identification letter from the scholarship provider (Appendix J), information sheet for presenters (Appendix K), information sheets for teachers (Appendix L), consent form for presenters (Appendix M) and consent form for teachers (Appendix N).

Gaining the Saudi institutional approval to conduct this study required more time than was originally anticipated because a new Vice Dean for Graduate Studies and Scientific Research was appointed by the time of my visit to the College which required me to reintroduce myself and the study. Additionally, the depth of the study was
affected by students’ mid-term exams which took place during my stay. Furthermore, some of the teaching and administrative staff, including the course convenor, were involved in the College’s work to acquire official accreditation during my data-collection period. Despite my two-month stay in the site, the necessary approvals were only obtained by the end of the first month. Because of that, I was only able to attend the last three seminar sessions of the course (Table 3.3).

| Table 3.3 Participating Presenters |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Seminar session     | Date            | Number of presenters in session | Number of presenters volunteering to participate |
| 1                 | November, 11th | 6                             | 4                              |
| 2                 | November, 18th | 6                             | 3                              |
| 3                 | September, 16th | 5                             | 1                              |

After obtaining the required permission from different departments, I contacted the course convenor who had been previously informed of my presence and the purpose of my visit. I was invited to attend my first seminar session and provide him with hard copies of all the forms I had already emailed to the Vice Dean. The teacher advised me to contact the year-five group leader and seek her help with finding out where and when the sessions would take place. I arranged a meeting with the group leader to introduce myself and the purpose of my study and ask for her help to contact and recruit presenters. She offered to work as a connection between me and the presenters and ask for volunteers after each seminar session. Her assistance was invaluable because many of the presenters wore face veils during their presentations, making it difficult for me to recognize them afterwards.

I had a brief meeting with the course convenor before attending my first seminar session on November, 11th. I discussed the purpose of my study and its relation to English language teaching. The course convenor was particularly concerned with ensuring that students were well-informed of the study and its purpose before asking for their participation. He also discussed with me how I intended to protect participants’ privacy. Before the beginning of the session, he introduced me to the students and encouraged them to cooperate with me as much as they could. At the end of the session, the course convenor left the classroom after calling me to introduce myself and explain
my study. I gave a brief description of the project and distributed copies of the overview of the project, information sheets and consent forms which contained my contact information. The information sheets and consent forms were offered in English and Arabic to ensure maximum understanding of my project and its purpose. Two other sessions were attended on November 18th and December 16th.

The group leader arranged for me to meet nine volunteering presenters, but I was able to meet only eight presenters as one of the students did not attend the scheduled interview and declined to schedule another one. Two presenters agreed to participate in a second interview which helped me to discuss my initial understanding of the collected data. Before each seminar session, the presenters usually held a practice session in the morning which lasted from 8:00 am to 10:00 am in which they rehearsed their presentations in front of each other. The presenters of the second session asked me through the group leader to attend their practice session. The request seemed to be encouraged by my work as an English language teacher. They asked for help with editing their slides and revising their language. Five students participated in that session and only one of these students volunteered to participate in the study afterwards.

3.5.2 Data Collection Methods

3.5.2.1 Observation

Observation provides a prolonged engagement in research sites in order to investigate the micro-and macro-contexts in which participants operate (Watson-Gegeo, 1988). Within the available time, I followed the advice offered by Richards, Ross, & Seedhouse who point out that “researchers should immerse themselves in the relevant social world in order to develop a rich, situated understanding of it and of how it is constituted through its members” (2012, p. 33). They also note that any understanding is always contextualized and situated and should go beyond the surface appearance of things because researchers are required to explore “not only what is far from obvious to a casual observer but what may be hidden from the members themselves” (p. 33).

Two types of observation were employed in this thesis (Thomas, 2011). The first one was structured observation in which I identified specific types of behaviour that were relevant to my investigation including actors, activities, events and time (Spradley, 1980). The second type was unstructured observation through which I attempted to immerse myself in the research site as much as possible to “watch informally (but methodically) in and among recording important facets of what is happening” (p. 165). Both types were important for my study because they allowed me to explore different
aspects of participants’ engagement in this literacy event. Within each seminar session, I kept detailed fieldnotes that described elements such as the spatial organization of the classroom, how each session started, how presenters initiated their presentations, what students in the audience were doing during these presentations, how the course convenor’s feedback was initiated and how seminar sessions were concluded. At the same time, my fieldnotes attended to aspects of this literacy event whose significance emerged as I immersed myself in the research site, such as students’ movement at the back of the classroom during seminar sessions, students’ comments on their colleagues while they were rehearsing or presenting and the interactions between different members of this community.

My observations beyond the seminar sessions were geared towards the physical setting in the College of Pharmacy where I looked closely at the corridors and other classrooms in which the year-five students informally worked together to make, rehearse and discuss their presentations. Following Silverman’s note with regard to the benefit of observational data to understand how organizations are structured, I used my observations to examine how students interacted with each other and with the teaching and administrative staff (2014). Moving around the College allowed me to become a familiar face among members of this community. This created a sense of familiarity and trust among students towards my presence in the College which I believe encouraged participants to take part in my study.

I stand by the suggestion that “in a sense, all social research is a form of participant observation, because we cannot study the social world without being part of it” (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994, p. 249) (emphasis in original). My participation in the research site was informed by my position as an insider and outsider in this case study. I was an insider in terms of being a teacher in the same university in the Preparatory-Year Programme at a different campus. I was able to relate to many of the experiences and challenges they described. My expertise as an English language teacher proved invaluable to bring me closer to students in the College. The practice session which I was invited to attend through the group leader enabled me to offer help to students that related to my expertise as an English language teacher (See 3.5.1). Furthermore, participating in that session helped me to note some relevant aspects that would have been inaccessible otherwise. For example, this session highlighted how presenters prioritised the challenges they faced to prepare for their presentations. I was also frequently approached by different students from different year groups in the
College throughout the study period who were seeking advice not only in relation to working on their assignments, but also improving their English language skills while some students were asking me about my experience with studying abroad.

Writing the observational fieldnotes was challenging, especially since I was not an experienced qualitative researcher. The suggestions and advice given by the ethnographers in Walford (2009) were particularly useful because they provided examples of how ethnographers approach the writing of their ethnographic fieldnotes and address challenging issues around them. I found two issues to be particularly challenging: a) the potential impact of writing these notes on participants while they were presenting and b) recording detailed and condensed notes of these scientific presentations.

Because outsider observation is often associated with assessment and evaluation in the Saudi educational context, I relied on the explanations provided in the information sheets and my informal conversations with different members of this community to mitigate the potentially disruptive nature of my presence as an outsider during seminar sessions. With this in mind, I did not feel comfortable about writing down my observations during the seminar sessions because I was afraid that I would distract the presenters while they were presenting. As a result, I chose to physically locate myself at the back of the classroom where the observed seminar sessions took place. While this location restricted my ability to take note of significant aspects of the event taking place at the front of the class, the loss was offset by minimizing any negative effects of my presence as an outsider observer and allowed me to write my notes in a way that would not distract any of the presenters.

In relation to the content of these notes, I wanted to include as much as I could within my observational fieldnotes to facilitate my examination of this literacy event. My notes were not always organized and at times appeared as lists of disconnected sentences and bulleted points. After each seminar session, I would go to the office which I was offered to conduct the interviews and sit to add to my notes, while my memory was still fresh, the points that I could not record immediately. This was also helpful for highlighting the issues that required my participants’ help in understanding my notes. The content of my observational fieldnotes was also impacted by the scientific nature of these presentations. Because I had not worked in the College before and I was not familiar with the content of the observed presentations, I relied on students’ help to clarify unclear technical details in my fieldnotes. For example, the
elaborate, scientific nature of some topics was challenging for me and I could not always understand what presenters or the course convenor were saying. I worked around this issue, by asking students to explain during our interviews the points that were not clear to me.

3.5.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

While observation offers invaluable outsider’s perspectives, interviews highlight insiders’ perspectives to enhance the ethnographic orientation of this study. According to Heller (2008, p. 255), interviews provide explanatory data which support observation and “connects practices to people’s accounts of why they do what they do”. They are used as “a source of witness accounts…..and as supplying evidence about informants’ general perspectives or attitudes” (Hammersley, 2006, p. 9). Within a situated understanding of literacy, participants’ accounts shed light on common cultural norms, feelings, attitudes, identities and relationships (Street & Lefstein, 2007).

For this study, participants’ accounts were invaluable to examine the literacy practices they drew upon to participate in this event. While interviews provide deep “insights into people’s experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations” (Richards, 2009, p. 187), they represent interactional tools whose use cannot be separated from those involved in making them (Edley & Litosseliti, 2010). I approached interviews in my study as a “a co-constructed social exchange” (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition to providing participants with an opportunity to describe their experiences and challenges, these interviews helped me to continuously examine and understand my observational data throughout the study period. The interviews were audio recorded and were mainly conducted in Arabic because participants tended to use their native language to communicate beyond their studies. In addition to the fact that conducting the interviews in English was not essential to address my research questions, I believe that communicating in Arabic in this study allowed the participants to engage in these interviews and describe their experiences without the limitations that may result from communicating in an additional language.

3.5.2.3 Informal Conversations

Short, unrecorded conversations were conducted with different members of this community, including the year-five undergraduates, undergraduates in other year groups, the course convenor, some members of administrative staff in the College and teachers of other subjects. These were carried out throughout the study period mainly
around the year-five classroom, the library and the Vice Dean’s office. I used these conversations to familiarize myself with the College and its organizational structure and members. These conversations were also useful to familiarize members of this community with my presence and my study and its purposes.

3.5.2.4 Research journal

I kept a journal of my daily reflections and memos to record “ideas, reflections, thoughts, actions, reactions, conversations and so on” (Thomas, 2011, p. 164). Considered as “representing the personal side of fieldwork” (Spradley, 1980, p. 71), I used my research journal to continuously reconsider my earlier assumptions and understanding of this event. In addition to keeping track of my developing understanding of the case, my notes also played an important role in shaping my interviews and conversations with members of this community.

3.5.2.5 Artefact collection

To support this investigation, I collected a number of relevant documents from the year-five group leader. These documents shed illuminating light on the topic under investigation and they included the course online description (Appendix E), the course guidelines (Appendix F) and the course evaluation form (Appendix G). Because these documents serve as “objects or symbols inscribed by a collective attribution of meaning” (Bartlett, 2008, p. 35), examination of their use and their meaning among the participants of this study shed light on the situated nature of literacy in this case. They supported my understanding of the event and informed my interview guides.

3.5.3 Notes about data collection

As this case study adopts a social account of literacy, it utilized data collection methods commonly used in this type of research. There were, however, other methods which, albeit their increasing use in scholarly research on literacy and multimodality, were not available in this case study. Research studies associated with literacy tend to increasingly employ photographic data because of their potential benefit in examining social practices surrounding literacy events (e.g., Dickie & McDonald, 2011; Janks & Comber, 2006; Mandleco, 2013). They can facilitate discussions of literacy practices among participants (Mandleco, 2013). Photographic and video data also support observation of physical settings within research on multimodality (Nicholls, Mills, & Kotecha, 2014). Specific details of multimodal ensembles are, therefore, documented in educational research in a way that provides valuable evidence to support investigations.
Examination of meaning making in classrooms often include data containing “a mixture of video recordings, field-notes, materials and texts used during the interaction, participant interviews, and possible policy documents and other texts” which are relevant to the object of study (Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p. 7). This variation of data serves to capture the intricate details needed to carry out in-depth analysis of how people represent and communicate knowledge and interact with each other.

In this case study, however, use of video and photographic data was not available for a number of reasons. First, cultural and religious sensitivities of this all-female setting eliminate the possibility of capturing participants’ images because publicizing photographic images of females tends to be considered as an unacceptable behavior. This is true even though sharing personal photographs among close friends and members of family is a common practice among Saudi women. I did not ask the participants in this case study to participate in collection of photographic or video-taped data because it could indicate disrespect towards societal norms and common conventions and could, therefore, hinder my ability to gain participants’ trust and conduct this study.

Secondly, the university’s regulations regarding taking photographs within its campus state clearly that taking photographs of people, premises or equipment is prohibited. Photographic images for research purposes, therefore, were clearly outside what was allowable in this context. Although the College of Pharmacy regularly organizes many educational events, such as summits, workshops and seminar presentations and often document students’ participation in these events using photographs in the university’s website and sometimes in local newspapers, these were considered acceptable practices because of the formal nature of these events and the official status of the University.

Putting in mind that “sensitivity to the local culture and setting and the appropriateness of different types of equipment is a key consideration” in deciding the data-collection tools needed to conduct any research (Nicholls et al., 2014, p. 263), I relied on research instruments that were accepted by the participants in this community in order to gain their trust and encourage them to participate. While I was able to rely on audio recordings in interviews with participants, I wrote detailed observational field-notes during the presentations. Despite the fact that note-taking has its limitations.
including researchers’ inability to write and record all classroom activities at any given moment, notes have served as useful data sources within qualitative research. In addition, although digital documentation would have contributed to the depth of investigation within this case study, examination of literacy practices requires researchers to “not only account for the materiality of texts, that is, the way they look, sound and feel, but also have an understanding of who made the text, why, where and when” (Pahl & Rowsell, 2006a, p. 2). I worked to achieve this within my study by utilizing available data to orient the investigation towards observations of social practices while highlighting participants’ perspectives.

3.6 Data Analysis

While qualitative research aims to develop understanding of social phenomena in detail, it is not limited to describing social phenomena alone. Qualitative investigations work to move beyond “naming and classifying what is out there” to “understand the patterns, the recurrences, the whys” (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 67) (emphasis in original). It attempts to move from surface description of what is observed to try to discover how experiences are linked and how they form patterns that need to be explored and examined in order to come up with potential explanations. To analyse the collected data, I relied on the framework suggested by Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, O’Connor, and Barnard (2014) for thematic analysis. This framework aims at “discovering, interpreting and reporting patterns and cluster of meaning within the data” (p. 271). This framework consists of two key processes: data management and abstraction and interpretation. These processes are interrelated and they serve to enhance the trustworthiness of qualitative investigations.

3.6.1 Data management

This stage started with the need to establish a clear system for storing and retrieving collected data. Accordingly, the data for each of the participating presenters were kept in a separate, labelled computer folder, including the audio-recorded interviews, interview transcripts, presentation slides and observational fieldnotes. My research journal, notes on informal conversations and collected documents were kept in a separate folder. Interviews were first transcribed in Arabic following a general transcription scheme (Appendix P) in which the aim was to preserve participants’ original talk and document what is relevant to the research questions in terms of exploring the literacy practices and semiotic choices that surrounded participants’
engagement with oral presentations. I relied on a general transcription system which is partly modified from King and Horrocks (2010).

All the interviews were transcribed and analysed, but they were only translated into English when used for presentation in this thesis. Translation aimed “to respect and maintain the features of spoken speech such as changing direction in mid-sentence and repeated use of words, short phrases, or interjections speakers might use while gathering their thoughts” in order to maintain the natural fluidity of participants’ talk in Arabic (Santos, Black, & Sandelowski, 2015, p. 139). My aim originally was to remain faithful to the original syntax of participants’ talk in order to produce translated extracts which could be described as visually similar to the original. This, however, did not prove appropriate because it threatened to jeopardize the naturalness of participants’ talk.

As a way to address this issue, I relied on a process of forward translation to translate the employed extracts from Arabic to English and on backward translation to translate those extracts from English back to Arabic to insure better representation of participants’ original talk. When a literal translation was not possible, I attempted to provide a detailed explanation of the word that highlighted its meaning and contextual significance. I followed the authors’ suggestion to move back and forth between these types of translation because “constant refinement of translated material allows for a more nuanced set of meanings” and therefore, provides deeper support for qualitative analysis of the collected data (Santos et al., 2015, p. 139). In addition, this constant refinement also helped to avoid basing the analysis on translated extracts that background participants’ original talk and would thus, threaten to jeopardize the link between participants’ language and their cultural identity (Temple & Young, 2004).

Transcribed interviews were imported into NVivo for coding with the audio records to remain grounded into the original data by connecting the audio files with interview transcripts. Because the use of the software to coordinate audio files with Arabic transcripts proved challenging, this connection was not carried out for all the interviews. Although initial stages of analysis were carried out using NVivo, I was not able to continue to use the software due to eyesight-related health problems. I supported my original coding and analysis with manual coding and arranging of the collected data. While this has required me to spend more time to manage the collected data, I do not believe that it has negatively impacted the quality of the research. In addition to the fact that using computer software has not been an integral part of qualitative research among
researchers in the past, I believe that the size and type of collected data could be
manually approached without the need for digital processing.

As for coding, the first codes were descriptive to provide the necessary
familiarization needed to begin exploring the data. The data was, then, recoded on
different occasions in multiple times in order to “group similarly coded data into
categories or “families” because they share some characteristics” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 9).
These coding and recoding processes helped to familiarize me with the data and to set
the grounds to construct an initial framework of analysis in relation to the research
questions and the purposes of this research by grouping peoples’ views and accounts of
experiences into major headings and subheadings (Spencer et al., 2014).

3.6.2 Abstraction and interpretation

The second stage in this framework was signalled by working to bring to light
the main themes in this case and address the research questions (Spencer et al., 2014).
This was achieved by in-depth description of the social phenomena and developing
detailed categories that would portray the range of views and perspectives the data
offered in relation to each theme and subtheme. The initially-coded data, thus, were
further pushed so that analytic properties were developed and examined in order to
explore the social practices that underpin participants’ engagement with literacy in this
event and their meaning-making decisions.

3.6.2.1 Analysing social practices

To examine the social practices that participants drew upon to engage with
seminar presentations, I first built my understanding of the event in terms of what was
happening before, during and after the presentations. I also divided the slideshows of
each observed presentation into their constituent stages as I will further explain in
Chapter 7. These divisions aimed to provide “an organized, compressed assembly of
information that permits conclusion drawing” (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 10). Using
each stage as a unit of analysis, data from different methods were assembled and
examined to explore the social practices presenters drew on to engage in this event and
the semiotic choices that presenters highlighted while describing their meaning-making
decisions.

Investigation of these divisions was separately carried out in relation to each
presenter. Analysis was, then, compared across participants to gain a better
understanding of the similarities and differences that exist in how these presenters
engaged with their experience in this event and offer a detailed descriptive framework
to support the analysis of this case study. As interpretation of qualitative data is “coloured by .... previous and current personal, social, and cultural experience” (Bazeley, 2013, p. 4), I believe that my experience as a language teacher in the Preparatory-Year Programme in the same university has had a significant effect in shaping how I approached this case study and the analysis of the collected data while working to ground findings in data-driven evidence. For verification, permission from the participants was obtained during my first interview to contact them after completing an initial analysis in order to seek any needed data and verify my understanding of the collected data and my analysis. Two of the presenters have agreed to participate in a second interview while others have been contacted through text messages and emails.

3.6.2.2 Analysing multimodal meaning making

The methodological constraints that resulted from my inability to use photographic and video data impacted my examination of the semiotic choices that participants took to represent and communicate knowledge. Analysis of multimodal meaning making will focus on the semiotic choices associated with speech and slideshow design. In relation to speech, I focus on the social practices that shaped participants’ use of this semiotic mode. Analysis of slideshow design will focus on the use of layout, writing and visuals which will be examined through the descriptive framework offered by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, 2006). Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) explore the semiotic resources mediating the use of visuals in contemporary western culture by building on SFL classical concern with ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of linguistic texts and extending their use to the study of various visuals. For Kress and van Leeuwen, visuals “involve two kinds of participants, represented participants (the people, the places and things depicted in images) and interactive participants (the people who communicate with each other through images, the producers and viewers of images)” (2006, P. 114). They employ different terminology to consider the simultaneous meanings previously introduced in SFL. They use ‘representational’ instead of ideational, ‘interactive’ instead of interpersonal and ‘compositional’ instead of textual. Each of these meanings employs specific resources to convey different aspects of meaning in visuals. While the authors’ framework entails elaborate terminology, I will only draw on specific semiotic resources which appear relevant to the purpose of this thesis.

Representational meaning is concerned with how represented participants are depicted in visuals whether they are things, concepts or human beings. Two patterns
describe these participants. First, narrative representations portray participants in terms of what is happening between them, usually by employing a line that connects the portrayed participants or as Kress and van Leeuwen call it a ‘vector’. Second, conceptual structures appear in visuals in which the connection between the represented participants is not based on the presence of a vector.

Interactive meaning is concerned with how visuals establish relations between represented participants and viewers. These relations are realized through choices in contact, distance and point of view. Contact refers to how a participant is shown looking directly or indirectly at the viewer where a direct gaze from a frontal angle is seen to suggest a form of demand from the viewer while the indirect look associated with an oblique angle suggests an offer of information to the viewer. The angles through which the represented participant in a visual is shown to the viewer is significant to explore possible meanings and effects. According to Kress and van Leeuwen, the “difference between the oblique and the frontal angle is the difference between detachment and involvement” (2006, p. 136). Distance is concerned with how close a participant in the visual appears to the viewer through the employed ‘size of frame’ which ranges from close-up to medium to longshot portrayal. Point of view refers to the angle through which the represented participants appear to the viewer and its implied suggestions of power and control.

Compositional meaning is realized through resources, such as information value, framing and modality. Information value of a visual is suggested by how elements of a semiotic entity are placed in relation to each other and the meaning potential associated with specific placements. For example, Kress and van Leeuwen connect a left-right placement of visual elements with a ‘given-new’ structure of information in which ‘given’ reflects what is already known by and shared with the viewer while the ‘new’ represents a challenge for the viewer in terms of being problematic and contestable (Jewitt & Oyama, 2001). Top-down placement of elements correspond to a meaning-potential of ideal-real in which the ‘ideal’ could potentially refer to “idealized or generalized essence of the information” while the ‘real’ is connected with presenting “more specific information ….more practically oriented information ….or more real information” (p. 148). Elements can be also placed in a central-marginal position to indicate elements’ significance.

Framing realizes compositional meaning in a semiotic entity through portraying participants as visually connected or disconnected in relation to each other. Different
techniques are used to frame participants in visuals, such as the use of space and colours. Compositional meaning is also realized through modality which as a concept originated in SFL accounts to refer to “the truth value or credibility of (linguistically realized) statements about the world (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 155). According to van Leeuwen (2005, p. 160),

Modality’ is the social semiotic approach to the question of truth. It relates both to issues of representation – fact versus fiction, reality versus fantasy, real versus artificial, authentic versus fake – and to questions of social interaction, because the question of truth is also a social question – what is regarded as true in one social context is not necessarily regarded as true in others, with all the consequences that brings.

Visual modality can be looked at through examining specific gradable modality markers or parameters, including colour saturation, colour differentiation, colour modulation, contextualization, representation, depth, illumination and brightness (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005). These markers “may be amplified or reduced to different degrees, resulting in many possible modality configurations” which “cue viewers’ judgements of modality, of ‘as how real’ images (or parts of images) are to be taken” (van Leeuwen, 2005, p. 167).

van Leeuwen points out that there are four kinds of visual modality (p. 168-170):

1. Naturalistic modality is the most commonly known form of modality in which “the more an image of something resembles the way we would see that something if we saw it in reality, from a specific viewpoint and under specific conditions of illumination, the higher its modality” (p. 168).

2. Abstract modality is common in scientific and modern art contexts in which “visual truth is abstract truth”. Truth is dependent on how “an image represents the deeper ‘essence’ of what it depicts” and how “it represents the general pattern underlying superficially different specific instances” (p. 168).

3. Technological modality is concerned with how “visual truth is based on the practical usefulness of the image. The more an image can be used as a blueprint or aid for action, the higher its modality” (p. 168).

4. Sensory modality “is used in contexts where pleasure matters” and it is “realized by a degree of articulation which is amplified beyond the point of naturalism, so that sharpness, colour, depth, the play of light and shade, etc.
become – from the point of view of naturalistic modality – ‘more than real’” (p. 170).

Despite the above classification, these types do not exist in isolation from each other. Visuals are likely to employ different modality configurations according to the needs of the meaning maker.

3.7 Trustworthiness and Rigour

While quantitative research is usually assessed through sophisticated statistical tests, qualitative research is often attacked because of its naturalistic approaches towards the study of social phenomena (Silverman, 2014). Qualitative researchers are often faced with questions concerning the validation of their findings and claims. For this thesis, I relied on triangulation, respondent validation and comprehensive data treatment to increase trustworthiness and rigour in this study. Triangulation is useful in qualitative research that adopts an ethnographic stance because it helps “to validate claims and discover inconsistencies that require additional investigation” (Heigham & Sakui, 2009, p. 100). According to Denzin and Lincoln, triangulation “is best understood as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth, complexity, richness and depth to any inquiry” (2000, p. 5). Different methods, researchers, theoretical frameworks and/or various types of data are used to “to open up a more complex, in-depth, but still thoroughly partial, understanding of the issue” (Tracy, 2010, p. 844). This is particularly useful in case study research because it helps to offer explanations for a variety of questions, such as when, how, why, with whom…etc. depending on the context (Heller, 2008).

There is, however, considerable debate within scholarly literature regarding whether triangulation provides a reliable means to check the validity of data or simply supports analysis with a deeper understanding of the case (Lewis, Ritchie, Ormston, & Morrell, 2014). Calls have been made to warn against attaching unrealistic or unfounded expectations to the use of triangulation as a technique to increase the validity and rigour in qualitative research. Regardless of the type of triangulation a researcher adopts, Silverman (2014), for instance, warns against being caught in a web of collecting different types of data rather than examining the contextualized and situated nature of qualitative data and social interaction. In other words, while triangulation is commonly described as the most taken-for-granted provider of trustworthiness and rigour within qualitative research, assessing the validity of any research study should exceed mere accumulation of sources and different types of data.
In this thesis, I consider triangulation to be invaluable to address the research questions. Interview-based data supported my understanding of data collected through other methods. While none of the employed methods could stand alone to pave the way for addressing the research questions in this case study, all were considered to be integrated in a way that allows a better understanding of the social phenomena under investigation and facilitates provisions of a deeper description and further analysis. This is because each source facilitates access to understand specific angles and aspects of the case. In addition, triangulation enhances the credibility of any analysis through providing firmer grounds for the analysis. Because of the further insight provided through triangulation, conclusions are, thus, offered with more confidence (Patton, 2002).

In addition to triangulation, respondent validation is often described in research methodology as an effective way through which researchers can check the validity of their conclusions. As checking with participants can be beneficial “as yet another source of data and insight” (Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 43), it helps to keep the data grounded in the context in which they emerged. For this thesis, respondent validation has particularly helped me to repeatedly consider my understanding of this event which I documented in my observational fieldnotes. It also allowed the presenters to elaborate on their experiences and explain ambiguities. In this way, it helped to “provide further information to help interpret findings or suggest further analytical paths” (Lewis et al., 2014, p. 358). This was particularly useful in examining the representation and communication of knowledge in this case. Because I was not a member of this community, I relied on participants’ explanations of their meaning-making decisions to explore the creation of multimodal ensembles in their presentations. These explanations highlighted their positions as meaning makers and provided invaluable access to understand how language is approached in these presentations in relation to other modes and resources.

The third strategy adopted in this case study to enhance its trustworthiness and rigour is related to comprehensive data treatment in analysis which works to incorporate all available data in in order to pave the way for a detailed analysis that can be revealing and trustworthy for readers (Silverman, 2014). Putting in mind that there is always a possibility for other types of analyses within any qualitative study (Spencer et al., 2014), the significance of comprehensive data treatment is brought to light within qualitative research in which the number of participants is limited or researcher’s
involvement has been affected by contextual constraints as in this case. For this thesis, the adopted analytic framework introduced earlier requires going back and forth between the different stages of data analysis which allows continuous questioning of findings in light of the theoretical grounds and analytic tools shaping the analysis and discussion.

It is important to note, however, that “explanations in qualitative research are usually framed as conjectures about why something came about, rather than as accounts of deterministic causes” (Spencer, Ritchie, O'Connor, Morrell, & Ormston, 2014, p. 332). No matter how careful we are to incorporate different sources and perspectives that help us to explore and examine social phenomena, all what we can offer is our own inferences of the human condition as it is constrained by contextual demands and limitations and our own values and backgrounds. Because this thesis views reality as “fundamentally mind-dependent: it is only knowable through the human mind and through socially constructed meanings, and no reality exists independently of these” (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard, & Snape, 2014, p. 4), I approach my investigation believing that qualitative research can strive to offer grounded understanding of human behaviour and interaction, rather than absolute judgements and fixed perceptions.

3.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I discussed the research methodology adopted to conduct this case study. The next four chapters will be dedicated to analysis. Chapter four describes the context in which seminar presentations were carried out. Chapter five examines some of the social practices shaping participants’ engagement in this event. Chapter six offers an overview of the semiotic choices in the observed presentations which were highlighted by the participants in this study. Chapter seven examines how two of the participants designed their slideshows to represent and communicate meaning according to contextual demands, disciplinary norms and personal interests. Chapter eight concludes the thesis by discussing the major themes of this investigation, the methodological and pedagogical implications of this study, limitations of the research and recommendations for further research.
Chapter 4  The Literacy Event: Exploring the Context

4.1 Introduction

This thesis explores the literacy practices that underpin students’ engagement in seminar presentations. It understands literacy as socially situated within a specific context. In this chapter, I will examine the context in which this event is situated. I will start by examining the College, the classroom and the course. I will also consider the significance that the participants in my thesis attached to seminar presentations.

Looking at year-five students as members in a specific community of practice, I will conclude the chapter by examining the relationships between different members in this community. Because these relations have a considerable effect on shaping participants’ engagement in this event, I will focus on students’ relations with administrative and teaching staff, with the course convenor and with each other.

4.2 The College

Within the female campus in the university, the College of Pharmacy is located next to other scientific colleges. It consists of two large buildings. Offices of the administrative and teaching staff and most of the classrooms and labs in the College of Pharmacy are located in one building. Other classrooms shared with other colleges are located in the other building which provides direct access between the male and female sections in the College. This direct access is beneficial to facilitate male and female teachers’ movement between campuses when needed to carry out teaching duties or to attend official meetings. Because this building was located in the female campus, students, administrative and teaching staff did not normally wear their hijabs, i.e. Islamic hair cover. When a male teacher had teaching duties in the building, his visit was organized and coordinated by the group leader of the class he was teaching who was responsible for informing everyone in the floor so that they could wear their hijabs. Some would wear their niqabs, i.e. face veils while others choose to leave the surrounding area. In the College of Pharmacy, one student in each class is chosen by other students to be their group leader. For year-five students, the group leader was chosen when they first joined the College in their second year in the University and she had continued to serve as a leader of her group since then. The group leader played an important role in facilitating students’ engagement with their studies in the College in general and with seminar presentations in particular. Her responsibilities included coordinating communication between teachers and students in relation to lectures, exams and training in hospitals. For the event that was the focus of this research, she
was responsible for issues, such as recording students’ absences, informing students of any change in their schedules, arranging presentations alphabetically, ensuring that there were no repeated topics among her colleagues, providing presenters with copies of evaluation forms before their presentations and collecting these forms to hand to the teacher after the end of their seminar sessions.

Buildings in the university have central air-conditioning which usually creates a noticeable contrast between the low temperatures inside and the usually hot weather outside the buildings. The effect is apparent in students’ preference during breaks to stay inside in the corridors and even in classrooms when they are not used for teaching. There are four small snack stands scattered throughout the buildings, in addition to two considerably larger cafes which are usually busy throughout the day.

The students join the College of Pharmacy after they finish the Preparatory-Year Programme which takes place in a different campus in the University (Figure 4.1). In this programme, students who specialize in scientific fields in their secondary education study a range of subjects, including English, Chemistry, Physics, Biology, Communication Studies, Religious Studies, Maths, Statistics and Information Technology. At the end of this year, students are directed towards colleges depending on their preferences and grades. Students who join the College of Pharmacy are introduced to basic medical sciences in their second and third year. In their fourth and fifth year, students study practical medical and pharmaceutical sciences. Subjects are administered by five departments: Pharmacology and Toxicology, Pharmaceutics and Industrial Pharmacy, Pharmaceutical Chemistry and Natural Products, Clinical Pharmacy and Alternative Medicines.

Students are required to join two training programmes at the end of their third year and fourth year during summer holidays in which they train in hospital departments under the supervision of medical and administrative staff who are requested to write reports regarding students’ practice, learning and development. Before they graduate, students are also required to undergo an internship programme in which they enrol in five clinical rotations in hospitals in their sixth year. Each rotation is concerned with a different department in which students work closely with medical staff in hospitals and interact directly with patients. During these programmes, students are usually requested to make formal presentations to their supervisors and colleagues on patient case studies which they encounter during their training or on specific medications that relate to their training.
Figure 4.1. Progression of studies within the College of Pharmacy
Students in the College graduate after they finish their internship in their sixth year and take an oral assessment which covers their studies in the College. Although the exam’s result is not included in the students’ GPA, it is described in the College’s website as an indication of their knowledge, an evaluation of the effectiveness of their training and education and a way to prepare for their residency if they work in hospitals after graduating. At the end of their six-year study in the university, students graduate with a bachelor PharmD degree. However, to work in hospitals, graduates need to undergo a two-year residency programme in a hospital. Other work opportunities are available for students, such as pharmaceutical companies, pharmacies and laboratories. Academic career opportunities are also available for those with exceptionally high grades.

4.3 The Classroom

The classroom in which seminar sessions took place was a large, rectangular room (Appendix O). The room contained fixed seats, organized into two rows divided by a space in the middle allowing students to move around the room. The classroom was used by year-five students for most lectures, except when they had lab session in the other building. There were two doors in this classroom used by the students which led to the same corridor on the first floor in the College. However, after the course convenor entered the classroom through the front door, students usually confined themselves to using the back door.

A large desk was located at the front of the classroom with a desktop computer. Behind this desk, there was a large white board with three whiteboard markers which were not used during my observations. A PowerPoint Screen was also available but was not used during the observed sessions as presenters displayed their slideshows on the whiteboard. Next to the front door by the wall, there were empty shelves. Under these shelves, there were boxes of A4 paper on the floor, which were usually filled in the early morning by the group leader with copies of tutors’ handouts. The students collected their copies throughout the day, telling the year-five group leader if any extra copies were needed.

When the course convenor entered the classroom, he always sat in one of the middle chairs on the left side of the second row at the front of the class. None of the students sat next to him or in the row behind. For my observations, I chose to sit at the back row of the classroom. Throughout the presentations, different students would sit
by the computer to aid presenters with their PowerPoint slideshows. Once the presentations started, the lights were turned off. They were only turned back on when presenter finished her presentation and the teacher started discussing the presentation with each presenter. Movement never stopped throughout these presentations as students entered and left the classroom quietly during the presentations because they were late, needed to go to the toilets or even to get snacks or coffee within the ten-minute break which usually took place near the middle of seminar sessions. This movement, however, did not seem to disturb any of the observed presenters. According to one of the presenters, this was part of their seminar training highlighted by the course convenor to prepare them for similar disturbances in conferences and professional seminars in hospitals.

4.4 The Course

In this section, I will describe Pharmacy Seminars 2 (PS2) which represents the setting of this investigation. I will start by offering an overview of the course objectives. I will, then, discuss two types of documents which represented integral components in this course. The section is finally concluded by examining how the participants in this study described the significance of the course.

PS2 was run by the Department of Clinical Pharmacy in the College and offered to year-five pharmacy students. It was preceded by Pharmacy Seminars 1 (PS1) which was offered to year-four pharmacy students. Both courses were taught by the same male professor whose visit to the female campus was coordinated through the group leader. PS1 was offered to year-four undergraduates in the College to introduce students to the basics of academic presentations. The first half of PS1 served to introduce students to the principles of public speaking, including aspects such as, verbal and nonverbal communication, organization, audience, language and style. The second half of the course was reserved for students’ presentations. Each student was required to prepare and give a short presentation which lasted from three to five minutes. In these presentations, students were allowed to choose from a variety of topics that did not necessarily relate to medical topics. Some of the chosen topics included fashion, creativity, sea life, and body language. In these presentations, presenters were allowed to use eye-catching semiotic choices to design their slideshows, including animated and still visuals and variations in colour and font of writing because of the general nature of their themes. Although the course convener
allowed these uses in PS1, students recalled that he pointed out that these choices would be considered inappropriate for more formal and professional presentations as in PS2. Each student made one presentation. However, some of the students described being allowed by the course convenor to have a second go at the end of the term because they were not satisfied with their performance. Although most students described the teacher’s assessment during PS1 as tolerant and flexible, having a second chance to present was highly appreciated. For these students, being able to make a second presentation was viewed as an opportunity to improve their images and performances in front of their colleagues.

PS2, on the other hand, was offered to year-five students in the College and it aimed at examining students’ abilities to give longer and more specialized academic presentations. According to the course description (Appendix E), the year-five seminar represented a continuation of Pharmacy Seminar I. This course was designed to provide the students with an opportunity to integrate and apply the multiple components of their knowledge of basic pharmaceutical science to present a formal seminar on a patient case studies or analysis of pharmacy practice problems. Each presentation was expected to last from seven to nine minutes and was carried out in English. The presentation was followed by a thorough discussion with the course convenor that usually lasted around fifteen minutes. The course convenor and presenters regularly mixed Arabic with English while discussing the presentations. Students were required to choose medical topics that demonstrated their pharmaceutical knowledge. Each student had only one opportunity to make her presentation which students believed was due to the longer duration of their presentations and detailed nature of the teacher’s feedback to students in PS2.

Seminar sessions took place every Tuesday at 10:00 am. Each session lasted around two hours and there were usually five or six presenters per session. Students’ participation was alphabetically organized according to a schedule previously-prepared by the group leader. The leader prepared a schedule of the presentation dates and handed it to the course convenor at the beginning of the semester. In addition to setting the date and order of seminar presentations, the schedule was also used to ensure that no topics were shared or repeated among presenters. A student was only
allowed to change the date of her presentation in exceptional circumstances after seeking the course convenor’s direct permission. If her request was accepted, she was required to trade her presentation slot with another presenter so that not to affect the arranged timing.

4.4.1 Course guidelines

During PS1, students were given a detailed handout explaining the basics of formal presentations that were relevant to their participation in PS1 and PS2 (Appendix F). Students described how the course convenor explained the principles of public speaking while highlighting the differences between giving general and specialized presentations. He explained thoroughly each point in the handout and supported his explanation with examples from his experience as a teacher. According to Maram,

He gave us sheets and talked about them in detail, in detail even how to stand. He even gave examples about students, what they did wrong, he would tell us from his own experience.

The teacher’s explanation and instructions enabled students to differentiate between what was allowed and what should be avoided to make successful presentations.

This explanation was surrounded by a tolerant atmosphere in PS1 that appeared in how the teacher reacted to students’ presentations. According to Fatin,

last year, he had plenty of time because he did not discuss our presentations and he did not ask questions about the content. He just said “I liked the presentation but in the beginning, you did this, you did that” and things like that.

Rather than being asked to explain and defend their choices, the teacher’s feedback in PS1 was offered in the form of comments, pointing out the positive and negative
aspects of their work. He did not seem to expect the presenters to follow the norms and conventions he introduced immediately and that was appreciated by presenters because it allowed them to build deeper understanding of what they needed to do to make successful presentations in a more tolerant and relaxed atmosphere without worrying about receiving negative criticism from the teacher and losing their grades.

Although the students were given copies of these guidelines, they did not seem to consult the handout when preparing their presentations in PS2. They rather relied on their notes and recollections of the teacher’s explanation and directions which shaped many of the decisions in their PS2 presentations. Use of PowerPoint, for example, was one of the aspects which were highlighted in the course guidelines (Figure 4.2). Its use among participants, however, was shaped by their recollections of the course convenor’s instructions.

Figure 4.2. Reference to PowerPoint in course guidelines

According to Hind,

He taught us how PowerPoint is done, he said “girls, some colours are forbidden, don’t use them”. There are things he doesn’t like, dark backgrounds and yellow or red colours.

There were, however, many practices associated with PowerPoint use which extended beyond the ones suggested in the guidelines above. As students repeatedly spoke
about compositional practices which they considered essential to make acceptable slideshows and professional presentations, their attention was directed towards the teacher’s explanations and instructions presented in class more than the list of rules and instructions offered in the course guidelines. They were aware that there were many essential textual practices associated with slideshow design that were not clarified or even pointed out in the handout. Minimal use of writing on slides, for instance, appeared to be a major concern among presenters. For many of them, the reference to maintain 9 to 12 lines on each slide was described as “too much” (Figure 4. 2). Although they recognized the possibility to include more writing, they rarely did because it seemed inconsistent with the teacher’s repeated warnings to them against overcrowding their slides with writing. Within the observed presentations, it seemed acceptable among presenters to keep that number of lines for displaying lists and bulleted points, such as symptoms or references while detailed explanations were kept at minimum and were often distributed across slides.

In spite of the considerable time spent in PS1 to explain and elaborate on the course guidelines, participants did not consider these guidelines as a rigid blueprint for successful participation in this event. They approached them in terms of the course convenor’s explanations, instructions and advice which were used as reliable criteria to make their presentations successfully and ensure a positive assessment.

One important comment regarding Hind’s quote above is her use of ‘girls’ to refer to female students in the College. Rather than describing or addressing students as ‘students’ or ‘female students’, the student often used and were described as ‘girls’. Similarly, male students were described and addressed as ‘boys’ rather than ‘students’ or ‘male students’. The use of ‘girls’ represented a common practice in daily contacts, such as lectures and casual conversations that seemed to reflect the observable familiarity and close relationships among students and this also extended to how teachers and administrative staff addressed and spoke about students. The more formal ‘students’ or ‘female students’ was usually used in official documentation, conferences and workshops.

4.4.2 Evaluation Sheet

The evaluation sheet was another stable document that was consistently used in PS2. The sheet showed a table which was divided into four major elements, including Introduction, Main Point, Conclusion and Delivery. These elements were
also divided into sub-points which was each assessed against a score of 10. Each presenter had a copy of this sheet in which she wrote her name and university registration number and handed it to the course convenor before presenting in PS2 (Appendix G). The teacher returned the sheet to the presenter after discussing her work and writing down the presenter’s grade in each point. Although he did not include written comments on presenters’ work, students used this form to find out their overall grades and understand how their work had been assessed in each point. After each session, the group leader collected the sheets from the presenters and gave them back to the teacher. Presenters attached considerable significance to the evaluation sheet and that appeared in how they discussed their evaluation sheets with each other after seminar sessions.

In addition to its use to record presenters’ grades, many presenters used this sheet as a quick checklist before presenting because it provided a concise list of the main points that they were assessed for as presenters. Salwa, for instance, used the sheet to ensure that she paid adequate attention to each point.

Researcher: Do you use this sheet while preparing?
Salwa: Yes, for example the attention, how I am going to achieve it, even the introduction so that I get the attention point. For credibility, I put the websites to...
achieve **credibility**. The **overview** I need to put the points I am going to talk about.

Researcher: This is the **outline** you put at the beginning?

Salwa: Yes ((reading the sheet)) the **organization**, how to move from one point to another, how I would control myself, how I put things in order. **Clarity** means I talk about a topic that is clear for everyone, they would understand what I am saying, it needs to be put in a simple way. He taught us the **conclusion** could be a **summary** and we can also put something **emotional**, something powerful to finish my presentation. Also, we speak at the end of the presentation with a lower voice so that I would let the person know that I have finished.

Researcher: Aha, prepare him for it?

Salwa: Yes, the **vocal variety**, how I can attract attention.

Considering the sheet as a representation of a concise outline of the basic elements in slideshows in PS2, Salwa looked at each point in the sheet in terms of the teacher’s prior explanation and instructions in PS1 which helped her to recognize what was prioritized in this event and how it could be achieved.

Other participants did not look at the evaluation sheet in the same light. Maram, for example, used it as a quick checklist to finalize her preparation for the presentation without attaching considerable significance to its use as a documentation of assessment.
Maram: I look at it and read it quickly to see the rules which I must follow.

Researcher: Do you follow them carefully?
Maram: No, I don’t focus on them. I don’t even check the grades to see where I lost grades. I didn’t even see it today. I asked him how much did I get? Just tell me.

In Maram’s case, the evaluation sheet was used because it was an official document in this event that presenters were required to keep. Relying on her recollections of the teacher’s explanation of the guidelines in PS1 (See 4.4.1), she did not focus on the sheet as an outline to be closely followed for a successful presentation. What seemed to be more interesting was her approach to the sheet’s use as a record of assessment. Within the observed presentations in this event, the course convenor discussed presenters’ work by giving comments and asking questions after each presentation. He did not announce presenters’ grades except when a presenter received a full grade on her presentation. Because most presenters found out their grades through the evaluation sheet, the sheet was integral to the structure of this literacy event that presenters looked up to. Its significance was apparent in students’ talks with each other after their presentations when they showed their sheets to each other and discussed the grades they received. Rather than following this common practice, Maram did not wait to look at her sheet to find out her grade. Instead she asked the teacher at the end of his feedback about her grade, giving the sheet a subsidiary position that was not as prioritized as it was with most presenters.

4.4.3 Significance of seminar presentations: participants’ views

Beyond the official purpose of PS2 introduced earlier (See 4.4), participants considered participation in seminar presentations essential for their education and development for a number of reasons. For many of these students, engaging in seminar presentations helped them to develop essential academic skills in the College. Salwa described how the course introduced her to basic skills, including

كيف أنا راح أبحث، طريقة قرائتي، طريقة معرفتي للمعلومات، طريقة بحثي (.) لو إجنا عمينا presentations في المواد الثانية، يكون أدائنا فيها حيكون أفضل (.) ما أقول حاجة غلط، لازم أنا أكون فاهمة إش أقول. يعني هو كان يعلمنا إنتي ذحين واقفة تقولي
how I look for information, how I read, how I find out information, the way I search (.) so even if we make presentations in other courses, our performance will be better (.) I don’t say something wrong. I must understand what I am talking about. He taught us that when you are informing people, people will adopt your information. It is not appropriate to tell your opinions to people. You need to point out that this is your personal opinion. What do I want from your personal opinion? What is true? Tell us your opinion. How do you put your opinion? Say this is my opinion.

For Salwa, participating in seminar presentations paved the way to access significant skills, such as searching for information, assessing the quality of her search and recognizing the difference between scientific information and personal opinions.

Engaging in seminar presentations was associated with specific expectations and requirements that presenters needed to recognize and embrace to develop their identity as professionals. The skills that they had access to in this literacy event in seminar presentations were not only confined to representation and communication of scientific knowledge, but also entailed a recognition and appreciation of the need to enhance their accountability as professionals. Engaging in this course sharpened their awareness of the need to assess the quality of their presented information and provide their audience with credible information to establish themselves as trustworthy and accountable professionals. Their responsibilities entailed their ability to differentiate between their positions as individuals entitled to have their personal opinions and their developing statuses as professionals whose ethical responsibilities required them to assess their performance in relation to its impact on the audience.

For other students, the benefits of participating in seminar presentations extended to other studies in the College. Layla, for example, described the significance of this course in terms of its relevance to their future responsibilities beyond this event.
This course is good why? Because last year in the first term, he gave us the basics, but you will have to present afterwards your graduation project, present in conferences and next year, you will have a case presentation in the internship programme almost every week so you need this, but it will not be like this where the others are all pharmacists. There will also be doctors, nurses and supervisors on patients’ cases, so you need to learn how to be professional in what you do.

Layla valued the course because it introduced her to the basics of giving formal presentations. These basics were needed in other events in which making presentations was associated with specific requirements and expectations that this course helped them to identify and address. It paved the way to develop a professional image that was important not only to perform in front of their colleagues in this event, but also to work among professionals from other fields in more challenging contexts.

Participating in this event was also significant for participants’ future work in hospitals after graduating. According to Samya,
doctor, the physician who has authority. They marginalize pharmacists a bit, but now they understand to some extent what it means to be a clinical pharmacist, not an ordinary pharmacist.

Despite the fact that colleges of pharmacy have been established in Saudi Arabia for some time, many students talked about feeling unappreciated in comparisons to physicians in hospitals. They described how they were often considered as pharmacists whose role was confined to pharmacies rather than doctors of pharmacy whose academic and professional qualifications allowed them to be directly involved with patients and assume responsibility in patient care in hospitals. Samya drew on her experiences in PS1 and PS2 because she believed they would facilitate her ability to develop persuasive skills that she needed to empower her as a Doctor of Pharmacy and address her future professional responsibilities successfully.

Even for students who were not interested in working in hospitals after graduating, working on their seminar presentations promised a potentially positive impact on their careers. Maram who was planning to work in a pharmaceutical company after graduating found the course to be particularly relevant for her plan.

It is very useful in companies. The most important thing is make my personality strong. I can talk. So when you stand here, you are ready and you know you are ready.

The skills and knowledge she had access to allowed Maram to develop as a competent speaker. In addition to learning the basics of making academic presentations, it developed her ability to trust her preparation and ability to talk and communicate with others. These were essential skills for working in pharmaceutical companies in which she needed to demonstrate her authority and confidence while interacting and working with other employees.

In addition to these academic and professional benefits, presenters considered seminar presentations significant for personal and social reasons. According to Lamar,
Breaking away from fear of speaking in front of others was a common issue among participants who repeatedly highlighted how managing stress, fear and anxieties associated with public speaking represented a major challenge they needed to address while making their presentations. As this course represented a required component of their year-five studies, its obligatory nature was appreciated by presenters as a way to face their challenges. This was also highlighted by Hind who described how working on this presentation allowed her to address her fear of speaking in front of others.

The most important thing for me is that it makes me face the audience in a way. I mean it decreases a little bit the fear although I get really scared ((laughing)) and so when I present in front of my friends, it is different from being in the middle of an audience like this. I feel it is a bit scary. To be honest, the most important thing is that it decreases this fear. It gives you confidence. I mean for me, in the course, I do not like to participate. I mean if it is optional, I wouldn’t frankly do it. If he made it optional, I wouldn’t have participated. There are things that I feel they have to force me like this to feel that I am facing the cannon and let’s go.
Hind identified the difference between speaking in front of her close friends and publicly presenting in front of a larger audience as in this course which included the teacher and other year-five students. She appreciated the mandatory nature of the course because it forced her to face her fear of public speaking and shyness. Although these challenges were not comfortable to face and address and entailed extensive work and thorough preparation, being put in a situation in which they were required to present in front of others was seen as an opportunity to attend to these fears, demonstrate to others their preparation, knowledge and hard work and develop confidence in their ability to participate in this event.

In their accounts above, participants pointed out the significance of seminar presentations for them which moved beyond the official purpose of this course. Learning basic academic skills represented an essential aspect of this significance. Others included sustaining their image among other professionals and addressing personal challenges.

**4.5 Exploring Relationships in the College**

The interactions between the members of this relatively small community represented one of the significant aspects that shaped how presenters engaged with this literacy event. In this section, I will focus on three types of interactions in this community. These types included examinations of students’ relations with administrative and academic staff in the College, with the course convenor and finally with each other.

**4.5.1 Students’ relations with administrative and academic staff**

The students’ interactions with administrative and academic staff in this event represented one of the first issues that drew my attention and I took note of in my research journal. There was a noticeable warm atmosphere surrounding these interactions that was accompanied, at the same time, by a formal and respectful attitude among members in this community towards each other. I noticed this atmosphere during my first visit to the College while I was waiting to meet the Vice Dean. At that time, I noticed how the Vice Dean’s secretary’s office was usually filled by students who were asking to meet the Vice Dean for a variety of reasons which included their studies in the College and training in hospitals. Some of these students requested to make appointments while others needed to meet the Vice Dean as soon as possible. Unlike the more distant and rigid relationships I am used to in some of the
other Colleges in the university, the attention given to students by working staff was particularly interesting. Even during the mid-term exams in the College which took place near the middle of my stay to conduct this study, members of staff were repeatedly checking on students before and after exams. They asked students about their exams and encouraged them to continue to work hard to graduate successfully.

These observations were also echoed in participants’ accounts as they described their experiences in the College and how they found the atmosphere that surrounded their interactions with administrative and teaching staff to be quite the opposite of what they were expecting before joining the College. Rahaf’s experience in the College, for example, contrasted considerably with her brother’s experience. Before joining the university, Rahaf’s brother studied engineering at the same university, but he did not have positive memories of his university studies.

My brother studied engineering here. Before I came to study here, he told me “Rahaf there are doctors, Rahaf be careful with them, some doctors do this, do that”. But here I saw something completely different. When I tell him, he is shocked. Why? I feel teachers here are aware you will become, I don’t know, I think so, you will become a doctor. You will face people. It doesn’t work to belittle you all the time, you feel that, even with other doctors not only this teacher. They keep telling you all the time that you matter, you are someone important.

Despite her brother’s warnings which were grounded in his memories of studying in the university, Rahaf built on her own experience in the College to form a more positive opinion. Associating teachers’ attitude towards students with the nature of their studies and future responsibilities, Rahaf looked at that attitude and the
atmosphere it created in light of its impact on her confidence and its relation to her professional development.

Similarly, Layla contrasted her experience with her sister’s experience in a different college in the same university.

I didn’t pay attention to this at the beginning. I didn’t frankly pay attention to this in my second year, maybe because I just joined the department. I noticed that the following year. Also, because of my sister, my sister doesn’t know how the dean of her college looks like, yes, she joined the university before me. She was always telling what happened with her, a teacher told them off, another teacher did that, but when I came it was completely different. Maybe that’s why I paid attention to these things. I think your sense of belonging to the College is better if you take care of this issue. Frankly, I think it is impossible for my sister to go back to say hi or talk to a doctor she used to hate. It is really bad to have your university education depressing, and it takes time: four, five years of your life.

While Rahaf associated teachers’ treatment of students with its impact on their confidence and professional development, Layla focused on its effect of enhancing their feelings of belonging in their community. She appreciated the atmosphere in the College because it allowed her to enjoy her university experience and it nurtured her feelings of belonging to this community which was not available to her sister. In contrast to her sister who did not even know what the Dean of her college looked like,
Layla studied in a community in which students directly interacted with administrative and academic staff in a way that was shaped by mutual respect and appreciation.

The effect of the positive atmosphere described by presenters above extended beyond the development of positive feelings and experiences in the College. It appeared in how students relied on seeking help from different teachers to engage with academic tasks in the College. In relation to PS2 in particular, presenters asked regularly for help from different members of staff to prepare their presentations. Hind, for example, consulted one of the other teachers in the College to support her discussion of chemotherapy-induced vomiting and nausea. Because her status as a student did not allow her to visit any hospital and directly examine the effects of chemotherapy on patients, Hind consulted one of the other teachers whose clinical experience in patient care provided her with this type of information to understand how treatment was applied in hospitals. Reaching out to seek help from other teachers in the College was also helpful to students to choose and prepare their graduation projects.

In this section, I examined how students described their relations with the administrative and academic staff in the College. These were shaped by positive feelings that nurtured students’ feelings of belonging in their community, sustained their self-confidence, helped them to develop as professionals and encouraged them to interact with other professionals.

4.5.2 Students’ interactions with the course convenor

Students’ interactions with the course convenor had a considerable impact on how they engaged with seminar presentations. These interactions echoed the general atmosphere in the College described in the previous section, but were not only centred around seminar presentations. I observed many instances in which the course convenor engaged students in decisions related to their studies. For example, he regularly consulted them to coordinate lecture times with their mid-term exams. In addition, he frequently discussed the College’s attempts to gain accreditation with students. In these discussions, the teacher asked for students’ opinions and suggestions, clarified the need for accreditation and explained the potential impact such a move could have on their academic qualifications and professional practice. Engaging students in these discussions encouraged students to view themselves as
active members in their community whose input and opinions were sought, listened to and valued.

Participants were particularly appreciative of the course convenor’s sharing of his experiences as a teacher and as a student with them. As a teacher, his explanations of the course guidelines in PS1 and his feedback to presenters in PS2 were associated with what he had observed over the years among students he taught (See 4.4.1). These were not seen by students as stories told to fill up time. They were rather cherished and appreciated because they paved the way for a better understanding of the requirements and expectations that they needed to recognize and embrace to participate successfully in this event. From these experiences, students learned about the need to pay attention to issues such as, avoiding overuse of decorative images, searching for new and innovative topics, deepening their knowledge of the local context and rehearsing their presentations extensively.

The course convenor’s experiences as a student were also significant for students because they provided them with a promise of hope that it was possible to overcome their difficulties and address the challenges they faced. The teacher told students about the challenges he faced and how he managed to overcome these challenges which included improving his English language skills, learning the basics of formal presentations, establishing himself as a professional in pharmacy and building connections with other professionals in their field. Students drew on and appreciated these experiences to imagine more positive possibilities for themselves. Fatin used the teacher’s experiences to assess her own ability to succeed.

إذا هو يقدر ينجح و يصير دكتور أنا كمان يمديني أسوي اللي أبغاه.

if he can succeed and become a doctor, I can also do anything I want.

Fatin’s view was specifically related to the difficulties she faced with speaking and improving her English language skills. She enrolled in language courses, watched English TV shows and listened to English songs, but her language did not improve in the way she was hoping. Yet, she did not give up because there was hope that she could survive these challenges after graduating, improve her language skills and do whatever she wanted to do, just like the teacher. This view was inspired by the course
convenor’s recollections of the extensive efforts he needed to exert to improve his English, study abroad and attain a PhD. Fatin’s concerns with the demands of total reliance on English while presenting were overwhelming, but listening to the teacher’s experiences created hope that made her challenges appear manageable.

The course convenor had a considerable impact on students’ engagement in this event. In addition to the academic skills and knowledge that he introduced to students to, participants appreciated his attempts to involve and broaden their engagement in the College. They built on his experiences as a teacher to improve their work, familiarize themselves with disciplinary norms and conventions and enhance their belonging to this community. His experiences as a student were also significant because they provided a promise of hope for students as they imagined the possibility of overcoming their challenges and achieving their goals.

### 4.5.3 Students’ relationships with each Other

Another significant type of relationships in this community appeared in students’ close interactions with each other which had developed since they joined the College. There were two dimensions to these interactions: mandatory and voluntary. Many of the academic activities and tasks in the College of Pharmacy required students to work in groups, rather than individually. These included assignments, presentations and lab experiments. At the time this study was conducted, the year-five students were divided into groups to prepare and work on their graduation projects which were to be presented in the following year. Their work included dividing the workload among members of each group, searching for information and planning how to present their projects. Groups would regularly meet throughout the day whenever they had free time and they regularly stayed late after finishing their lectures. Working in these groups required them to coordinate their efforts to ensure making a successful project and attaining a positive assessment.

Working in groups exceeded the mandatory tasks and activities in the College in which they were required to collaborate with each other. It also appeared in a wide range of activities and tasks in which students provided support and offered assistance to each other voluntarily. In relation to this event, although seminar presentations did not require students to work in groups, participants’ accounts highlighted the impact that students had on each other. These moved beyond the closed-circuit of year-five students to include students in other year groups, including students who had already
graduated. These relations shaped participants’ engagement with seminar presentations in diverse ways. They surfaced, for example, in the help they provided for each other to choose their topics, prepare their presentations and anticipate the teacher’s feedback.

Hind described how she relied on senior students’ help to prepare her PS1 presentation. As PS1 and PS2 were both usually taught by the same course convenor, relying on senior students and their experiences allowed students to benefit from their advice and experiences. That advice assisted the presenters in many aspects, such as choosing topics that would be approved by the course convenor and fit within the expectations and requirements identified in this event.

Reaching out to her more experienced colleagues was a valuable resource for Hind to facilitate her work in PS1. Although choosing a topic for their presentations in PS1 did not represent a considerable challenge for students because of the general nature of topics and the flexible assessment criteria, presenters’ reliance on colleagues’ feedback and assistance reflected their desire to perform well and showed the deep impact they had on each other. The help that senior and more experienced students offered additionally facilitated the anticipation of the course convenor’s feedback and paved the way for a more positive assessment. These were important issues for presenters and they provided invaluable access to understanding and embracing some of the norms and conventions associated with seminar presentations. Beyond the course guidelines and the course convenor’s explanation and instructions, students’ assistance and feedback were appreciated and were later missed as students moved on with their studies and lost part of the support system that having senior students in the
same College presented. This assistance, however, was carried on as year-five students assisted and cooperated with year-four students in seminar presentations and other academic tasks. For them, in the same way they benefited from other students’ experiences, it was part of their educational responsibility to help and support less experienced students and new comers to the College.

In addition to relying on senior students’ help, participants also relied on help from their year-five colleagues to improve their preparation and performance before presenting in front of the course convenor. This was especially evident in their reliance on each other’s’ feedback on different aspects of their presentations, including topic choice, presentational skills and slideshow design. Layla, for example, described how her focus on preparing her presentation and slideshow design did not leave her considerable time to rehearse the presentation individually or with her colleagues. To compensate for this, Layla asked one of her colleagues to listen to her present on the day of her presentation. Although she was confident in her preparation, seeking her colleague’s help offered her a better opportunity to work on her presentation and improve her performance.

Layla appreciated and embraced her colleague’s comments because they drew her attention to aspects that she missed while preparing her presentation. They allowed her to assess and review her presentational skills and the content of her presentation in relation to the presentational norms and conventions in PS2 by anticipating the teacher’s feedback and offering Layla an opportunity to create a better presentation.
that aligned with the teacher’s expectations. She worked on the pace of her talk and included the illustrative information suggested to her and avoided the potentially negative comments that would have been given by the teacher.

The significance that presenters attached to their colleagues’ views and comments was not only related to their search for and appreciation of colleagues’ feedback. Participants also highlighted how studying and working with other students closely in this small community created considerable concerns among them about how they were perceived by their colleagues. These concerns appeared sometimes to outweigh the positive impact of their colleagues’ assistance, comments and advice. The close relationships described earlier which encouraged presenters to seek their colleagues’ help and nurtured their reliance on each other were not embraced by all presenters. Some students described their relations with each other, not in terms of how close they grew over the years or the extent of help they provided to each other in relation to academic tasks and responsibilities, but rather in terms of their concerns about how their familiarity with each other would put them in situations in which they were judged. Making a mistake, being confused or hesitating while presenting were not only avoided because of the impact on their assessment, but also because they would create a bad reputation to presenters that may not be easily forgotten afterwards in this small community. Although students generally relied on collaborating with each other to prepare for their presentations in this event, many were concerned with their ability to embrace and convincingly project the image of a successful presenter who was in total control of the complex demands within this event.

An example of this view appeared in Lamar’s description of her experience in the university. Lamar described herself as a high-achieving and confident student who looked forward to and enjoyed participating in workshops, conferences and other academic activities. Lamar’s description of her experience, however, brought to light her concerns over the image she projected to her colleagues, the impact that her work had on them and the reputation she created for herself in this community. To prepare her PS2 presentation, Lamar relied on her colleagues’ assistance to seek their feedback and rehearse her presentation. Yet, she considered her colleagues’ feedback and comments to be an unavoidable source of concern and stress because, albeit the vitality of their assistance, they put her under pressure associated with feeling judged and worrying about not appearing as competent as she wanted to be.
She compared her experience in PS2 with a previous short presentation she made in her first year in the university. Like many other presenters, Lamar described presentations in the Preparatory-Year Programme as more manageable and easier to make and perform because they were shorter, less demanding and were usually carried out in Arabic. There was, however, another reason that made her look back favourably at that early experience. She found it specifically easier to manage because of the nature of her audience at that time who consisted of colleagues she did not know well and was not likely going to see them again after the end of the course when students finished their Preparatory-Year programme and moved into different colleges.

Lamar: أنا كنت أتكلم قدام ناس ما أعرفهم، كلهم اللي كانو معايا ما كانو صاحباتي. كنت بن أشوفهم في دا الم class، بعكس هادولا. يفرق الناس لما تعرفهم ولا.

الباحثة: Which is better?

Lamar: لما ما تعرفهم

الباحثة: لما ما تعرفهم أحسن؟

Lamar: إيوة

الباحثة: أه، غريبة توقعت العكس. ليش طيب اشرح لي؟

لمار: لأنو ما تعرفهم، تحسي عادي حتى لو غلطتي، خصصتي، بعد كدا خلاص مع السلامة. ما كنتشوفهم ولا تعرف في عنهم أي حاجة. بعكس لما إنك تعرفهم.

وضوعك حلص في باليهم، و حصيرتو يفتكروك انيتي بتدا الشبي يعني، ايوة فيمسك في باليهم. و على فكرة كل واحدة لو سألتها، هادي ثلاثه إن شوت عرض، على طول حتقوللك سوت عن كدا و كدا، لأنو يلصق في باليهم موضوعك و انيتي اللي قلتها ( ) فيمسك في باليهم و يظلو يفتكروك بهادي الفكرة، إنو انيتي ما سويت كوبس. أحش في احتمال، ما أدري أحش لما إنك تكلم قدام ناس ما تعرفهم يكون أحسن. أنا بالنسبة لي لما ناس ما تعرفهم يكون أحسن في كل شي، عشان تتجنب تقيمهم و آرائهم.

Lamar: I was speaking in front of people I don’t know. All of them weren’t really my friends. I saw them only in that class, unlike those here. It makes a difference if you know the people or not.

Researcher: Which is better?
Lamar: When you don’t know them.
Researcher: When you don’t know them is better?
Lamar: Yes.
Researcher: Ah, I thought it was going to be the opposite. Why is that? Explain it for me.
Lamar: Because when you don’t know them, you feel it is OK. Even if you make a mistake or get confused, bye, bye, you won’t see them and you won’t know anything about them. Unlike when you know them, your topic will remain in their heads and they will always remember you with this thing. Yes, it will remain in their minds. And by the way if you ask anyone what every girl did, they will immediately tell you because it is stuck in their heads and they will continue to remember what you said. It will be stuck in their heads and they will always have this idea of you that you did not do well. I think it’s possible, I don’t know, I feel if I speak in front of people I don’t know, it is better. For me, if you don’t know the people, it is better in everything, to avoid their judgement and opinions.

For Lamar, the absence of close and intimate relations with colleagues in the Preparatory-Year studies empowered her. The pressure of sustaining a specific image or creating a positive reputation was not present in that presentation because her engagement with colleagues was almost momentary and paused no long-term effects on her studies or career. This differed considerably when she joined the College of Pharmacy because their education was focused around developing as professional pharmacists within a relatively-small community.

As students had been working closely with each other since they first joined the College, their growing familiarity did not only result in creating strong and close relations that allowed them to develop their trust and confidence in each other. It was also associated with concerns about how they were viewed by their colleagues. Fear of
being judged or seen as incompetent or less efficient represented real concerns that shaped their views of themselves and others. Lamar’s sense of relief which accompanied her Preparatory-Year presentation came into sharp contrast with the impact that her regular contact and familiarity with her colleagues in the College was creating for her. It was true that their collaboration facilitated their engagement in this event and other academic tasks, but the resultant familiarity created real concerns and fears of being judged as incompetent presenters and professionals.

In this section, I looked at the relationships that connected students with each other in this community. Whether these relationships reflected the mandatory tasks they were required to work on or the voluntary help they provided for each other, participants generally appreciated their colleagues’ help and feedback which helped to facilitate their engagement in seminar presentations. At the same time, these relationships were associated with fears and concerns among students regarding their reputation and image as professionals among other members in this community.

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter was dedicated to describe the context that surrounded seminar presentations. The description attended first to the physical setting in the College of Pharmacy and the classroom in which seminar presentations took place. I also described the year-five PS2 and its connection to PS1. Description highlighted two important types of documents that shaped students’ engagement in this event; the course guidelines and the valuation sheet. I also examined the significance attached to seminar presentations by the participants in this study. The chapter was concluded by paying special attention to the relationships surrounding students’ interactions with administrative and academic staff, the course convenor and each other.

The analysis in this chapter highlighted the special status that students attached to the teacher in this event which exceeded his official position as convenor of the course to include the deeper impact he had on presenters. To engage with their presentations, participants drew on their teacher’s instructions, explanation, advice and experiences to navigate through the responsibilities they faced in PS2. These were also relevant to how participants employed the official documents in PS2 which they understood in different ways. Although the course guidelines detailed the set of rules and norms that they needed to adopt to make successful presentations, presenters depended on their recollections of the teacher’s explanations of these rules. Their use
of the evaluation sheet exceeded its original purpose as a detailed record of assessment to include employing it as a quick checklist to ensure that they paid attention to the aspects on the sheet they were assessed for.

The chapter also highlighted how the participants in this study valued seminar presentations for different reasons. Engaging in these presentations provided them with access to essential academic and professional skills that they needed to facilitate their studies in the university and prepare for future responsibilities after graduation. The mandatory nature that shaped participation in seminar presentations was particularly appreciated because it forced students to move beyond their comfort zone and encouraged them to face their fears and address their challenges.

Special attention was dedicated in this chapter to explore the relationships and interactions that connected students with the administrative and academic staff, the course convenor and each other. These relations seemed to be geared towards enhancing students’ feelings of belonging to this professional community in which they were appreciated, valued and listened to. They were also required to act and think like active members in their community in terms of supporting each other and learning from others’ experiences. Yet, at the same time, the analysis clearly pointed out that this community was not unified and problem-free. Although students relied on each other’s support, assistance and feedback, their close contact with each other and its resultant familiarity and intimacy had considerable negative impact on students which was manifested in the concerns they developed towards the image and reputation that coloured how they were perceived by their colleagues. They were not only worried about attaining positive feedback and high grades from their teacher. They were equally worried about how their colleagues looked at them and assessed their skills and performance.
Chapter 5  Engaging in Seminar Presentations

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss four major themes highlighted through examining participants’ accounts of their experiences in seminar presentations. These themes reflect the decisions that presenters prioritized while preparing and making their presentations. They also reflect how participants related to the norms, conventions and expectations that shaped the making of presentations in this community. I will first start by discussing the attention that participants paid and the efforts they exerted to stand out among their colleagues. Then, I move to consider the various resources that presenters relied on to make professional presentations. After that, I look at how participants’ previous experiences in PS1 shaped their engagement with PS2. The chapter will be concluded by discussing the role that extensive rehearsing and practice played in participants’ engagement in this event.

5.2 Being Different

For year-five students, PS2 was a course framed by specific conventions and expectations to which they were introduced in PS1. Working within this frame was challenging and required considerable efforts, but it was considered as a guarantee to successfully participate in this event and attain positive feedback from the course convenor. Presenters’ attention to this frame, however, did not mean that their presentations were identical or similar to each other. In fact, participants often talked about the need to stand out among their colleagues in this community. Efforts to stand out resonated with their recollections of the course convener’s call to them in PS1 to offer presentations in which they could “be different” and “make a difference” among their colleagues.

Being different was vital for making a successful presentation, but it was interpreted by participants in different ways. Some presenters connected it to their topic choice and their ability to provide their audience with new information. Salwa, for example, attached considerable significance to choosing a topic through which she could offer new information to her audience.
This year I began looking for a topic in the summer holidays. I began to think: what is a good topic? Because he taught us to choose a topic that **makes a difference** which means that I need to bring a new topic. Even if it is an old topic, I say new information. I say it with interesting information. I was worried about bringing a good topic.

For Salwa, it was not necessarily important to choose a topic that was not heard of before as long as she was able to bring something new to her audience and enrich their knowledge. She made her presentation about a drug that was recently approved in the United States at the time and was not yet introduced in Saudi Arabia.

Her choice was acknowledged as a good topic and was even rewarded by the course convener’s positive feedback after finishing her presentation when he told Salwa انعلمتني حاجة جديدة

you taught me something new

Although Salwa answered the teacher’s questions and addressed his comments successfully, she was particularly proud of the teacher’s comment above because it acknowledged the value of her choice and the success of her judgement and showed his approval of her decision. She was not only able to inform her colleagues, but she also informed the teacher whom she looked up to and worked to follow his instructions.

Within the observed presentations, the course convenor repeatedly drew students’ attention to the need to build their audience knowledge and enrich their experiences. Making a seminar presentation extended beyond collecting and sharing information to ensuring the quality of what they presented. Salwa’s choice addressed this need not only because of this common expectation, but also because it reflected her understanding of how to stand out among other presenters. The success of her decision was evident through the impact it created on the course convenor whose acknowledgement of Salwa’s work and comment on her choice indicated the efficiency of her efforts to be different among other presenters.

For other presenters, being different was not necessarily related to bringing new information or choosing a new topic. Standing out among their colleagues was rather associated with the choices and decisions they took while making their presentations. Fatin, for example, described her topic, i.e. Poly Cystic Ovarian Symptoms (PCOS) as a
common, medical syndrome that had been discussed before in seminar presentations in other year groups. She believed, however, that PCOS represented a good topic choice because it was a common and serious health issue that affected many women in the society. As professionals in pharmacy, presenters had a responsibility to discuss common health issues because of their impact on people. For Fatin, standing out and being different in this community was not dictated by the newness of the topic. It was rather associated with having an individual touch in making her presentation that distinguished her work from other presentations and allowed her to stand out.

In my opinion, a good presentation should be as the teacher said “be different”. This is the base how I chose my topic. Maybe another girl chose it five years ago. Diabetes for example everyone makes a presentation about diabetes. What is the difference between this and that? so what is it? As he says be different. Be yourself, so I talk about diabetes my own way. I say it in my own way.

Being different for Fatin entailed the need to “be herself” and to present herself as a unique individual whose choices were different from other presenters. She designed her presentation in a way that manifested her understanding of how to be different and fit with her desire to assert her individuality.

Two specific design choices indicated Fatin’s work to be different from other presenters. First, she was the only presenter within the observed presentations to use a video to explain the development of PCOS. Videos in this community were generally described by students as efficient and supportive tools for creating successful presentations. Lamar described them as

من أكثر الأشياء اللي تدعم العرض
one of the main things which support presentations
Lamar’s view was commonly embraced by the participants in this study who expressed their admiration of presentations which employed videos successfully. Despite this common admiration, few presenters actually incorporated videos in their presentations because they considered their use to be challenging and potentially problematic. According to Layla,

videos may or may not work. I hate technical problems that happen with them and you will lose grades because of them, and you will also be held accountable if they do not work properly, and also it won’t look good in front of the teacher.

Although students considered videos as a useful and informative tool to support seminar presentations, only two presenters used videos in this event. I was able to observe one, i.e. Fatin and I was told about the other by Lamar. The efforts required to incorporate any video in a presentation presented a serious challenge because it was not an easily-achieved goal to display the video while explaining it thoroughly and incorporating it in the presentation smoothly. There was a considerable risk that a video may not work properly with the rest of the slideshow. There were also concerns that a presenter may not be able to coordinate explanation of the video with other sections of her presentation. Although presenters had no control over all the potential problems that may occur with using videos, it was their responsibility to manage videos efficiently if they decided to include them because the course convenor held them accountable towards every decision they took in the making of their presentations.

With this common view of video use, Fatin was the only one among the seventeen observed presenters to include a video in her presentation. During the second practice session that I was invited to attend, Fatin approached me to ask for help with revising the accuracy of her language while explaining the video. When I interviewed Fatin after the presentation, she described to me how she used a video in her year-four presentation, but without much success.
The video was over and I wasn’t done yet. This happened to me and I went to the screen to show them what was going on. I tried to speak faster with the video, but it is with time too and it is more difficult, and that’s why the girls don’t use it (…………). Maybe because the video doesn’t have anything written, most girls are scared to say all the talk. Maybe I will forget the talk. With the video, you need to be connected to the talk and (x) how you present with the video. It doesn’t work to explain in one side and the video in another and the timing too, if the video is over and you didn’t finish talking, you won’t look good. It is finished and you are not (…………). A video makes things easier because it allows me to explain better to people.

Fatin’s experience with using a video in PS1 was not a positive one because she could not coordinate its use successfully with the rest of her presentation. The difficulties she faced with managing her time and connecting the content of the video with her speech reflected some of the common concerns with video use among her colleagues who viewed videos as challenging tools not only because they affected presenters’ performance and assessment, but also because they could potentially affect the professional and competent image that presenters worked hard to create and maintain while presenting. Fatin, however, challenged common fears of videos among her colleagues and her negative experience in PS1 and used a video in PS2 to bring the special touch she aspired to offer in her discussion of this common topic within a community whose members admired, but feared and avoided the use of videos in presentations. In addition to the fact that she found the video to be informative and helpful to her audience to understand the topic, defying common fears and concerns provided her with a way to be different from other presenters.
Fatin’s attempts to stand out were also evident in the unique colours she chose for her slideshow. In contrast to the other observed presenters who usually relied on light-coloured backgrounds with a mixture of black and blue writing, she chose dark blue for the background of her slides and a mixture of white and different shades of pink for her writing (Figure 5.1).

The colours Fatin chose reflected her personal preferences which contrasted considerably with commonly-used and expected colour choices in this community. The dark background echoed her personal preference for dark colours while drawing on the socially common association of shades of pink with females created a sense of harmony between the content of her presentation and its form.

Fatin believed that these specific choices in colour enhanced the appearance of her presentation because they appeared to her to be logical and justifiable. These choices, however, were not favourably viewed by the course convenor who, rather than considering her choices as acceptable indications of individuality, considered them as violations of common expectations and norms within PS2 which other presenters followed and embraced to ensure a positive assessment. Unlike other presentations in
which feedback and comments were given only after the presenter finished presenting, the course convenor commented on Fatin’s colour choice before she started her presentation. As soon as the lights were turned off before the beginning of her presentation, the dark colours of her slides made the classroom appear too dark compared to the other observed presentations. Although I could not hear everything the teacher said at the time, I heard him saying that the colour was too dark. I noticed a similar reaction by some of the students at the back of the classroom where I was sitting. These students described the colour of Fatin’s slides to be مزعج annoying

And

مو مريح و غامق “uncomfortable and dark”

Although Fatin was aware that her colour choices deviated from the common textual choices in this community and she was advised by some of her colleagues to change the background colour in her slideshow to adhere to the teacher’s instructions and follow common textual practices, she did not change them. For her, these choices allowed her to express her individuality, show her personal preferences and demonstrate her deep understanding of PCOS as a female-related health issue without negatively affecting the quality and content of her presentation.

Maram also deviated from common norms and expectations in PS2 and that appeared in her conclusion which differed from other presentations. Presenters in this community usually concluded their presentations by summarizing the main points of their topic while displaying their summaries in a separate slide at the same time (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2. Samples of presenters’ concluding summaries
Other presenters concluded their presentations through highlighting the main points of their discussions. In her presentation on obesity, Maram offered a detailed discussion of the topic, including definition, causes and types. She also discussed available chemical and surgical treatments to address obesity. She concluded her presentation with highlighting what patients needed to do to treat obesity and she used two slides to support her talk (Figure 5.3). The first slide in Maram’s conclusion stated that ‘there is no magic pill, only hard work, dedication and consistency’ while the second slide listed four healthy habits to ensure achieving and maintaining a healthy weight. These included ‘healthy eating, drinking water, sleeping well and working out’. In contrast to the detailed discussion of treatment that Maram offered and the wide range of available treatments of obesity, Maram’s concluding speech and slides focused on what patients can and should do, rather than the medical treatment that can be offered to help them.

![Maram's concluding slides](image)

**Figure 5.3. Maram's concluding slides**

At the end of her conclusion and before thanking her audience, Maram recited a verse from the Holy Quran:

\[
(إِنَّ اللَّهَ لاَ يُعَيِّنْ مَا يَقْوِمُ حَتَّى يُعَيِّنَ مَا يَقْوَّمُهُ)(1)
\]

(Indeed, ALLAH will not change the condition of people until they change what is in themselves))

After that, she thanked her audience while displaying the references she used. The course convener started his discussion with Maram by thanking her first and then, he immediately commented on the use of the verse and described it as

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1 Surat AL-Ra’ad, 13: 11
He questioned the appropriateness and relevance of the verse to a professional discussion of obesity and pointed out that the verse had a spiritual meaning that was not applicable in this professional context. Maram defended her choice by pointing out that she used the verse because it indicated patients’ responsibility towards their condition. She also pointed out that the verse supported her belief that change cannot be achieved unless we start by changing ourselves. Discussion of the verse did not last for long as the teacher asked Maram to examine the meaning and uses of the verse and report her findings in the following seminar session. In my opinion as an observer, the teacher seemed to reject the judgmental stance that was implicated in Maram’s use of this Qur’anic verse to refer to patients. While developing compassion and empathy towards patients was one of the issues that year-five students repeatedly described as integral aspects of their professional practice especially when interacting with patients, the verse was used in a way that contradicted this aspect.

When I talked to Maram after her presentation, she explained to me that she chose that verse because she believed that patients suffering from obesity needed to change their unhealthy habits and life styles to overcome their problems. She was surprised by the teacher’s comments because it focused on an aspect of her presentation that he did not normally pay attention to in other presentations. The verse seemed to her to be a safe choice since other presenters used Qur’anic verses to introduce and conclude their topics, but the teacher did not comment on any of them. Because she had already offered a detailed discussion of the topic, she expected the teacher’s feedback to focus on the treatment she discussed, rather than her conclusion.

He commented on the verse, I did not expect that. I was ready for him to ask about the medication itself.

Her surprise was even enhanced by the reasons behind her choice of the verse. She considered the verse to be an effective, stylistic choice that enhanced her conclusion without negatively impacting the content of her presentation. It represented a special
touch that she relied on to avoid repeating her talk like other presenters who offered summaries of the main points in their presentations.

I felt this was the best way to conclude. If you see, most of the girls used a summary. A summary? ((speaking in a sarcastic way)) I didn’t want a summary. I felt it was boring to repeat what you said.

This was her way to stand out among her colleagues which she appreciated because it was different from what seemed to her to be boring and repeated conclusions. Her focus on offering something different did not put into account how her choice impacted her discussion, her position as a professional in pharmacy and how it would be received by the course convenor.

Successful participation in seminar presentations required presenters to follow common norms and expectations. At the same time, presenters were expected to find out possible and acceptable ways to stand out and be different from each other. It was part of their professional training to fit within their community while attending to the course convenor’s call to ‘be different’ from each other. In this section, I traced some of the ways through which the participants in this study attended to that call. While some worked to ground their attempts to be different in the conventions and norms they were introduced to in PS1, others challenged these norms in a way that reflected their interests and priorities. Their decisions and choices were not always positively assessed by the course convenor whose feedback was shaped by the extent of presenters’ ability to balance their personal interests with the expectations and requirements in this event.

5.3 Building Deep Knowledge

To make successful presentations, presenters were required and expected to build deep knowledge of their topics that was not limited to what they presented and shared with their audience. In this section, I will examine the resources that presenters employed and benefited from to build their knowledge and prepare their presentations which included books, journal articles, specialized websites, pharmacists and social networking sites. Discussion will also explore what each of these resources provided to
participants to make their presentations and some of the challenges they faced in using these resources.

5.3.1 Books
Participants in this study highlighted their use of books to search for information when they discussed statistically common medical issues. To prepare for her presentation on PCOS, Fatin relied on extensive reading of books during her three-month summer holiday which she spent abroad. Despite the relatively short duration of presentations in this event which lasted between seven and nine minutes, Fatin needed to read extensively not only to develop her understanding of the topic, but also to prepare for the course convener’s feedback which presenters regularly described as unpredictable and challenging.

أنا قريت مرة كثير، كثير. شوفي يمكن الموضوع قصيربس قريت كثير. قعدت يمكن أقرا الكلام لأنو في الصيف كنت مسافرة ، أطلع اتمشي و معايا كتب. أقرا أقرا عن هادا المرض بالذات لأني مانا عارفة إش حيسألني.

I read a lot, a lot. You know may be the presentation was short, but I read a lot. I spent a long time reading because I was away in the summer. I would go out for a walk and I had books with me and I would read and read about this syndrome especially because I don’t know what he would ask.

Books offered access to the basic, scientific content related to their pharmaceutical practice, especially in relation to common health issues as in Fatin’s topic. Specialized books, however, were not always available. Presenters’ tight schedules did not always allow them to go to the library in the College whenever they needed. This was especially highlighted when presenters spoke about major references which they were not allowed to take outside the library.

Moreover, books did not always include the information that presenters needed to prepare their presentations. The extent to which books were used was highly determined by the nature of the topic. When presenters chose new or less common topics, books did not always provide the needed information. Salwa, for example, faced that difficulty while preparing her presentation. She did not always have enough time to go to the library while attending lectures and laboratory sessions, preparing academic
tasks and working on her graduation project. Time, however, was not the only issue that affected her use of books.

I don’t rely heavily on books because they take a long time, and also it is a new drug. There was a new book that was available in a new copy, a new edition but I couldn’t find my drug. I found the previous one.

Because she made her presentation about a recently approved drug in the United States, Salwa could not find the needed information in the books she consulted. Instead, she found information about a relevant previous drug which she used to deepen her understanding of the topic without referring to it in her presentation.

5.3.2 Journal articles

Journal articles were regularly used by presenters in this event through the specialized services offered by the Central Library in the University to provide up-to-date information that they could include in their presentations. This was especially significant for including recent studies related to their topics which was considered an important feature in good presentations in PS2. Despite students’ consistent use of journal articles within the observed presentations, participants did not pay much attention in their accounts to this resource in comparison to the attention they devoted to describe the other resources they employed. When they talked about journal articles, their accounts were often connected to their recollections of another course in the College in which they were trained to search for, recognize and employ reliable journal articles in their field.

5.3.3 Specialized websites

Specialized websites represented a consistently-used resource for presenters in this community. They relied on websites, such as the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), Saudi Food and Drug Administration (SFDA) and World Health Organization (WHO). Samya, for example, built her discussion of counterfeit drugs mainly on these websites because they provided the information she needed.
When I started searching, I looked in Google, the traditional way to know which websites were interested in these things. When I looked, my friend told me that these things relate of course to FDA, and she told me what to focus on while searching, FDA in USA and in Saudi Arabia so I looked in both.

Samya started her search by consulting Google which represented a basic and accessible source that many students used to understand their topics in initial stages of preparation. To move beyond general knowledge and deepen her understanding of the topic, she moved to international and local specialized websites, following her colleague’s advice who showed her where and what to search for.

Salwa also consulted the official website of the drug she was discussing. In addition to the information she offered in her presentation, Salwa drew on the information in the website to examine the potential use of the drug in the Saudi context. She took note of the drug’s price without including that information in her presentation. This was a common practice within the observed presenters who, in their attempts to prepare ahead for the course convenor’s thorough feedback, highlighted the importance of knowing the price and local availability of any drug they included in their presentations. While the course convenor did not always ask about this aspect, it represented an integral part of students’ preparation of their presentations and it reflected one of their main responsibilities as professionals in pharmacy.

In the discussion that followed Salwa’s presentation, the course convenor asked her about the price of the newly-approved drug in the United States and what she thought it would cost in Saudi Arabia. She responded to the teacher’s query by giving the requested information without hesitation. She also pointed out that she expected the medication to be expensive and she gave a close estimate of the price in Saudi Riyals, based on her knowledge of its price in the United States.
He asked me about the price and I read it was expensive. This was a bad thing for the medication. It is new and expensive so how will the patient take it? ………. He asked me about the price, available in Saudi? Unavailable? How is the price in Saudi? How is the price abroad? Is it expensive? Cheap? So one can even ask a logical question. Do you think people will be eager to use this medication? One needs to put in his mind that it is expensive. It is possible the number of people taking it will not be many because not everyone’s financial condition allows them to, so it broadens our understanding in terms of pharmacology and in terms of how I will deal with others socially.

In addition to knowing the price of the drug which she expected to be asked about by the teacher, Salwa extended her information to consider patients, what they could afford and how an expensive drug would affect them financially. These were significant aspects that she considered to be integral part of her professional practice and ethical responsibilities as a doctor of pharmacy.

5.3.4 Pharmacists

Presenters were expected to connect their knowledge to their local context by including information such as, localized statistical information, available treatment and its cost. Because that knowledge, however, was not always available in books, journal articles or even websites, pharmacists represented an invaluable source of help to presenters because they enabled them to ground their search in the community in which they were going to work. They also enabled presenters to move from the theoretical knowledge that books, journal articles and websites provided and the situated use of their pharmaceutical knowledge in relation to patients. Maram, for example, found information about treatment of obesity in the United States easily because of their availability. This was not the case, however, when she examined obesity treatments in the Saudi context because she identified a gap between what was offered to patients
through official and authorized channels and over-the-counter medications that patients resorted to use to treat their problems without medical prescriptions.

مرام: لازم تغطي يعني أمريكا، أي شي يخص أمريكا تكون كثيرة ومنوفرة ومعتمدة، لما تجي هنا، كل شي لازم تتأكد منه، حتى لو تلاحظي الدوا موجود في أمريكا، طبيب approved عندها موجود في السوق؟

الباحثة: وكم؟ وكيف، لازم أغطي حاجة برة؟ لازم أغطي اللي عندنا؟ و أنا كنت أبغاه يسألني أيش هو الدوا اللي عندنا حأقوله من جد أنا نزلت صيدلية ما لقيت إلا دوا واحد عندنا في السعودية.

Maram: You must bring in what’s in America. Any information that relates to America is plenty and available and credible. When you come here, you need to make sure of everything. Even if you notice when a drug is approved in America, OK is it approved here? Available in the market?

Researcher: And how much?

Maram: And how much, off course, why would I discuss something abroad? Why don’t I talk about what we have? I wanted him to ask me which drugs are available here. I would have told him that I went to a pharmacy but I couldn’t find anything here except one drug in Saudi Arabia.

Their responsibilities included recognizing the application of that information to their local surroundings. She needed to assess the information she found online and examine its credibility in Saudi Arabia. Knowing available and approved medications in the United States was essential for presenters in this community, but it was not enough. Consulting a pharmacist allowed her to fulfil that responsibility and enabled her to build deeper understanding of the topic.

Lamar also consulted a pharmacist to ask about some of the drugs she discussed in her presentation on Onychomycosis. She wanted to examine available medications in Saudi Arabia and compare what was available internationally to what was offered to patients in the Saudi market.
When I read about the medications, I went to the pharmacy because I first wrote the names of the medications down and went to the pharmacy and I asked him “what medications do you use to treat onychomycosis?”. He got me all the medications. He showed them to me and I took photos of them and I asked him about the drugs were available in Saudi. I mean the ones I looked up from my search and he gave me an idea whether they are here or not. And the doctor actually asked me these questions, whether the medications I mentioned were available or not. This thing was really beneficial to me.

Like Maram above, Lamar was aware that knowing what was available internationally was essential, but she was equally expected and required to build her knowledge locally. Consulting local pharmacists provided essential information for these presenters whose attempts to balance their position as students under assessment and as developing professionals required them to establish firm connections with pharmaceutical practice beyond their classrooms.

5.3.5 Social networking sites

Social networking sites including Twitter, Instagram and YouTube were also commonly used among presenters to make their presentations. Although these sites were not considered as academic resources, they provided invaluable information to presenters that were relevant to their professional practice and could not be accessed otherwise. Lamar, for example, used Twitter to check official accounts of pharmaceutical companies which were advertising new medications for onychomycosis. She also used Instagram to find out what patients suffering from onychomycosis were posting about their conditions. Both uses were essential for Lamar to discuss her topic and overcome some of the difficulties and challenges that presenters faced while preparing their presentations. Finding out available medications was not always accessible through official channels such as, FDA and SFDA because they needed to
find out new medications at the time even if they were not yet approved. They were also required to check over-the-counter medications that patients were seeking without medical prescriptions. They were also required to check how these medications were used which was not easy considering that these presenters had no direct contact with patients.

As students, presenters were not yet allowed to go to hospitals and interact with patients. Lamar used Twitter to identify newly approved drugs and examine official accounts of specific treatments in her presentation. Instagram, on the other hand, allowed her to bridge the gap between her theoretical knowledge of the fungal infection and the practical knowledge associated with examination of and interaction with patients by looking at the infection from patients’ views. Although she did not make any
reference to either sites in her presentation, they both shaped how she approached her discussion and made her presentation. In addition to deepening her knowledge of available treatments and patients’ symptoms, Lamar was inspired to include in her slideshow visual illustrations of the infection before and after treatment that she extracted from more scientifically-oriented resources (Figure 5.4).

![Treatment photos in Lamar's](image)

Figure 5.4. Treatment photos in Lamar's

YouTube videos were also frequently used as a major resource in this event. Hind relied on YouTube to develop her understanding of the use of a specific type of patches to treat chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting. Although Hind mentioned the patch briefly as one type of available treatments, she watched a YouTube video to develop detailed understanding of the patch, including its use and how to pronounce it accurately.

**I watched them how we put the patches, yes it was good, but I did not put the method. I got briefly where we put them and how many hours and for how long and when we take them away (………..) Also you see them how they pronounce correctly, precisely, even how she says the name of the patch accurately.**

Although Hind did not include all the information she learned from the video in her presentation, they were essential for her preparation because they enabled her to deepen
her knowledge of the topic in a way that facilitated her ability to prepare for the teacher’s feedback while enhancing her confidence at the same time.

Rahaf also relied on YouTube videos to develop her understanding of the emotional and physical impact of trichotillomania on patients. In addition to the fact that Rahaf, like other presenters, had no direct contact with patients, trichotillomania was a rare disorder that she did not study about in the College and was not previously known by her colleagues.

I looked into YouTube to see how they suffered. They were all foreigners. I saw them to feel how they suffered. I am not exaggerating but I was tearful. They are suffering and you know how a woman feels about her hair. I felt then oh my God what is this?

Like other presenters, Rahaf used a range of resources to prepare her presentation, such as books, journal articles, and specialized websites. The YouTube videos, however, were particularly highlighted in her account because they allowed her to observe how patients were describing their symptoms and suffering. Encountering these stories affected Rahaf’s engagement with her topic and the making of her presentation. In addition to developing her knowledge of the topic, it helped her to develop a personal connection with patients at a stage of her professional development in which she had access to considerable knowledge in her field, but without any direct contact with real patients. That personal connection was reflected in Rahaf’s presentation as she extracted and displayed still images from one of the YouTube videos she watched to textually highlight patients’ suffering in her slideshow which will be examined within discussion of multimodal choices in the next chapter (See 6.2.3).

Successful engagement with seminar presentations was associated with presenters’ ability to build deep knowledge of their topics that required them to employ a wide range of available and accessible resources, such as books, journal articles, specialized websites, pharmacists and social networking sites. These resources enabled them to explore different angles of their topics that were not confined to what they
included in their presentations and shared with their audience. They were also invaluable to enhance presenters’ understanding and knowledge of their topics.

5.4 Drawing on Previous Experiences

When participants described their experiences in preparing and making their seminar presentations, their accounts often highlighted the influence that their previous experiences in school and the university had on them. Among these experiences, participation in PS1 was particularly emphasized because of the impact it had on participants’ view of themselves and their approach towards their PS2 presentations. Because both courses were taught by the same teacher and taken by the same group of students, the challenges shaping participants’ engagement with seminar presentations were not very different despite the differences between the two courses in terms of timing, requirements, expectations and assessment. In this section, I will examine how two presenters; Samya and Rahaf reflected upon their engagement with PS1 and how that engagement shaped their approach to PS2. I will start first by looking at how Samya drew on her PS1 negative experience to participate successfully in PS2 and develop new understanding of some of her long-held assumptions about language and success in academic studies. After that, I will examine how Rahaf built on her PS1 positive experience to restore her self-confidence and ignite her faith in the professional decisions she took.

5.4.1 Samya

Samya described herself as a high-achieving student throughout her studies at school and since she joined the College. She regularly participated in activities in which she was required to make presentations and speak in front of others. Her participation in these activities was positively assessed by her teachers, colleagues and most importantly by herself because she was able to address the requirements in these activities successfully. She considered these activities to be easily approachable and manageable because she was allowed to use Arabic in addition to English to prepare and execute them. While participating in these Arabic-mediated activities in school and College enabled Samya to develop a keen sense of self-confidence and personal achievement, her feelings changed when she presented in PS1 which she recalled with disappointment.

كانت تجربة سيئة (........) لما جيت ألقي مرة انصدمت، مرة خفت، وصوتي كان مرة يرتجف، حتى الدكتور لما جا يسأل سؤال عادي يعني، بس أنا طبعا ما توقعته إنى يسألني،
It was a bad experience (...........). When I came to present, I was shocked. I was scared and my voice was really shaking. Even the doctor when he asked me a simple question, I did not expect him to ask me, I was scared and confused and I forgot some words and the grammar was wrong and everything. And also the doctor did not give me a full mark so I was really upset. This made me work harder and I said next year, God’s willing, it will be better, so this thing encouraged me because I don’t like to lose (..........) and I knew what the obstacle was, the language. I knew this was the obstacle and I said I need to fix it. Next year I will be much better.

Samya was disappointed in her performance because it did not match her previous successful experiences and did not step up to her expectation of herself. In contrast to her previous performances as a confident and competent speaker, she felt defeated by her shaking voice, inability to engage effectively with the teacher’s questions and failure to attain a full grade on that presentation as she used to before.

In her attempts to understand and move beyond that negative experience, Samya embraced common views among her colleagues and attributed her difficulties to poor English-language skills. While previous experiences allowed her to use Arabic that seemed more manageable and less demanding and offered her a sense of control and ownership, she felt constrained in PS1 because she was required to rely totally on English while presenting. This was a commonly expressed view among students in this community because many students believed that total reliance on English hindered their ability to engage effectively and successfully in seminar presentations.

To address her difficulties, Samya took specific actions that would enable her to fix and overcome her problems and challenges. She took a one-month evening language course while still studying in year-four and a three-week summer course at the British Council which she hoped would help to improve her speaking skills because she believed that
The nice thing is that for a person to be able to speak in English about everything, whether English in the everyday life and also the medical field, things like diseases and so on.

Like many of her colleagues, Samya believed that being able to speak English fluently and accurately beyond their studies was a guarantee of success in their studies and academic tasks. If a student was able to rely on English to talk about general topics and communicate effectively with others, it was generally assumed that she would be able to extend that ability and speak about any topic with ease, including specialized topics in pharmacy. Without good speaking skills, their ability to engage successfully with seminar presentations was jeopardized, doubted and seriously questioned.

I joined an institute for a month in year four because I know I can do anything but the language is preventing me, it is the obstacle standing in my way and also and also in year four we participated in the Scientific Summit in the university and I really wanted to present the poster, but also the language was the thing that stood in my way. Because of that I had a serious problem and I had to fix it, and I took a course in my summer holiday in Ramadan at the British Council. It was four weeks, it was really good. It did not change my level, but the teacher who taught us said “you will not become like Angelina Jolie in three weeks, but you will know your weaknesses and strengths, you will know how to develop them”
Samya’s memories of her PS1’s presentation were connected to another disappointing incident in the same year in which her English language difficulties prevented her from demonstrating her knowledge and skills. She worked with a group of her colleagues at the annual Scientific Summit organized by the College of Pharmacy to make a poster which she wanted to present on behalf of the other members in the group. Because the presentation of the poster had to be carried out in English, however, Samya had to give up her desire and another student in the group who was more fluent in English made the presentation. Recalling that experience with disappointment, Samya’s belief that English represented the real cause behind her challenges and difficulties grew firmer. She considered the language courses she took as a first step to address her difficulties and recognize her strengths and weaknesses. Although she was aware that these steps may not create dramatic changes in her ability to use English within such short period, taking these steps offered her a sense of control and relief that she was working to address her challenges, develop her language skills and ensure a better performance in PS2.

Despite her strong belief that her difficulties with English were to blame for poor performance in PS1, Samya’s reflection on that experience brought to her attention other aspects beyond language that were equally important to participate successfully in seminar presentations. It drew her attention to a range of expectations and requirements that were not necessary in other previous activities, but were highly valued in this literacy event.

She became aware that participating in this event entailed specific requirements and expectations which she needed to recognize and embrace. Successful participation in seminar presentations was not only about being fluent in English. It also entailed the need for extensive rehearsing and practice. It also required presenters to pay attention to
accurate pronunciation of medical terms because this was one of the aspects that the course convenor prioritized in his feedback. These aspects did not seem necessary to Samya before in Arabic-mediated activities which did not seem as demanding as seminar presentations. In addition to the general relief associated with being able to mix English and Arabic, these activities were often associated with flexible assessment criteria that students felt they were able to meet easily. Seminar presentations, on the other hand, were shaped by specific requirements and expectations that were not previously-known to students and were only brought to their attention after participating in PS1.

Drawing on her experience in PS1 did not only help Samya to recognize the expectations and requirements in this event. It also shaped how she viewed herself in relation to other students whom she admired because their English language skills surpassed hers.
To make a good presentation and engage successfully in this event, Samya was aware that she needed to exert considerable efforts to rehearse and practice her presentation. She initially associated the need for these efforts with her weaknesses in English because she believed that other students who were more fluent in English did not have to work very hard at preparing their presentations. Her view, however, changed as she observed closely her friend whose English was excellent, but did not perform well in her PS2 presentation. Although Samya strongly believed that it was easier for her friend to approach and manage the task at hand, she was surprised at the quality of her friend’s performance. Listening to her friend as she attributed her poor performance to lack of thorough preparation and adequate practice, Samya developed a new perspective towards language and its role in seminar presentations through which language no longer appeared as the only factor that determined the quality of a presenter’s work. Adequate preparation and extensive practice were equally essential to address the needed expectations and requirements and engage successfully in this event. These provided a promise of hope that it was possible for Samya and other ‘middle class’ students to be as successful as the others whose English appeared to give them an advantage that was not available to weaker students.

5.4.2 Rahaf

Rahaf described herself as an outgoing, confident and high-achieving student. She had always liked participating in school activities in which she worked with other students and presented in front of different people. In school, Rahaf enjoyed participating in educational and social activities. At the same, her high grades and outgoing personality allowed her to establish good relations with teachers and students. She also received many awards in her school and also at a national level from the Ministry of Education. Unlike the other participants, she came from a small town in the northern region in Saudi Arabia where she studied till she finished school. She moved out of her hometown and travelled to the city in which this study was situated to study pharmacy because the university in her hometown did not offer that specialization. She was not the first in her family to move to this city because her brother and two of her sisters chose to study in this city because of the University’s reputation.

When she first joined the University, Rahaf described feeling scared and out of place among other students in this big university.
When I came here, I said no, how can I fit here? It was a scary world, seriously!

In relation to other students in the Preparatory-Year Programme, Rahaf felt that she was looked at as the girl coming from a village or a small city that was not heard of before and could not be compared to the new, big city in which she was going to do her university degree. Her feelings of self-confidence and achievement were questioned and shaken because she was no longer seen as a high-achieving, popular and sociable girl as she used to before in school.

These feelings continued even after she joined the College of Pharmacy. Most of her colleagues belonged to the same city while she was the only one who came from a small town that none of her colleagues heard of before. She was not comfortable with how her colleagues thought of her because she felt that none of them appreciated her or realized what she was capable of. She continued to work hard and excel in her studies.

She also established good connections with other students, but her feelings of being different, alienated and unappreciated, however, did not disappear completely.

Though she consistently attained excellent grades since she first joined the College, Rahaf’s view of her experience in PS1 was not related to the full grade she received from the course convenor, but rather to the impact that her presentation made on her colleagues and the effect that the teacher’s positive comments played on her status in this community. When she made her PS1 presentation, Rahaf was not concerned about her performance, topic choice or language accuracy. She was more concerned with reversing the image that was attached to her as a quiet and ordinary girl and replacing it with admiration and appreciation not only for her presentation, but also for her as a person.

What is your experience of presentation? Have you ever felt that you were not as good as the others in your group?

Rahaf: I used to be a quiet girl, but now I feel confident and appreciated.

In the fourth year of college, I realized that the girls from my village were not taken seriously, and when I spoke, they ignored me. But when I presented my project, they listened and appreciated me.

In the first presentation, I was not worried about my performance or language accuracy. I was more concerned with reversing the image that was attached to me.
 Lamaتلعت و كدا بعدها البنات بلا مبالغة ، طول اليوم الأسبوع كله البنين جا الدكتور اليوم الأسبوع اللي بعده وهم بيتكملون عليا.

Researcher: So what was your biggest challenge when you made your presentation? You told me before that standing in front of the girls was a challenge?

Rahaf: Yes, to make them convinced with me, you know when I came here, it was frankly difficult because the girls were looking at me as if I come from (. ) they consider it a village, but it is not a village (. ) to have people look at you like this, I did not see myself in this way, for me this presentation was like come and see who I am (. ) Come and see who I am. When I presented and talked and I will never forget in year four, the girls, they know that I was funny and a good speaker, but they considered me quiet. But when I presented, without exaggeration, the girls were talking about me, the entire day, the whole week till the teacher came the following week.

Although Rahaf rejected her colleagues’ views of her as the girl who came from a small village, she made her year-four presentation about her hometown. None of her colleagues were impressed with her choice at the time because they did not think her choice represented a good and impressive choice for a seminar presentation. They advised her to choose a more interesting and popular topic, but she decided to ignore their comments and suggestions and insisted on her choice. She used her presentation to present to her audience the information that she wanted them to know in relation to her hometown. She talked about its size, history and tourist attractions, hoping that she would create a different representation of that small town among her colleagues. At the same time, Rahaf was working to change how her colleagues viewed her. Making that presentation represented a way for her to stand out, draw attention to who she was and reverse her colleagues’ views towards her.

Contrary to her colleagues’ earlier warnings and expectations, the course convenor was exceptionally impressed by Rahaf’s topic and performance and he gave her a full grade.
The doctor was really impressed in the beginning, he kept saying "smart and clap your hands for her"

Her colleagues were also impressed by her performance because it allowed them to see a different side of her personality that they did not notice before. It made them see Rahaf through the perspective that she was hoping people would see her through as an outgoing, confident and competent presenter.

Reflecting on that experience, Rahaf was encouraged to draw on her PS1 experience to approach her PS2 presentation in a similar way. She decided to continue challenging her colleagues’ views and chose a topic that they did not approve of. Contrary to the prevailing tendency in this community to choose statistically common, medical issues to ensure availability of resources and references, Rahaf made her presentation about a rare hair-pulling disorder which did not appear as a good choice to her colleagues. In addition to its rarity, students advised Rahaf to change the topic because their pharmaceutical knowledge played a secondary role in its treatment in comparison to psychological treatment. For them, the disorder did not seem to be a medically urgent issue compared to other more serious health issues that could be more helpful in displaying their scientific knowledge in pharmacy.

Despite their arguments, Rahaf ignored her colleagues’ suggestions and insisted on choosing an issue which, despite its rare occurrence, seemed to her to be appropriate for a discussion in a professional context. As a professional, she believed that her responsibility extended to address any health issue to relieve patients’ suffering. The degree to which their pharmaceutical knowledge was needed for treatment did not appear as a valid criterion for choosing a topic or ignoring another. Her choice was risky, but the confidence that was created by her year-four presentation and the reaction it created encouraged her to choose what she believed to be effective and appropriate.

While discussing her hometown in PS1 aimed to inform her colleagues and challenge their prior views, her PS2 choice reflected her desire to continue challenging her colleagues’ views. Her concerns with their views of her seemed to have vanished because she was no longer in the same situation she was in before in which she needed to draw their attention to who she was and what she was capable of. She proudly pointed out that
The girls tell me about things. I am not convinced with them frankly.

Rahaf built on her experience in PS1, the teacher’s reaction and her colleagues’ acknowledgment to continue to embrace her own judgement and decisions.

In this section, I examined how students’ experiences in PS1 shaped their views of themselves and their approach towards PS2 presentations. I described how Samya built on her negative experience to develop her understanding of her abilities and the requirements and expectations in this event. I also described how Rahaf built on her positive experience in PS1 to continue embracing her decisions, challenge common views among her colleagues and restore faith in her abilities. Exploring these accounts highlighted the powerful impact that PS1 had on students not only because it introduced them to the basics of making professional presentations, but also because it provided them with an invaluable opportunity to engage with and reflect upon their experiences and attend to their own challenges and concerns before approaching their PS2 presentations.

5.5 Rehearsing: Bringing the Presentation to Light

Whether they were rehearsing individually or with their colleagues, rehearsing and practicing their presentations was described as a key component of engaging successfully in this event. They approached their presentations as staged performances which were managed through extensive rehearsing and practicing. Fatin, for example, rehearsed her presentation by herself and in front of different members of family members and colleagues to learn the details of her discussion and control the weaknesses she was concerned with in her performance. She hoped to make a successful presentation through which she could impress her teacher and colleagues, but she felt constrained by her shyness, anxiety and the need to rely totally on English while presenting despite her good understanding of the topic and its details.

أول شي تدربت مع نفسي ، بعدين حطبت الجوال شغلت الفيديو اتدربت قدم المرآة ، بعدين جبت أخواني ، يعني لأنو أخواني نوعية من الناس اللي يضحكون على الناس ، فجبتهم أول شي عشان أقدر اشغلي فجيتهم. أول ما جبتهم لسه يا دوبي بديت ، ها ها ها (( تقلدهم )) أنا امممم و جسمو بترنيفو ، إش عندك ؟ و يضحكو . خلصت منهم شغت البنات اللي أنا كنت معاهم ، و جلست اتدرب زيادة اتدرب زيادة . بعدين رحت عند ماما ، ماما ،
At first I practiced by myself, and then I used the mobile phone and video recorded myself. I practiced in front of the mirror, and then in front of my brothers, because they are the kind of people who laugh at people, so I worked with them first so that I can work. When I first presented, the moment I started, they started ha ha ha ((mimicking them)) and I started mmmm aaaa and they were making fun of me, asking what are you up to? What are you up to? and laughing. I finished with them, I practiced with the girls I sit with, there were a lot of aaaa, and I practiced more. Then, I went to mom, mom, I didn’t practice with dad because my relationship with dad is not very serious, maybe if I see dad, I will laugh immediately, but mom no. Mom, I am very serious with her. She is the closest to the teacher’s personality.

The attention that Fatin paid to the content of her presentation did not match the attention she devoted to controlling and managing her performance. This was an important issue for presenters in this community because a presenter’s confidence and attitude while speaking and addressing her audience was vital for determining whether her presentation would be considered successful or not. For Fatin, her shyness and tendency to avoid speaking in front of others threatened to jeopardize her hard work and efforts to make a successful presentation. Fatin’s focus on rehearsing her presentation was understandable considering her experience in PS1 which was described earlier (See 5.2). She recalled her year-four experience with disappointment because of her performance, rather than the informational content of her discussion. It was not surprising, therefore, that Fatin worked to rehearse her presentation in front of a wide range of viewers to improve her performance and control the weaknesses she was concerned with.

A similar perspective was highlighted by Rahaf who also prioritized the importance of rehearsing her presentation in front of a wide range of audience. Although Rahaf was a confident and outgoing student and expressed no concerns regarding English language use in her presentation, she attributed the full grade she attained in her PS2 presentation to the benefit of extensive practice.
Rahaf valued her rehearsal attempts because they allowed her to interact with real audience, prepare herself for their diverse reactions and monitor her performance before the actual presentation. This was especially relevant considering the never-stopping movement in the classroom during presentations described earlier (See 4.3) which echoed the general atmosphere shaping professional seminars in hospitals in which attendants are not restricted by a specific time to attend or leave a presentation.

In addition to addressing their concerns and managing their performance, presenters also rehearsed their presentations with their colleagues to gain access to valuable feedback that helped them to work on problematic aspects of their work and improve their presentations before presenting in front of the course convenor.

The feedback she received from the teacher was valuable. If I hadn’t rehearsed, it would be great if I took forty or fifty. Practice makes a difference that I stand and listen to my voice and people look at me and someone would do this and another would do that, no, no I must practice. I must look at eyes. At home, I brought them together and I would talk and look at their eyes and when I look at their eyes, I get a bit confused.
Researcher: Ok, when you attend each other’s presentations, what kind of feedback do you provide for each other?

Hind: We first comment how she was like, how she presents. For example, we tell her if she was monotone, if there are words she mispronounced, we tell her. And then we try to ask her. We anticipate the doctor’s questions and ask her.

Researcher: So here you impersonate the teacher?

Hind: Yes, we try to dig questions from under the ground, not simple questions from the presentation. We try like this.

Researcher: So for you, it was easy? I mean was it difficult? When you went through, you practiced with your friends and they asked you questions, how did you feel about their questions?

Hind: On the contrary, I told the girls ask. Even if she asked me a question that I don’t know, I wrote it immediately. I would research, go back and look for it.

Students’ feedback to each other served many purposes. It helped with working at their presentational skills, language accuracy and pronunciation. It was also useful to anticipate the course convenor’s feedback which represented a source of concern for students because it was not always predictable.

Managing their adherence to the required timeframe in these presentations was also one of the major advantages that practice facilitated for presenters. It reflected the course convenor’s repeated warnings for students that falling short of or exceeding the assigned seven-to-nine timeframe would lead to students’ losing grades. This was highlighted in the practice session I was invited to attend before observing my second seminar session in which the presenters who participated in that session were particularly concerned with maintaining the required timeframe. Most of them were worried that they would exceed the nine minutes and students who attended the session offered presenters a variety of suggestions to address their concerns, such as eliminating parts of their speech, increasing the pace of their talk and shortening their slideshows.
Layla, for instance, was able to control the length of her presentation in this way. She used her rehearsals to deepen her understanding of the topic and make her presentation in a concise form.

Unfortunately, I was so concerned with understanding the topic, I spent a long time collecting the data and organizing it, so practicing was intermittent and I did not focus on rehearsing my presentation. I feel that I was a bit unjust to the topic in practicing, but yesterday I didn’t come to college and I also spent two days practising. When I first started, I would spend twelve thirteen minutes, but now you can see seven minutes.

As Layla rehearsed her presentation within the two days preceding her presentation, she maximized her understanding of the topic, developed her ability to control her performance and reconsidered the compositional design of her slideshow in a way that enabled her to reduce the time she needed for presenting her work. An example of this appeared in her discussion of the withdrawal symptoms associated with prolonged drug abuse (Figure 5.4).
or 25 symptoms written and listed. When I was rehearsing, every time I saw it, I hated it

Researcher: You didn’t like it?
Layla: Yes even if you look at it, frankly it wasn’t comfortable to the eye, a lot of writing (. ) But this slide shows less symptoms, not all of them, the ones which (xxx), not all the 25 but the most important ones.

*Figure 5.3. Withdrawal symptoms in Layla's slideshow*

Rather than presenting the symptoms in detail, Layla decided to focus in her speech on the most important symptoms. Her decision was visually manifested in her slideshow through moving from a detailed written list to offer a minimized and more selective display of visuals with brief written captions. These changes allowed her to adhere to the required timeframe and manage discussion of this aspect in her presentation.

Presenters in this community considered rehearsing their presentations vital to their success. It represented an indispensable aspect in their engagement in this event that was highly valued in the same way participants valued their efforts to prepare and make their presentations. They practised and rehearsed their presentations to achieve various goals, such as addressing their concerns and challenges, maintaining control of their performance, seeking valuable feedback on their work and managing their time while presenting.
5.6 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I examined four major themes that emerged while exploring students’ engagement in this literacy event. The chapter shed light on how participants worked to stand out among their colleagues. I also looked at how and where participants searched for and arranged needed information to make their presentations. Participants’ search for information moved beyond the issues they presented and shared with their audience to develop in-depth understanding of their topics. The chapter also highlighted how presenters’ engagement in this event was shaped by their year-four experiences which had a considerable impact on how they viewed themselves and how they related to common norms and expectations in this event. The chapter was finally concluded by discussing participants’ efforts to practise and rehearse their presentations and the benefits that these efforts provided.

The analysis in this chapter highlights the need to move beyond a skill-based agenda to investigate how presenters engage with English-mediated presentations. Looking at this literacy event through a social account of literacy brings to light the complexity entailed in participating in this event that was not confined to presenters’ knowledge and mastery of a list of linguistic features and rules. Knowledge and mastery of the language appeared as one of the aspects that presenters needed to take control of to participate efficiently in this event. They also needed to recognize and embrace a range of social practices through which they could claim their active membership in this community and assume the identity of competent presenters.

Successful participation in this event entailed the need to recognize and embrace a set of complex and interrelated expectations and requirements that surrounded participants’ engagement with seminar presentations. Although presenters recognized the rules and conventions that they needed to follow to make successful and professional presentations, making a professional presentation did not entail automatic application of specific conventions and norms. Presenters worked hard to stand out and distinguish themselves from their colleagues through diverse choices which they needed to appropriate according to the norms and conventions in their community. Whether these choices were related to their topics, slideshow design or the organizational structures of their presentations, presenters were held accountable for these choices which were questioned in terms of their effect on the presenters’ image, their impact on the audience and the professional nature of their presentations.
As presenters worked to address the expectations and requirements in this event, they needed to build deep knowledge of their topics that exceeded what was presented and shared with their audience. In addition to preparing for the course convenor’s feedback, presenters worked to develop deep understanding of their topics to enhance their self-confidence before facing the audience and enable them to create a professional image for themselves to convince others with their work, knowledge and the value of their topics. A significant aspect of building deep knowledge appeared in participants’ attempts to ground their presentations and situate their knowledge in the local context. If a presenter was speaking about a drug, she was expected to know all relevant information, such as availability, use and price in the Saudi market. If she was discussing treatment plans, she was required to present an informed idea about their availability and the nature of these plans in Saudi hospitals. Even when presenters spoke about statistical occurrence of a disorder or a syndrome, they were asked about relevant statistics in Saudi Arabia.

Another important aspect that was highlighted in this chapter is the rule that participants’ experiences in PS1 played in their approach to participation in PS2. Whether their experiences entailed positive or negative memories, these memories were powerful enough for presenters to draw upon and learn from. These experiences encouraged presenters to reflect upon themselves as students and professionals. They were useful, for example, to question the long-held and taken-for-granted significance attached to English language proficiency in this community. While it was common in this event to describe high proficiency in English as an essential factor to successfully participate in seminar presentations, presenters’ experiences in PS1 highlighted other expectations and requirements whose significance appeared at times to outweigh English language proficiency.

Among the extensive efforts that presenters exerted to prepare their presentations, rehearsing their presentations was particularly highlighted because it allowed presenters to maximize their understanding of their topics, manage their weaknesses, enhance their preparation and maintain control of their performance. Presenters’ awareness of the significance of rehearsing and practice grew as they realized that searching for, representing and communicating scientific knowledge represented vital aspects in this event, but they were not enough. Presenters prioritized the need to maintain control of their performance to appear as competent speakers and knowledgeable professionals.
Chapter 6 The Presentation as a Multimodal Ensemble

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I examine presentations as multimodal ensembles in which presenters rely on the interaction of speech, gesture and slideshow to achieve specific communicative purposes (Zhao et al., 2014). Examination of multimodal meaning making in this study will focus on the semiotic choices associated with slideshow design and speech. This focus addresses the methodological constraints that I faced while conducting this study (See 3.5.7). My inability to use photographic and video data to document how presenters represented and communicated knowledge while presenting required me to focus on examining the semiotic modes and resources which were accessible through interview data, observational notes and artefact collection. Framed by a social semiotic multimodal perspective to explore how presenters make meaning in their presentations, the chapter looks at presenters’ semiotic choices as “traces of a sign-maker’s decisions about the expressions of the meaning that she or he wishes to make in a given context” (Jewitt and Kress, 2003, p. 278). It examines the semiotic resources that participants highlighted through their accounts to trace the design criteria which shaped their semiotic choices. The chapter also examines the functions that these choices served and the challenges that participants faced to represent and communicate knowledge. Samples of participants’ semiotic choices are offered and examined whenever possible.

6.2 Slideshow Design

The slideshows represented an indispensable component in seminar presentations in this event. Each of the observed presenters incorporated a PowerPoint slideshow within her presentation. Slideshows served different purposes in this event, ranging from supporting verbally-communicated issues to offering and conveying specific meanings exclusive from the presenter’s speech. Each slideshow formed a multimodal ensemble in which specific semiotic choices were made to support the presenter’s needs and interests. These choices are significant because they shed light on how presenters worked to establish themselves as knowledgeable professionals while maintaining their membership in this community through situating their texts within the common textual practices in this event. Unlike other courses in the College in which it was common for PowerPoint-supported presentations, especially those produced by
teachers, to have hard copies of slideshows printed and distributed for later revision and study, the slideshows in this course were short-lived because their use was restricted to seminar sessions. Putting in mind that slideshows in this event did not represent standalone texts, the semiotic choices in these slideshows must be considered in relation to the context in which they were grounded and the presenters who designed and orchestrated their use within their presentations. In this section, I examine the semiotic choices which were highlighted in participants’ accounts in relation to layout, writing and visuals.

6.2.1 Layout

Layout refers to the overall appearance of slides. It is concerned with the semiotic choices adopted by presenters throughout their slideshows to convey a professionally appropriate and consistent appearance. Investigating how presenters conveyed that appearance through their slideshows is significant in this study because it represents one of the ways through which presenters worked to establish themselves as competent professionals. I will first start by examining the design criteria which presenters considered essential to create an appropriate appearance to their slideshows. I will also look at samples of presenters’ work to examine how they addressed these criteria. Then, I will consider the challenges that presenters highlighted while designing the layout of their slideshows.

6.2.1.1 Design criteria for layout

Three design criteria were identified in relation to layout among participants, including formality, readability and coherence.

6.2.1.1.1 Formality

Formality was described as an essential feature in creating appropriate layout structure in seminar presentations. Presenters employed diverse ways through which they could create a formal slideshow. These were mostly connected to avoiding decorative images, animated cartoons and sharp colours, such as yellow and orange. Samya connected formality with choosing a blank background for her slides (Figure 6.1).
Samya: For the design of the slides, I was thinking, I thought about bringing a shape of a drug in the design, but all the things which I found, that were really nice, were not unfortunately free, and I don’t have a credit card, so I looked for something that is for free and I found this. It doesn’t have any shape on it, but I thought it looked formal.

Researcher: What do you mean by formal?
Samya: It doesn’t have any images, cartoons and things like that. It looks formal.

Figure 6.1. Formality in Samya's Layout design.

Samya used a blank background with no images because it reflected her understanding of what a formal slideshow should look like. Because she could not obtain a design that contained images relevant and appropriate to her topic, relying on a blank background in which two colours were consistently used throughout the slideshow created an appearance that she considered appropriate for her aim.

Colour choice was another way through which presenters conveyed formality in their slideshows. Lamar, for example, relied on a light blue background because it helped her to meet the teacher’s instructions and attain a better assessment.

لمار: في البداية اخترت موف ، بس بعدين حسيت إنو لأ ، مرة غامق ممكن يقولي مو مناسب ، لأبو هو حاط لنا معايير للألوان.
Lamar: In the beginning, I chose purple, but then I felt no, it is very dark. He may say it is inappropriate because he gave us standards for colours.

Researcher: Ah, so you reconsidered them?

Lamar: Yes, I chose light blue. These things, the details, maybe you say they are OK, but no, it is exhausting for a person to try as much as possible to do the thing that complies with the doctor’s expectation.

Researcher: Ah, with the standards he gave you?

Lamar: Yes, I feel things, formal things, for example some girls put colours like yellow. You feel it was really disturbing to the extent that you don’t want to follow and read.

Researcher: Ah, so you think this is affecting you as an audience?

Lamar: Yes, for example if there is someone who did her slideshow and her colours were organized, cool, and so on, you feel your eyes are comfortable and you want to see. You want to read and listen. The more organized a slideshow is, the more you want to see. It attracts your attention more.

Lamar changed from a purple background to a light blue one because of the potential impact of these colours (Figure 6.2). The change reflected her concern with the course convenor’s reaction to her choice and showed a calculated decision to follow the teacher’s instructions to create a good slideshow. At the same time, Lamar’s decision
was motivated by its potential impact on the audience who could be encouraged to follow a presentation through the semiotic choices that a presenter took to design the layout of her slideshow. These choices were not looked at as decorative choices to create a better looking appearance for their slideshows. They were rather seen as effective and supportive means to help the audience look at, follow and understand these professionally-oriented slideshows.

*Figure 6.2. Colour change in Lamar's slideshow.*

The change in Lamar’s slideshow from one colour to another reflected her interests as a meaning maker. Looking at such a choice as a challenge, Lamar struggled between her first choice with which she was convinced and what appeared to be a safer and more appropriate choice. That struggle was resolved by her decision to embrace the course convenor’s instructions to which they were introduced in PS1. For her, colour choice in slideshows depends on the personal taste of every girl. Look, I first put this purple, and I was convinced with it, and I liked it, but when I came, I felt that I was taking a risk, and I would lose grades. Let’s be on the safe side.

Lamar’s final choice addressed her priorities which were oriented towards addressing the teacher’s instructions and attaining a positive assessment. Her choice contrasted considerably with Fatin’s colour choice which I discussed earlier (See 5.2). While Lamar prioritized her need to follow the teacher’s instruction to stay on the ‘safe side’,
Fatin embraced the risks associated with deviating from common textual norms because she saw in her colour choice an opportunity to stand out among her colleagues. Though both presenters recognized the design criteria that related to colour choice, each one addressed colour choice differently in response to her own priorities and needs. In Lamar’s case, the affordances offered through the blue colour allowed her to attach a formal layout to her slideshow which she believed was essential for a successful performance in this event.

6.2.1.1.2 Readability

Readability was associated with presenters’ work to offer slideshows that were easily understandable and followed by their audience. Presenters relied on a range of semiotic choices to create a readable layout in their slideshows. Simplicity played a major role in this aspect. According to Salwa,

> the most important thing is for the slides to be simple, and the writing is clear, and the background is clear. It should be practical more than overcrowded, and it should have the important visuals, things which should have visuals (........) one should not put a lot of writing on the slide. If you talk and people read, it would distract them.

Simplicity was associated with avoiding overcrowded slides, providing clear background, choosing visuals selectively and minimizing the use of writing. These were all features that Salwa believed were vital to make a professional slideshow and were carried out in her slideshow through specific semiotic resources (Figure 6. 3).

Salwa employed a white background with writing carried mostly using black font while different shades of red and bold black font were used to foreground subtitles, bullet points and numbers. Variation of colour served as a guide to the audience to recognize the significance of these elements. In slides 4 and 15, Salwa’s belief in avoiding overcrowded slides was manifested through the available white space which dominated the slide in comparison to writing. In slide 12, writing increased considerably and spatially dominated the slide, but it was arranged within three rectangular frames which seemed to organize the appearance of writing and avoid
displaying an overcrowded slide. Salwa was also concerned with selective use of visuals. In slide 11, she used photographs of the drug she was discussing without adding any writing, except for the writing included in the medication containers. In slide 15, she chose to display only one visual while she was discussing contraindications, precautions and recommendations related to her topic. Because the visual showing a man undergoing a dialysis session attended to only one of the written elements on the left side of the slide, it appeared to reflect Salwa’s view on selective use of visuals in slideshows.

Presenters also relied on colour choice to create slideshows that were easily read and followed by their audience. Within the observed presentations, specific colours were commonly used and preferred because they were seen as formal and appropriate to a seminar presentation. White and light shades of blue and grey were commonly used for slide background while black was usually preserved for writing on the slides. Blue and red were also used to highlight important points in writing. These were not only preferred because of their association with formality in a scientific presentation, but also because presenters believed they were effective tools in pointing out salient features in their slideshows. According to Rahaf who was not supportive of choosing a lot of colours in slideshows (Figure 6.4),
Colours I was not (. ) if you see my slides, the screen was white. Do you understand what I mean? I don’t like using a lot of colours, but you know, I only used blue and red in some formal things to make you catch the words. While I was talking a lot, you would be able to catch a word or two.

Like Salwa above, Rahaf associated a blank and white background with a simple, direct and practical appearance appropriate for this setting. She employed a white background for her slides with black font for the writing while highlighting salient points through using a mixture of blue and red with plain and bold font. In addition to her belief that these were formal and appropriate colours in this context, her choices were motivated by a desire to help the audience to recognize important points in the slideshow while listening to her.

6.2.1.3 Coherence

Coherence refers to presenters’ work to establish links between the multimodal ensembles they offered in their slideshows and the purpose of their presentations (Zhao et al, 2014). These links supported their efforts to establish themselves as professionals and extended their previously-discussed attempts to deepen their knowledge and situate it within their professional context (See 5.3). Presenters employed different semiotic choices in their slideshows to establish these links without jeopardizing their efforts to create formal-looking slideshows. One way to create these links appeared through consistent use of specific visuals in the background of their slides. These visuals were
not used for their decorative impact, but rather because of their relevance to the topics under discussion. Hind, for example, included an image of medication containers in seven slides out of the nineteenth slides she displayed in her presentation (Figure 6. 5).

The glass containers in Hind’s slides appeared in different positions and sizes as part of her slides’ background. For Hind, these visuals were not used to illustrate or explain specific points in her discussion. They created a special atmosphere which enabled Hind to visually orient the slideshow towards her discussion of chemotherapy.

Figure 6.5. Background in Hind's slides.

Maram also relied on colour choice because of the connections it created with her professional practice in hospitals (Figure 6. 6).
Blue, I don’t know I felt it is **medical, modern**, I don’t know, this is how I felt. I felt that this shade of blue has something to do with the atmosphere of hospitals.

![Figure 6.6. Shades of blue in Maram's slideshow.](image)

While other presenters looked at colours in terms of their use to create formal-looking slideshows, Maram’s use of different shades of blue in her slideshow was motivated by the association it offered with medical practice in hospitals.

In this section, I discussed three criteria that presenters believed were important to design an appropriate layout in their slideshows. Formality, readability and coherence were essential features to create a successful slideshow which supported presenters’ attempts to establish themselves as professionals and help the audience follow and understand the presented topics and navigate through the displayed slideshows.

### 6.2.2 Writing

Writing represented one of the essential semiotic modes that presenters included in their slideshows. In this section, I will first discuss the design criteria that shaped presenters’ use of this mode and the functions that writing was used to serve. I will also examine the challenges that presenters faced to use writing and how they addressed these challenges.

#### 6.2.2.1 Design criteria for using writing

Presenters associated their use of writing with the teacher’s call to them in PS1 to minimize written texts on their slides. According to Salwa,

> كانه كلام وقرأه هو، لأنو طيب إنثا المـ slide هو يتفقد على البنات اللي يكونوا حاطين الـ challenge حنقوا و أنا حانقأ، طيب إش الـ إنثا كدا تعلمني! 

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the teacher criticizes the girls who put a slide full of writing, and they read it because OK, you read and I read, so where is the challenge in educating me!

In addition to participants’ recollections of the teacher’s instructions, overloading slides with writing was one of the issues that the course convenor repeatedly highlighted in his feedback to presenters within the observed presentations. Since making seminar presentations was associated with presenters’ ability to stand out and demonstrate deep knowledge of their topics (See 5.2 and 5.3), excessive use of writing threatened that ability and raised questions about presenters’ efforts to project successfully the identity of competent presenters because it gave the impression that the presenter was reading her slides, rather than presenting her topic actively.

This was even true for presenters who relied on writing extensively, but did not read their slides while presenting. During the second observed seminar sessions, I attended a presentation in which the presenter received positive feedback from the teacher regarding her topic choice, preparation and performance. The course convenor, however, expressed his disapproval of the appearance of the presenter’s slideshow because of the presenter’s extensive use of writing. Although the presenter defended herself by pointing out that she did not read the writing on her slides, the teacher insisted that it was not acceptable to fill slides with writing even if the presenter was not going to read from her slides.

In addition to the teacher’s instructions, presenters avoided extensive use of writing in slideshows because of its potential negative impact on the audience. There was a common belief in this community that overfilling slides with writing would lead to the audience reading the slides rather than listening attentively to the presenter. According to Rahaf,

قاللنا الدكتور قائلنا "إنتو ما تحطو كل الكلام عشان الكل يقرأه"، هو بصراحة هادا الصح.
أنا حضرت و كنت أشوف الكلام. البنت صح كان الصوت مرة حلو، بس ببني و ببيك غصبا علي بطالع في الكلام و بأقرأ الكلام.

the doctor told us, he told us “don’t put all the talk down so that everybody can read it”. Frankly, this is the right thing. I attended presentations and I would see the writing. It is true the voice was nice,
but between me and you, I couldn’t help it, I would look at the writing and read it.

Presenters were warned against filling their slides with writing to avoid preoccupying the audience with reading the text rather than listening to the presenter and following the presentation attentively. Fatin, for example, recalled a presentation by one of her colleagues in which the presenter relied extensively on writing. Although Fatin was impressed by her colleague’s American accent, fluent speech and confidence, she was critical of the appearance of her slides because it did not help her to follow the presentation.

For Fatin, economical, selective and controlled use of writing represented a useful tool for her to navigate through the presentations she attended and understand their content. This tool was jeopardized in her colleague’s presentation because it did not offer the needed assistance to follow the discussion and understand the presenter’s fast pace of speech.

6.2.2.2 Uses of writing
As a semiotic mode, writing was used to serve specific purposes.

6.2.2.2.1 Recording key information
Writing was used to record information which was considered essential for understanding the discussion in seminar presentations, such as definitions, symptoms and treatment. These were displayed through condensed structures and specific fonts and colours to foreground salient information which aimed to guide presenters while presenting and facilitate audience ability to understand the presented information.
6.2.2.2 Supporting presenters and audience

As a semiotic mode, writing, was not only significant because of the informational content it conveyed. It was equally essential because of the support it provided to maximize presenters’ control and management of their performance. This was particularly highlighted by presenters who were overwhelmingly concerned about the possibility of forgetting parts of their speech. This was the case with Hind who considered writing as a rescue tool to manage her presentation. She was concerned with the possibility of forgetting part of her speech, confusing ideas and losing control of her performance. These concerns were partly caused by her shyness and fear of public speaking. At the same time, she was not confident with her English language skills because she did not consider them to be reliable enough to assist her if she forgot any part of her presentation while presenting.

Regardless of the extensive efforts that presenters exerted to prepare and rehearse their presentations, their concerns with forgetting their talk and being confused represented real threats that could be even worsened by fear and stress while presenting. For Hind, writing represented a tool that supported her memory, allowed her to manage her performance and most importantly provided a safe resource that she could turn to when needed.

6.2.2.3 Challenges in using writing

Making a successful seminar presentation in this community did not only mean engaging in a process of collecting trustworthy information and presenting it. It was also seen as a display of knowledge, a proof of professional skills and a manifestation of rigorous preparation. Presenters’ efforts to address these expectations were seriously questioned by using extensive writing in slideshows. They were expected to make presentations through which they worked to stand out among their colleagues rather
than just collect and present information. Overreliance on the semiotic mode of writing in slideshows threatened a presenter’s ability to fulfil that expectation and raised doubts about her preparation and performance. In addition to the negative impact of overloading their slides with writing on presenters’ ability to project the identity of competent professionals in front of their audience, it was also believed to have a negative impact on the audience ability to follow and understand the presentation.

To address the general agreement in this community on the need to limit use of writing in slideshows, minimization of writing was approached differently by presenters. Many presenters supported their performance by writing down the main points of their presentations in a small note which they kept in their hands and consulted occasionally while presenting. This was an acceptable practice in front of the course convenor as long as the presenter did not resort to reading directly and extensively from this note. Other presenters relied on their slideshow design to manage their use of writing in a way that allowed them to write information they considered necessary for their performance and audience understanding without violating the textual expectations that related to writing. PowerPoint animation was particularly common within the observed presentations to distribute information across slides. Hind, for instance, relied on PowerPoint animation to organize her discussion of the phases of chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting (Figure 6.7). Because of her concerns that she would forget parts of her speech, she included all the needed, basic information in her discussion of the phases, but worked to distribute the written information across five slides to ensure her ability to remember each phase while avoiding to cram all the information in one slide.

In this section, I looked at how writing was used as a semiotic mode within slideshow design in seminar presentations in this event. Writing represented an indispensable mode whose use, was framed by specific expectations and conventions that presenters needed to address to make a good slideshow and perform well. In addition to recording salient information on slides, writing was used to support presenters’ memory and facilitate their control over their presentations. Writing was additionally prioritized because of its considerable impact on the audience in terms of helping them to follow the presentation and understand the discussion.
Figure 6.7. Distribution of writing in Hind's slideshow.

6.2.3 Visuals

Visuals represented another indispensable mode in slideshow design in this event. Presenters’ use of this mode was connected to the course convenor’s instructions
which encouraged them to rely on visuals in their slideshows more than writing. According to Hind, the teacher

slide.jpg

likes images. He prefers. He says “girls do not overload the slide with writing, put visuals”.

Compared to his warnings against extensive use of writing and its negative impact on presenters and audience, the course convenor encouraged students to use visuals extensively. I start my discussion in this section with examining the design criteria that shaped presenters’ use of visuals as a semiotic mode. Then, I move to consider the functions that visuals served to achieve in slideshows.

6.2.3.1 Design criteria

The use of visuals in slideshows was shaped by specific criteria.

6.2.3.1.1 Appropriateness to context

In comparison to the considerable flexibility that surrounded how students designed their slideshows in PS1, slideshow design in PS2 was shaped by specific expectations and requirements. Presenters were required to choose visuals that were appropriate to their professional community and would support their efforts to demonstrate in-depth pharmaceutical knowledge to the course convenor and their colleagues. Various types of visuals were used, including charts, diagrams, photographs and drawings to represent and communicate knowledge. Decorative visuals and animated cartoons were avoided because they jeopardized the professional nature of these presentations, confused the audience and threatened presenters’ ability to appear as competent professionals (See 6.2.1).

6.2.3.1.2 Appropriateness to audience

In addition to employing visuals which were appropriate to their professional context, presenters’ use of visuals was also constrained by the extent of their appropriateness to the audience. According to Salwa,

Visuals must be suitable to the people you are addressing, for example people who get scared or who are disgusted.
To make a successful presentation, presenters needed to consider the nature of their audience while designing their slideshows to choose visuals that their audience would find acceptable and appropriate.

In her discussion of obesity, Maram pointed out that the number of women affected by obesity was considerably larger than men. In her slideshow, however, she relied on photographs of obese men more than women which she believed was necessary because of the male teacher in the course (Figure 6.8).

If you notice, I avoided putting photographs of women and things like that. I mean part of the body has to be exposed. So if I put female although photographs of women with obesity are considerably more common, so I did not choose female. I chose photographs of male and I only used decent photographs.

*Figure 6.8. Photographs of male patients in Maram’s slideshow.*

Although visuals showing female patients were more relevant to her discussion, Maram felt that she could not choose these visuals because of the male teacher whom she prioritized over the majority of her female-only audience. In addition to choosing visuals showing obese men more than women, she included decent photographs in which patients’ bodies tended to be covered. Despite the fact that her presentation was situated within a community of pharmacists whose professional practice entailed coming into contact with all types of scientific visuals, it seemed that Maram
approached this aspect of her slideshow design as a student under assessment rather than a professional.

Layla’s use of visuals was similarly constrained by the nature of her audience (Figure 6. 9). She was concerned about the effect of the severity of the visuals she needed to use to discuss the diagnosis and assessment of opioids dependence in her presentation. Her concerns, however, were directed towards the effect of the displayed photographs on her colleagues.

One of the things which they examine is the needle mark. It is frankly the lightest thing I felt I could display so it won’t emotionally distress the girls (…….) You are talking with an audience that consists of females only, females and young. Maybe if I give it to doctors in a big conference, I can show them photographs which are more severe.

**Figure 6.9.** Photographs of needle marks in Layla’s slideshow.

Despite the scientific orientation of seminar presentations in this event and presenters’ efforts to explain and illustrate their topics in a professional manner, their semiotic choices were constrained by the audience they were addressing. In her discussion of diagnosis and assessment of prolonged drug abuse, Layla employed two photographs that attended visually to one of the points listed in writing on the slide. Although she could have included more visuals to explain other aspects in the slide, she chose photographs of needle marks because she considered them to be milder and more appropriate to her young, female-only audience. She anticipated what her audience would like, accept and approve of in this event and she addressed that expectation.
through using these specific visuals. At the same time, Layla’s current choices did not dim her awareness that addressing a more professional audience as in a conference presentation would require and allow her to choose visuals through which she could address the requirements of her topic without reservations.

6.2.3.2 Uses of visuals

Visuals were used in seminar presentations to achieve different purposes.

6.2.3.2.1 Explaining scientific content

Participants used visuals to explain and illustrate their topics. According to Layla, visuals represented explanatory tools, you don’t even need the writing. They are enough to explain and understand the information better.

As a powerful semiotic tool in seminar presentations, visuals were used at times instead of writing to support their discussion and help their audience understand and follow the presented information.

Presenters employed visuals to support their explanation in different ways. Fatin, for example, explained the symptoms of PCOS through combining speech, visuals and writing (Figure 6.10). The visuals, however, were particularly significant because they helped her to bridge the gap between common understanding of some of these symptoms and their scientific meaning in relation to her topic.

There were a few symptoms that if I don’t put any visuals, it would be OK. Like acne, it is OK, people know it, but the last one I didn’t know what it was. (xxx) We took it, a black thing, but what is it? It turned out to be people who have dark spots on the skin of their necks. Many
women have this, but it isn’t because she doesn’t take care of herself. It is hormones that cause this (………..) so this photograph is of a woman, look at her neck, so I used it, so that they can understand. Also, thin hair at the forehead, some girls may not understand, so I put it, so they don’t need to read the text. It is among the symptoms, thin hair, acne and so on.

Fatin placed greater significance on using the visuals to explain ‘acanthosis nigricans’ as a symptom commonly misunderstood by people. Instead of associating patients who suffered from this symptom with poor personal hygiene habits, Fatin used the visual to bring to light the symptom as a physical problem associated with PCOS. The written captions in the table were secondary in importance because of the illustration provided by the visual illustration which Fatin relied on to enable her audience to understand the symptoms without necessarily needing to read the captions.

Figure 6.10. Visual illustration of symptoms in Fatin's slideshow.

Although she was concerned with specific symptoms that she believed were not previously known by her audience, she adopted a consistent design in which each visual in the table was accompanied by a brief written caption to explain the symptoms. These choices were important in this event because of the seven-to-nine timeframe that presenters needed to follow which did not leave adequate time for explaining lengthy writing on slides. In this way, visuals represented practical and helpful solutions that saved presenters’ and audience time and facilitated presenters’ work to represent and communicate knowledge.

Visuals were also useful to explain aspects of knowledge that were not commonly highlighted by presenters within the observed presentations. This appeared in Rahaf’s slideshow in which she used photographs to introduce her presentation on
trichotillomania and raise awareness among her audience of patients’ plight and suffering. While preparing for her presentation on the rare hair-pulling disorder, Rahaf noticed that her colleagues did not consider the topic to be important enough for a seminar presentation. In addition to its statistical rarity, most of her colleagues had not heard about trichotillomania before and did not consider it as a serious medical issue in comparison to other serious health issues, such as kidney and heart diseases. Because she believed that this reaction posed a considerable threat to how the audience would respond to her presentation, Rahaf introduced her topic with a story of a real trichotillomania patient that she watched on YouTube. She supported her speech about the patient with displaying five photographs across two slides that she extracted from the YouTube video she watched (Figure 6.11).

Rahaf’s use of photographs in her introduction was significant in comparison to how other presenters introduced their topics. Rather than following the common textual practices in this community to use medically-oriented visuals to introduce their topics, Rahaf offered a photographic display of trichotillomania to highlight the impact that the disorder has on patients. To introduce her topic to the audience and gain their attention, Rahaf employed a series of semiotic choices that were not commonly used in designing introductions of slideshows in this event. She chose a real story and offered the patient’s name and briefly described how this patient was transformed by trichotillomania from a healthy child to a sick adult. Combining the story with the visuals in Rahaf’s introductory slides deviated from the common norms and expectations in seminar presentations which tended to adopt an impersonal and distant approach towards patients. The photographs that Rahaf extracted from the video showed the patient first as a healthy child, surrounded by family and friends. In these photos, the child was
shown through a frontal angle that helps to initiate audience involvement with the represented participant in the photographs. When Rahaf moved to describe the effect of trichotillomania on the woman in the following slide, she employed visuals that showed the patient alone with the symptoms visibly clear on her appearance. The oblique angle through which the woman was shown in these slides created a sense of detachment between the represented participant in the photograph and the audience. This sense of detachment was appropriate for this context because it echoed professional practices in health care which presenters had towards their patients in terms of identifying health problems, examining physical symptoms and offering appropriate treatment. As a child, the patient seemed to be a happy, normal child surrounded by family and friends. As a grown-up, on the other hand, the patient was shown alone and she was no longer looking directly at the audience. It was rather the audience who were looking at and examining the patient.

Researcher: Why did you start it with a story? I saw your colleagues starting with the title or an outline.
also saw people starting their presentations with **statistics**.

Rahaf: A lot start this way.

Researcher: You started with a completely different thing.

Rahaf: Yes, because there are topics that don’t need that. There are topics that I cannot start with an **outline**. They don’t know what it is. I come and say like 60% have this, 30% have this, but what is it? Most of the girls didn’t know what it was. When I was rehearsing and practising, only two said they heard about it. The rest were shocked that it was really a disease. They thought it was a psychological issue.

Researcher: Mmm a psychological thing?

Rahaf: Yes, they thought it was nonsense, a trivial issue. No, it isn’t like that. This is a disease and really a lot of people suffer from it in Saudi Arabia and there are no statistics about it.

Researcher: And that’s why you had to bring a **story**?

Rahaf: Yes, so that they can feel it and get affected, no, no, that’s impossible, oh **my God**, that’s why.

Although other presenters showed interests in exploring and understanding emotional and personal aspects of their topics, only few of them attempted to bring these aspects to light within their presentations. Unlike commonly depersonalized displays of patients’ symptoms in other presentations, Rahaf’s photographs aimed to bring to her audience a story of a real patient which were used to bridge the gap that Rahaf identified between what she considered to be a serious disorder and her colleagues’ attitudes towards the topic. Rahaf’s use of visuals to change her colleagues’ attitude and inform them was not surprising, considering the importance that presenters attached to their colleagues’ views of their presentations. She needed to attract the audience attention and trigger their sympathy and understanding towards trichotillomania patients to make a successful presentation. These photographs additionally allowed Rahaf to address aspects of meaning that could not be safely communicated otherwise without sacrificing
Despite their deviation from common textual practices in this event, Rahaf’s introductory story and its accompanying photographs received a positive reaction from the course convenor who commented positively on the story and praised her companionate attitude towards patients, but he advised her to combine the effective impact of the story and the visuals with the statistics she presented near the end of her presentation. While discussing the presentation with Rahaf, the teacher told Rahaf that combining the story with the statistics was important to enhance the impact of the story and ground her presentation within the norms and conventions of professionally acceptable presentations in this community.

6.2.3.2 Establishing credibility

A common textual practice among the observed presenters appeared in displaying the logos of the websites they consulted to prepare their presentations while introducing their topics (Figure 6.12). According to Salwa,

I put the references at the beginning and at the end (..........). At the beginning for credibility so that when a person sees it, they will see that I looked in the FDA. Then, all my information that will come later, I can trust you. You read thoroughly so it provides credibility.

Presenters used this display as an evidence of their knowledge, an indication of their efforts and an invitation to their audience to trust the content of their presentations. It represented a way to address the course convenor’s call to students in PS1 to rely on credible and trustworthy resources to make their presentations.

Within the observed sessions, the course convenor commented only on the display included within Lamar’s slide below in which she included the Wikipedia logo which he described as an inappropriate resource in this context. There were, however, many other presenters who relied on similar general websites, but none of them referred to any of these websites in their slideshows. They included logos which were directly related to their pharmaceutical practice, such as Medscape, FDA, SFDA and Ministry of Health which reflected presenters’ attempts to establish themselves as professionals in pharmacy and align to common views of what was considered as academically and
professionally acceptable resources. Social networking sites, such as YouTube, Instagram and Twitter which I described earlier represented significant resources for other presenters who relied on them to make their presentations without referring to these sites within their slideshows (See 5.3.5). Presenters appeared to adopt a selective approach towards the logos they included in which their awareness of the general and non-specialized nature of these websites prevented them from including these resources in their slideshows.

Presenters also used visuals to support the semiotic modes of writing and speech. In addition to using visuals to explain and illustrate specific information, visuals were also used to enhance the meanings communicated through other semiotic modes. Samya, for example, employed a drawing in her introductory slide to support the verbal explanation she used to introduce her discussion of counterfeit drugs. When Samya started preparing and rehearsing her presentation, she noticed how her colleagues found it difficult to follow her presentation because they were not familiar with the technical term ‘counterfeit’. They asked her to translate the word while she was rehearsing her presentation and they also advised her to offer easier and more accessible alternatives within her presentation that would help them understand and follow her discussion. To address her colleagues’ comments, she designed her introduction in a way that combined speech, writing and a visual drawing to illustrate the meaning of counterfeit drugs (Figure 6.13). Samya looked at the drawing in terms of the general atmosphere it provided to introduce her topic.
There are some visuals used for their appearance because they let you join in the atmosphere, like this visual, I wasn’t going to talk about it. It is just an introduction, but I put it so that it conveys to the person the importance of the topic or danger.

Unlike the common use of snakes in medical fields as a representative symbol of pharmaceutical extraction of medication, the snake displayed in Samya’s introductory slide highlighted the universally acknowledged and harmful nature of snakes. Although she did not refer to the drawing while introducing her presentation, she counted on the drawing’s ability to create an atmosphere of threat and danger that helped to thematically orient her audience to the hazardous effect of counterfeit drugs.

Figure 6.13. Introductory slide in Samya's slideshow.

6.2.3.2.4 Attracting audience attention

Presenters also relied on visuals to gain the audience attention and increase their engagement in the presentation. According to Salwa,

He taught us, he said to us that when things are visual, they will be better for the person who is following. It will attract more, instead of
having the slide full of words, words, words. A person would be bored. There is nothing to attract my attention, to make me focus. Visuals help a person to focus more, instead of having it all in words for a person to read and read. One will be bored.

Effective use of visuals was seen as a sign of success in seminar presentations to represent and communicate knowledge. This use also extended to the potential impact that visuals have on helping the audience understand and follow these professional presentations.

6.2.3.2.5 Conveying confidence

While extensive use of writing in slideshows was discouraged because of its negative impact on presenters and their audience, presenters in this community were highly encouraged to rely on scientific, pharmaceutically-relevant and professionally-oriented visuals. In addition to facilitating the discussion of their topics, relying on visuals was seen as an indication of presenters’ advanced linguistic and presentational skills. According to Hind,

The teacher likes images. He prefers. He says “girls do not overload the slides with writing, put visuals”. Ma sha Allah², there were some girls, ma sha Allah, weren’t afraid that they forget so you would find a slide that consists of a visual. She would go on about explaining the image ((laughing)). He enjoys that. He likes that a lot. He says “the more visuals you put and the less writing you use, you convey more confidence”, as if you are conveying to the audience Oh this one is self-confident. She understands her topic and she can speak fast.

² ‘Ma sha Allah’ is a commonly used Arabic phrase among Muslims which indicates praise and admiration to the topic of conversation while acknowledging and recognizing God’s grandeur and grace. In Islam, this phrase is used to protect the person admired from the evil eye which may result from envy and greed.
Being able to include and explain visuals in their slideshows without the need for extensive writing to support them enabled presenters to appear as confident and competent speakers. For Hind, and many of her colleagues, this was not an easily unproblematic goal to achieve. Hind admired presenters who were comfortable with displaying visuals and explaining them without any writing to read or consult.

6.3 Speech in Seminar Presentations

As a semiotic mode, speech is connected with linguistic and paralinguistic features that speakers employ to represent and communicate knowledge. While linguistic features enable speakers to “articulate and connect the chosen words and syntactic structures that make up the meanings they wish to express”, paralinguistic features, such as tone and intonation entail features, such as speakers’ “attitude towards the topic and the audience; their intention of affirming, exclaiming or questioning; their emphasis on key words or ideas, etc.” (Morell, 2015, p. 140-141). Examination of these features pave the way for a better understanding of how they contribute to multimodal meaning making. In this study, engaging with speech was generally described as the most challenging aspect in preparing seminar presentations. In this section, I will look at the design criteria that shaped presenters’ use of speech and the functions it served within seminar presentations. The section is concluded by examining the ways through which presenters managed the challenges associated with using this mode in seminar presentations. Because of the methodological constraints that I faced while conducting this study (See 3.5.7), my examination of this mode will be based on interview data and observational notes. Although these instruments provide data that miss the intricate details of using this mode in seminar presentations, they shed light on this mode as a motivated sign by focusing on what presenters prioritized in using this mode.

6.3.1 Design Criteria for Using Speech

Participants in this study associated their use of speech with specific criteria which they believed were necessary to use this mode efficiently to make their presentations. These included pronunciation, grammatical accuracy and a native-like accent.

6.3.1.1 Pronunciation

Considerable attention was devoted to accurate pronunciation in this event, especially of medical and scientific terminology. In fact, when students talked about English language use and the challenges associated with total reliance on English to
make their presentations, they often focused on pronunciation more than any other aspect. It required them to rehearse and practice extensively to ensure that they were able to pronounce words correctly. Participants described how the course convenor was particularly strict with accurate pronunciation of scientific terminology, especially in relation to drugs and medications.

Hind: The first thing is the **language**. This is the most important thing. The doctor also focuses so much on **pronunciation** especially in medicines. I can make mistakes in speech. My pronunciation could be wrong

Researcher: But in medications, it is not acceptable?

Hind: Not acceptable. I lost a grade because I have mistakes in some words (.). It was not allowed, forbidden because you pronounce a medication incorrectly, one letter is wrong, we will think it is another medicine. He always focuses on medicines and even if girls, if she mispronounces a medicine wrong, he corrects it for her. While she is speaking, he corrects the name of the medicine.

Considering the fact that the course convenor’s feedback within the observed seminar sessions was typically given after the end of each seminar presentation, inaccurate pronunciation represented an exception to that consistent practice. This exception represented a threat that caused presenters to loose grade in the same way that Hind above lost a grade because she mispronounced names of drugs in her presentation.
Inaccurate pronunciation of medications and treatment was avoided because of the potentially devastating consequences that may result from a mispronounced formula or prescription. They associated accurate pronunciation not only with making a good seminar presentation, but also with their professional responsibility in pharmacy. Although preparing for these presentations did not involve direct contact with patients, the possibility of mistaking one medication for another due to mispronunciation and the potentially negative impact of such mistakes highlighted accurate pronunciation as an integral feature of their use of speech.

The course convenor’s immediate feedback on inaccurate pronunciation questioned the quality of presenters’ work and preparation and threatened their efforts to attain positive assessment. Moreover, a presenter’s ability to accurately pronounce medical terms, especially medications and treatments had a considerable impact on her image as a successful professional. According to Salwa,

الواحد ما يجي يقول كلمة، لازم يكون يعرف الكلمة كيف تنطق. إنو عيب إنه يجي يقول اسم دوا غلط.

One cannot come and say a word, she needs to know how the word is pronounced. It is shameful for a person to come and say the name of the drug in the wrong way.

The accuracy of pronunciation exceeded the potential harm it may cause to patients to its impact on presenters’ views of themselves as professionals. It was equally significant for how they viewed themselves in relation to other members. Salwa’s use of the word “عيب” (shameful) carried a mixture of meanings in Arabic connecting inappropriateness, shame and repulsiveness. Because the word’s use is usually associated with socially unacceptable behaviour, its use by one of the participants in this event brought to light the impact it created on a student’s image among other members in this community. In this case, inaccurate pronunciation represented a source of shame that distorted a student’s image as a presenter and a professional in relation to other members in her community.

6.3.1.2 Grammatical accuracy

Unlike the attention that was given in participants, accounts to accurate pronunciation described above, grammatical accuracy did not attract similar attention. Presenters managed this aspect of their speech by adopting the grammatical structures
they came into contact with through consulting scientific resources, seeking help from more competent language users and adequately rehearsing their presentations before they presented in front of their teacher and colleagues. Minor errors, such as subject-verb agreement and adjective-adverb differentiation that did not impact presenters’ ability to communicate with their audience were not pointed out by the course convenor and presenters were not preoccupied by them during their practice sessions or actual presentations. Within the seventeen observed presentations in this case study, the course convenor commented on the accuracy of language structures in only two presentations in which presenters struggled with basic sentence structures in a way that affected the smoothness and intelligibility of their talks.

6.3.1.3 A native-like accent

The accent in which English was spoken represented an important aspect of speech for many students in this event. Speaking with an American or a British accent was particularly valued because it was seen as an evidence of a speaker’s mastery of English language skills. If a presenter spoke English with an American or a British accent, she would be seen as a competent language speaker who was in control of using English competently and successfully. A native-like accent represented a socially significant issue among Saudis because it was often seen as an indication that the speaker has been in private education in school. In Saudi Arabia, private school education is mainly sought because of the focus it provides on nurturing English language skills among learners to provide them with an advantageous head start in university studies and professional practice afterwards. A native-like accent was also considered as an indication of the social and financial status of speakers. There was a common assumption that such accent meant that the speaker was rich and has travelled around the world.

Fatin, for example, believed that an American accent was indispensable for a good and convincing performance. Although she received a positive feedback on her presentation, she repeatedly expressed her dissatisfaction with her English language skills during our interview. When I asked about what she wished to improve in her language, she particularly highlighted the accent which she considered as a hard-to-reach goal that was not available to her despite the long years she spent studying English in private education before joining the university. This view was also extended to how she assessed her colleagues’ performance in terms of their accent more than any other aspect.
Fatin: Some girls I know them, they are not very good in English, but when she presented, she spoke English well.


Fatin: Yes how? Maybe if I didn’t know them and I heard them, I would say this girl is not even Arabic. Some girls were that good.

Researcher: What do you think the reason for this? Especially for those you described their language as not very good?

Fatin: Some people have English, but don’t have the *accent*. Some people have. I see this with my two brothers. They have the same level. They are twins, it is the same, but one has the *accent*. When he speaks, I tell him that he sounds like he has an American mother or something. My other brother no, they speak well, they are twins, it is the same, but the other one does not have the *accent*. He says he can’t say it like the other one. Girls who are like that, who have the *accent*, it is very good.
An American accent seemed to be a separate and independent asset in relation to English language proficiency. As students worked together for years since they joined the College, they recognized each other’s weaknesses and strengths, especially those related to English language skills. Fatin assessed her colleagues’ presentations in terms of the accent they were able to project. Her prior knowledge of their limited abilities with English contrasted considerably with her surprise at their American accent while presenting which made them appear capable of speaking English as if it was their first language. In the same way Fatin perceived her American-accented brother with admiration, she admired students who had that accent because they seemed to her to use English in the right way. For these students, having the accent was “good” because it conveyed competence and mastery over the language.

The attention given to a speaker’s accent was not connected to other aspects of language use, such as grammatical accuracy and pronunciation, the extent of presenters’ efforts or the content of their presentations. In fact, an American or a British accent seemed sometimes to outweigh the value of other aspects associated with speech in these presentations and that appeared in how they viewed their colleagues and assessed their presentations. Lamar, for instance, expressed her dislike towards one of the most successful presentations within the observed seminar sessions because of the presenter’s accent. Despite the fact that the presenter received a full grade and a positive feedback from the course convenor, Lamar expressed her disapproval of that presenter’s work because of her accent.

Her English was really bad and she was so fast, but she had information, and she has read really well. Her knowledge made the teacher overlook her English, and he gave her a full mark because she knows the information, she knows the dose, she knows the price, she knows everything as if everything she has read was in her mind, but I don’t agree with that.
In one of our informal talks, Lamar spoke about the importance of having an American accent because it was easier on the ear to hear and it showed that a speaker was able to speak English fluently and accurately. Although Lamar acknowledged the presenter’s in-depth knowledge and thorough preparation, she assessed her colleague’s performance in terms of her accent, rather than her ability to use the language to carry out the task in a comprehensible way. It did not matter to Lamar that the presenter was not struggling with grammatical accuracy or comprehensibility in her talk, the presenter’s performance was judged by Lamar in light of her accent. Lamar’s belief in the significance of accent was strong enough to the extent that she believed the teacher did her colleague a favour by concentrating on other aspects of her presentation and overlooking her accent.

This overemphasis on the value of accent appeared also in students’ dissatisfaction with their own language skills. Throughout this study, different students approached me to ask about tips that I recommended as an English language teacher to improve their language skills. I noticed that many of them were asking about their desire to change their accents because they wished they could speak English, as they framed it, كأنها لغتي الأصلية as if it is my original language

They wished to have an American or a British accent because they believed it was a prestigious asset among other members in their community. It did not matter to them that their current knowledge of English enabled them with adequate preparation and practice to use the language according to their needs to communicate comprehensibly with others and attain good grades in their studies. The accent was vital to claim the status of a proficient English language speaker and project the image of a competent and professional presenter which they valued and aspired to attain.

6.3.2 Uses of Speech

Presenters considered preparing their speech as the most challenging aspect in seminar presentations. They used this semiotic mode to articulate their knowledge while using visuals and writing as supportive tools. Although visuals were at times used to convey specific meanings independently of verbal articulation, speech represented the major mode through which they represented and communicated their knowledge. In addition to communicating scientific content, students’ ability to control and utilize the
semiotic mode of speech in accordance with common values in this community appeared to be equally important to its content.

Governed by the immediacy that surrounded its production and reception, presenters prepared and rehearsed their speech ahead to maximize control of their performance which seemed as important as the content of their speech. Control of this mode, however, was not easily achieved by all presenters who seemed to share a common concern regarding their ability to use speech effectively while relying exclusively on English. I have previously pointed out the common belief in this community which considered proficient use of English as a guarantee of success in seminar presentations (See 5.4). Throughout my stay at the College, students often described their experiences with preparing for their presentations through pointing out that

أهم حاجة اللغة the most important thing is the language and

اللغة هي الأساس في الورزنتشن语言 is the base in our presentations

While, according to students, mixing English and Arabic was a common practice in many of the other courses and activities in the College of Pharmacy, Arabic was only used in seminar presentations when presenters discussed their work with the course convenor. It was not, therefore, surprising to hear the year-five students speak about the significance attached to having an excellent command of English as a prerequisite to successful engagement in this event.

6.3.3 Managing the Mode of Speech
Considering the significance attached to speech as a semiotic mode and the challenges associated with its use in this context, presenters managed their use of speech through relying on specific practices.

6.3.3.1 Regular contact with scientific materials in English
Presenters’ regular contact with scientific materials in English represented a major source of assistance to prepare their speech and make their presentations. According to Maram,

بعد ما تقري نفس الكلمات تمسك معاك خلاص. إنك ترجع لا إراديا تقولي الجملة تأخذيها

خلاص كدا تفككريها. من الـ text
After you read, the same words just stick in your mind. You unintentionally say the sentence you take from the text. That’s how you remember it.

Regular contact with English through reading, attending lectures, studying and watching videos allowed presenters to adopt many of the phrases and sentences they came into contact with which facilitated their ability to construct their speech. This was especially highlighted by presenters who were not confident or comfortable with using English beyond their disciplinary studies. For Salwa, the benefits of this regular contact was invaluable to manage her PS2 presentation in comparison to her presentation in PS1 which she described as more challenging.

Salwa: The scientific part was not really difficult because we already know it in general. We understand the written materials, but the challenge was when I did the presentation last year. It was completely different. We had to say it in English. The words were a bit difficult, I had to translate. I had to know the grammatical rules so it was because my topic was different, but here it is much easier.

Researcher: You mean that you don’t worry about the language as much now because it relates to your studies?
Salwa: Yes because that presentation was different from what I was accustomed to, but it depends. Some girls speak English in their personal lives so it is not a challenge for them. It is different for someone who speaks English. For me, I don’t have anyone around me speaking English so the ‘circus’ was a challenge for me, but if I give it to someone who watches movies and has somebody speaking English with them, it depends on the person herself.

Unlike many other students who described their PS1 presentations as easier and less stressful, Salwa found her year-four presentation challenging because of the nature of the topic which represented an unfamiliar territory in relation to using English. In contrast to how she was used to discuss, read and study about pharmaceutically-oriented topics using English in the College, making a presentation about the ‘circus’ in PS1 in English was different. It required a different type of vocabulary knowledge that Salwa did not have access to at the time. Though it was common among presenters to look at year-five presentations in terms of the extensive efforts they required and the meticulous assessment criteria they entailed, Salwa’s description above sheds light on one of the personal challenges that made her describe the year-four presentation as more challenging and demanding. Her unfamiliarity with the nature of the topic was only one aspect of that view. She was equally focused on her inability to relate to the topic by discussing, researching and approaching it in the same way that was available in the making of her pharmaceutically-oriented PS2 presentation.

Although many presenters wished to improve their English language skills, their current command of English seemed efficient and appropriate in relation to their previously-prepared and well-rehearsed presentations in PS2. Discussing their work with the course convenor, however, represented a different challenge because their regular contact with English scientific materials did not necessarily offer them the support they needed to engage in that discussion efficiently. Discussing their work with the teacher often involved the need to explain their choices and elaborate on the content of their presentations beyond their prior preparation and sometimes beyond even the boundaries of their topics. In this way, using English to prepare their presentations and using it to engage in dialogue represented different challenges. According to Salwa,
My English is not really perfect, but because we have a presentation, we practiced. We tried to pronounce the words correctly, work on the grammar, but maybe as a conversation, a long conversation a bit because we are mostly scientific, regardless of how we try in other things. May be it is less when it is scientific. This is what made us know what to talk about because we studied all of it, so we know how to pronounce this and talk about that and we understood, so it had an effect what we were talking about.

Regular access to scientific language in English and through preparation may have facilitated presenters’ ability to make their previously-prepared and well-rehearsed presentations in English, but it did not have the same impact on their ability to discuss their work with the teacher. Many presenters highlighted the gap they felt existing between their search and use of information in their presentations and their concerns regarding their ability to attend confidently and successfully to the course convenor’s feedback. Although this feedback was triggered by the content of their presentations, it was common for this feedback to extend beyond the boundaries of their topics by requiring presenters to elaborate on presented issues, justify their choices and assert their knowledge.

6.3.3.2 Year-five colleagues

Presenters also relied on help from their colleagues who were more proficient in English to prepare their speech and the writing on their slides. Samya explained how this helped her to compose her talk.
Samya divided the construction of speech in her presentation into two parts. The first reflected the common practice among presenters to extract parts of their speech from scientific materials, such as definitions, lists of symptoms and statistics. These did not require much alteration as presenters worked to combine phrases and words, incorporate them within the body of their presentations and rehearse them afterwards.

The second part was more challenging because it related to preparation of issues which required presenters to construct talk from scratch as in elaboration of points or
description of visuals. In Samya’s account, construction of speech started with her own work, but was supported later by consulting more proficient speakers of English who helped her to connect different sentences, eliminate any possible errors. These consultations did not threaten the originality of her work as a professional presenter because they represented a secondary, but invaluable supportive step to her own preparation and choice of words and structures.

6.3.3.3 **Arabic**

Another significant source of support in constructing their speech appeared in presenters’ accounts of how Arabic, i.e. the native tongue of the participating presenters, played an effective role in facilitating their engagement in this event in two significant ways. As presenters worked to prepare for their presentations, they often came across new and unfamiliar scientific information. Some of this information was challenging to absorb and presenters needed to understand it before incorporating it in their presentations. Many of the students spoke about accessing Arabic books, websites and YouTube videos to familiarize themselves with new ideas and challenging concepts. According to Maram,

ترى في أشياء ما فهمتها. تكون معقدة بالانجليزي. أرجع أفراها بالعربي و أترجمها بأسلوبي، بأسلوبي. أنا حاصله أشياء بسيطة ، بسيطة، ومنسوب لصاحبيني لاني عارفة كيف أوصل لهم لأنو لغتنا واحدة تقريبا. في أشياء كثيرة أرجع لمراجع عربية تكون اللغة العلمية مرة معقدة هنا . أقرأها بالعربي و أرجع أنا خلاص عارفة الأشياء العلمية اللي حاستخدمها.

You know there are things I didn’t understand. They are complicated in English, so I go and read them in Arabic and I translate them in my way, in my way. I would use simple things, simple to reach out to my friends because I know how to reach out to them because our language is almost the same. I mean there are many things where I go to Arabic references where the scientific language is very complicated here. I read them in Arabic and then I just know what scientific stuff I am going to use.

Arabic materials provided a useful tool to access complicated aspects while preparing their presentations. Presenters believed that successful participation in seminar presentations moved beyond what was offered to the audience to building deep knowledge of their topics to maintain the confidence needed to present and prepare for the potentially thorough feedback ahead. Consulting Arabic resources was, thus, valued
because it provided the presenters with a valuable opportunity to facilitate that in-depth understanding of their topics. In addition to understanding their topics, presenters also incorporated the information they accessed in Arabic in their presentations. Their knowledge of each other and their regular contact with scientific materials in English made it possible for them to extract the needed information from Arabic sources, coordinate it with materials derived from English materials and present it in English in accordance with the needs of their audience.

Arabic also played a major role in facilitating presenters’ engagement with the course convenor’s feedback. Considering that many students were not comfortable with speaking English beyond prior preparation, Arabic served as a communicative tool to enable presenters to discuss their presentations with the teacher. According to Fatin, Arabic also played a major role in facilitating presenters’ engagement with the course convenor’s feedback. Considering that many students were not comfortable with speaking English beyond prior preparation, Arabic served as a communicative tool to enable presenters to discuss their presentations with the teacher. According to Fatin,

كلمة انه اضافة السواعد و خلاص الـ presentation

خليها عربي، لأنه discussion

It is enough that the presentation is all in English, but the discussion make it in Arabic because he sometimes asks about things that are not related, are not related to the topic.

The potentially thorough and unpredictable feedback in this event made Arabic appear as a rescue mechanism that enabled presenters to discuss their work. It appeared to liberate presenters from worrying about using English beyond their previously-prepared work by providing them with a highly valued opportunity in this community to elaborate on their work and explain their choices while addressing the course convenor’s comments. For many, this opportunity was invaluable because it allowed them to maintain the confidence and control needed to perform successfully in this community. By setting them free from worrying about communicating in English only, Arabic allowed them to focus on comprehending the content of their explanation and manage their performance in a way that saved the professional and competent image they strived to create and maintain.

In this section, I looked at the social practices surrounding speech as a semiotic mode in seminar presentations. The chapter highlighted the significance attached to accurate pronunciation because of the course convenor’s attention to this aspect and the association created between this aspect and the professional responsibility and image that presenters aspired to create and sustain. Attention was also given among the
students to presenters’ ability to project an American or a British accent. While accurate pronunciation was managed through practice and consultation of relevant resources, the accent represented a harder goal to achieve that was highly valued among students. Discussion also highlighted the means through which presenters managed the construction of their speech. These included regular contact with scientific materials in English and employing help from more proficient colleagues. Arabic also surfaced as a major source of support to manage talk in terms of deciphering complex and unfamiliar information while preparing their presentations and engaging effectively with the course convenor’s feedback after each presentation.

6.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I examined the semiotic choices that surrounded participants’ use of slideshow design and speech to represent and communicate knowledge. Examination explored the design criteria that shaped how these choices were used, their purposes and how presenters managed these choices. Looking at these choices was essential to examine presentations as multimodal ensembles. They highlight how presenters’ engagement in meaning making was not haphazard or meaningless. While presenters tried to fit within the expectations and requirements that surrounded the making of presentations in this event, they worked to fit their choices within their own priorities and the requirements and expectations they identified to make their presentations.

The analysis in this chapter looked at oral presentations as a multimodal genre in which presenters employed different semiotic choices in slideshow design and speech to represent and communicate knowledge. Although speech was initially and commonly described as the most important and challenging aspect in making their presentations, participants’ accounts revealed the complicated position of language in seminar presentations. Language was a major and challenging mode to employ and control, but it was not the only mode that presenters relied to make meaning. Other modes and semiotic resources were used to represent different layers of meaning that could not have been explained through language alone. Presenters relied on these modes and resources to explain and illustrate their topics, establish themselves as competent professionals and create an appropriate atmosphere in their slideshows.
Chapter 7 Meaning Making in Slideshows: Exploring Semiotic Choices

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I focus on the semiotic resources associated with layout, writing and visuals which were employed in the slideshows designed by Lamar and Layla. Because texts represent “traces of people, contexts and implied practices” (Pahl and Rowsell, 2012, p. 38), these choices provide insight into the compositional processes underlying their design. They also draw attention to the active agency of presenters whose meaning-making decisions shed light on their identities as presenters and professionals in this literacy event. I focus my analysis in this chapter on the slideshows designed by Lamar and Layla because of the different orientations that each presenter shows through specific semiotic choices towards the making of meaning in her presentation to position herself as a professional in pharmacy. Both presenters recognize and embrace the textual norms and expectations that shape slideshow design in this event. At the same time, their semiotic decisions reflect how each presenter worked around these norms and expectations to establish herself in this community. While Lamar appears to identify with her membership as a student under assessment in her current community in the College, Layla seems to invest in her future practice as a doctor of pharmacy who needs to attend to challenging health issues in her society professionally.

To facilitate the analysis of semiotic resources, each slideshow is divided into stages. The division reflects the functions that each section of slides serves in the presentation (Eggins, 2004, p. 60). Within the observed presentations which discussed medical issues, such as diseases, syndromes and disorders, slideshows were usually divided into four stages and each of these stages consisted of common, recurrent elements (Table 7.1). Variation, however, occurred among the observed presenters in how they displayed these elements. For example, while some presenters displayed the logos of the websites they consulted in combination with the outlines of their presentations, others dedicated a separate slide for these logos. Another variation appeared in the placement of statistical occurrences of diseases as some presenters chose to show statistics near the beginning of their slideshows while others displayed them after the discussion of treatment. These textual variations among presenters demonstrated their active agency as meaning makers. Decisions regarding which elements to be used and where they should be placed in slideshows shed light on what meaning makers consider to be essential for successful participation in this literacy
event and how they carried out their understanding. Examination of agency in this chapter extends the discussion in the previous chapter which explored how participants approached their use of speech and slideshow design in this event. This use was mediated by participants’ efforts to adhere to common norms and expectations while working at the same time to address their interests and sustain their images as professionals.

In this chapter, I start my examination of slideshows by considering how the presenter authoring each slideshow chose her topic and how she approached the design of her slideshow. After that, I examine the semiotic resources that were employed within the stages of each slideshow. The chapter concludes by discussing what the multimodal analysis of these slideshows offers to examination of literacy practices surrounding students’ engagement in seminar presentations.

Table 7.1 Stages in Slideshows in PS2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Constituent Elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Stage</td>
<td>Setting-up the Presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Stage</td>
<td>Introducing the Topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Causes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Symptoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mechanism of Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Risk Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Stage</td>
<td>Discussing Treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Available Medication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prognosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Stage</td>
<td>Concluding the Presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary / Concluding Statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>References</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thank you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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7.2 The Meaning Maker: Topic Choice and Slideshow Organization

To examine the semiotic choices taken within the two slideshows, I will first examine how each presenter described her topic choice. Presenters’ accounts provided insight into their needs and interests which impacted the semiotic choices in their slideshows.

7.2.1 Lamar

Lamar was the second presenter in the second observed seminar session. She chose to discuss onychomycosis; a common fungal infection affecting nails. Her PowerPoint slideshow consisted of twenty-four slides (Appendix Q) and it followed the common organizational pattern presented earlier (Table 7.2). For her, choosing a topic was not easy.

From the beginning of the year, I put in my mind more than one topic, I asked my sister and my friends for suggestions. They suggested many things. When I began researching and looking at YouTube, I found this topic. I noticed how common it was and how many people were suffering from it, so I considered it as one of the available options. Then, I began to think: which topic was more suitable and which topic can I talk about? There were some nice topics, but the timing was short, I mean three, four minutes. That won’t be enough, so I cancelled them. Then, I thought about this topic as it suits everything, and it was suitable with time. I also knew that I could talk about it without the teacher asking me questions that I cannot answer. I was in control of the topic and also the time was suitable, around seven minutes.
Lamar had several topics to choose from based on her sister’s and friends’ suggestions, in addition to her own search. Her final choice responded to the practical requirements that shaped this literacy event. Presenters were expected to choose topics which they would be able to discuss satisfactorily within the seven-to-nine minute timeframe. Moreover, they needed to maintain full control of their topics in a way that would enable them to engage efficiently with the course convenor’s feedback. Compared to her early choices, onychomycosis represented an effective choice because it helped her to attend to the strict timeframe and the course convenor’s feedback.

Table 7.2 Distribution of Elements in Lamar's Slideshow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Constituent Elements</th>
<th>Number of Slides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Stage</td>
<td>Setting-up the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Logos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Outline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Stage</td>
<td>Introducing the Topic</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Causes</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Symptoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Risk factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Stage</td>
<td>Discussing Treatment</td>
<td>Outline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Available Treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Prognosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Stage</td>
<td>Concluding the</td>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thank you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.2 Layla

Layla was the fourth presenter in the last observed seminar session. She chose to discuss drug abuse and specifically focussed on opioids dependence. In discussing this topic, Layla was more interested in considering its effect on her audience because of the course convenor's advice to students in PS1 to consider her audience interests and provide them with beneficial and informative information.
We studied about topic choice last year, to see the topic, is it important for the listener? Will it make a difference in their lives? It is important that the topic you are offering makes a difference. Look for a topic that concerns health conditions, that is important for the society because we serve the society at the end.

Layla had a clear view of how a presenter was able to make a difference through her presentation. For Layla, presenters should use their topics to recognize and address their society’s needs because it was their ultimate responsibility as pharmacists to serve the communities in which they worked. Layla’s note about pharmacists’ responsibilities echoed the many societal campaigns organized by the Ministry of Health to educate the public about crucial health issues. Similar campaigns were carried out within the University by different Colleges, including the College of Pharmacy, through which staff and students worked to alleviate awareness regarding issues, such as fighting diseases and promoting safe use of drugs. Within my informal talks with students, many considered participation in such campaigns as part of their professional responsibilities which included knowledge of medicinal dosages and working to improve and promote better quality of health care in the community. This consideration appeared in Layla’s presentation as she chose a socially and medically significant topic and supported her choice with detailed pharmaceutical knowledge.

For Layla, opioids dependence represented a significant issue in the society which, albeit its significance, was not well-understood.

أنا أعرف ناس كثيرين عندهم حالات لكن يخبو كثير. دحين سمعت عن واحد في نفس الحالة و رافضين يدخلوه المستشفى عشان الناس لا تعرف. بس مصيبتك حتصير مصيبتين. أول شي حانتطور الحالة، حيتجه للجريمة. حيأخذ منك فلوس، حيسرق، ممكن في حالة لا وعي حيسبب جريمة لأحد و حتكبر المشكلة (.........) أنا اختيرت الموضوع عشان أغبى أفهمهم إبن المدمن مو إنسان يعني خاطئ، كفر، سوى لو وهو إنسان مريض في النهودية. يعني (xxx) يتعاملو على أنو حالة مرضية.
I know a lot of people they have addicts, but they are hiding them. I just heard about a person with the same condition and they are refusing to admit him into a hospital because they don’t want people to know. But your catastrophe will get bigger. First, the condition will get worse, he will go to crime, he will take money from you, he will steal, perhaps in a state of unawareness, he will hurt someone and the problem will get bigger (...........) I chose the topic because I want them to understand that the addict is not a human being who is, I mean a sinner, went astray, did this, no. He is a sick person at the end so (xxx) they should treat him as a medical case.

Layla believed that substance abusers were not seen as patients who needed and deserved medical treatment. They were rather seen as weak individuals lacking strength of will and sinners deviating from the moral teachings of Islam who, therefore, deserved punishment rather than sympathy, assistance and medical treatment. They appeared stigmatized and were often considered as sources of shame that needed to be hid away, rather than acknowledged and properly treated. Layla believed that without proper treatment, drug abusers could commit serious crimes against themselves and others. She aimed to use her presentation as a way to transform the common negative view in the society that associated drug abusers with sinners and wrong-doers to a more positive and compassionate image as patients who needed medically appropriate treatment. By working to generate awareness of this issue, Layla’s work was placed within the expectations that shaped professional practices in their field and required them to promote health care in society.

In addition to the socially judgmental attitude towards drug abusers that Layla described above, she faced a similar attitude among her colleagues.

لما كنت أناقش البنات (( تقوم بتقليد زميلاتها )) "يا الله ما أحب دي المواضيع" كل واحدة تقول "لا ما نبغي نسمع زي كذا، ما نبغي نعرف".

When I discussed it with the girls, ((she imitates her friends)) “Oh, God I don’t like these topics”. Everyone says “We don’t want to hear something like this. We don’t want to know”.

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Presenters in the College often described the need to avoid repeated topics and look for uncommon and new topics to stand out among their colleagues. In addition, they searched for topics that would gain the course convenor’s approval and their colleagues’ admiration. Despite the significance of drug abuse as a health issue, Layla’s colleagues’ reaction towards her choice was not encouraging. They considered it as a depressing issue that many believed was untreated. Other presenters spoke about the effect of their colleagues’ views on their topic choices and how they avoided topics which their colleagues found disturbing or unacceptable. Rather than changing her topic in reaction to these views, Layla built on her colleagues’ views which seemed to echo the social attitude described earlier and organized her presentation accordingly.

Layla’s PowerPoint slideshow consisted of twenty-seven slides (Appendix R). The last three slides of Layla’s presentation, described as ‘coda’ in this analysis, were used after she concluded her presentation and started discussing her work with the course convenor (Table 7.3).

Table 7.3 Distribution of Elements in Layla’s Slideshow

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Constituent Elements</th>
<th>Number of Slides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting up the Presentation</td>
<td>Introductory Display</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outline / Logos</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing the Topic</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opioids Dependence</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brain Reward Pathway</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Dependence</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Withdrawal Symptoms</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussing Treatment</td>
<td>Introductory Display</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosis</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Available Treatment</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concluding the Presentation</td>
<td>Concluding Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>References</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coda</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.3 **Semiotic Resources in Slideshows**

Slideshow composition in this event represented a continuum of semiotic choices that ranged from maintaining faithfulness to common textual practices to deviating from common norms and expectations. Both Lamar and Layla recognized and worked within the textual practices that they needed to attend to in their work to make an effective slideshow (See 6.2). Both presenters, however, showed distinctive variation in their use of semiotic resources to signal and highlight their interests and personal preferences. I start this section by examining how Lamar and Layla described their approach to design their slideshows. Then, I will analyse the semiotic choices in each of the stages in the examined slideshows. The analysis aims to point out the variation of choices that exists between both slideshows and explore the functions that these choices serve in relation to presenters’ work to establish themselves as competent professionals.

### 7.3.1 Designing the slideshow: Presenters’ approach

To examine the semiotic choices in each slideshow, I will first examine how each presenter described her approach to design her slideshow. I look at what each presenter said about her preferred semiotic choices and how she planned her use of available choices.

Both Lamar and Layla designed their slideshows in a way that reflected what they believed would support their efforts to make a good presentation. Lamar’s approach to designing her slideshow was shaped by a strong focus on identifying and following the norms and expectations in this event. She believed that the success of any presentation did not only depend on the type of information that presenters offered to their audience. Slideshow design was equally important to maintain the audience attention and create an effective presentation.
I feel preparation, colours, visuals and these things can encourage a person to follow your topic or discourage them. Some people care only about the information that the presenter offers, but I feel that form and content are both important (……..) When you do something, it has to be according to rules. You must address specific requirements. For example, if one wants a driver licence, his eyesight needs to be suitable. If one is going to work as a pilot, a specific height and weight is required. There are specific requirements to make the work complete. There are things in presentations that seem simple and you may think they don’t make a difference, but they do make a difference (………..) I mean for example if there is an outline, I may not want to hear the definition, the types, I want to hear the treatment. So you put in your mind that this person will talk about treatment in this section. It is OK not to focus till he starts talking about treatment.

Success of seminar presentations depended on the selected semiotic resources within slideshows which could mean the difference between acceptance and rejection from the audience. The significance that Lamar attached to these design criteria extended beyond her studies in the College. In our informal talks, Lamar described how her opinion of many famous speakers in the campaigns organized by the University in general and the College of Pharmacy in specific had changed as she began to pay close attention to their slideshows. What she used to consider to be visually effective in some of the most popular speakers’ slideshows came to be reconsidered as textually disorganized and professionally inappropriate after taking PS1 and PS2. Lamar believed that the rules and norms they were introduced to in the course provided access to the necessary practices needed to establish their professionalism and communicate successfully with their audience.

She looked at seminar presentations as a formal task through which she could establish her professional knowledge and practices by recognizing and employing the textual demands and expectations in this event. Without recognizing and adopting these rules in designing their presentations, presenters’ contributions would not meet the professional expectations underlying this event. At the same time, Lamar’s interests were also directed towards receiving a positive assessment from the teacher on her
work. Earlier in the previous chapter, I discussed how Lamar changed the background colour of her slides to ensure a better assessment and stay on ‘the safe side’ (See 6.4.1).

Layla, on the other hand, approached her slideshow design by prioritizing her personal preferences and what she considered to be effective in communicating with others.

I am basically a visual person, so when I see something, it is better than to hear it. I always prefer to communicate information through a visual rather than through talk or writing. For choosing visuals, I wanted effective visuals. I mean even if you lost track of the talk or got bored, the visual will get you back (……..) I noticed that some girls would put a lot of writing and they didn’t say much. OK I can seriously ignore you and read (……..) Some girls put a lot of writing. I didn’t like it, so I avoided writing a lot as much as I could.

As a ‘visual person’ who believed that visual communication was more effective than speech or writing, she believed that a good presentation depended on effective visuals and avoidance of extensive writing in slideshows. This attitude was associated with her own dislike towards presentations in which slideshows were filled with lengthy writing. Like many of her colleagues, Layla believed that overloading their slides with writing jeopardized their status as professional speakers and presented a serious threat to their success (See 6.2.2). In addition to distracting the audience, extensive use of writing indicated that the presenter was reading her slides rather than properly presenting her topic. A presenter would, then, seem dispensable as the audience could resort to reading the slides instead of following the presenter attentively as she spoke.

Although Lamar and Layla believed in the impact that proper use of visuals have on creating effective presentations, they both approached their slideshows design in different ways. Lamar prioritized the need to follow the identified norms and
expectations in seminar presentations while Layla associated her approach with her personal preferences and reaction to other presentations. In the following section, I will examine the semiotic choices that Lamar and Layla employed in their slideshows. I will highlight their explanation of these choices and how they related to their design approaches and interests.

7.3.1 The first stage: Setting up the presentation

In both slideshows, the first stage served to launch and prepare the ground for the topic. It introduced the title of the presentation, the name of the presenter, the outline of their talks and the logos of the websites consulted to make the presentation (Table 7.4). It was also common among the observed presenters to include introductory slides at the beginning of their slideshows that showed medically relevant visuals. Both Lamar and Layla employed the basic elements in this stage of Title, name, logos and outline. Lamar used a separate slide for each of these elements. Her decisions reflected her belief above that a successful presentation should employ a well-composed slideshow in which each element is clearly placed to aid the audience to follow the presentation. Layla, on the other hand, employed additional slides to design the first stage. While she worked within the assessment criteria of slideshow composition in this event, her compositional decisions were shaped by her aim to gain viewers’ attention while addressing her priorities, i.e. alleviating common understanding of drug abuse as a medical issue and addressing societal attitudes towards it. To achieve her aim, she used two introductory slides at the beginning of her slideshow before displaying the title of the presentation in which she employed semiotic choices that deviated from other presenters in this community.

Layla’s first slide displays an Islamic prayer written in Arabic, placed in the centre of the slide and written in classical calligraphy.

"بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمَ"

“In the name of Allah, most gracious, most merciful”.

The writing represents a common prayer among Muslims that is believed to pave the way for a successful and blessed completion of any task. It is usually recited before reading from the Holy Qur’an and before the beginning of any activity, such as eating, studying and working. In this community, almost all the observed presenters started their presentations with verbally reciting this prayer. Layla, however, was the only one showing this prayer in writing.
The second slide in Layla’s slideshow shows an extract from a local Arabic newspaper centrally positioned and surrounded by eight photographs. The extract consists of a written Arabic text which reported the arrest of a drug smuggler by Saudi local police who arrested him for smuggling heroin in his abdominal cavity. The extract contained two visuals: the first shows the smuggler wearing the traditional Saudi outfit for men, with his eyes covered, and the second shows an x-ray of heroin-filled intestines. The photographs surrounding the extract related to issues of drug abuse including, shape, use and distribution of drugs.

Table 7.4 First Stage: Setting up the Presentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Onychomycosis</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Arabic extract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Watermark</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Photographs of drug abuse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 3     | Outlines:  
  • Definition  
  • Causes  
  • Signs  
  • Symptoms  
  • Risk factor  
  • Treatment  
  • New approved drug  
  • Progress | 3     | Opioids Dependence |
| 4     |  | 4     | Outline:  
  • Definition  
  • Brain Reward Pathway  
  • Withdrawal Symptoms  
  • Diagnosis & Assessment  
  • Treatment:  
    • Pharmacotherapy  
    • Behavioral  
    • Latest approved drug  
    • Psychosocial therapy |  | |

Although using visuals in introductory slides was not an uncommon practice among the observed presenters, the semiotic choices in the first two slides in Layla’s slideshow do not present opioids dependence as a pharmaceutical issue. The
central/marginal positioning of elements in the second slide attaches prominence and salience to the newspaper extract, drawing attention to their content which highlights the topic as a legal issue. Furthermore, the semantic reference within the Arabic text and the surrounding visuals offer coding orientations associated with a complex composite of modality configurations that combine the naturalistic photographs and abstract x-ray to provide a specific representation of opioids dependence as a social and legal issue, rather than a medical one.

Contrary to the common and more expected reliance on scientific visuals that serves to offer an abstract sense of reality consistent with scientific display of information (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996), the visuals in slide 2 in Layla’s slideshow offer different representations of reality which address the needs dictated by Layla’s interests, societal attitude towards her topic and the textual demands of the course. The x-ray represents the scientific angle that cannot be seen with the naked eye while the photograph of the drug smuggler offers a realistic proof, supporting the content of the news report. The surrounding photographs, on the other hand, merge photographic presentation of drug-related issues with the technological illustration of relevant information that show the viewers what drugs look like, how they are distributed and how they are used. This complex visual saturation of modalities in slide 2 serve to foreground the topic as a legal and social issue. Commenting on this slide, Layla, noted that

أهم شي هنا جذب الانتباه اللي في البداية. بس أنا كنت أبغى أشير للجرائم اللي بتصير بسبهم و المشاكل القانونية وفي أنواع. أهم شي إنهم ينتبهو معايا في الشي اللي حاولته.

the most important thing here is to attract attention at the beginning. I just wanted to point out the crimes that happen because of them and the legal problems and types. The most important thing is that they pay attention to what I am going to say.

For Layla, gaining her viewers’ attention and acknowledgement of the value of her topic were major goals which she worked to achieve in this stage through specific semiotic resources. Although she rejected the common view that associated drug abuse with crimes (See 7.2.2), she drew on that common association to introduce her topic.

Slide 2 bridges the move from the Islamic prayer in the first slide to the textually common start of seminar presentations in Slide 3. While the Islamic prayer offers a
visually written documentation of a common oral practice to start seminar presentations in this community, it also serves to pave the way for the combination of visuals and writing in slide 2. Because of the connection created between the topic and its legal and social impact in slide 2, the religious connotation associated with the Arabic text in first slide appears to mitigate the shock that may be caused by the second slide.

In this stage, both presenters included in their slideshows the common elements that constituted the first stage in seminar presentations. Although it was not uncommon among the observed presentations to use introductory slides at the beginning of slideshows, these slides were usually medically- and pharmaceutically-oriented to support discussion of health issues. In contrast, Layla designed her introductory slides in a way that deviated from common textual practices. Rather than introducing opioids dependence as medical and health issue, Layla employed combinations of visuals and writing to introduce drug abuse as a social and legal issue.

7.3.2 The second stage: Introducing the topic

The second stage in seminar presentations in this event was used to offer essential information on the topic before discussing treatment in the following stage. Though there was some variation within slideshows regarding which, how and where elements were placed in this stage, elements usually included definition, causes, mechanisms of action, symptoms, types, risk factors and statistics. The second stage in Lamar’s slideshow consists of five slides while Layla’s consists of six slides (Table 7.5). The considerable difference in semiotic choices between the two slideshows noted earlier continues to surface in this stage too.

The second stage in Lamar’s slides starts with visuals that rely on an abstract representation of reality to explain the topic. It includes the microscopic image in slide 4 and the magnifying effect of the drawing in slide 5. Both slides indicate what cannot be seen by the naked eye and what is only available through advanced medical examination. The visuals in these slides do not seem to offer specific, detailed information, but they serve to support the presentation through the atmosphere they create. In slide 4, the toenail is magnified to show where onychomycosis occurs while in slide 5, the microscopic image shows dermatophytes as one of the causes of this infection.

Slides 6 and 7, afterwards, move from scientific abstractness to the everyday appearance of the infection through the photographic display of the affected nails. These offer a naturalistic representation through which the audience could see what the
infection looks like. In slide 6, the photographs are accompanied by the scientific terminology in the captions. The photographs in slide 7 offer visual illustration of the underlined words in the text.

**Table 7.5 Second Stage: Introducing the Topic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• It's a <em>fungal infection of nail</em>...</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>a neurobehavioral syndrome characterized by the repeated compulsive seeking or use of an opioid despite the adverse social, psychological and physical consequences.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Causes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Opioids Dependence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. <em>Dermatophytosis</em> &lt;br&gt; in 90% of cases onychomycosis is caused by dermatophyte.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. <em>Yeast</em> &lt;br&gt; Condyle albicans.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. non-dermatophytic <em>molds</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Types</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Brain Reward Pathway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Onychomycosis</em> &lt;br&gt; <em>Superficial onychomycosis</em> &lt;br&gt; <em>Deep onychomycosis</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Symptoms</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Physical Dependence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The most common symptoms of a fungal nail infection are <em>thickening</em> and <em>discoloration</em> of the nail.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• As the infection progresses, the nail can become <em>brittle</em> and easy to break.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• <em>Foul smell.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• <em>Progressive debility.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Risk factor</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Withdrawal Symptoms Of Opioids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. <em>Aging</em> (it more common in adult older than 60 yr. )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Nail fungus tends to affect <em>male</em> more than female.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Other risk factors include <em>diabetes</em> and conditions contributing to poor peripheral circulation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The visuals in this stage in Lamar’s slideshow play an illustrative role with writing appearing to carry the core of meaning making. In addition to total reliance on writing in slide 8, the visuals used in the other slides within this stage do not match all the writing. With the exception of illustrating the types in slide 6, the meaning potential of Lamar’s visuals attend to only some of the written points. In slide 5, the microscopic image illustrates the first cause only while in slide 7, the visuals attend to the meanings of ‘thickening’, ‘discolouration’ and ‘brittle’ while other highlighted words are not visually illustrated.

Layla’s slides in this stage, on the other hand, employ complex multimodal configurations. She started with an abstract representation in slide 5 which shows the internal changes caused by drug abuse in the brain. In slide 6, two photographs illustrate the physical changes in patients’ appearances caused by the syndrome. The photographs show a substance abuser whose direct gaze at the viewer demands attention. Putting in mind that this presentation was situated within a community of professionals in pharmacy whose responsibilities included interacting with patients, recognizing symptoms and planning treatment, the slide reflects that responsibility through highlighting the visually physical effects of the syndrome on patients. Because these effects could only be noticeable through direct contact with drug abusers, the photographs offer a move from understanding opioids dependence as a mental, out-of-sight health issue in slide 5 to a physically observable illness in slide 6.

Slide 7 offers a move back to scientific representation through the abstractness of the diagrams explaining how addiction develops. The diagrams provide a practical guide to the audience to understand the internal, gripping effect of substance abuse on the brain. This guide is further developed in slide 8 as three drawings are displayed through PowerPoint animated motion that Layla used while presenting. Each drawing shows a black head against a light-coloured background with texts written in white and yellow arrows to refer to the increasing dominance of opiates. These drawings illustrate how prolonged drug abuse gradually affects and leads the brain to prioritize the need to have opiates in comparison to what non-abusers prioritize, such as school, reading and family. Use of common words, such as ‘food’, ‘school’ and ‘sleep’ and their gradual appearance serve to move the discussion from the abstractness of scientific representation in slide 7 to a visually simpler explanation of the internal changes in the brain. Its simplicity is derived from the absence of complex details in the drawings, the use of common words and the limited use of colours.
In slide 9, a single, centrally positioned drawing is placed under the title to illustrate the physical dependence caused by drug abuse. It shows a medium-shot, oblique drawing in which muscles and bones in the patient’s body are exposed. The position of the body suggests excruciating pain, heightened by the red points and the white circles which draw attention to affected areas. This drawing explores a different aspect of the physical effect of drug abuse. By showing the full body kneeling down and suffering from pain, the visual provides a different angle to explore the impact of drug abuse and its effect on patients. The body represents a drug abuser, but it is different from the photographs in slide 6 which introduce the audience to a specific patient gazing at them. The identity of the patient in slide 9 is backgrounded and it is his/her suffering that is emphasized. The semiotic choices in this slide align with scientific discussion because they offer a generic representation of patients that “probes beyond the visual appearance of things” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 158).

This stage in Layla’s slideshow is concluded by slide 10 which supports her discussion of withdrawal symptoms that drug abusers suffer from if they attempt to stop taking opioids. The symptoms are shown as a series of circles with brief written captions beneath each of them. I have discussed earlier how Layla changed the design of this slide after practicing and rehearsing her presentation (See 5.5). The changes were triggered by her discomfort with how the slide looked like before. The symptoms represented an essential feature of making a good presentation as in the other observed presentations in which symptoms were always discussed in detail. In comparison to the previously displayed visuals, the drawings in slide 10 are considerably smaller in size, larger in number and far less detailed. Their composition and use with written captions moved beyond naturalistic representation of symptoms among patients. The symptoms are shown through minimum colour saturation where two shades of blue are employed in each drawing. At the same time, the drawings do not contain background details which can be associated with offering generic and typical representation that aligns with the nature of scientific discussion. Displaying the symptoms in this way could be seen as an indication of the designer’s work to address the required textual practices in this community in which all presenters are expected to discuss the symptoms in their topics. At the same time, the specific design in this slide does not highlight the symptoms in the same way that previous visuals in this stage have been brought under focus.

As a designer, Layla employed semiotic choices which prioritized what she considered important to communicate with her audience. In line with her belief that
 visuals are more expressive than speech or writing, Layla varied her use of visuals in a way that defined drug abuse as a serious medical issue. The semiotic choices employed in this stage show how patients are affected at different levels. Mental and internal changes are explained in slides 5 and 7 while slide 6 allows the audience to see the extent of visible changes in a patient’s appearance. Slide 8 highlights the social impact of drug abuse on patients as it assumes control of their lives and hinders their ability to function effectively in relation to social interests and responsibilities. Slide 9 highlights patients’ pain and containment.

Layla’s visuals were organized to develop understanding of opioids dependence in a way that supported the scientific definition with a more in-depth exploration of the syndrome and its effect on patients. According to Layla,

At the beginning, I put the scientific visual because it was a definition, but at the end, I want them to understand how destructive this thing is, how this happened to this human being. I told you it was a mental disease, but then I want to show you how this human being changed (........) you need to understand that this human being is not himself. Why? His brain changed. He used to think about his family, his children, food, drink, but he gradually blocked everything except drugs (........) I wanted to show to what extent this disease is restrictive and a real disease. It isn’t that he deserves what he gets or something like that.

Making her viewers understand the diverse changes caused by the syndrome and their devastating effects on patients was a priority for Layla. In order to materialize this priority in her slideshow, Layla drew on semiotic choices that highlighted different aspects of the topic to pave the way for a more sympathetic attitude.
Though both presenters aligned with common textual practices to compose the second stage in their slideshows, they used available semiotic resources differently to highlight what they considered essential. They differ first in the coding orientation they create through specific representations of their topics. Another difference appears in the information value associated with how visuals are placed in relation to writing. Lamar’s slideshow tends to place writing and visuals in a left/right position. Although in visual grammar left/right position corresponds to the values of given/new, their use in Lamar’s slides seem to deviate from these values. First, the visuals only attend to some of written texts. Second, while the visuals in slide 7 illustrate some of the written symptoms, the visuals in slides 4 and 5 do not seem to explain the written texts independently. They appear to serve a somewhat decorative function that keep the discussion visually oriented towards each slide’s theme. Layla’s slideshow, on the other hand, shows more variation between central positioning of visuals, left/right and top/down placement of visuals and writing. This variation seems consistent with Layla’s design of this stage because it echoes the different angles through which drug abuse was defined.

In relation to writing, both Lamar and Layla employed specific semiotic choices. Lamar used black, bold font for slide titles while explanatory texts were written in black with blue reserved for highlighting important points in writing. She also used bold font for highlighting key words in some slides. Layla used orange, bold font for writing the titles of slides which corresponded to the outline she displayed in the beginning of her slideshow in slide 4. Explanatory writing was offered in black with important points highlighted using bold, black font.

7.3.3 The third stage: Discussing treatment

The third stage represents the core of slideshows in this event. In addition to the fact that the number of slides in this stage is considerably larger than in other stages, this stage represents the most important part of seminar presentations, i.e. discussing available treatment. Presenters paid particular attention to this section in their presentations because it was associated with their studies and training as professionals in pharmacy. Their knowledge of medical issues and relevant treatment was seen as an indication of their professional abilities to address the requirements of their jobs. Moreover, although the course convenor’s feedback was not restricted to any specific aspect of seminar presentations, it often focused on the discussion of treatment within each presentation. To look at the semiotic choices shaping this stage within Lamar’s and
Layla’s slideshows, I will divide this stage into three sub-stages. I will look separately at how discussion of treatment was initiated, offered and concluded in each slideshow.

7.3.3.1 *Initiating discussion of treatment*

Within the observed presentations, presenters often began their discussion of treatment by offering a single slide, displaying a brief list of available treatments which will be discussed in detail afterwards. For this sub-stage, Lamar and Layla employed different semiotic choices (Table 7.6). A single slide was used to initiate the discussion of treatment in Lamar’s slideshow. The slide follows common textual practices in this substage by relying on writing to offer a list of available treatments of onychomycosis. The slide continues to employ the same semiotic resources shown in earlier slides in terms of size, font and colour of writing with the addition of using black bold font to highlight names of specific medications.

In Layla’s presentation, on the other hand, three introductory slides were used before displaying the slide that contained the title ‘Treatment’. These slides continue to show heavy reliance on visuals as in earlier slides. Writing, however, is associated in this sub-stage with considerable variation in semiotic choices. Slides 11 and 12 do not adhere to Layla’s earlier choices of showing the title in orange and the explanation in black. Instead, they show variation in colour, size and font of writing that convey harmony and consistency with the linguistic and visual choices in each slide. In slide 11, Layla chose the word ‘overcome’ rather than the commonly-used and pharmacetically-relevant word ‘treat’. While ‘treat’ is usually associated with presenters’ professional responsibility to recognize and address medical issues in their practice, ‘overcome’ refers to pharmacists’ responsibilities towards patients. Rather than treating patients, the slide suggests that patients are able to conquer and defeat drug abuse. The appearance of writing and the semantic connotations of ‘overcome’ are both enhanced by the drawing of the rising sun which suggests hope, recovery and fresh starts. For Layla, these semiotic choices served to associate treatment with hope.

Why did I do this? You saw the photograph of the addicted man? After that, the image of all the symptoms, the pain of *the physical*...
dependence, and then the withdrawal symptoms, the bad visuals, all of these things were sad and depressing. At the end, there isn’t anything that we cannot overcome. There is sun, we look for a solution. That’s why, if I did that in writing, they would have ignored it.

The coding orientation offered in this sub-stage worked to balance indications of despair and negativity introduced earlier with offering a promise of hope and transformation. These orientations create a complex modality configuration in which realistic representation of patients is combined with suggestions of hope and triumph and a technological guide to the complexity of treatment.

Table 7.6 Third Stage: Initiating Discussion of Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Medications for withdrawal can be administered—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Only (Substitution, Reversals) were effective, consider as first line of t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Landy (delirium, somnolence)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Combination: To decrease the adverse effects and duration of oral therapy and in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Medication, by using just 5% effective.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How To overcome Opioid Dependence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THERE IS HOPE!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diagnosis &amp; Assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Substance use history provided by the patient</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Results of the physical examination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Investigations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Slide 12, the use of the word ‘hope’ also deviates from common linguistic choices within this community of professionals. Discussion within seminar presentations was often directed towards medical studies and professional practices in which ‘hope’ was rarely spoken of. ‘Hope’ was rather substituted by the more scientific term ‘prognosis’ which reflected medically-oriented statistical analysis of the efficiency of the discussed treatments. In addition to its unusual use of ‘hope’, slide 12 also includes two horizontally-placed photographs under the title. The photograph on the left shows a medium-shot, frontal angle of a faceless physician while the one on the right shows the local hospital for treating drug abuse. In terms of the given/new information value associated with left/right placement of visuals in this slide, the photograph on the left draws attention to physicians’ regular practices of note-taking and medical examination in order to plan treatment while the photograph on the right adds specific details by situating the discussion within the local context in which these presentations took place. As the slide states as a fact that ‘THERE IS HOPE’, the hospital shows a localized and medical opportunity to pave the way for that hope. This is further intensified by the writing of the Arabic name of the hospital ‘الأمل’ ‘Al-Amal’ which means ‘hope’ in English.

The photograph of the hospital with its name written in Arabic serves another purpose for Layla. In her discussion with the course convenor, Layla commented on the difficulty she had faced to locate credible statistics regarding substance abuse in the Middle East in general and in Saudi Arabia in specific. Layla identified this issue as problematic because it was a common practice for presenters to offer detailed credible statistics in seminar presentations. Moreover, Layla needed these statistics to convince her colleagues that drug abuse was a serious issue in their society. She used the photograph of the hospital to address this challenge.

I told them at the beginning about statistics in America. I told them about the symptoms and the photograph also showed an American man, but we have this problem in the country. But although it exists here, there is a solution for it.
Layla used the photograph of the local hospital to mitigate the absence of statistics in Saudi Arabia and orient viewers’ attention to their local context while balancing the earlier mentioned statistics of ‘drug abuse’ in the United States and the effect of the patient’s photograph presented in Slide 6. At the same time, the photograph helped Layla to draw her viewers’ attention to the possibility of treating drug abuse by showing them a photograph of the local hospital.

Slides 13 and 14 resume the semiotic resources adopted earlier in Layla’s slides. The titles are written in orange while the writing is offered in black. In contrast to slides 11 and 12 which serve to create a promise of hope, slide 13 take the viewers back to the elements commonly observed in slideshows in this event. It discusses diagnosis and assessment through a combination of writing and visuals. The visuals show needle marks associated with drug abuse to illustrate one of its symptoms. I have previously discussed Layla’s choice of these visuals which was motivated by her desire to choose visuals that she considered appropriate to her colleagues (See 6.2.3.1.2).

Slide 14 finally introduces the word ‘Treatment’ in its title. Layla, however, did not follow common design patterns among the observed presenters who typically listed types of treatment as a way to introduce this stage. In Layla’s slideshow, slide 14 shows a range of photographic visuals accompanied with captions written in small font. The Slide is divided into two sections which both serve to support the meanings introduced in slides 11 and 12. On the left of the slide, three photographs are connected through lines to a photograph showing human clinched fists inscribed by the words ‘drug free’. The three photographs indicate the necessary steps needed to overcome drug abuse. The visual on the top shows different types of pills next to a patient’s hand with a small, crinkled note with the word help, hand-written on it. The visual in the middle shows a prescription plan with a partially-shown stethoscope and a hand writing with a pen. The visual on the bottom shows a consultation session between a patient and a professional consultant who is writing on a piece of paper. The organizational pattern through which these visuals are shown on the slide suggests the need for this specific order in order to achieve a drug-free status. It starts with patients’ awareness of the problem and their cry for help. Then, it moves to professional, specialized help which includes pharmaceutical treatment and psychological therapy.

On the right section of slide 14, two visuals show patients before and after treatment, placed under the title ‘RECOVERY IS POSSIBLE’. Capitalization supports other semiotic choices in this sub-stage to foreground meanings of hope and possibility.
of recovery. The visuals in this slide contrast considerably with the visuals in slide 6 which illustrates the devastating impact that drug abuse has on patients (Table 7.5). In slide 14, the patients’ photographs are used to initiate the discussion of treatment because they show the audience that recovery is possible with the right type of treatment.

Although Layla designed her slideshow within a community of professionals in pharmacy, she employed semiotic choices within her presentation which attempted to move the discussion of treatment beyond the boundaries of rigid scientific discussion. She worked to raise awareness of the complexity of treatment by drawing her viewers’ attention to what is needed in order to overcome drug abuse. Interestingly, however, while Layla designed her slideshow to discuss in detail pharmaceutical treatment (slides 15-20, Table 7.7) and examined briefly psychological therapy in slide 21 (Table 7.8), she did not elaborate on her visual reference in slide 14 to patients’ call for help. This could be understood in terms of the limited time she had and the requirements and expectations that she was required to follow in this event. It could also suggest her desire to highlight medical treatment and social support because of her view of society’s lack of empathy and understanding towards drug abusers.

In this sub-stage, both slideshows adopt different semiotic choices to initiate their discussion of treatment. Lamar relied on writing to outline the types of treatment available to treat onychomycosis while Layla relied on visuals heavily not only to present the common elements of diagnosis, assessment and types of treatment, but also to create an atmosphere of hope and a promise of recovery. While Lamar used her slide to offer a blueprint to her audience to navigate the content of the upcoming discussion with ease, Layla’s slides employed semiotic choices which brought to surface different angles of treatment.

7.3.3.2 Discussing available treatment

Within the observed seminar presentations, this sub-stage typically offered detailed discussion of available treatments, including newly-approved medications. Slides usually included showing medication boxes, needed dosages, clinical studies and photographs illustrating the effect of treatment. Because of the larger number of slides in this section, I will selectively examine some of the slides in Lamar’s and Layla’s slideshows (Table 7.7).

Lamar’s slides continue to include writing in every slide. They alternate, however, between total reliance on writing (slides 11, 16 and 21) and combinations of
writing and visuals (slides 10, 17 and 18). Writing continues to be displayed in the same colour, size and font adopted in earlier slides which creates consistency throughout the slideshow and echoes her earlier talk about following the norms and guidelines to create a successful presentation (See 7.1.1). The use of visuals, on the other hand, expands to illustrate available treatments in detail. In this sub-stage, photographs are employed to introduce the shape of medication containers as in slide 10. This was a common practice among the observed presenters who considered recognizing medications’ appearance an essential aspect of their pharmaceutical knowledge.

Table 7.7 Third Stage: Discussion of Available Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Oral Terbinfine (Lamisil)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Terbinfine is first line of Rx and is more effective than itraconazole</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Drug: 200 mg is given once daily for 12 weeks for toenail infection, 6 weeks for fingernail</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Terbinfine:</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Side effects:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Nausea, abdominal pain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Dizziness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rash</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Caution:</strong> Terbinfine is not recommended for patients with liver disease</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liver function test should be monitored at baseline and after 4-6 weeks of treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>New approved drugs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The greatest risk of Terbinfine is dry skin, which is usually taken at least 1 week prior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The effects of Terbinfine are not reversible, and the drug is not approved for use after other medications</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>These new products take longer to evaluate, which may continue to limit the use of oral Terbinfine in the long-term.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In this session, we have approved 2 new effective topical drugs for fighting nail fungus: Clotrimazole, Terbinafine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Efinaconazole</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• ERX: solution for tinea (see, it is on the counter!)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Side effects:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rash, pruritus, headache, nausea, or vomiting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Administration: apply 1x daily for 12 weeks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Efinaconazole, Lamisil</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Both)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In both, 1% of patients with Tinea (Fleas) or Eczema can be used, 1.5% (10 mg/mL) of solution on nails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In total, the results from the trials showed that 80% of patients with Tinea (Fleas) showed improvement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Visuals are also used in these slides to indicate the effect of treatment as in slide 18 in which two photographs extracted from a clinical study show the effect of the medication. These are used in conjunction with a chart that shows the results of two studies on the medication’s effect on patients. While the chart displays the difference between the two studies through abstract, scientific statistics and mathematical symbols, the photographs provide a naturalistic representation of the medication’s effect. In addition to photographs, drawings are also used to visually illustrate the application of locally administered medication of onychomycosis as in slide 17.

As a designer, Lamar’s use of visuals was connected to the benefit that she believed these visuals presented to the viewers in terms of offering supportive evidence of her discussion.

I didn’t choose a lot of visuals because my topic was mostly (.) What was the main purpose of my presentation? My aim was to focus on medication, old and new medications ( ………..) You must do that to prove to them and let them see with their own eyes that this drug is effective, and it actually made a difference, and they can see with their eyes that there is a difference. They can see with their eyes that it is good. It is not just about wasting time or not, no. For example, one would think, OK, it can treat fungal infections. They are like white spots so one would think, yes, it treats them. It has an effect. Another one would say no, it cannot bring the nails to the same condition they were before, so when you see the photo (xx), will it bring the nail as it was before or will it still have a trace of the condition? It will explain for you the effect that the drug will have, its impact.
As her focus was directed towards showing available medications and introducing her audience to the effect of these medications, her visuals were not about ‘wasting time’ and filling in her slideshow. When Lamar described in our interview how she made her slideshow, she did not pay much attention to her describing semiotic choices in detail. Her main focus was towards using the visuals to discuss available treatment and showing her audience how effective the treatment was to address onychomycosis. She addressed her aim through creating coding orientations that supported her explanation of treatment through showing what medications look like, how they were used and the extent of their effect in treating the infection.

The visuals employed in this sub-stage create a complex configuration of modality in which naturalistic, technological and abstract coding orientations are employed to support the making of meaning according to the presenter’s aim. The only visual that appears to break this consistent pattern within Lamar’s slideshow appears on the top, right corner of slide 17 which represents a clipart showing a toenail prepared to fight while wearing a purple boxing gear with the name of the treatment written on the helmet. This visual does not add to the explanation of treatment, but it seems to serve a decorative purpose because it is consistent with the idea of fighting fungal infections. Throughout Lamar’s slideshow, this is the only time that a clipart is employed. It does not seem to present considerable threat to Lamar’s attempt to create a professional-looking slideshow. Because it seems to work in harmony with the other scientifically-orientied, semiotic choices in the slide, the clipart does not appear as an act of deviation from the norms and guidelines that Lamar paid attention to. This harmony is created through specific semiotic choices, including its single use, considerably smaller size in relation to other visuals in the slide and the written name of the medication.

Layla’s slideshow, on the other hand, continues to rely heavily on visuals. Discussion of available treatment was divided into two sections: available well-known medications and the introduction of a newly-approved drug at the time. A single slide is devoted to discuss available treatments through a detailed table in slide 15. When Layla discussed each medication, a photographic visual of the medication box was displayed through PowerPoint animation. From slide 16 till slide 20, combinations of visuals and writing are used to discuss a newly approved drug of opioids dependence.

In slide 16, for example, various semiotic choices are used to introduce the new medication. The slide is spatially dominated by a drawing showing a scientist smiling and working in a lab with the name of the medication written on the background. The
writing on top of the drawing offers the scientific information related to the drug. The status of the medication as a newly-approved drug is further supported by the use of the logo of FDA at the top of the slide next to its title, in addition to the written captions ‘phase 3 successful’ included in the drawing which refers to clinical trials. These cues support the explanation of the medication as a new form of treatment and create a visually harmonious atmosphere that suits the topic of this slide.

Slide 17 offers a brief view of the drug in writing and employs three visuals to explain how the drug is used. These visuals provide a blueprint that the audience can use to learn about the discussed medication. Photographs of the medication boxes are displayed in slide 19 with brief explanation of dosages. In slide 20, side effects are displayed with minimum writing through drawings. Because the drawings have no written captions, they are understood visually and through Layla’s accompanying speech. The semiotic choices in this substage in Layla’s slideshow shed light on her priorities as a meaning maker. While discussion of available medications is confined to slide 15, five slides are dedicated to thoroughly discuss the newly-approved drug. The visuals in Layla’s slides provide specific information to support each point except in slide 16 in which the visual serves to set the ground and convey a specific atmosphere suitable with introducing a newly-approved drug. Considering the significance that Layla attached in previous slides to broaden the boundaries of her discussion of drug abuse, she designed this sub-stage aligned with the textual norms and expectations in PS2. In previous slides, she employed semiotic choices to highlight significant issues, such as social and legal aspects of drug abuse and patients’ suffering. In discussing available treatment, her design choices served to orient the slides towards professional practice in this community. Both slideshows employ semiotic choices that support discussion of available treatment according to each presenter’s interests. Lamar’s reliance on writing continues with visuals being used to support her discussion of medications and their effectiveness. Layla continues to show clear preference of visuals over writing which she uses to offer detailed explanation of medication.

**7.3.3 Concluding the discussion of treatment**

Presenters typically concluded their discussion of treatment through displaying prognosis, statistics and sometimes brief summaries of discussed medications. Lamar followed the common textual practices while Layla concluded her discussion through introducing a different type of treatment (Table 7.8). Lamar offered a slide that relied solely on writing to explain the prognosis associated with onychomycosis. She
continued to use the same semiotic choices associated with writing in relation to size, colour and font. Layla’s used her concluding slide in this stage to discuss psychological treatment. Although this type of treatment was relevant to many of the health issues discussed within the observed presentations, presenters briefly referred to this type of treatment when they started discussing available treatments without discussing it in detail. This appeared, for example, in Lamar’s brief reference to ‘phototherapy’ when she outlined available treatment in slide 9 (Table 7.6).

Layla initially referred to psychological treatment through one of the photographs in slide 14 (Table 7.6). She later dedicated a separate slide to explain this type of therapy and conclude her discussion of treatment through combining writing with two photographs in a left/right placement. The writing offers a full definition of psychological treatment while the photographs show patients surrounded by others in counselling sessions and group therapy without showing their faces. The visual resources reflect the vulnerability of patients and their need for support and understanding. The slide maintains the semiotic choices used earlier in terms of size, font and colour of writing. Although this type of treatment was not directly related to pharmaceutical practice, Layla pointed out that

I wrote it because I want you to listen and read because this thing is very important for me.

Table 7.8 Third Stage: Concluding the Discussion of Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dedicating a separate slide to discuss this type of treatment visually and linguistically reflected the significance that Layla attached to this type of treatment. The visual representations of patients as surrounded by others in this slide support the written definition and help Layla to attend to essential aspects of knowledge highlighted
throughout her slideshow. After introducing substance abuse as a social and legal problem and discussing it as a serious, but treatable health issue, the visuals in slide 21 in Layla’s slideshow concluded the discussion by drawing attention to patients’ need for support and the complexity of treatment.

### 7.3.4 The fourth stage: Concluding the presentation

Specific textual choices were typically used among the observed presenters to conclude their presentations which included a written summary of the main points discussed within the presentation or an effective statement wrapping the presentation, a list of references and a thank-you slide to indicate the end of the presentation. Both Lamar and Layla employed semiotic choices that aligned with these common choices in seminar presentations (Table 7.9).

Lamar included a summary in slide 22, a list of references in slide 23 and a thank-you display in slide 24. She relied solely on writing with no visuals in these slides and adopted her earlier semiotic choices in terms of colour, size and font of writing. The thank-you slide, however, employs different semiotic choices that appear in using a different size, colour and font of writing with a different background design. Lamar showed consistency throughout her slideshow in her use of writing which reflected her desire to create an easy-to-follow slideshow that would help the audience listen attentively. The semiotic choices in the last slide suggest an attempt to provide some variation and avoid boring the audience. Because the slide does not offer any specific information that relates to Lamar’s discussion of onychomycosis, moving beyond her consistently-employed semiotic choices in this last slide does not seem to threaten the quality of her work.

Layla continued to use visuals in every slide in this stage with considerable variation in colour, size and font associated with writing except in slide 23 which, despite its use of the colour purple, showed the title of the slide in orange. For her conclusion, Layla relied on a concluding statement which echoed the statements she used earlier in slides 11 and 12 (Table 7.6). In these slides, Layla drew upon semiotic choices that conveyed hope and highlighted patients’ suffering and the extensive efforts needed to help patients overcome drug abuse. In her conclusion, she used writing to restate those meanings through reminding her audience of the complexity of addressing drug abuse while promising them that that complexity will be worthwhile. The writing on this slide is foregrounded while drawings of different types of pills and a needle are shown in the background in faded colours.
The change in Layla’s use of writing and visual is significant because of its location in the slideshow. Layla’s slideshow shows considerable preference for using visuals which reflects how she described herself as a visual person and manifests her earlier views on the powerful impact that visuals have on communicating knowledge. Her use of writing in slide 22 appears to function as a closure in which visuals are no longer needed in the same way as before and writing builds on what has been discussed and offers a direct and determined statement that acknowledges challenges and promises hope. In contrast to reliance on writing in this slide, Layla’s thank-you slide resumes her earlier preference for using visuals. It shows three drawings of various sources of substance abuse which represent drugs, alcohol and smoking. These visuals echo her visual resources in slide 2 (Table 7.4) in which photographic visuals of distinct
types and uses of drugs are displayed. Though Layla focused on opioids dependence as the topic of her presentation, she employed semiotic choices that broadened her discussion to drug abuse in general and that appears in her thank-you slide.

Closely connected to the discussion of Layla’s fourth stage are three slides that she displayed during her discussion with the course convenor. Although presentations in this event typically ended with offering thank-you slides, Layla was the only presenter to display three more slides after she ended her presentation and began discussing her work with the teacher (Table 7. 10). While she was discussing her work and addressing the course convenor’s questions and comments, Layla asked for his permission to display the treatment plan offered in the local hospital to address drug abuse.

Table 7.10 Coda

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Slide</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Plan of Treatment in KSA" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Slide 26" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Slide 27" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The displayed scans combine Arabic writing with photographs showing the staff and different facilities of the hospital. As the scans show the treatment plan offered by the hospital which was introduced earlier in slide 12, they supported Layla’s semiotic choices described earlier through which she worked to localize the discussion of drug abuse and highlight the possibility of recovery. In addition, by showing her audience the elaborate plans carried out by hospitals and teams of professionals, these slides serve to raise awareness among her audience of the complexity of addressing and treating drug abuse which cannot be confined to the knowledge or efforts of a single practitioner in pharmacy.

Finally, examination of the semiotic choices in Layla’s slideshow cannot be concluded without considering a recurrent visual that appeared in most of her slides. Layla included a small drawing at the right, bottom corner of twenty slides in her presentation which consists of 27 slides (Figure 7. 1). The drawing shows a person kneeling down on the floor with an oversized drug bottle lying on his/her back. According to Layla,

هادي الصورة إنو الإدمان عبء عليكي

this picture shows that addiction is a burden on you

Looking at this drawing through the lens of visual grammar, the person is portrayed through an oblique angle that offers power to the viewer over the represented participant in the visual. The angle additionally suggests detachment, contrasting thus, with the frontal angle of the patient in slide 6 that work to engage the audience with the patient directly (Table 7. 4). Kress and van Leeuwen point out that the “difference between the oblique and the frontal angle is the difference between detachment and involvement” (2006, p. 136). The small recurrent drawing in Layla’s slides, however, seems to combine these dimensions. It triggers sympathy form the viewer by conveying pain and helplessness while maintaining, at the same time, a sense of detachment and distance that echoes how professionals in pharmacy interact with patients in hospitals.
7.4 The Making of Meaning in Slideshows within Presentations in Pharmacy

While learning has been traditionally considered as a linguistic phenomenon, examination of participants’ accounts supports the call for the need to reconsider the “the taken-for-granted idea that speech and writing have the capacity to make knowledge of all kinds ‘explicit’” (Bezemer and Kress, 2015, p. 65). The analysis above aims to explore how each presenter approached textual production in her slideshow. By looking at each seminar presentation in this event as a motivated sign shaped by the presenter’s interests “to find the best possible, the most plausible form for the expression of the meaning that (s)he wishes to express” (Kress et al, 2001, p. 5), the analysis shows how Lamar and Layla designed their slideshows according to their needs, interests and preferences while working within specific expectations and requirements. Their productions show a continuum of textual practices which ranged between adhering faithfully to the norms and practices associated with making slideshows in this context to deviating purposefully in their designs.

Engaging in these presentations required presenters to employ different semiotic choices whereby “what the meaning maker takes as criterial then determines what he or
she will represent about that entity, or how he or she will represent that entity, in making the sign” (Bezemer and Kress, 2015, p. 44). The semiotic choices, highlighted in the analysis above, document instances of practice through which Lamar and Layla demonstrated their knowledge, established their developing experience and embodied their identities as professionals and individuals. Although both presenters made their slideshows in a way that reflected their understanding of how to make a professional, scientifically-grounded presentation, both seemed to be accepted by the course convenor.

In each slideshow, the presenter drew on her preferences, understanding of this literacy event and the needs of her topic. The analysis above showed considerable contrast between each presenter’s approach towards the use of writing and visuals in their slides (Table 7.11). Writing was generally used to document scientific information through condensed structures and reliance on key words (Morell, 2015). Although none of the presenters offered slides with visuals only, use of visuals differed significantly between the two presenters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Writing and Visuals</th>
<th>Lamar</th>
<th>Layla</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slides with Visuals Only</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slides with Writing Only</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slides Combining Visuals and Writing</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These differences were reflected in the degree of reliance on visuals and the complex configurations of visual resources used in every stage (Table 7.12). Each presenter relied on distinct configurations of modality which they used to represent and communicate different aspects of knowledge in their presentations. I described before how visuals represented an important aspect in differentiating presentations between PS1 and PS2 (See 6.2.1 and 6.2.3). Participants described how using visually-appealing resources in PS1 was an acceptable practice because of the general nature of their topics and the considerable flexibility that shaped the course convenor’s feedback. These visuals, however, were described as inappropriate for use in PS2 because topics were medically-oriented, textual practices were more constrained and assessment criteria
were precisely-defined. Both presenters relied considerably, but differently on visuals. Their reliance, however, was purposeful, not decorative.

Table 7.12 Distribution of visuals across Lamar's and Layla's slideshows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Number of Visuals in Lamar’s Slideshow</th>
<th>Number of Visuals in Layla’s Slideshow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Stage</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Stage</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Stage</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Stage</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Visuals</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lamar approached her slideshow composition as a professional, formal task through which she attended to her teacher’s instructions and common guidelines to help the audience navigate and follow her presentation. She prioritized her position as a professional under training and aligned herself textually, therefore, with semiotic choices that brought her closer to the expectations shaping this literacy event and facilitated attainment of a positive feedback from the course convenor. While she relied less extensively than Layla on visuals, her use of visuals saturated the third stage in her slideshow more than any other stage because it was consistent with her goal. She aimed to offer a thorough discussion of onychomycosis while specifically focussing on medications and their effects on treating affected areas of body. Although she came across personal stories of patients in their Instagram accounts (See 5.3.5), none of these stories surfaced in her presentation. They inspired her, however, to extract photographs from clinical studies and offer instead decontextualized and depersonalized illustrations in accordance with common textual practices this context.

In contrast, Layla relied on semiotic choices that allowed her to participate in this literacy event successfully as a pharmacy student and as a health professional whose responsibility required her to ‘serve the society’ and attend to its needs. She aligned herself with the imagined community she was going to join after graduating and employed semiotic choices in her slideshow that would allow her to educate the public and promote health awareness. She designed her slideshow in a way that showed in-depth knowledge of her topic through attending to the expected scientific information
while highlighting at the same time the complexity of drug abuse. In each stage, Layla maintained the basic elements that were common within other observed presentations. She also used visuals to situate the discussion of her topic within the local context in which she was studying and was later going to work. In addition, she used visuals to address the common stigmatization that drug abusers were subjected to by the common negative societal attitudes she noticed. Her interests as a meaning maker extended beyond discussing opioids dependence as a health issue. Rather than restricting her discussion of symptoms to the pharmaceutically-relevant mental and physical changes caused by opioids dependence on patients, she used visuals to highlight patients’ plight while, at the same time, creating a sense of hope and offering a promise of recovery.

The effect of Layla’s interests and aims appeared in visually saturating every stage in her slideshow to bring to light a wide range of meanings without verbalizing all of them. In this regard, the use of Arabic script particularly stood out to locate the topic locally and mitigate the absence of relevant statistics in Saudi Arabia. This was a significant issue for Layla because it supported her efforts to convince the audience of the magnitude of the problem in their society while highlighting, at the same time, the presence of a solution to address it.

Both Lamar and Layla showed consistency in terms of the information value they attached to their organization of writing and visuals. Lamar showed clear preference towards left/right placement of elements, corresponding to given/new structures in visual grammar (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996). In her slides, the given was associated with written scientific information. Although the content of writing may not be previously known by the audience, it was ‘given’ in terms of the common expectations within this community. Layla’s slides, on the other hand, showed considerable variation that included left/right, top/down and central/marginal placement of writing and visuals. This variation seems consistent with the different meanings that Layla worked to represent and communicate in her presentation.

One final issue requires special attention when discussing the use of visuals among non-native speakers of English. While it has been suggested before that extensive reliance on visuals could be an indication of a speaker’s attempt to compensate for their linguistic deficiencies among second language speakers (Morell, 2015), the analysis in this chapter highlights the need to consider different dimensions in meaning making. In this literacy event, the purposes, needs and interests of each presenter shaped the extent of relying on visuals beyond linguistic deficiencies. Visuals
were used to realize different meanings that the presenter needed to make and communicate within the limited timeframe available, the common textual practices and the meaning maker’s interests. Although visuals could play a significant role in assisting second and foreign language speakers with their linguistic needs, their use should be considered in relation to the specific genre that learners face and the literacy event that underpin learners’ engagement in meaning making.

7.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I examined the semiotic choices surrounding the use of writing and visuals in two of the observed presentations in this case study. Considering the meaning makers’ accounts of how they approached the requirements of the course, their personal interests and the nature of their topics, examination of their slideshows brings to light a wide continuum of textual practices that presenters employed in their slideshows. These practices ranged from adhering to norms and conventions to deviating purposefully to represent and communicate knowledge as competent professionals and attain positive feedback. Slideshows composition in this event represented an elaborate instance of meaning making which needs to be examined in terms of the situated social practices surrounding their production, rather than through a skill-based view that fails to consider the agency of the meaning makers and their interests.
Chapter 8  Discussion, Implications and Concluding Remarks

8.1 Introduction
In this chapter, I discuss the major themes that were highlighted through examination of participants’ literacy practices and multimodal meaning making in this case study. I start by considering a situated understanding of English-mediated oral presentations, identity construction among participants as professionals and meaning making in these presentations. After that, I discuss the implications that this study offers for EAP practice. I specifically focus on methodological issues associated with conducting research relevant to this study and pedagogical issues shaping this English-mediated setting which can help inform practices around language teaching and learning. These are followed by looking at the limitations that faced this case study and the recommendations for further research. The chapter is finally concluded with reflections on conducting this study and my research journey.

8.2 Engaging with Literacy in Seminar Presentations
In this thesis, I employed an ethnographically-oriented case study to examine how year-five female undergraduates engaged with oral presentations in the College of Pharmacy in one of the universities in Saudi Arabia. The study aimed to address the following research questions:

1. Which literacy practices do multilingual learners draw on while engaging with oral presentations in pharmacy?
2. What available semiotic resources do these undergraduates employ to represent and communicate knowledge while engaging in these presentations and how?

Three interrelated major aspects surfaced through the analysis in relation to the literature review previously discussed. These relate to how presenters approached oral presentations as an independent, English-mediated genre, how presenters’ identity as members in a professional community of practice was constructed throughout their engagement in this event and how meaning was realized.

8.2.1 Oral presentations in pharmacy as an independent genre: A situated understanding
Contrary to common tendencies among EAP genre studies to prioritize the examination of linguistic features in written discourse, this case study approached undergraduate’ oral presentations as one of the commonly used and highly valued academic genres whose value has not been thoroughly examined within language teaching and learning (Hyland, 2009). Although the investigated event did not take
place within an English language classroom, this investigation offers a step forward to address calls that highlight “the need for students (and instructors) to become aware of disciplinary and genre practices outside of the language classroom” (Hardy & Friginal, 2016, p. 120). Through adopting a social account of literacy and a social semiotic approach to meaning making, oral presentations in this event appeared as a valuable resource to socialize undergraduates into the professional practices associated with seminar presentations in hospitals in which pharmacy students were expected to work. They additionally offered invaluable opportunity for students to navigate through professional practices that moved beyond pharmaceutically-grounded knowledge to explore their societal responsibilities in promoting health awareness.

Moreover, examination of how learners engaged in this genre support EAP scholarly interests in enhancing learners’ ability to “learn about the boundaries of a genre, and develop a nuanced understanding of how a genre (or a set of genres) organizes a particular sphere of life” (Morton, 2016, p. 61-62). Whether these undergraduates choose to work in hospitals or pharmaceutical companies after graduating, they attached considerable importance to their participation in this literacy event. This importance not only reflected the official purpose behind its use in the College, but also extended to more personal agendas highlighted by the participants in this study. In addition to providing them with access to learn necessary skills, it offered them an opportunity to establish themselves in this community as competent speakers and knowledgeable professionals and address the growing challenges in their university studies.

Scholarly research within EAP research has already pointed out that knowledge of any genre is not limited to learners’ knowledge and mastery of textual features (Dressen-Hammouda, 2008). In this case study, examination of participants’ accounts highlighted particular aspects of engaging in this genre which moved beyond recognizing and adopting lists of previously-identified, discreet and decontextualized skills. Developing their control of this genre depended on their ability to choose appropriate topics that would allow them to balance the need to adhere to the common norms and practices in this community with the need to stand out among their colleagues. Control and efficient management of this event were also associated with participants’ extensive efforts to search for the needed information, localize their knowledge, create an image of competent and professional speakers, prepare their presentations and rehearse them ahead.
Reliance on English in making these presentations was described by participants as the most challenging aspect in this event. The challenges associated with language, however, extended beyond its linguistic features to include specific social practices that surrounded its use. English was significant in relation to two aspects. The first reflected considerable attention to pronunciation of medically-relevant terms in this community which was described as an integral part of their professional responsibility as pharmaceutical practitioners. Errors in pronunciation of treatments and medications were rejected not only because of the meticulous assessment criteria in this event, but also because they were viewed as a potential risk to patients’ safety and a threat jeopardizing their work to establish themselves as competent professionals in their community.

The second aspect in English language use was a common concern among students regarding presenters’ ability to adopt a native-like accent of English. Despite the fact that this issue was never addressed by the course convenor within the observed presentations, many presenters associated a speakers’ ability to assume an American or a British accent with her ability to use English competently and fluently. Not being able to speak with such a native-like accent was threatening to their image as proficient speakers of English because it raised questions about their command of the language which was described as essential for their success. Successful participation in these presentations was not only about the depth of a presenter’s knowledge or the quality of her performance. For some presenters, it was equally dependent on the impression of control that could be conveyed through a speaker’s accent.

Accuracy of linguistic features in oral presentations, on the other hand, did not seem to represent an overwhelming source of concern to presenters. In addition to their prior preparation and extensive practice, students’ regular contact with English scientific materials in the College facilitated their efforts to prepare and make their presentations. While learners’ first language has been described as significant to facilitate communication in multilingual environments (Baumgarten, 2016), this case study brings to light a different dimension to the role that learners’ first language can play in English-mediated learning. Arabic scientific materials surfaced in participants’ accounts as an invaluable source of assistance to approach unfamiliar concepts. Because presenters treated their presentations as staged performances which they prepared and rehearsed ahead, language was manageable even for those who were not totally
comfortable with using English and pointed out their inability to use the language beyond their studies and previously-prepared tasks.

As a literacy event, seminar presentations in this context were shaped by specific expectations and requirements which appeared to be detrimental to presenters’ recognition and use of this genre and their attainment of a positive feedback. Presenters, however, differed in how they chose to attend to these practices. Their aspirations to participate successfully in this event were shaped by attempts to balance their efforts to conform to norms and rules with the pressure they faced at times to deviate from these expectations to accommodate the needs dictated by their topics, contextual demands and personal interests. Recognizing and shedding light on these attempts support the increasing calls within EAP research to broaden the lens through which specialized genres in disciplinary fields are identified, approached and taught to learners. This is particularly significant if we look at learners as a community of practice in which “rebellion often reveals a greater commitment than does passive conformity” (Wenger, 1998, p. 77). Thus, participation in this event may entail decisions among learners to deviate which should not be considered in terms of the rules they have broken within educational institutions, but rather in terms of learners’ negotiation of ways to participate in this community of practice while appropriating personal interests and contextual demands.

8.2.2 Identity construction in a community of practice: Developing as professionals

Looking at this event through the lens of community of practice sheds light on participants as members whose agency allows them to “take up, resist, transform, and reconstruct the social and cultural practices afforded them in and through the events of everyday life” (Gee & Green, 1998, p. 148). For these members, social interaction was instrumental to their engagement in this event not only in relation to their current community, but also in relation to the communities of professionals which they aspired to join in the future. Participation in this community of practice was shaped by specific expectations and requirements which were at times outside of participants’ control. Participants’ engagement in this event was, however, shaped by how they responded to and addressed the conditions they faced (Wenger, 1998, p. 79).

The study considered participants’ accounts as indicative of their active roles in this community. Looking at learners as “agentive, and not passive recipients of messages transmitted by an instructor” (Bezemer and Kress, 2015, p. 43), participants’
efforts to establish themselves as professionals extended to almost every aspect of their participation in this event. Although presenters spoke about the need to follow the norms and conventions, seminar presentations appeared as a “dynamic, flexible, and open to change” genre which enabled presenters to appropriate their needs within available choices and constraints (Lee, 2016, p. 99). Their decisions indicated how they worked “to engage in a particular sort of ‘dance’ with words, deeds, values, feelings, other people, objects, tools, technologies, places, and times so as to get recognized as a distinctive sort of who doing a distinctive sort of what” (Gee, 2015, p. 172).

Specific decisions were particularly highlighted in their work to maintain the ‘identity kit’ of a professional in this community (Gee, 2015, p. 171). Connecting their preparation to the local contexts in which they were going to work was a major aspect. It was not enough for them to present scientific, documented and up-to-date information of their topics if they could not situate their knowledge within their local contexts. This expectation required them to establish connections with professionals and develop knowledge relevant to their practice. Other significant decisions included recognizing and choosing appropriate topics, preparing and making presentations, designing slideshows and preparing for discussion with the course convener. The significance of these decisions surfaced in what every choice offered in relation to how they perceived themselves and how they were perceived by their colleagues.

Engagement with English was also relevant to examine closely the construction of identity in this event. With the specific social practices surrounding the use of English in this community, the ability to maintain control of English was not easily available to all presenters. They found refuge in adequate preparation and extensive practice which provided them with an effective, but temporary sense of control over their performance. This control was further supported by presenters’ awareness that Arabic can come to their rescue while discussing their work with the course convener. Yet, their ability to make their presentations, receive positive feedback and attain good grades did not overcome their concerns with using English effectively beyond this event. For them, the challenges faced in relation to using English impacted their views of themselves, casting an undeniable shadow over their confidence in being able to compete with more fluent presenters. With research showing that language learners’ confidence in their speaking skills represents “a considerable obstacle” that affect presenters and their audience (Lima, 2016, p. 122), examination of how participants described their language skills and their impact on their self-confidence and engagement
in seminar presentations represented an essential aspect of exploring this particular genre.

8.2.3 Representing and communicating knowledge: The complexity of meaning making

Within EAP research, examination of meaning making has been generally associated with language more than any other mode following the long-held focus on linguistic features of academic discourse. According to this understanding, scientific discourse was seen as “quantitative, repeatable, and ideally free from bias” (Parkinson, 2013, p. 157). In this thesis, however, examination of the social practices shaping this event required a more holistic understanding of meaning making in relation to scientific discourse. This understanding should attend to calls to highlight the need for developing accounts “of the range of semiotic phenomena and their affordances discernible in multiple texts in addition to the need to show such phenomena (can and do) work together inter-semiotically to produce meanings within texts” (Evans, 2013, p. 359). In this case study, participants’ descriptions of their experiences and their slideshow design shed light on the complexity of decisions relative to their presentations. These decisions reflected presenters’ status as agentive meaning makers through creating multimodal ensembles in which “the shaping of knowledge occurs in all modes” (Kress et al, 2001, p. 119). Participants’ accounts highlighted how they attached specific meanings and purposes to the semiotic choices they relied on, especially in relation to slideshow design. These choices are not often highlighted in scholarly research. In contrast to the considerable abundance of research on the semiotic resource of language, our knowledge has not developed equally regarding “the semiotic potentials of gesture, sound, image, movement and other forms of representation” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 148). This study, therefore, offers a step forward in this regard.

Participants highlighted how they used speech and slideshow designs to represent and communicate their knowledge. They worked to represent specific dimensions of meanings through particular semiotic resources that they considered integral to their success as professional pharmacists. Speech was indispensable in constructing seminar presentations, but it was a challenging mode to engage with. Its use moved beyond conveying the scientific information related to presenters’ topics to sustaining their efforts to present themselves as competent professionals. The use of this mode was shaped by highly-valued semiotic resources which included accurate pronunciation, fluency in speaking and a native-like accent. Because some of these
practices were not easily accessible and available to all presenters, they were considered challenging and, at times, out of reach. As multimodal ensembles, analysis of slideshows showed how specific semiotic resources were preferred to others and were associated with specific meanings. Writing, for example, represented an essential component in composing these slideshows, but it had to be minimized because of the negative effect that participants associated with overreliance on writing on their image. Moreover, presenters seemed to be more occupied with how written text on slides appeared visually to the audience rather than with the content of script.

Visuals were also integral to construct these presentations. In addition to their use to represent the scientific realism regularly recognized in scientific discourse which “defines reality on the basis of what things are like generically or regularly” (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 154), participants’ accounts, however, showed how visuals were used to convey elaborate layers of meaning. Their use extended to meanings which were prioritized by students because they were relevant to their professional practice in pharmacy. Visuals were used to create coherence between the different elements in seminar presentations and echo common practices among professionals. They were also used to bridge the gap between theoretical discussions and practical applications related to their knowledge. Furthermore, visuals were invaluable to connect their knowledge to the local contexts in which they lived and will eventually work.

Using visuals in slideshow designs was additionally helpful to address the various contextualized constraints that presenters faced within this context while at the same time serving their interests which reflect “the text-maker’s social, cultural, affective and material experiences and present position in the world, shaping his or her attention to and engagement with the world” (Bezemer & Kress, 2015, p. 27). Within the strict timeframe they were required to follow, presenters engaged in decisions regarding which aspects should be foregrounded or highlighted and how these meanings were carried out. Whether they decided to conform to or deviate from the common expectations and requirements in this context, presenters’ decisions were mediated by their personal interests, nature of topics and contextual demands.

**8.3 Implications**

Contributions to scholarly research in this case study appears in relation to methodological and pedagogical aspects within EAP practice.
8.3.1 Methodological issues

In relation to the current heavy reliance on quantitative and experimental methodologies in research concerned with language teaching and learning among Saudi learners, there is a considerable need to provide more in-depth, qualitative investigations that shed light on learners’ engagement with English within and beyond language classrooms. Aiming to investigate the literacy practices underlying learners’ engagement in oral presentations and multimodal meaning making within slideshows in pharmacy, this case study employed some of the common research instruments relevant to literacy studies, such as observation, interviews and artefact collection. Contextual constraints, however, prevented me from using photographs and videos which represent commonly-used data collection methods in investigations of multimodal meaning making. These methods are used to examine modal choices and document instances of multimodal meaning making through “detailed observational accounts of these modes as they are realized in a given social context” (Jewitt, 2009b, p. 30). Despite their common and beneficial use in scholarly research, tracing the realization of multimodal meaning making through such methods is not always easily available. In this study, the norms and values shaping the research site restricted my ability to use photographs and videos to document engagement in the literacy event and trace evidence of multimodal design. These norms and values were related to the cultural and religious sensitivities which shaped this all-female settings and the university’s regulations which I needed to follow as an employee in a different campus and as a researcher whose responsibility included recognizing and respecting norms and regulations within the research site (See 3.5.7).

To mitigate my inability to use these methods, I relied on participants’ description of their multimodal meaning making because “individuals are real makers of meaning, and not merely instantiations of existing conventions” (Kress et al, 2001, p. 5-6). Considering that a multimodal text should be seen “as a window onto its maker” (Jewitt, 2009b, p. 30), I worked to orient my interviews towards exploring participants’ accounts of their textual choices. These choices were significant because they represented “traces of a sign-maker’s decisions about the expression of the meaning that she or he wishes to make in a given context” (Jewitt and Kress, 2003, p. 278). Although contextual constraints have prevented me from directly documenting the use of slideshows within seminar sessions and participants’ coordination of these slideshows with speech and gesture, participants’ accounts highlighted many of their aims and
purposes that motivated their meaning making choices. As Lillis suggests, “talk around text” offers ethnographic insight to examine writers’ perspectives and writing practices (2001). This suggestion can also be extended beyond written texts and include multimodal texts as well.

Although the use of digital tools to examine meaning making among participants could have enriched the collected data, this case study attempted to work around methodological constraints and contribute to the increasing wealth of research on multimodality within educational settings and address gaps in scholarly research while exploring hard-to-reach contexts as in this case study. The values and norms shaping these contexts place considerable constraints on qualitative data collection, but this should not discourage researchers from exploring the social practices that surround people’s engagement in literacy in these contexts. It is our responsibility as researchers to provide appropriate epistemological alternatives that do not jeopardize the ontological grounds upon which qualitative research is built. In this case study, adopting a theoretical perspective that pays attention to the social context and participants’ perspectives requires the need to appropriate data collection methods with contextual demands and sensitivities. In addition to being a methodological issue, this is an ethical responsibility that we hold as researchers, not only to show consistency with the theoretical perspectives adopted for research, but also to show our respect and gratitude for our participants whose time, feelings and experiences pave the way for the existence of similar studies.

8.3.2 Pedagogical issues

Anchored in needs-driven approaches to language education, EAP research has been dominated for a long time by textual-based studies which aim to identify linguistic features of written discourse. Concern with these features reflect the classical significance attached to writing within tertiary education regarding knowledge dissemination and assessment (Lillis and Scott, 2008). Despite this tendency, there are increasing calls among scholars to broaden understanding of learners’ needs within EAP research agenda and acknowledge their evolving and changing nature across different settings (Charles & Pecorari, 2016). Moving from total reliance on textual-based investigation to embracing more ethnographically-oriented investigations of language use is needed to broaden research agenda. Because needs analysis represents one of the major theoretical angles upon which this thesis is based, exploring situated literacy
practices help to “illuminate how the social contexts, expectations and intentions of all stakeholders have a bearing on the needs analysis process” (Flowerdew, 2013, p. 329).

My focus on presenters as designers of multimodal ensembles within this study was inspired by Kress’s view that “data is needed to complement, to ‘fill out’, data which one theory by itself cannot produce” (2011, p. 240). I addressed this view through drawing upon a social account of literacy and a social semiotic approach to meaning making to examine how undergraduates engage with seminar presentation in pharmacy. These theoretical angles complement each other and pave the way to examine “how knowledge in the discipline is presented, debated and constructed” (Wingate & Tribble, 2012, p. 481). In this regard, four pedagogical aspects are highlighted because of their impact on practices associated with language teaching and learning in this tertiary context.

8.3.2.1 Language use and competence

Understanding the use of language in any context requires recognition of “the purposes and participants that are integral to the construction of particular communicative processes and products” (Hyland, 2006, p. 386). In this case study, engaging with English moved beyond recognizing and using a linguistic code. Linguistic errors did not seem to be prioritized by the course convener or the presenters unless they impeded the comprehensibility of speech. Accurate pronunciation, on the other hand, was prioritized because of the responsibilities associated with participants’ professional practices in pharmacy. Using English in this context was not only confined to representation and communication of knowledge, but was additionally connected to the way participants believed English sustained their images as successful and professional presenters. Having a native-like accent was highly valued by many presenters who saw it as an indication of control and proficiency in language use, regardless of presenters’ performance, the quality of their presentations or the accuracy of their linguistic structures.

Within scholarly research, the significance of native-like accent has been questioned as calls emerged to direct learners’ attention to the functional uses of language to build their competence rather than searching for a native-like model. These calls, however, tend to be based on quantitative investigations without taking into account the contextualized demands on learners. In this regard, the social account of literacy adopted in this study draws attention to some of these demands which are shaped by “nonvisible elements, including social relationships, values, ways of
thinking, skills, and structured routines and pathways” (Matusiak, 2013, p. 1579). Analysis highlighted the significance of a native-like accent while presenting among participants despite the fact that the course convener did not pay attention to this aspect within the observed presentations. Calls to prioritize learners’ practical needs while using the language should take into account the social values that surround language use. In this case, pedagogical practices within EAP should move beyond a normative approach that prioritize linguistic features and adopt a more transformative approach to examine how language use differs across communities. They are needed additionally to raise learners’ awareness of how they approach language use and guide them to consider their values and practices critically in a way that would empower them and facilitate their engagement in tertiary education. In this regard, analysis drew attention to the complexity that was associated with pronunciation as an important aspect of presenters’ use of English and professional practice. Students in this event attached considerable significance to accurate pronunciation of medical and scientific terms because of its relation to their professional practice and patients’ safety and that significance was supported by the course convener’s feedback. Other students associated professional success and competence in this event with a presenter’s ability to sound like a native speaker of English while presenting. Because this ability was not available to all presenters and because it did not seem to impact the assessment given by the teacher, pedagogical plans should examine and address such attitudes and values among learners.

8.3.2.2 English-mediated oral presentations and first language

Traditionally, scholarly research in English language teaching and learning has paid particular attention to language learners, first language. Early grammar-translation methods used L1 to facilitate access to linguistic terms in L2. Later approaches disapproved the use of L1 in language classes because of the negative impact it had on learners in their language learning. Errors were often described as being caused by interference from L1 which seemed to hinder learners’ full immersion in their learning. Pedagogical decisions were, thus, centered around the need to minimize any reference to L1 in good language classrooms without attempting to explore the role that L1 may play in the social practices surrounding learners’ engagement in literacy events associated with L2.

However, exploring the literacy practices that underpinned how year-five undergraduates engaged with seminar presentations in this case study sheds light on the
significance that participants attached to their L1 in approaching their presentations. Although presentations were constructed in English, the participants’ first language, i.e. Arabic, played a significant role in their engagement with literacy in this event. In addition to its use to facilitate understanding of complex and unfamiliar issues, Arabic surfaced in presentations as one of the ways that participants used to ground their work in the local contexts surrounding their studies and future practice. Moreover, Arabic provided a valuable opportunity for presenters to engage with the course convener’s feedback. Their ability to use Arabic offered them a sense of security that supported their previous preparation and practice and allowed them to discuss their work and explain their choices and decisions with confidence.

Examination of L1’s status within the social practices in this predominantly English-mediated event calls for the need to reconsider its position in language teaching and learning. Despite the fact that construction of successful presentations in this context was directly connected to presenters’ ability to use English competently, the use of L1 surfaced in participants’ accounts of their experiences as an essential component to make their presentations. It is the responsibility of policy makers and teachers in English-mediated tertiary education to explore available tools that support learners’ participation in their disciplinary communities, such as L1 use in this case. L1 should not be considered in terms of its negative impact on learners’ ability to learn and use the language, but in terms of what it can offer to support and sustain learners’ development in academia.

8.3.2.3 Meaning making

Because this study aimed to explore the literacy practices underpinning undergraduates’ engagement in seminar presentations in pharmacy, examining the decisions that participants took to make meaning was an integral part of this exploration. The analysis supported Kress’s view that ‘language’ is just one among the resources for making meaning; and that all such resources available in one social group and its cultures at a particular moment ought to be considered as constituting one coherent domain, an integral field of nevertheless distinct resources for making meaning; all equal, potentially, in their capacity to contribute meaning to a complex semiotic entity, a text or text-like entity (2011, p. 242).
The participants in this thesis relied on a variety of modes and resources to represent and communicate a wide range of meanings. While speech seemed to be preserved for meanings related to the scientific content of their topics, the multimodal ensembles offered within slideshows allowed presenters to attend to meanings they considered essential to make their presentations, such as showing credibility, creating specific atmospheres consistent with their topics, drawing attention to patients’ suffering and establishing professional knowledge. Considering the affordances and constraints surrounding the various modes and resources used within the observed presentations, these meanings could not have been made through language alone. In fact, understanding language and its role in meaning making requires consideration of how meaning is distributed across modal and semiotic choices in any instance of communication (Kress et al., 2001).

The analysis suggests the need to offer a holistic approach to language education in which learners’ awareness is raised to recognize and appropriate the semiotic resources available to them within their communities. Pedagogical approaches to meaning making in disciplinary communities should be oriented towards offering contextualized understanding of the relevant social practices involved in different communities of practice. This is particularly important when meaning making is mediated by a second or foreign language. EAP policy makers and teachers can work to facilitate attempts to imagine higher education “as a multilingual space” in which the semiotic choices that learners employ in different disciplines are taken into account in addition to language (Preece, 2009, p. 36).

8.4 Limitations to the Study

Several limitations accompanied this case study. First, although the study was designed to take place across eight weeks, the original design was affected by the time needed to obtain the official approval to gain access to the research site and participants. It was also affected by the mid-term exams which took place near the middle of my stay at the College. In addition to postponing many classes, students were preoccupied with their preparation for these exams in a way that prevented me from conducting additional interviews or familiarizing myself with the context.

Second, considering the ethnographically-oriented nature of this qualitative case study, the absence of the voices of other participants in this community of practice represent another major limitation to this research study. These participants include the course convener, administrative staff and teachers whose roles in this community
shaped participants’ experiences in the College in different ways. Among these participants, the course convener’s voice is particularly missed as I believe it would have enriched the lights shed on the literacy practices shaping participants engagement in this literacy event.

Third, because participating in this study was based on the observed presenters’ willingness to volunteer for interviews, participation seemed to have been offered by presenters who generally received positive feedback and considerably high grades. None of the presenters whose performances seemed to be less well-received by the course convener within the observed presentations participated in this case study. Their voices, which could have offered insightful understanding of this literacy event, were missing. Many of these presenters were willing to speak with me informally before and after seminar sessions, but were reluctant to participate in the formal, individual interviews. This could have been caused by issues related to presenters’ self-confidence, affecting their willingness to discuss their experiences in detail.

8.5 Recommendations for further research

Several recommendations are suggested for further research by this case study. Further research is needed to expand the scope of EAP research in the Saudi context. With the common tendency in this context to base pedagogical decisions on quantitatively-driven research and teacher-based intuitions, pedagogical practices will benefit from adopting qualitative methodologies which pave the way for more in-depth examination of teaching and learning in language education. Research is also needed to explore learners’ engagement with literacy in other disciplinary fields and different literacy events to shed light on the variation that shape learners’ experiences with literacy and meaning making. This should be associated with extending the scope of this study by conducting longitudinal and longer-duration case studies investigations to examine how learners develop their membership in specific communities within different disciplines and the role of language in this development. Such research should also attend to meaning making choices which shape how language is used in different communities. More research is also needed to facilitate access to voices of various participants in educational settings by attending to different members of disciplinary communities, such as administrative and teaching staff. These suggestions can potentially enable scholarly research to explore the ways through which the “production of practice makes communities of practice the locus of creative achievements and the locus of inbred failure; the locus of resistance to oppression and the locus of the
reproduction of its conditions; the cradle of the self but also the potential cage of the soul” (Wenger, 1998, p. 85).

8.6 Concluding Remarks

In this case study, I attempted to explore the literacy practices underpinning how year-five female undergraduates engaged with seminar presentations in the College of Pharmacy in one of the Saudi universities. Exploration of literacy practices extended to the meaning making choices that participants in this study highlighted as they described their experiences with representing and communicating knowledge. Situated within an English-mediated setting, the study builds on a social understanding of literacy to offer an in-depth investigation of undergraduates’ engagement in a specific literacy event. Despite the limitations I faced while conducting this case study which I discussed above, the study offers valuable insights that can inform EAP practices within this context. These insights are mediated by my position as an insider working as a language teacher in the same university in the Preparatory-Year programme and an outsider researcher within the specific community of practice that the participants in this case study belonged to. I believe that these positions allowed me to recognize, appreciate and address the themes that distinguished participants’ experiences in their community in comparison to other communities in the university. Within educational settings, efforts to improve the quality of educational practices are often seen to be the ultimate aims of conducting scholarly research. I look at this study as a way to offer research-bound insights to inform language education and practices not only in this tertiary setting, but also in other similar educational settings in which English mediates teaching and learning.
References


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Shipka, J. (2013). Including, but not limited to, the digital: Composing multimodal texts. In T. Bowen & C. Whithaus (Eds.), *Multimodal literacies and emergent genres* (pp. 73-89). Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.


Appendix A

Sample of Observational Fieldnotes

Setting: classroom

Behavioral observations:
- Students engaged in group work.
- Teachers circulated to monitor progress.
- Discussions were conducted in English.

Notes:
- Students were asked to complete a worksheet.
- Teachers provided feedback on individual work.

Analysis:
- Group dynamics varied, with some teams excelling.
- Teachers noted challenges in managing large classes.

Recommendations:
- Incorporate more interactive teaching methods.
- Provide additional support for struggling students.

Conclusion:
- Observations suggest that group work enhances learning outcomes.

References:
Appendix B

Sample of Fieldnotes in Practice Session

While practicing, I observed that they expect to add more along actual pronunciation. Practice is good attitude, behavior, things. Keep impressions, they do not seem to be concerned with them. In a quiet & respectful about them rather. Do you want a patient to be expected to have it more? Another student was asking for help. She wanted to explain something. English without using too much time. Language.

I gave advice about controlling stress level. I gave advice about explaining the situation. Language is an issue here. Not the only way. Adjective (correct) & verb (do not require stress - stress a language at a specific.
Appendix C

Sample of Interview Questions

1. Describe Pharmacy Seminars 2 for me.
2. What is the difference between Pharmacy Seminars 1 and Pharmacy Seminars 2?
3. How do you start preparing for your presentation?
4. Where do you get your information from?
5. Can you tell me how you made your slideshow?
6. What was the most challenging aspect of making your seminar presentation?
7. What type of feedback do you give to other students during the practice session?
8. How do you prepare your speech?
9. How do you choose your topic?
10. What do you think about your colleagues’ presentations?
11. What kind of feedback did you receive from the teacher?
12. How was your experience in the Preparatory-Year Programme?
Appendix D

Samples of Research Journal

If she knew her topic and profesa comment, then there
is no need to write alt as if she is not really sure.
Does this tell me about the relation between
theses made in this concernd.
Appendix E

Course Description

Pharmacy Seminar 2

Objectives:
A continuation of pharmacy seminar I. This course was designed to provide the
students with an opportunity to integrate and apply the multiple components of
their knowledge of basic pharmaceutical sciences to present a formal seminar on a
patient care studies or analysis of pharmacy practice problems.

Contents:
A formal seminar (presented by each student of the fifth year Pharm. D. class) of
selected topics range from patient care studies to the analysis of pharmacy
practice problems. Each seminar topic is directed by a faculty preceptor and
includes a question and answer period and discussion.

Course Outcomes:
The student will be able to:

1. Identify the patient's problem
2. Develop an appropriate treatment plan
3. Evaluate the effectiveness of the treatment plan

Prerequisites:

Required:


Supplementary Readings:

• Silverio OF. Propaganda to speech: The audience process. A guide to
everyday public speaking.

Faculty of Pharmacy
Appendix F

Course Guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Guidelines</th>
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| *Course objective:*

1. Develop a theoretical understanding of the subject.
2. Enhance problem-solving skills.
3. Foster critical thinking.
4. Improve research skills.
5. Enhance communication skills.

| *Course requirements:*

1. Regular attendance and participation.
2. Completion of all assignments and projects.
3. Participation in group discussions.
4. Preparation for and participation in examinations.

| *Course outcomes:*

1. Students will be able to:
   a. Demonstrate a deep understanding of the subject matter.
   b. Apply theoretical knowledge to practical situations.
   c. Effectively communicate their ideas both verbally and in writing.
   d. Work effectively in teams.

| *Course evaluation:*

1. Assignments and projects (40%)
2. Midterm examination (30%)
3. Final examination (30%)

| *Course readings:*

1. *Title*
2. *Author*

| *Course timetable:*

- Week 1: Introduction
- Week 2: Theory
- Week 3: Applications
- Week 4: Review and examination

| *Course resources:*

- Online database
- Textbooks
- Journal articles

| *Course coordinator:*

- Name
- Contact information

| *Course assistants:*

- Name
- Contact information

*Note: The above information is a sample and may vary depending on the specific course.*
# Appendix G

**Course Evaluation Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>10</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Attention factor / credibility / overview of main points</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main point</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Clarity</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong> (reinforcement, Dramatic)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Vocal Variety</td>
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<td>- Gesture</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Pronunciation / grammar / connectives</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Eye contact</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Visual aid</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Timing</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Total**
Appendix H

Lancaster University Ethics Approval Form

Stage 1 self assessment approval

Ethics (RIO) Enquiries
Tue 14/10/2014 02:11

To: Aghandi; Noura <n.aghandi@lancaster.ac.uk>;
Cc: Potts, Diane <d.potts@lancaster.ac.uk>;

Dear Noura

Thank you for submitting your completed stage 1 self-assessment form and additional information for Developing professional literacy: The multisemiotic presentation practices of Saudi female pharmaceutical undergraduates. I can confirm that approval has been granted for this project.

As principal investigator your responsibilities include:
- ensuring that (where applicable) all the necessary legal and regulatory requirements in order to conduct the research are met, and the necessary licenses and approvals have been obtained;
- reporting any ethics related issues that occur during the course of the research or arising from the research (e.g. unforeseen ethical issues, complaints about the conduct of the research, adverse reactions such as extreme distress) to the Research Ethics Officer;
- submitting details of proposed substantive amendments to the protocol to the Research Ethics Officer for approval.

Please contact the Research Ethics Officer, Debbie Knight (ethics@lancaster.ac.uk 01524 592605) if you have any queries or require further information.

Kind regards,

Debbie

Debbie Knight | Research Ethics Officer | Email: ethics@lancaster.ac.uk | Phone: (01524) 592605 | Research Support Office, 858 Baildon Main, Lancaster University, LA1 4YT
Web: Ethical Research at Lancaster: http://www.lancaster.ac.uk/department/researchethics.html

www.lancaster.ac.uk/50
Appendix I

Overview of the Research Project
Appendix J

Identification Letter from the Scholarship Provider

To whom it may concern

Date: Thursday, August 28, 2014
Ref: K1246

Student: NOURA ALI M ALGHAMDI

The Saudi Cultural Bureau (SACB) would like to present its best compliments and confirm that the above student is a Saudi National who is a holder of a Government Scholarship to study PhD in UK.

Mrs. Alghamdi’s scientific field trip to Saudi Arabia has been approved.

She will be supervised by [signature]

Any assistance given to the aforementioned will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

[Signature]
Assistant Cultural Attaché
For Educational and Academic Affairs
Dr. Mohammed bin Saíd al-Almadi
Appendix K

Information Sheet for Presenters

Name: Noura Alghamdi
PhD candidate
Department of Linguistics and English Language
Lancaster University, UK
Tel. (in UK): +44(0)7850211302
Tel. (in Saudi Arabia): 0564520714
E-mail: alghamdi@lancaster.ac.uk

Information Sheet (Undergraduate Presenters)

This letter is to inform you about the research project and ask for your consent to participate.

Title: Developing Professional Literacy: The Multilingual Presentation Practice of Saudi Female Pharmaceutical Undergraduates

My name is Noura Alghamdi and I am a PhD candidate at Lancaster University. I am working on my research project which will be conducted with participants from the College of Pharmacy in King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah. The purpose of the study is to explore the reading and writing practices associated with undergraduate pharmaceutical seminars. I am interested in the choices you make in preparing for your presentations, how you represent your ideas, and your opinions about your presentations and the class discussion after the presentations. This research will help us to better understand the demands for university presentations put on students as second language speakers of English in this context, and the kinds of support students need to extend in their studies.

Please read the contents below before making your final decision and do not hesitate to ask for further information. I will be happy to provide you with more details.

1. The study will take place in the College of Pharmacy during the academic year 2014-2015.
2. I will be conducting and audio-recording interviews with you two times during this academic year, once before your presentation and once after it. The interviews should not take more than 60 minutes and they would take place at a time that is convenient for you.
3. I will be attending the ‘Pharmacy Seminars’ sessions and would take notes during your presentation to help me with your second interview.
4. I might informally ask you short questions before or after class during the period I attend the pharmaceutical seminars, so I want to make sure I understand the class from the students perspective.
5. I will collect documents related to your presentation including a copy of your slideshows, any handouts you might provide, preparation notes, etc.

All data will be used for educational and academic purposes only. For example, it will be used in a PhD thesis, academic presentations and publications.

Any data collected during the study will be treated with strict confidentiality and will be anonymised. All data will be stored for 7 years. Any paper-based data will be kept in a locked cupboard. Electronic data will be stored on a password protected computer and files containing personal data will be encrypted. Access to all data will only be available to the researcher.

I will provide you with a brief report on my findings after I begin analysing the collected data in order to explore your views on my understanding of the data.

You are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

If you decide to withdraw at any point during the study takes place or until one month after it finishes, the data collected will not be used in the study. If you decide to withdraw after that, any data collected up to the point of your decision can be retained and used.

If you decide not to take part in this study at any time, your decision will not affect your studies in any way.

If you have any questions, please do ask me and I will be more than happy to respond.

You can also contact my supervisor:

Dr. Faisal Bin Apte
(Aipte22@lancaster.ac.uk)
County North
Lancaster University
Lancaster
United Kingdom
LA1 4YL

You can also contact Head of the Department of Linguistics and English Language:

Professor Omer Khowaja
(Omer@lancaster.ac.uk)
County South
Lancaster University
Lancaster
United Kingdom
LA1 4YL

I would be very grateful if you could help me with my research. If you are happy to take part in the project, please sign the attached consent form. I look forward to working with you.

Thank you for considering your participation in this project.

Noura Alghamdi.

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Appendix L

Information Sheets for Teachers

This letter is to inform you about the research project and ask for your consent to participate.

Title: Developing Professional Literacy: The Multimodal Presentation Practice of Saudi Female Pharmaceutical Undergraduates

My name is Noora Alghamdi and I am a PhD candidate at Lancaster University. I am working on my research project which will be conducted with participants from the College of Pharmacy in King Abdul Aziz University in Jeddah. The purpose of the study is to explore the reading and writing practices associated with undergraduate pharmaceutical seminars. I am interested in the choices these undergraduates make in preparing for their presentations, how they represent their ideas, and their opinions about their presentation and the class discussion after it’s finished. This research will help us better understand the demands that university presentations put on students as second language speakers of English in this context, and the kinds of support students need to excel in their studies.

Please read the contents below before making your final decision and do not hesitate to ask for further information. I will be happy to provide you with more details.

1. The study will take place in the College of Pharmacy during the academic year 2014-2015.
2. Inside the classroom, I will be observing and taking notes during the ‘Pharmacy Seminars’ sessions.
3. I will be conducting audio-recording interviews with you twice during this academic year. The first interview will be at the beginning of the data collection period and the second one will be near the end of that period. The interviews should not take more than 60 minutes and would take place at a time convenient for you.
4. I would collect documents that relate to the course, such as handouts and course outlines.
5. All data will be used for academic and educational purposes only. For example, it will be used as a PhD thesis, academic presentations and publications.
6. Any data collected during the study will be treated in strict confidence and will be anonymised. All data will be securely kept. Any paper-based data will be kept in a locked cupboard. Electronic data will be stored on a password-protected computer and files containing personal data will be encrypted. Access to all data will only be available to the researcher.
7. I will provide you with a brief report on my findings after I begin analysing the collected data in order to explore your views on my understanding of the data.
8. You are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.
9. If you decide to withdraw at any point while the study takes place or until one month after it finishes, the data collected will not be used in the study. If you decide to withdraw after that, any data collected up to the point of your decision can be retained and used.
10. If you decide not to take part in this study at any time, your decision will not affect your job in any way.

If you have any questions, please do ask me and I will be more than happy to respond.

You can also contact my supervisor:

Dr. Diane Potts
dpi.potts@lancaster.ac.uk
Telephone: 01524 592234
County South
Lancaster University
Kendal
Lancashire
United Kingdom
LA1 4YL

You can also contact the Head of the Department of Linguistics and English Language:

Prof. Greg Myers
greg.myers@lancaster.ac.uk
Telephone: 01524 592254
County South
Lancaster University
Kendal
Lancaster
United Kingdom
LA1 4YL

I would be very grateful if you could help me with my research. If you are happy to take part in the project, please sign the attached consent form. I look forward to working with you in this project.

Thank you for considering your participation in this project.

Noora Alghamdi

[Signature]
Appendix M

Consent Forms for Presenters

Consent Forms (Undergraduate Presenters)

Title: Developing Professional Literacy: The Multisemiotic Presentation Practices of Saudi Female Pharmaceutical Undergraduates

Please read the following points carefully and sign the form if you agree to take part in this project.

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project any time without giving any reason, but no longer than 1 month after its completion. If I withdraw after this period, the information I have provided can be used for the project.

3. I understand and agree that I will be observed during my presentation and interviewed before and after the presentation and the interview will be audio-recorded.

4. I understand that I will be asked to provide some of the materials which relate to my participation in pharmaceutical seminars and that I decide where, what and how much I want to share.

5. I understand that the researcher may contact me after leaving the site for further discussion of the issues that relate to the topic of the study and the analysis of the collected data.

6. I understand that the results may be published but that anonymity will be maintained throughout and I will not be referred to by name or any identifying information.

7. I confirm that I have received a copy of this Consent Form and the accompanying Information Sheet.

8. I agree to take part in the above study according to the arrangements described in the information sheet in so far as they relate to my participation.

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Appendix N

Consent Forms for Teachers

Consent Forms (Teachers)

Title: Developing Professional Literacy: The Multisemiotic Presentation Practices of Saudi Female Pharmaceutical Undergraduates

Please read the following the points carefully and sign the form if you agree to take part in this project:

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above the study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project any time without giving any reason, but no longer than 1 month after its completion. If I withdraw after this period, the information I have provided can be used for the project.

3. I understand that I will be interviewed twice during this academic year, one at the beginning of the data-collection period and one near the end and the interview will be audio-recorded.

4. I understand that the researcher may contact me after leaving the site for further discussion of the issues that relate to the topic of the study and the analysis of the collected data.

5. I understand that the results may be published but that anonymity will be maintained throughout and I will not be referred to by name or any identifying information.

6. I confirm that I have received a copy of this Consent Form and the accompanying Information Sheet.

7. I agree to take part in the above study according to the arrangements described in the information sheet in so far as they relate to my participation.

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Appendix O

Sketch of Year-Five Classroom

Large desk

Chairs in first and second rows near the course convenor are usually empty.

Course Convenor

Boxes of handouts

Presenter

Front and back door open into the same corridor in the first floor.

Researcher
## Appendix P

### Interview Transcription Conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(x)</td>
<td>An ‘x’ within single round brackets indicates an unclear word in the recording that was hard to recognize while transcribing. The number of (x)s indicates the number of unclear words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bold</strong></td>
<td>Bold font is used to indicate a word that was spoken in English in the interviewee’s original talk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>“ ”</td>
<td>Speech marks indicate direct speech reported in interviewee’s talk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(( ))</td>
<td>Transcriber’s descriptions are shown within double round brackets.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(………..)</td>
<td>A longer series of full stops between round brackets indicates that some of the interviewee’s talk has been removed from the extracted transcript due to irrelevance to the point under discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(.)</td>
<td>A full stop between single round brackets is used to indicate a short pause.</td>
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</tbody>
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Appendix Q

Lamar's Slideshow

Onychomycosis

Causes
- **Dermatophytes**: in 20% of cases onychomycosis is caused by dermatophytes.
- **P. Tinea**: Onycholytic Onychomycosis.
- **P. non-dermatophytes**: Esophagus.

Types
- nail onychomycosis
- subungual onychomycosis
- distal subungual onychomycosis

Symptoms
- This usually begins with a fungal infection of the nail.
- As the infection progresses, the nail can become yellow, thinned, and separated from the nail bed.
- Inflammation or pain may develop.

Risk factors
- **Age**: more common in adults older than 60 or so.
- **Sex**: men are more likely to develop onychomycosis than women.
- **Nail**: toenails are more likely to become infected.
- **Other risk factors**: include diabetes and conditions contributing to poor peripheral circulation.

Definition
- A fungal infection of the nail.
- This condition may affect the toenail or fingernail.
- But it’s more common in toenail.

Outline:
- Definition
- Causes
- Types
- Symptoms
- Risk factors
- Treatment
- Prognosis

Treatment
- Medications for onychomycosis can be administered as oral (terbinafine, itraconazole) (more effective, consider as first line of treatment), topical (antifungal, antibiotics), or systemic (antifungal, antibiotics) to decrease the adverse effects and duration of oral therapy and prevent recurrence.
- Recommended treatment duration: 12-16 weeks for toenails, 6-12 weeks for fingernails.
- Once the infection is cleared, it may take up to 1 year for the nail to fully regrow.

Oral Terbinafine (Lamisil)
- Oral terbinafine (Lamisil) is more effective and has a lower incidence of adverse effects.
- Terbinfine is recommended for toenail onychomycosis.
- Dose: 250 mg PO once daily for 12 weeks.
- Oral terbinafine is not recommended for fingernail onychomycosis.

Terbinafine
- Side effects:
- Rash, diarrhea
- Nausea, vomiting
- Headache
- Rash
- Terbinafine is not recommended for people with liver disease.
- Patients with liver disease and impaired creatinine clearance should be monitored at baseline and 3-4 weeks after treatment.

Itraconazole (Sporanox)
- Itraconazole (Sporanox) is inhibiting the daily dose for 12 weeks.
- Oral itraconazole (Sporanox) is not recommended for fingernail onychomycosis.
- It is not recommended for people with liver disease.
- Patients with liver disease and impaired creatinine clearance should be monitored at baseline and 3-4 weeks after treatment.