

The Effects of Captioned Authentic Video on Children's Foreign Language Acquisition

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ABSTRACT

Previous research demonstrates the benefits of authentic audiovisual input for language acquisition. The present study further investigates those findings first with a comparison of case studies of two Basque children and then with an experimental study among adolescents. The case studies serve as an introduction to the topic, and they explore the English language acquisition of two similar nine-year-old girls who have different levels of English and have watched different amounts of English television. The experimental study then builds on the case studies and other literature to investigate the hypotheses that viewing authentic video will have a positive effect on language acquisition, viewing with captions will enhance that effect, and subjects' background English media exposure will positively influence their language acquisition from watching the video. The study was conducted in a Basque school with two classes of adolescents at 15-years of age in the Basque Country region of Spain to test vocabulary and pragmatics knowledge before and after viewing a portion of an English-language movie. A watching mode variable of captions was included to examine their effects on vocabulary acquisition and pragmatics comprehension, especially of colloquial language, and background information was gathered to assess their informal English media exposure. The findings showed that watching authentic English video enhanced vocabulary and pragmatics acquisition, $F(1,19) = 46.630$, $p < .001$. However, captioning did not contribute to overall improvement, $F(1,19) = 1.096$, $p > .05$, and informal English media exposure did not affect the results either, $F(6, 39) = 0.807$, $p = 0.600$. While these results cannot be generalized across all populations, they are informative of the effect of authentic media on language acquisition.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

The muse for this study was the repetition of the claim among locals in a Basque village that media input fostered young Basque children's Spanish language acquisition. With 92.2% of the population of the small fishing village speaking Basque and 97.3% of children aged 1-15 years old speaking Basque (Gros i Lladós, 2009), how were the children able to speak Spanish before they began formal Spanish instruction at school at age six? The anecdotal evidence suggested that it was due to television consumption.

Television and audiovisual media are abundant and prevalent in both accessibility and consumption habits around the world. The average adult consumes almost six hours of video a day (Lupis, 2020). Around the world, 60% of the population uses the internet, and that number jumps to 82% in Europe. Of those internet users, 90% watch video daily (We Are Social, n.d.). YouTube and video streaming services, such as Netflix and Amazon Prime, have millions of subscribers globally (Montero Perez & Rodgers, 2019), suggesting that viewers around the world have access to international video content.

These very accessible entertainment media hold an engaging quality for children of all ages, they supply authentic language input rich in pragmatics and vocabulary, and they provide learning opportunities which can be utilized both formally and informally. As has been researched and stated on various occasions, children's television and other audiovisual consumption can positively affect their language acquisition (Araujo & Dinis da Costa, 2013; Azzolini et al., 2020; Kuppens, 2010; Nightingale, 2014). These studies encompass children in the broad sense of those aged from birth to 18 years, and the

present study investigates the effects of media on various age groups of children—primary school aged as well as adolescents.

To expound on this well-studied topic, this paper will, first, compare the particular cases of two young English learners in a small Basque town according to their exposure to English television. Next, the effects of media on cognitive development and second language acquisition will be discussed, followed by the use of pragmatics, vocabulary, and video captions. From this theoretical background, the justification of the paper's experimental study will be elaborated. The study was developed to investigate the effects of audiovisual consumption on language learning, and it focuses on adolescents' acquisition of pragmatic structures and vocabulary from viewing a portion of an English video with and without captions. It is an investigation into whether viewing authentic English-language video aids adolescents in language acquisition, and, if so, whether viewing with captions augments or diminishes those effects. Furthermore, the second language (L2) media consumption habits of the subjects were assessed as to their significance in the subjects' language acquisition.

1.2. Case Studies

Considering the anecdotal accounts of the effects of video on language acquisition that the researcher repeatedly encountered, she undertook a preliminary investigation of the language background of two nine-year-old Basque girls from a town of 2,800 people in the Gipuzkoa region of the Basque Country. The researcher saw an apparent aptitude for learning languages in both of these girls, N and M, and both are bilingual in Basque and Spanish. Neither child had travelled extensively outside of Spain: N had been on two trips of several weeks each to her father's home country in South America (Spanish-

speaking), and M had been on several short trips to France and one two-week trip to the Irish countryside, where she had minimal English language interaction.

Some differences between the girls lie in their linguistic and educational backgrounds. N's father is a monolingual Spanish speaker, and her mother is trilingual in Basque, Spanish, and English; therefore, at home both Basque and Spanish were used regularly. In M's home, on the other hand, both parents are trilingual in Basque, Spanish, and English (the father also speaks French), but only Basque was used at home. N started formal schooling at age two, and formal (though not rigorous) English instruction at age four. M started formal schooling and formal (though not rigorous) English instruction at age five. Since age five, and, importantly, since mandatory education began at age six and their English language classes became more rigorous, they were together in the same class at school. Besides school and private English classes and television, M received some incidental English input from overhearing her parents' conversations in English with the researcher—approximately 30 – 90 minutes per week.

Having known both girls since they were toddlers, the researcher had the privilege of teaching N and M in private English classes for one and a half years (from age seven to nine). The classes were based on games and activities rather than grammar and language structure, and they contained elements of TPR, gamification, games-based teaching, and the communicative approach. The relevance of these children to this dissertation lies in N's striking proficiency in conversational English. Considering that many other aspects of the girls' backgrounds were similar, the investigator was intrigued by N's English fluency, which stood out compared to her peers.

In the investigation, N was able to carry on conversations in English at an A2/B1 level for an extended period of time (over one hour in recordings for this research). See

Table 1 for examples of her speech. She understood spoken English at an A2 level and requested rephrasing or definitions when she did not comprehend part of the conversation. When she could not produce an intended word or phrase, she was more likely to deftly maneuver to known lexis rather than code-switching to Basque or Spanish. Her accent was decidedly not like other Basque speakers when speaking English, and she used native-like colloquialisms and running speech contractions such as “gonna”, “wha’s she doin’”, and “I’ll” (pronounced like “all”, /ɔl/ in IPA).

Table 1 – Examples of N’s Speech

Structure	N’s Speech	Context
Unknown Vocabulary Strategy	Interviewer: Where did they go every weekend? N: To the place with the chickens! I: What’s that place called? N: Mmm... I: Fuh, fuh... N: Farm!	Describing a picture during speaking assessment
Use of Colloquialisms	Oh, my gosh!	Telling a story of a time when she felt embarrassed
Running Speech Contractions	“What are you watchin’?” Nothin’!	Telling about her grandmother asking what she was watching on TV
Codeswitching	I put the television in English, and she said, “Mmm?” And I say, “No, it’s <i>erdera</i> (Basque: <i>Spanish</i>), but it’s a little strange!”	Telling about her grandmother asking what she was watching on TV
Vocabulary Self-Assessment	To speak, I’m good. To say, I’m good. But to put, no. Read, yes, but to write, I don’t know.	Telling about her ability to read and write in English

Structure	N's Speech	Context
Pronunciation Negative Transfer & Self-Correction	N: What is her [the rabbit's] name? I: Stormy N: Estormy!...Stormy!	Asking about the Interviewer's pet rabbit's name
Negative transfer from Basque/Spanish	What pretty! (Spanish: <i>¡Qué bonito!</i> Basque: <i>Ze polita!</i>)	Looking at something she thought looked nice
Grammar Self- Correction (incorrectly)	Hmm, I want to paint like her, he.	Telling about painting her face like her doll's

N did make consistent grammar errors, however. For example, she almost always used the masculine pronoun regardless of the gender of the person, and she rarely used correct third person verb conjugation. She inverted noun-adjective phrases, and she did not often use correct past tense conjugation. In some self-correction, it was clear that she recognized that her grammar was incorrect, but she was not generally able to produce the appropriate structure (see Table 1, above).

N's reading and writing levels in English were quite low. In evaluative reading activities, N performed at an A2 level when the questions were read to her and her answers were recorded orally. Similarly, she reached a B1 level in listening when the answers were based on illustrations. However, she only achieved an A1 level in these types of tests when she was required to read the questions and select written answers. Her performance in English classes at school was also tempered by her lack of English reading and writing skills.

In an interview with N's parents, they asserted that N's main English input has been English language television. Since she was two years old, N's parents have desired for her to learn English. Her mother, having an intermediate level of English, would only

occasionally read English storybooks to N when she was younger, and she did not consider herself a source of English input during N's childhood.

When N's parents inquired at an English academy about registering her for classes two years of age, the academy explained that their methodology was a weekly 45-minute in-person class with an accompanying 30-minute in-house produced DVD that the toddler was to watch every day. N's parents decided they could do the same thing at home without the classes at the academy, and from that time on N watched at least 30 minutes of age-appropriate English-language television every day. This methodology is affirmed in Arifani's (2020) study in which young children who watched 30 minutes of English cartoons at home each day improved their English language skills. For the two years directly prior to the study, N had less time for daily viewing, so her viewing was concentrated in the weekends, but she still watched television in English.

N's English media exposure provided her with authentic comprehensible input but offered little to no opportunity for output. N's parents said that she would sometimes play with her toys in English, but otherwise she did not speak in English on a regular basis until she began classes with the researcher at age seven. However, on the infrequent occasion that she would meet the researcher from age five to seven, she always held conversations in English. Her speaking ability was advanced for the lack of practice opportunities she received. This is in line with the affirmation that processing novel structures "through aural input leads to intake, which can eventually lead to output" (Winke et al., 2013, p. 254).

M's television exposure contrasted with N's, in that she began watching television alternating between English and French from two years of age, but since age four years has watched mainly in Spanish and, occasionally, in Basque. M fits the anecdotal

observations about television influencing Spanish language acquisition, as she has spoken Spanish since age five with her only Spanish input being a weekly interaction with her grandfather and regular Spanish-language television. M performed well in her English class at school and had an A1 level at the time of the investigation. She could follow some conversations and would interject appropriately (albeit in Basque) when listening to English conversations between the researcher and her ten-year-old daughter. However, she could not hold conversations in English, as demonstrated in interviews with the researcher which were mostly in Basque except for a few one-word replies or short sentences.

M's English performance, while above average, aligned with the general performance of students of her age. N's, however, was strikingly advanced in speaking and listening skills, though she lacked proficiency in reading and writing. This comparison is drawn here to highlight the apparent impact of English videos on N's English language acquisition. Besides television, M had perhaps more contact with English language than N did, through overhearing conversations with a native speaker and visiting an English-speaking country. Yet, N, who had far greater exposure to authentic English children's television, had a much more developed conversational ability than M.

N's lack of proficiency in English reading and writing also attests to the influence of television. She was too young to watch with subtitles or captions, so she received no extra written L2 linguistic input, and, therefore, did not develop in those linguistics areas. In the areas where she did receive L2 input, however, in listening and spoken communication, she acquired those skills.

N's case is similar to that of Lana's in Hendrih and Krevelj's (2019) study and Laura in Jylha-Laide's (1994) study. Lana was a nine-year-old Croatian girl whose television viewing seemed to have led to English language acquisition (Hendrih & Krevelj, 2019), and Laura was a six-year-old Finnish girl who also learned a foreign language through video viewing (Jylha-Laide, 1994). Like N, both girls were motivated language learners in supportive environments and their oral production and listening comprehensive skills in English were remarkable compared to their peers. These case studies suggest that authentic video viewing may enhance second language acquisition.

1.3. Theoretical Background

The cognitive effects of media on children's development and the use of media in the context of second language acquisition (SLA) are particularly relevant to the development of this study. Whether audiovisual consumption in general affects children positively or negatively is important to investigate before considering using video in language acquisition. And from that point, previous research in the area of media in SLA can inform the basis of the current study.

Vocabulary and pragmatic features are the linguistic target structures employed in the study to assess language acquisition, and their use in this way is supported in the literature. Captions, too, form an essential part of the study, and the available research is rich with studies regarding their use and effectivity in learning.

1.3.1. Cognitive Effects of Media

Among children, the cognitive effects of audiovisual consumption have been shown to be associated with the content of the video. Violent content has been connected to poor academic performance and aggressive behaviors, while educational content has the reverse effect and is associated with improved academic performance and lower levels

of aggression (Anderson & Subrahmanyam, 2017). For example, in several studies (Anderson et al., 2001; Wright, Huston, Murphy et al, 2001; Zill, 2001) young children who watched *Sesame Street* educational television performed better in primary and even secondary school.

Entertainment television, on the other hand, is television content produced for general audiences without an intention to be educational. The content is not necessarily violent or inappropriate for children, but it is also not specifically created to be enriching. The impact of this kind of audiovisual input on children's cognitive development has not been studied in reference to the type of content (Anderson & Subrahmanyam, 2017; Pecora et al., 2009).

A connection can be drawn between the amount of time children engage in audiovisual consumption and its impact on their development. Comstock and Paik (1991) hold that when television provides "intellectually rich experiences" (Pecora et al., 2009, p. 68), it aids children, but when it replaces or excludes those types of encounters it is detrimental. The general consensus is that children's cognitive development increases proportionally to their viewing of appropriate television until about ten hours per week, at which point it begins to be unfavorable (Pecora et al., 2009).

For adolescents, this theory may continue to hold true if media consumption replaces other, more formative experiences. However, more time watching video does not necessarily affect adolescent well-being. According to a recent study by Orben and Przyblyski (2019), who investigated a broad sample of teens' screen time in comparison to their psychological welfare, a higher number of hours watching media did not affect their well-being.

Those findings are reassuring in light of the average 7.5 hours that teens spend consuming media daily, one hour of which is online video (Rideout & Robb, 2019). Figure 1 shows the results of the 2019 Common Sense Census regarding teen daily screen media use. In 2015, 34% of the U.S. teenagers polled said they watched video every day; in 2019, 69% said they did (Rideout & Robb, 2019). This would indicate that digital media are a salubrious source of input that is common for adolescents to access in their daily lives.

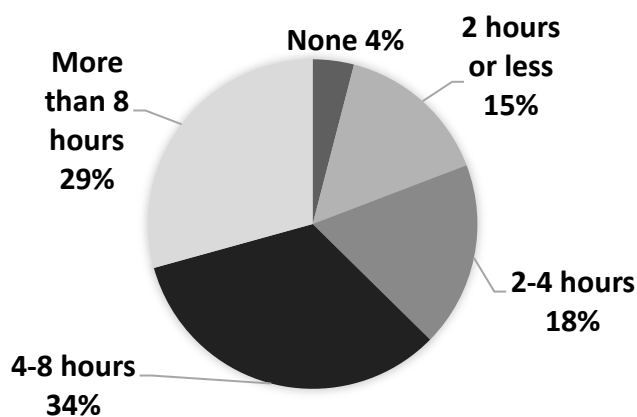


Figure 1 – Number of Hours per Day of Teen Screen Media Use (Rideout & Robb, 2019)

1.3.2. Media and Second Language Acquisition

If audiovisual resources can offer contributions to cognitive development, their effectivity will likely extend to other areas, including SLA. As in general cognitive development, the suitability of the video content for the situation is paramount, and many materials designers and teachers employ audiovisual content in teaching second languages. Of particular interest in this area is the use of authentic resources, and there is a history of authentic video use in the L2 classroom dating back to the 1970s (Morley & Lawrence, 1971; Stoller, 1988).

Authentic content, states Gilmore (2007) who draws on Morrow’s (1977) definition, is content that was produced by real speakers for a real audience with a real

message. When a video—a movie, a television episode, or an internet video—that was created for an English-speaking audience is used in the L2 classroom, that is considered the use of authentic video. The distinction is not limited to video, of course, and the use of authentic material in the English language classroom can be noted as far back as the 19th century. Henry Sweet (1899) said, “The great advantage of natural, idiomatic texts over artificial ‘methods’ or ‘series’ is that they do justice to every feature of the language” (p. 177). There is a plethora of materials created for language learning purposes but bringing authentic material—both educational media and entertainment media—to the L2 classroom presents learners with rich linguistic input.

While it might be redundant to state that the goal of entertainment media is to entertain, it bears noting in the context of SLA. Children find age-appropriate videos accessible and engaging, regardless of the audio track language, due to the colorful and attractive imagery (Nightingale, 2014). The combination of image and audio stimulates comprehension and vocabulary acquisition (Rodgers, 2018). Compared with news, for example, cartoons have a greater impact on low-level learners’ language acquisition (Bahrani & Tam, 2012), ostensibly due to the suitable vocabulary and subject matter. As noted above, the content of the media is relevant, and educational or age-appropriate material has a positive effect in children and adolescents’ development so long as it does not replace other enriching experiences. Therefore, as a source of language input, video is both interesting and salient for young learners.

In the classroom, video can play an important role in language acquisition. Danan (2004) would even say it is “commonplace” to say so, referring to its “rich context...[and] motivational, attentional, and affective impact on viewers” (p. 68). Both Canning-Wilson (2000) and Stempleski (2000) recommend the use of video in L2 classes,

especially when the activities before, during, and after the viewing build on the content in a linguistically developmental way. Canning-Wilson (2000) recommends using multifaceted activities with videos to challenge and motivate the learners. It has been noted that often the great potential for video use in the classroom has been undervalued and underused—it is a resource that can be utilized more and more, especially as technology develops (McNulty & Lazarevic, 2012).

For children’s informal language learning, the European Commission recognizes the value of contact with authentic language sources outside of school (European Commission, 2012). Multiple studies have found a strong correlation between *informal* or *non-institutional* English media exposure and proficiency in English studies (Arujo & Dinis da Costa, 2013; Azzolini et al., 2020; Brodarić, 2015). Kuppens’s (2010) study among Dutch primary school students demonstrated a direct relationship between English language media consumption and oral translation test scores (see Figure 2). As Krashen (2017) has noted, “when comprehensible input-based methods are compared to methods that demand the conscious learning of grammar, comprehensible input methods have never lost” (p. 17). Watching videos provides language enhancement independent of formal language learning (d’Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999), and they can, therefore, be used both in and out of school to foster language acquisition.

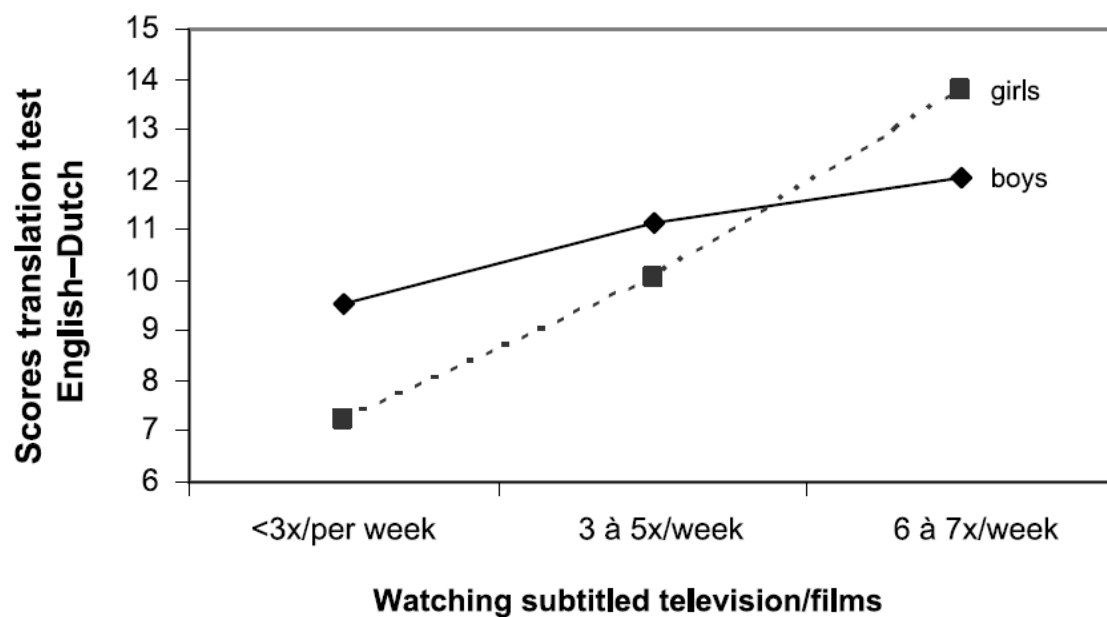


Figure 2 – *Kuppens’s (2010) Study*

In Brodarić’s (2015) study among Croatian adolescents, their out-of-school English media exposure improved their formal English language performance. Azzolini et al. (2020) surveyed a wide sample of European adolescents and found a strong association between “informal English exposure through media and cultural products” (p. 1). Manegre (2020) also found that English language exposure outside of the classroom was directly related to adolescent students’ performance on a baseline pretest as well as their continued improvement during the study. All of these studies demonstrate that children’s habits regarding English media consumption enhance their overall English language acquisition.

A context where media are often used in SLA outside of the classroom is in bilingual communities. In places where there are multiple languages that are used in various contexts and the home language might differ from the majority language, children often learn the second or third languages primarily through contacts outside of the family (Cummins, 1981). “Multilingual speakers learn and use their languages while participating in language practices that are shaped by the social context” (Gorter, 2013,

p. 4). Regarding audiovisual media, the “social context” of multilingual communities often means that media are more accessible in one language than in the others.

This is true in small towns in the Basque Country where the primary language spoken at home is Basque, and children learn Spanish at school beginning at age six. There are limited options for Basque language media on television or online, and Spanish media are much more common. For children whose families speak Basque in the home, any knowledge of Spanish before six years comes from interactions with non-Basque speakers and, presumably, media such as television and the internet (Gorter, 2013). Parents provide anecdotal evidence of this when describing how the Basque children in a small town acquire Spanish proficiency before receiving formal Spanish instruction. The researcher’s own five-year-old child acquired an elementary level of Spanish while living in a Basque-speaking town, and her only Spanish language input was children’s shows dubbed in Spanish. This informal use of audiovisual material in SLA in multilingual communities occurs naturally due to the linguistic context.

Regarding the use of video in children’s language acquisition, however, there are researchers who have found the conclusions to be too broad (Duncan & Paradis, 2019; Wright, Huston, Vandewater et al., 2001). After a certain point—usually around ten hours per week of television viewing—children’s academic scores begin to decrease rather than increase in relation to television consumption (Duncan & Paradis, 2019; Wright, Huston, Vandewater et al., 2001). Wright, Huston, Vandewater et al. (2001) note that this is due to the content rather than the amount of time, and Duncan and Paradis’s (2019) research does not delineate the content of the consumed media in the study but warns against “indiscriminate” television consumption (p. 648).

These warnings against television and video as a means of L2 input are a reminder to bear in mind the learner's context and needs. Danan (2004) cautions that "massive exposure to authentic audiovisual material which has not been carefully enough selected or made accessible to non-native viewers can be a very inefficient pedagogical approach" (p. 71). The advice here draws on Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis—the audiovisual input must be just above the learner's level for it to benefit language acquisition. Taking this principle and the content of the material into account can offset potential detrimental or ineffective outcomes of using media in SLA.

Having seen that the cognitive and educational effects of video can be positive in children and adolescents, specific areas of study within the realm of SLA through media can be explored. This study includes foci on video's effect on vocabulary acquisition and pragmatics understanding, as well as on the influence of captions on SLA when viewing video.

1.3.3. Vocabulary

Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) state that "voluminous experience with rich natural language" is "essential to the growth and development of children's vocabulary" (p. 51), and audiovisual input, by its nature, offers a wealth of vocabulary items to the viewer. D'Ydewalle and Van de Poel (1999) point out that vocabulary is the first building block in language learning. Therefore, it is a measurable unit when determining a subject's acquisition in a research setting. Smith and Rawley (2000), citing Stempleski (1992), state that authentic language video is "dense" in its linguistic richness, providing opportunities for vocabulary acquisition (p. 98). Indeed, in natural settings, learners acquire vocabulary in order to understand the situation (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999). This is what occurs when students watch an authentic video, therefore, testing vocabulary in a pretest and a posttest

after viewing a video is an appropriate means of assessing the subjects' language acquisition.

1.3.4. Pragmatics

Additionally, in the area of pragmatics, audiovisual entertainment can play a role in sociopragmatic awareness and providing pragmlinguistic resources to children (Nightingale, 2016). Pragmatic competence has been defined as “the ability to conduct socially appropriate communication by linking linguistic forms to communicative functions in social contexts” (Li, 2018, p. 1). Videos can be a source of formulaic language that is presented in a rich, realistic context and which serves as reinforcement of other received instruction (Nightingale, 2014, p. 203). Context is paramount in observing pragmatic structures in communication, and L2 learners require accurate input to internalize the structures. Being able to see “synchronous communication, communicators' gestures, gazes, paralinguistic cues, facial expressions, and lip movements” adds to the ability to understand and acquire pragmatic language (McNulty & Lazarevic, 2012, p. 52).

These same elements offer a point of reference to measure subjects' language acquisition in a testing setting. The nuances of pragmatic phrases are not always deducible, and even a learner with a high proficiency may not be able to decipher their meanings without assistance. If then, that learner is exposed to the pragmatic phrases in context in an authentic video and he or she is able to select the correct implication on a post-viewing assessment, the effectivity of the audiovisual input as an instructional device will be ascertained.

Regarding colloquialisms as a category within pragmatics, they confer meaning in ways outside of standard vocabulary and grammatical structures, even as they convey

a familiarity between speaker and receiver. They are a prevalent part of informal conversation, and, therefore, it can be argued that teaching colloquialisms in the L2 classroom is important, interesting, and beneficial to students (Frumuselu, 2015). As a subset of vocabulary, colloquialisms have the added means to attract attention due to the social connotations they carry, and they can serve as novel items to be acquired in a study. In this way, subjects' language acquisition from an experimental treatment can be determined based on their uptake of colloquialisms.

1.3.5. Captions

Among many of the studies of audiovisual materials as L2 input, the impact of captions has been investigated. Captions display the words of the audio track on the screen with the video, as opposed to subtitles which display the words of the translation of the audio track. They may also be referred to as “bimodal, same-language, unilingual, or intralingual subtitles” (Danan, 2004, p. 68). The history of caption use in SLA began in the 1950s when closed-captioning of television and movies became more conventional through legislation on behalf of the hearing-impaired community (Gernsbacher, 2015). Research into the usefulness for SLA was first undertaken in the 1980s (Taylor, 2005).

The general benefits of captioning for all audiences were discussed by Gernsbacher (2015), and the benefits for SLA have been seen in many studies (Arifani, 2020; Garza, 1991; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Teng, 2019). Nightingale (2016) notes that even short sessions viewing subtitles “can positively affect language acquisition” (p. 87), and Gernsbacher (2015) concludes that captions can be more beneficial for SLA than subtitles.

Because use of captions involves reading, there is inherently a developmental requisite for their effectivity. Pre-literate children cannot, of course, utilize captioning for

any use, including SLA. Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) cited Van Lil's (1988) study of children who found reading subtitles (in their native language) during a video to be too difficult, with a decreasing percentage from age seven years to nine years. In a study by d'Ydewalle and Van de Poel (1999) children of ages 8-12 years made greater gains with the target language audio track than with the subtitles. It is likely that this is due to the general reading level of the children. To expect children who have not fully mastered reading in their native language to use subtitles, especially a second language, is perhaps too high of an expectation.

As children grow older and their reading abilities develop, adding subtitles in the first language to accompany the foreign language audio track of the audiovisual material further enhances the probability of language acquisition. In reaction time testing, d'Ydewalle and Pavakanun (1995) demonstrated that not only do subjects attend to the subtitles, but they simultaneously process both the written and spoken input from subtitled media. Furthermore, children older than eight years read and process subtitles in a comparable way to adults (d'Ydewalle & Van Rensbergen, 1989). This has shown to positively affect language acquisition (d'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1995). Indeed, among adults d'Ydewalle and Pavakanun (1996) found that having the audio track in the native language and the subtitles in the target language provided the best circumstances for language acquisition.

Some studies have shown that captions are not as helpful for beginner learners as for those with a higher English level (Pujadas & Muñoz, 2020; Rodgers, 2013; Taylor, 2005). Taylor (2005) suggested that for those with lower reading levels in the target language, adding captions may be confusing or distracting; Rodgers (2013) found that captions were more beneficial for difficult episodes; and Pujadas and Muñoz (2020)

found that subtitles helped adolescent learners more than captions. There have also been studies that do not demonstrate a difference in language acquisition in groups who view video with and without caption (Karakas & Sariçoban, 2012).

According to the studies noted above, there are benefits to watching video with captions, and they often assist in SLA. However, it is not a universal finding that they always improve language learning, and it is an area where further research can be undertaken.

1.4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Using media in SLA among children and adolescents is an engaging and relevant area of research. Including the aspects of pragmatics and captions in an experimental study can amplify the understanding of their application and contribution to the field. Furthermore, addressing these elements in an area where they have not been researched before—in the bilingual setting of Basque children and adolescents—serves to expand the extent of the current research. This experimental study, then, is designed to address the relationship between watching authentic English language videos and English language acquisition among Basque adolescents. It is hypothesized that watching English videos enhances vocabulary and pragmatic awareness and that watching with captions magnifies this enrichment. Furthermore, the influence of English media consumption habits on SLA will be evaluated. The research addresses the following:

- 1) Do adolescents who watch authentic English video gain pragmatic understanding and learn colloquial vocabulary from it?
- 2) Do adolescents who watch authentic English video with subtitles in English (captions) gain more pragmatic understanding and learn more vocabulary than their peers who watch without captions?

- 3) Is there a relationship between adolescents' media consumption habits and their language acquisition from an authentic English video?

The alternative hypotheses for the research questions are the following:

- 1) Adolescents will know more vocabulary and have a greater pragmalinguistic understanding after viewing a portion of an English-language movie than before;
- 2) Adolescents who watch the video with captions will acquire more vocabulary and pragmatic structures than those who watch without captions; and
- 3) Adolescents who regularly consume authentic English media will have a greater increase in learning from watching authentic English video than those who do not regularly consume media in English.

Likewise, the null hypotheses are that the treatment—authentic video exposure and captions—as well as media consumption habits have no effect on adolescents' language acquisition.

CHAPTER 2

Method

2.1. Research Design

In order to study the stated propositions, an experimental design was employed among two quasi-experimental groups of adolescents watching an English video with a pretest and a posttest. For organizational purposes, the study maintained the groupings of the students in their school classes. Due to this arrangement, the sample is not randomized, and the study is quasi-experimental. The study was structured around the viewing of a portion of an authentic English movie, with investigations into the background of the subjects as well as their performance on a pragmatics and vocabulary test before and after viewing the video with an independent variable of English captioning. The two cohorts were both experimental in that there was not a traditional control group who did not watch the video, but the cohorts differed in the treatment received. Group A acted as a control group for the captions variable and watched the video without captions, and Group B was the experimental group for the captions variable and watched it with English captions. Table 2 describes the design. The sample, materials, procedure, and analyses are described below.

Table 2 – Research Design

Pre-Treatment	Treatment	Post-Treatment
Questionnaire and Pretest for both cohorts	Group A (no captions)	Posttest for both cohorts
	Group B (captions)	

2.2. Sample

A sample ($N = 42$) consisted of adolescents from a secondary school in a town of 23,000 people in the Basque Country of Spain. All the students were 15- or 16-years of age, and due to their educational level, they were all proficient in both Basque and Spanish, though their mode of bilingualism varied between simultaneous and sequential bilingualism (Baker, 2006). They had studied English at school since they were six years old, and according to their English teacher, their proficiency level at the time of the study ranged from A2 to B2. The two cohorts had the same teacher, and in her assessment, one cohort had a slightly higher English language level in general than the other.

Consent to participate in the study was obtained from the school, the teachers, the parents, and the students, as verified by signed forms (see Appendix A). The data were treated with privacy measures, and care was taken to choose secure online platforms for the data collection instruments—Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com) for the questionnaire which included personal data and Quizizz (www.quizizz.com) for the test, which did not include personal data.

Information about the subjects was collected through a questionnaire before the experiment was conducted. The data of the one native English speaker in the sample were excluded from the study to maintain the focus on learners of English as a second language. One subject was not present for the first session but did take the posttest, so his data were excluded as well.

In Group A, 50% of the subjects reported Basque as their native language, 18% as Spanish, and 32% as both Basque and Spanish. In Group B, Basque was the reported native language of 55% of the subjects, Spanish for 25%, and both for 30% (see Table 3). In both cohorts the reported home language differed from the native language as there

was a greater percentage of those reporting “both”—68% in Group A and 45% in Group B (see Table 4).

Table 3 – Subjects’ Native Language

Group	Basque	Spanish	Both	Total
A - No Captions	11	4	7	22
B - Captions	9	5	6	20

Table 4 – Languages Spoken at Home

Group	Basque	Spanish	Both	Total
A - No Captions	3	6	13	22
B - Captions	6	5	9	20

All the subjects except one had been studying English for seven years or more (the outlier reported 4-6 years of study). In Group A, 86% of the subjects attended supplementary English classes outside of school, with 68% having taken supplementary classes for more than four years; in Group B, 70% attended supplementary English classes, and 50% had done so for more than four years (see Table 5). These data present a difference in the cohorts, with a greater percentage of Group A having had formal English instruction outside of school.

Only three students reported having travelled to English-speaking places for longer than one month, and no students reported trips longer than two months. Therefore, it was determined that in both cohorts the exposure to English in a first-hand context was minimal.

Table 5 – Supplemental English Classes

Group	None	Less than 4 Years	More than 4 Years	Total
A - No Captions	3	6	13	22
B - Captions	6	4	10	20

Regarding media consumption habits (see Table 6), in Group A, 50% reported watching television, movies, and/or other videos in English as well as Basque and Spanish. Three students reported watching movies exclusively in English. In Group A, 41% played video games in English some of the time, and 18% played exclusively in English. In Group B, of the 14 students who reported playing video games, 21.5% played in English as well as other languages, and 14% played only in English. In Group A, 91% of the 21 subjects who reported listening to music did so in English at least sometimes, whereas 85% of Group B report listening to music in English. A much lower number, only 5% of both cohorts together, reported listening to the radio in English. Presumably, this is because in their geographical area radio channels were not available in English, except for English music played on Basque or Spanish radio channels. 45% in Group A and 40% in Group B reported reading books and/or magazines in English. Besides Basque and Spanish, Korean, Japanese, French, German, and Zulu were mentioned as “Other” languages of media consumption in the two cohorts.

Table 6 – Media Consumption

Group	Language	Movies	Other Video	Video Games	Music	Reading
A - No Captions 22 Students Total	Not Applicable	0	0	0	1	0
	Others Only	11	8	9	2	12
	Others & English	10	13	9	14	10
	English Only	1	1	4	5	0
B – Captions 20 Students Total	Not Applicable	0	0	6	0	0
	Others Only	14	13	9	3	12
	Others & English	4	5	3	13	8
	English Only	2	2	2	4	0

The questionnaire served to give insight into the students’ background with the English language. It was also used in assessing the alternative hypothesis, whether students’ exposure to authentic English video affected their ability to acquire language features from the study’s treatment. Because of the differences in exposure to and consumption of English language between the subjects and the cohorts, the present study adopted a pretest/posttest design to show a baseline for each subject before the treatment was implemented.

2.3. Materials

2.3.1. Audiovisual Material

The audiovisual component of the experiment was a portion of the movie #realityhigh (Lebrija, 2017, minutes 20:00-40:00), which was chosen for its relevance to the audience and language level. The themes dealt with in the movie were high school activities (athletics, parties, relationships), and the speed and level of dialogue were

moderate. The script of the movie portion was analyzed for vocabulary and pragmatic structures. The movie's captions, which were provided by the film's producer (Netflix), were verbatim, including fillers such as "um" and "ah", and were synced with the audio track for optimal viewing.

2.3.2. Data Collection Instruments

The instruments of data collection were a pre-experiment questionnaire and a test which was administered as a pretest and again as a posttest covering the pragmatic and vocabulary elements of the video. The data collection was completed and compiled digitally online on the subjects' school laptops.

The questionnaire (see Appendix B), which was based on Nightingale's (2016) Language Attitudes Questionnaire, consisted of 15 base questions about the subjects' language background and their media consumption. An additional nine questions appeared on the questionnaire depending on each subject's responses. It was administered through Qualtrics, a service with reputable data protection measures.

The pretest/posttest (see Appendix C) began with an item asking whether the subjects had previously seen the movie in order to determine whether they had already been exposed to the content. The following 20 questions were based on the pragmatic structures and vocabulary analysis of the movie script.

Following a pilot test with a group of 13-year-old Basque students, the five pragmatics items were changed from short answer to multiple choice questions. This change was supported by Walters' (2009) study, which confirmed that fill-in the blank responses about pragmatics items can depend too much on subjective interpretation. Furthermore, from the pilot group's scores and their comments while taking the test, it was apparent that they made chance guesses (sometimes correctly) for many of the

multiple-choice options for the vocabulary items. To amend this potential for skewed data, a fourth option was added to each item in that section and an emphasis in the instructions was included that in case of any doubt to choose the “I don’t know the answer” option. A second pilot run of the pretest/posttest with native English-speaking adolescents and adults led to the restructuring of some of the pragmatics questions for clarity. The final set of questions was deemed adequate for both clarity and assessment of the subjects’ language acquisition.

Taguchi (2015) notes that research on pragmatics should be done considering the contextual elements. The questions on the test regarding pragmatics were grounded in the context of the movie, though they were formulated in such a way as to provide the context without having viewed the movie. As Walters (2009) notes, pragmatic competence may be difficult to determine when a subject only views a video once, and the results could be confounded by memory of the pretest and/or general comprehension. However, the scope of this study does not include an exhaustive investigation into the subjects’ acquisition of pragmatic features, rather it relies upon the salience of pragmalinguistics in context to measure the effects of watching video on the subjects’ language acquisition. Here the results are not confounded with grammatical ability and listening comprehension skills, but rather a means of determining them.

For the pragmatics items, phrases whose illocutionary meaning could be determined without seeing the video were chosen so that subjects whose English level was high enough to deduce the meaning without the visual context in the movie would answer correctly on the pretest. In this way, their pretest and posttest answers would not differ, thus demonstrating that they neither needed nor used the audiovisual input as a learning tool. On the other hand, a correlation between watching the video and answering

the item correctly on the posttest could be drawn from those students who did not complete the item correctly on the pretest. As shown in Table 7, the items used were mostly generalized conversational implicatures (Grice, 1975) so that the meaning could not be determined by lexical or syntactic means but must be derived from the idiomatic or contextual use of the words. The distractors were based on a more literal understanding of the utterances and an alternative figurative interpretation.

Table 7 – Example Pragmatics Questions

Conversational Implicature	Implicature in Context (full question)	Pragmatic Meaning (correct option)	Distractors (incorrect options)
"I could swing that."	A boy invites a girl to a party, and she says, " <u>I could swing that.</u> " What's another way she could say that?	I can go.	- I'm going to play at the park. - I can do a trick.
"You've come to the right place."	A girl tells her friend that she is going to a party and needs a dress. Her friend says, " <u>You've come to the right place.</u> " What is another way she could say this?	I can help you.	- This room is where you should be. - You can help me.

Vocabulary, as a primary element of language (d'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999), was used as a measurement of language acquisition. In the vocabulary section of the test, items that were considered to be both novel and highly salient to the audience were chosen as testing items. To avoid testing fatigue, 15 words were selected to create multiple choice items with four options for the correct translation, plus the "I don't know the answer" option. In the script of the movie there was little repetition of the words, so any

improvement in performance on the posttest would show the effects of the video's context and use of the words to be highly effective.

2.4. Procedure

To administer the study, each cohort participated during two sessions of their regular school English class time. In the first session—a Friday—the subjects completed the questionnaire and the pretest on their personal laptops. In a subsequent class session—the following Monday—they watched the portion of the movie on the interactive whiteboard at the front of the classroom. One cohort (Group A) was shown the video without captions, and the other cohort (Group B) was shown the video with captions. Directly after watching the movie, the students completed the posttest, which was the same as the pretest. The researcher was present during all four sessions and explained the project and procedures in both English and Basque. She assured that the forms were filled out correctly and the video viewing conditions were acceptable.

2.5. Data Analysis

The questionnaire data were converted into a scale in order to analyze the information regarding the subjects' *English Media Exposure* (EME). Of the eight categories in the Media Habits section as seen in the questionnaire in Figure 3, six were considered for the EME scale. The "Listening to the Radio" category was combined with the "Listening to Music" category, as the only accessible radio in the area plays some English music but does not include English speaking. The category of "Reading Newspapers or Magazines" was excluded, as no subjects said that they used these types of media in English, most likely because there is limited access to such media in their location. Of the remaining six categories, if a student marked the "English" option, they

were given one point on the scale. This led to a scale with a range of 0-6 to demonstrate a subject's EME score.

Media Habits				
In this section, mark each language that you use to do the activity. You can mark as many languages as you want. You can add a language if it's not listed.				
Atal honetan, markatu jarduera egiteko erabiltzen duzun hizkuntza. Nahi adina hizkuntza marka ditzakezu. Hizkuntza gehi dezakezu zerrendatuta ez badago.				
	Euskara	Spanish / Gaztelania	English / Ingelesa	Other / Beste bat
Watch Television	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Watch Movies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Watch Series or other videos	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Play Video Games	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listen to Music	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listen to the Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Read Books	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Read Newspapers or Magazines	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Figure 3 – Media Habits Question from Questionnaire

The pretest and posttest, consisting of the same 21 items, were scored by awarding one point to each correct answer (excluding the item about whether the subject had previously seen the movie), with no points given for unanswered or incorrect items (including marking the “I don’t know the answer” option), for a total of 20 points (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

2.6. Statistical Analysis

The pretest and posttest scores were compared across the captions/no captions variable using a repeated measures ANOVA. In the ANOVA the testing was grouped

together and then the captions were grouped together. Therefore, to verify the results, two t-tests were run to compare each cohort's pretest scores with their posttest scores. Then, seeing a possible correlation between captions and posttest score improvement that was not confirmed in the initial repeated measures ANOVA, a paired t-test was run to compare the two cohorts' posttest data. Finally, an ANOVA was run on the posttest scores of both groups.

To analyze the influence of the subjects' background English media exposure on their ability to acquire language structures through watching an authentic language video, their EME score was compared to the difference of their scores on the pretest and the posttest using a repeated measures ANOVA. This would demonstrate if consuming English media gave a subject an enhanced ability to capture new vocabulary and pragmatic structures while viewing an English language video. To investigate more deeply from a multivariate analysis perspective, two separate ANOVAs were then run on the EME scores compared first with the pretest scores and then with the posttest scores.

CHAPTER 3

Results

The questionnaire and pretest were administered on a Friday, and the video viewing and the posttest were carried out on the following Monday. Due to the situation presented by Covid-19, over the weekend between the two sessions, one subject tested positive for the virus and a total of 14 subjects were confined to their homes and were not able to attend the second session in person. The subjects' school's protocol in such situations was that the students connected online to the class sessions via Google Meet, and all students confined at home attended the study's second session this way. The video segment was played for all the students in the class and at home simultaneously, and they completed the posttest online simultaneously. The students were assured that their performance on the posttest did not affect their class marks and the design of the experiment was fully explained to them, so there is no reason to assume that any of the students who participated from home would have performed unscrupulously. Their data were included in the study without concern.

The pretest results showed a mean of approximately 73% for Group A who viewed the video without captions and approximately 63% for Group B who viewed with captions. The mean of the posttest scores was 84% for Group A without captions and 78% for Group B with captions. This demonstrated an 11% increase in scores in Group A without captions and a 15% increase in Group B with captions (see Table 8).

Table 8 - Descriptives

Testing	Captions	Mean	SD	N
Pretest	Group A - No Captions	0.729	0.128	20
	Group B – Captions	0.631	0.144	20
Posttest	Group A - No Captions	0.839	0.096	20
	Group B – Captions	0.776	0.141	20

In order to compare the pretest/posttest data for both groups, a repeated measures ANOVA was run (see Table 9). The null hypothesis for the testing of both groups was that there would not be an improvement from the pretest to the posttest. The alternative hypothesis (Hypothesis 1) was that there would be an improvement in performance from the pretest to posttest. The results show $F(1,19) = 47.081$, $p < .001$, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis.

**Table 9 – Repeated Measures ANOVA of Captions and Pretests & Posttests Scores
Within Subjects Effects**

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Testing	0.326	1	0.326	47.081	< .001
Residuals	0.132	19	0.007		
Captions	0.127	1	0.127	6.277	0.021
Residuals	0.385	19	0.020		
Testing * Captions	0.006	1	0.006	1.056	0.317
Residuals	0.113	19	0.006		

To investigate these results more deeply, two t-tests were run to show the improvement of the subjects' test scores after watching the video. Table 10 shows the results of the t-test of Group A's pretest/posttest scores, and Table 11 shows Group B's results. For Group A, the pretest (M 0.719, SD 0.129) was compared to the posttest (M 0.839, SD 0.096) and $t = -4.69$, $p < .001$, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis, that subject performance increased after watching the video. For Group B there was a difference from the pretest (M 0.776, SD 1.141) to the posttest (M 0.631, SD 0.144) and $t = -5.026$, $p < .001$. Therefore, also in this cohort, the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis.

Table 10 - Paired Samples T-Test of Group A's (No Captions) Pre/Posttests

Measure 1	Measure 2	t	df	p
Pretest No Captions	- Posttest No Captions	-4.629	21	< .001

Table 11 - Paired Samples T-Test of Group B's (Captions) Pre/Posttests

Measure 1	Measure 2	t	df	p
Pretest Captions	- Posttest Captions	-5.026	19	< .001

The second alternative hypothesis (Hypothesis 2) was that the group who watched the video with captions would improve more on the posttest than the group who watched without captions. The repeated measures ANOVA (see Table 9, above) showed no significance between the two groups. A cursory look at the plot graph (see Figure 4) of the difference of the increase of scores between the two groups might indicate a greater increase in the group with captions. Therefore, a t-test (see Table 12) was run to look deeper into the data. It compared the posttests of Group A without captions to that of Group B with captions, and $p > .05$. This demonstrated that the two groups did not have any significant differences, which reinforced the results from the repeated measures ANOVA, which showed no interaction effect between captions and test performance.

Another ANOVA (see Table 13) was run to measure the effect of captions on posttest performance. From this ANOVA, $F(1,40) = 1.274$, $p = .266$, therefore there was no interaction effect between the posttest results and the use of captions, further reinforcing the findings in the repeated measures ANOVA. After these analyses, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the alternative hypothesis (Hypothesis 2) was rejected.

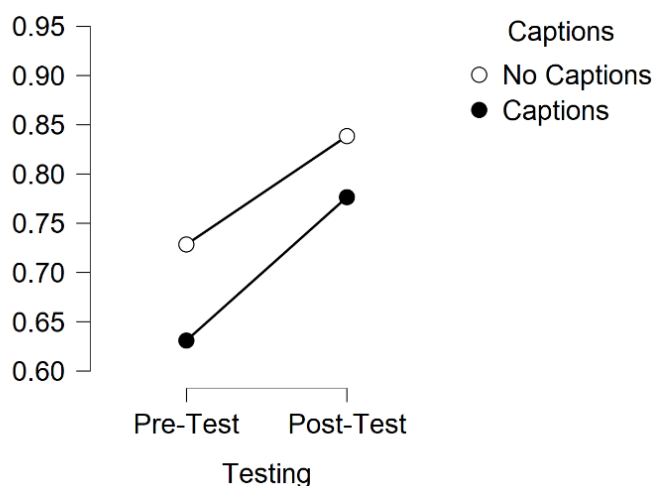


Figure 4 – Captions Repeated Measures ANOVA Plot Graph

Table 12 - Paired Samples T-Test Caption/No Captions Posttests

Measure 1	Measure 2	t	df	p
Posttest No Captions	- Posttest Captions	1.868	19	0.077

Table 13 - ANOVA of Posttests
Within Subjects Effects

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Captions	0.020	1	0.020	1.274	0.266
Residuals	0.636	40	0.016		

The third alternative hypothesis was that the subjects' informal English media exposure would positively affect their performance on the posttest compared to the pretest because they would be accustomed to receiving new input through authentic media. To analyze this, a repeated measures ANOVA was run on the subjects' pretest posttest score difference compared to their EME score. The pretest and posttest scores were the variables in the first factor, and the 0-6 scores on the EME scale were the variables in the second factor. In this case, as seen in Table 14, $F(6, 39) = 0.807$, $p = .600$, which shows

that there was no effect of the variable on the test scores. The plot graph in Figure 5 demonstrates visually that the amount of EME on the x-axis did not causally relate to test scores on the y-axis.

Table 14 - Repeated Measures ANOVA of EME, Pretest, & Posttest Scores
Within Subjects Effects

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Testing * Media Score	0.022	6	0.004	0.807	0.600
Residuals	0.027	6	0.005		

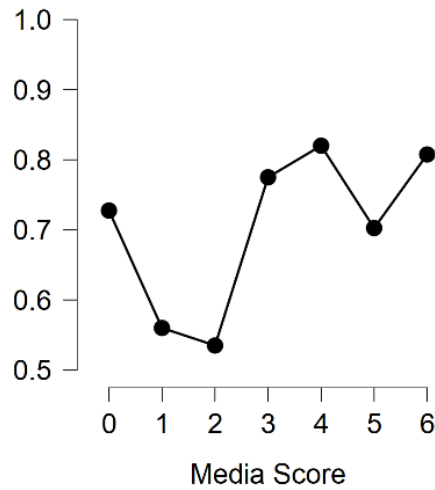


Figure 5 – English Media Exposure Repeated Measure ANOVA Plot Graph

In order to investigate this relationship more deeply, a multivariate analysis was employed, and two separate ANOVAs were run using the EME score, first with the pretest scores (see Table 15), and then with the posttest scores (see Table 16).

Table 15 - ANOVA of EME and Pretest Scores

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Media Score	0.170	6	0.028	1.557	0.189
Residuals	0.637	35	0.018		

Table 16 - ANOVA of EME and Posttest Scores

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Media Score	0.167	6	0.028	1.985	0.094
Residuals	0.489	35	0.014		

In the ANOVA comparing the EME scores to the pretests, $F(6, 35) = 1.557$, $p = .189$, which supports the findings of the repeated measures ANOVA above. The inconsistent effect of the subjects' exposure to English media can be seen clearly in the non-linear points on the plot graph in Figure 6. The same is true for the ANOVA comparing the EME scores with the posttests, in which $F(6,35) = 1.985$, $p = .094$, also denoting that the effects of media exposure were not relevant to the posttest scores (see Figure 7).

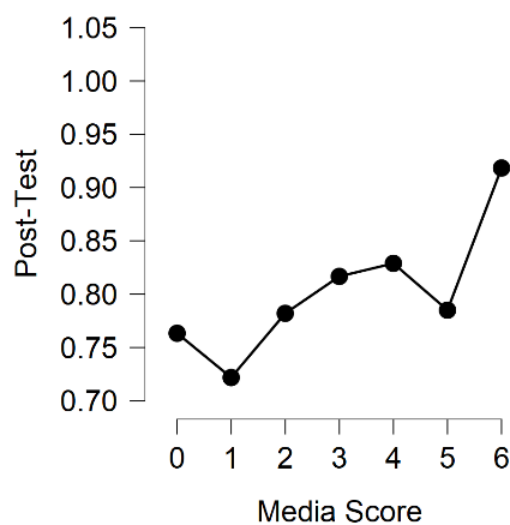


Figure 6 – Plot Graph of ANOVA of EME Scores and Pretests

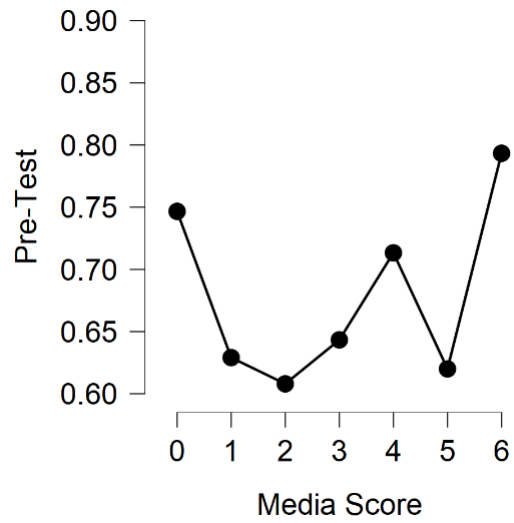


Figure 7 – Plot Graph of ANOVA of EME Scores and Posttests

CHAPTER 4

Discussion

4.1. Potential Significance of the Findings

In light of anecdotal assertions about television contributing to local Basque children's Spanish language acquisition, the case studies of N and M demonstrated that their exposure to media in English (in N's case) and Spanish (in M's case) could have a connection to their language acquisition. Research in the area of media and SLA seems to affirm these observations, with many studies establishing a direct relationship between media input, whether in or outside of the L2 classroom, and attainment of L2 features. Vocabulary and pragmatic comprehension specifically were investigated in this study, as they are essential and salient linguistic aspects that can be measured to assess subjects' language acquisition.

The use of captions while viewing video in the L2 has mixed results on SLA in the literature. The additional visual input can enhance the linguistic experience, especially for learners with a sufficient reading level and with a higher L2 level. However, for other learners and depending on the circumstances, captions do not always facilitate SLA, as they can distract, confuse, or tire the viewer. The literature would show, however, that learners with L2 media input outside of class make greater gains in SLA.

From previous research, as noted above, it was expected that when students watched English video, they would acquire vocabulary and pragmatics comprehension by doing so. This would be demonstrated through improved scores on the posttests compared to the pretests. Furthermore, it was expected that subjects who watched with captions would perform even better on the posttest than those who watched without captions, and those who had greater English media exposure in general would perform

better than those who consumed less English media. The data from the tests in this experimental study, both pretest and posttest, were collected and assessed for increase of language acquisition across cohorts.

The results showed a general increase in the scores of the subjects' posttests compared to their pretests, $F(1,19) = 46.630, p < .001$. Indeed, an individual examination of the scores revealed that, with few exceptions, all the students performed as well or better on the posttest than they had on the pretest. Group A, who watched without captions, increased by 11% from their pretest to their posttest, and Group B, who watched with captions, increased by 15%. This demonstrated that the treatment of watching the English video was effective in assisting the subjects' language acquisition because they were able to complete more answers correctly after viewing than before.

Furthermore, the subjects were encouraged not to guess at answers on either sitting of the test, so it can be assumed that their answers represented their actual knowledge of the items. The improved scores, therefore, indicate that the subjects were better able to recognize the pragmatic and vocabulary items after watching the video than they had been before watching.

The first alternative hypothesis in this study was that adolescents would know more vocabulary and have a greater pragmalinguistic understanding after viewing a portion of an English-language movie than before. According to the results in this study, this alternative hypothesis can be accepted. This supports previous research as well as the reflections on the case study of N, who acquired a notable level of English from watching English-language cartoons. It can be determined, then, that authentic video with appropriate content and in moderated amounts can benefit children's language acquisition.

The second alternative hypothesis stated that adolescents who watched the video with captions would retain more vocabulary and understanding of pragmatics than those who watched without captions. According to the results of this study, the students who watched without captions improved their scores comparably to those who watched with captions. In the analysis of the two cohorts' test scores, $F(1,19) = 1.096$, $p > .05$. This showed that the use of captions did not affect the gain of vocabulary and pragmatics comprehension significantly. In this case, the alternative hypothesis was rejected, and the null hypothesis that captions do not affect language acquisition when watching authentic video was accepted.

These results are contrary to other studies that demonstrate benefits of viewing videos with captions for language acquisition, and this divergence could be for several reasons. It could be that the subjects' English language level was too low for the captions to have affected their acquisition of the target features. It could also be that the cohort who watched without captions used visual cues in place of captions to assist their acquisition of the language structures. Thus, the scores were seen to increase by the same proportion.

Finally, and most likely, it could be that the cohort who watched with the captions was the weaker of the two cohorts, in which case their scores would have been even lower on the posttest if they had not watched with captions. In that case, it would have been seen that their peers in the other cohort had a greater increase in scores due to their higher baseline level. Thus, perhaps the captions did affect their scores, but it was not represented in the analyses because their peers in the cohort who watched without captions had a higher baseline level from which to improve.

For the third alternative hypothesis in the study, the questionnaire items regarding the subjects' English media consumption were analyzed in comparison to their gains on the posttest compared to the pretest. The results of the repeated measures ANOVA, $F(6, 39) = 0.807, p = 0.600$, showed that there was not a significant effect from the EME on the test performance. This was further substantiated by two separate ANOVAS run on the EME scores compared to the pretest scores in one ANOVA and the posttest scores in another ANOVA. This would indicate that the students' out-of-class media habits did not contribute to whether they gained vocabulary and pragmatics knowledge from the English video they watched in the experiment.

This finding also deviates from the general literature, and, again, it could be due to different reasons. The items regarding EME on the questionnaire were quite general and, by nature, self-reported. A more thorough investigation of the subjects' exact amounts of English media consumption might have revealed a different representation of their overall EME, which might have shown different impacts on their SLA. It could also be because the pretest and posttest specifically dealt with the linguistic items found in the video and not the subjects' language knowledge in general. While the scope and design of this study did not encompass it, a pretest/posttest design that investigated more general language knowledge could be employed for future studies. These results do not necessarily imply that exposure to authentic L2 media does not influence SLA; they demonstrate that it cannot be proven with the testing used in this study.

4.2. Limitations and Implications for Further Research

As previously mentioned, it was not possible to arrange a random sample due to school schedule constraints, so the class groupings were maintained, although the teacher of the two cohorts attested that there was a difference in their English level. Had the

sample been randomized across English levels, the results regarding the effects of captions might have provided different results. In future studies, the sample would ideally be randomized to provide more accurate data.

A possible limitation in the test design was that the clarifying instructions for the pragmatics questions and the multiple-choice answers for the vocabulary questions were provided in Spanish, which was not, in principle, the subjects' native language. Their education level, however, would attest to their Spanish language level being adequately developed to undertake the questions.

Another limitation of this study was that there was only one exposure to authentic video observed and the posttest was administered directly after the video viewing. This design did not give insight on the effects of viewing video over longer periods of time, nor could it allow for testing of retention of the target structures, only their immediate recognition. Further studies could investigate the effects of regular classroom video viewing over a longer period of time, including a greater interval between the viewing and the posttest as a means of testing linguistic acquisition and retention.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusion

The topic of authentic video and captions in the realm of SLA has many nuances and possibilities. The study presented here contributes to the literature on the effectivity of authentic video in SLA. The case studies of the two Basque children who had remarkable English levels was enlightening in that the girl who watched more television in English had a substantially higher conversational English level than the girl who did not. The literature seems to support the idea that audiovisual media enhance SLA, and the hypotheses about captions and media consumption habits extended the scope of the study.

The experimental study demonstrated that audiovisual input does benefit language acquisition in the areas of pragmatics and vocabulary. The results regarding captions revealed that they were not noticeably valuable for the subjects' language acquisition, which fits in the current literature, as there are studies showing both positive and neutral gains from using captions. Regarding informal English media consumption, it did not directly affect the subjects' language acquisition through viewing an English video. Being contrary to other studies, further investigations into both caption use and the influence of media consumption habits would be informative to the field.

Authentic English language video is a powerful resource for English language acquisition. There is an abundance of material and a wide audience among young L2 learners. As the current study demonstrates, audiovisual consumption can and should be encouraged for the best English language results among children—both young children and adolescents. This tool can be employed both in formal and informal settings, in the classroom and at home, always considering the content of the material and the time spent

watching. Furthermore, as children reach a level of reading facility and comprehension in their first language, adding subtitles or captions is an option while watching video in the L2. However, captions have not been shown to increase learning in every situation and can be considered optional for SLA purposes. Finally, L2 media consumption can be encouraged for language learners, but according to the findings in this research, it may not necessarily influence language acquisition.

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APPENDIX A

Letter of Consent

Signed by Adolescent Subjects (15+ years old)

BAIMEN GUTUNA

Nik, _____, _____ urtekin, ulertzen dut:

- bideoak ingelesez ikusteak ingelesa ikasteaz izandako eragin positiboak buruzko ikerketa batean parte hartzea gonbidatu naute;
- nire parte hartzea borondatezkoa da;
- jarduerak hauek dira: galdetegi bat, bideo bat ingelesez, idatzizko bi proba;
- nire erantzunak eta datuak pribatuak izango dira;
- jarduerak ez du nire ingeleseko kalifikazioetan eragingo;
- edozein unetan nire erantzunak ikerketatik kanpo uztea nahiago badut, ingeleseko irakasleari esan diezaioket eta hori egingo dute ondorioz gabe.

Hori guztia ulertuta, ikerketan parte hartzea onartzen dut.

Izena

Data

Sinadura

LETTER OF CONSENT

I, _____, _____ years old, understand that:

- I have been invited to participate in a study about the positive effects of viewing videos in English on English learning;
- my participation is voluntary;
- the activities are: a questionnaire, a video in English, two written tests;
- my responses and personal data will be treated with confidentiality;
- the activities will not affect my grade in English class;
- if, at any time, I prefer that my responses are not included in the study, I can tell my teacher and they will be omitted without any consequence.

Having understood all the above, I agree to participate in the study.

Name

Date

Signature

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire

Question (Basque)	Question (English)	Options (if given)
Ama-Hizkuntza	Native Language	Basque Spanish Both Other
Zure etxekeok etxean hitz egiten dituen hizkuntza guztiak aukeratu.	Mark all the languages your family speaks at home.	Basque Spanish Other
Euskaraz, gaztelaniaz eta ingelesez gain, beste hizkuntzarik hitz egiten baduzu, hemen zerrendatu	If you speak any languages besides Basque, Spanish and English, write them here	
	How many years have you studied English?	1-3 4-6 7-9 10-12 More than 12
Inoiz ingeleseko klaserik hartu al duzu eskolatik kanpo?	Have you ever taken English classes outside of school?	Yes No
YES erantzun baduzu, zenbat urte daramatzazu ingeleseko klaseak eskolatik kanpo?	If you answered YES, how many years have you taken English classes outside of school?	
Ingelesez hitz egiten den leku batean zenbat denbora egon zara?	How much time have you spent in an English-speaking place?	Never Less than 1 week / Aste bete baina gutxiago 1-4 Weeks 1-2 Months 3-12 Months More than 1 year / Urte bete baino gehiago
Atal honetan, markatu jarduera egiteko erabiltzen duzun hizkuntza. Nahi adina hizkuntza marka ditzakezu. Hizkuntza gehi dezakezu zerrendatuta ez badago.	In this section, mark each language that you use to do the activity. You can mark as many languages as you want. You can add a language if it's not listed.	Basque Spanish English Other (If you marked "Other / Beste bat" for one or more

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Watch Television • Watch Movies • Watch Series or other videos • Play Video Games • Listen to Music • Listen to Radio • Read Books • Read Newspapers or Magazines 	<p>of your media habits. Which other language(s) do you use?</p> <p>Ohituretan "Other / Beste bat" markatu baduzu, zein hizkuntza(k) erabiltzen dituzu?</p>
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APPENDIX C

Pretest / Posttest

21 Questions

(answers marked in bold)

1. Have you seen this movie before? ¿Has visto esta película antes?
a) Yes b) No

2. A boy is upset by something and says, “Everybody at school’s going to be talking about this.” Then his dad says, “Then let’s give them something else to talk about!” What is another way the dad could say that? (No la traducción, sino otra manera para decir lo mismo.)
a) Let's give them an idea.
b) Let's do something interesting so they notice it instead.
c) Let's talk about them more than they talk about us.
d) -No lo sé- (-I don't know-)

3. A boy invites a girl to a party, and she says, "I could swing that." What's another way she could say that? (No la traducción, sino otra manera para decir lo mismo.)
a) I can go. (Puedo ir.)
b) I am going to play at a park. (Voy a jugar en un parque.)
c) I can do a trick. (Puedo hacer un truco.)
d) -No lo sé- (-I don't know-)

4. A girl tells her friend that she is going to a party and needs a dress. Her friend says, “You’ve come to the right place.” What is another way she could say this? (No la traducción, sino otra manera para decir lo mismo.)
a) This room is where you should be. (En esta habitación es donde debes de estar.)
b) I can help you. (Te puedo ayudar.)
c) You can help me. (Me puedes ayudar.)
d) -No lo sé- (-I don't know-)

5. At a party, a boy points to a girl’s dress, smiles and says to her, “Hey Dani! OMG. Perfect. I hate you.” What does he mean by that? (No necesariamente la traducción, sino lo que quiere decir.)
a) He likes her dress. (Le gusta su vestido.)
b) She did it perfectly. (Ella lo ha hecho perfectamente.)
c) He doesn’t like her dress. (No le gusta su vestido.)
d) -No lo sé- (-I don't know-)

6. While swimming, a boy takes a girl's hands and asks, "Trust me?" She answers, "I guess so." Does the girl trust the boy? (¿La chica confía en el chico?)

- a) Yes, 100%
- b) Yes, some**
- c) No, 0%
- d) -No lo sé- (-I don't know-)

7. ¿Qué significa CHOOSE?

- a) Elegir**
- b) Morder
- c) Salir
- d) Pensar
- e) -No lo sé-

8. ¿Qué significa DOPE?

- a) Guay**
- b) No lo hagas
- c) Aburrido
- d) Cuerda
- e) -No lo sé-

9. ¿Qué significa BONFIRE?

- a) Barbacoa**
- b) Hoguera
- c) Caliente
- d) Sexy
- e) -No lo sé-

10. ¿Qué significa CUDDLE?

- a) Besar
- b) Dormir
- c) Abrazar**
- d) Manta
- e) -No lo sé-

11. ¿Qué tipo de cosa es un VEGGIE BURGER?

- a) Para mascotas
- b) Comida**
- c) Deporte
- d) Ropa
- e) -No lo sé-

12. ¿Cuál es un significado de HOT?

- a) Especial
- b) Sexy**
- c) Tarde
- d) Divertido
- e) -No lo sé-

13. ¿Qué significa INTERVIEW?

- a) Examen
- b) Cita romántica
- c) Entrevista**
- d) Vistas
- e) -No lo sé-

14. ¿Qué significa CORNY?

- a) Maíz
- b) Cursi**
- c) Preocupado
- d) Hambriento
- e) -No lo sé-

15. ¿Qué significa DROWN?

- a) Abajo
- b) Aplaudir
- c) Payaso
- d) Ahogar**
- e) -No lo sé-

16. ¿Qué significa FIRST LOVES?

- a) Primeros amores**
- b) Primeros auxilios
- c) Amados
- d) Amores pequeños
- e) -No lo sé-

17. ¿Qué es un DATE?

- a)Un padre
- b)Una cita romántica**
- c)Una entrevista
- d)Un trabajo
- e)-No lo sé-

18. ¿Qué significa WEIRD?

- a)Cables
- b)Caliente
- c)Incorrecto
- d)Raro**
- e)-No lo sé-

19. ¿Qué significa BRAVE?

- a)Felicitaciones
- b)Brazo
- c)Valiente**
- d)Persistente
- e)-No lo sé-

20. ¿Qué significa SWING?

- a)Ala
- b)Columpiar**
- c)Cerdo
- d)Nadar
- e)-No lo sé-

21. ¿Qué significa DUMP?

- a)Terminar una relación**
- b)Sucio
- c)Un montón
- d)Dar una paliza
- e)-No lo sé

