Noticing ‘have/get’ Causatives: A Multimedia-based Inductive Approach

by

Alícia Gual Miró

Submitted to the

Department of English and German Studies

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master’s in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign / Second Language

at

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

June 13th, 2024

Signature of Student:

GUAL MIRO ALICIA - 39937719J

Firmado digitalmente por GUAL MIRO ALICIA - 39937719J
Fecha: 2024.06.13 18:09:12 +02'00'

.....

Certified by Dr. /Ms./Mr. **Isabel Oltra-Massuet,** Master's Thesis Supervisor

Signature of Supervisor:

MARIA ISABEL OLTRA MASSUET - DNI 38805191M

Digitally signed by MARIA ISABEL OLTRA MASSUET - DNI 38805191M
Date: 2024.06.13 19:48:49 +02'00'

.....

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

MATLEFS

Master's in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign/Second Language

2023-2024

Master's Final Project
ORIGINAL WORK FORM

STUDENT

Last Name(s): GUAL MIRÓ

First Name: ALÍCIA

I hereby state that all the work presented as part of my Final Master's Project is original with no exception and that I have not, voluntarily or otherwise, misused or misreported any previously published information. I am aware that any failures to comply with these statements will automatically result in disqualification of my final paper and that I will not be able to obtain any credits for it.

Signature of Student

GUAL MIRO ALICIA - 39937719J

Firmado digitalmente por GUAL MIRO ALICIA - 39937719J
Fecha: 2024.06.13 18:09:44 +02'00'

In Reus, June 13th, 2024.

Abstract

This master thesis aims to compare 'have/get' causative teaching (e.g., *I have my hair cut*) with a deductive and an enhanced inductive approach. The former provides students with explicit grammar rules, whereas the latter requires students to figure out the rules themselves; in addition, the inductive approach is further enhanced with the notion of 'noticing' (Schmidt, 1995) and clips from authentic audiovisual materials (Cognitive Multimedia Theory of Learning, 2001) with subtitles, turning it into an eclectic approach. Thus, the main research question seeks to determine whether such an eclectic approach outperforms a deductive approach in a mixed methods experiment taking 'have/get' causative as the grammatical target. A secondary research question looks at the increase of students' motivation. Two groups of first-year post-mandatory education (1st of *Batxillerat*) students at a public high school in Reus were selected as the participants of the present study. They were organized into a control and an experimental group in a pre and posttest experimental design. It also included a prequestionnaire to compile participants' background information, and a postquestionnaire to measure the experimental group's perception on the intervention regarding motivation and enjoyability. The results show a slight increase in the control group's performance as opposed to the experimental group's, which rejected the alternative hypothesis in favor of the null one. However, the postquestionnaire points out to positive results regarding comprehension and usage, motivation, and enjoyability toward the intervention, thus rejecting the null hypothesis of the secondary research question and favoring the alternative one instead. Despite certain time constraints and other technical issues that may have affected the results of the experiment, this study sheds light on the teaching of 'have/get' causatives, a grammar topic that has barely been researched in the EFL literature.

Keywords: EFL grammar teaching, causatives, deductive approach, inductive approach, audiovisual materials, noticing.

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, Dr. Isabel Oltra-Masuet, for her guidance and support at every step of the elaboration process. Secondly, I sincerely appreciate my internship tutor and former teacher, Mayte Solé, for making me feel at home again at *Institut Baix Camp* and accompanying me in my first experience as an English teacher. Furthermore, I genuinely acknowledge the students' contribution from two 1st of *Batxillerat* groups in the experimental intervention of the present study. I very much appreciate that they made the implementation easier to undertake, and it was a great pleasure for me to teach them. Thirdly, I thank my parents for supporting me unconditionally and always believing in me. Lastly, I would like to thank all my friends and family who have been by my side during the ups and downs of the thesis elaboration. It would not have been possible without every single person above mentioned. Many thanks to all!

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

The English language entails the frequent use of idiomatic causatives or resultative structures such as those headed by 'have' or 'get' (e.g., *I have my hair dyed; I get my nails done*), both in written and oral contexts. In these structures, one of these two light verbs is found in its inflected form and is followed by an object and the main lexical verb in the past participle (e.g., *I have/get my nails done*). It is mainly used to express a service someone else performs to the speaker or the topic of the sentence. Because the subject is not the real performer of the action, this structure can be linked to the passive voice pattern (e.g., *My hair was dyed; My nails were done*).

However, no syntactic parallelism is found in Romance languages such as Catalan and Spanish (e.g., Cat. *M'he tenyit el cabell*; Sp. *Me he hecho la manicura*). Therefore, it poses a problem for native speakers of those languages when learning English at intermediate and advanced levels. Although some literature discusses this phenomenon, mostly from a theoretical perspective, hardly any work has been conducted on the teaching of English causative structures in general or its implications for Catalan and Spanish learners. This also means that this topic is taught very traditionally, without paying attention to its complexity, and it is trivially dealt with in textbooks.

This master's thesis aims to fill this gap by testing the efficiency of an alternative methodology for teaching 'have/get' causative structures to Catalan/Spanish high school students at an upper-intermediate level. The experimental methodology presented involves an inductive approach to grammar teaching, in which students work out the rules themselves. Other elements complement this approach and turn it into an eclectic approach. On the one hand, the notion of 'noticing' developed in the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1995), which entails drawing attention to given linguistic features, so students can acquire their use and form and include them in their further productions.

On the other hand, the approach is multimedia-based on the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (Mayer, 2001), which means that authentic audiovisual materials are used to conduct the intervention. Short clips from YouTube or TikTok containing instances of 'have/get' causative structures are presented, including subtitles as a pedagogical means for language learning. The last element to be considered is motivation, which is crucial for language learning and is expected to be fostered with the use of this eclectic approach.

Two groups of post-mandatory education students at a public high school were labeled as the control and experimental groups for the present study. The experimental group was inductively shown audiovisual clips, whereas the control group was delivered the content in a deductive and traditional way. Within the two sessions devoted to the intervention, a prequestionnaire for background information and a pretest and posttest were conducted for further data analysis. A delayed postquestionnaire using a Likert Scale was administered a month later to value the experimental group's experience with the intervention.

Upon framing the topic with some theoretical background and literature review (Chapter 2) and presenting the methodology (Chapter 3), data are described in the results (Chapter 4). They report the performance and growth between both groups in the pretest and posttest, as well as the postquestionnaire responses measuring the enjoyability of the intervention. Afterward, the discussion (Chapter 5) attempts to provide the reader with some explanation as to why the performance of both groups is not statistically significant ($p= 0.628$), but there is a significant growth between the pretest and posttest in both cases. Nevertheless, there is a positive feeling about the intervention based on postquestionnaire responses. Before a general conclusion (Chapter 6), limitations, mostly time constraints and technical issues, are presented as they may have sensibly affected the results. Also, suggestions for further research with lower-level students or using role-plays are outlined.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Background

2.1.The Role of Grammar in ESL/EFL Contexts

Before dealing with the basic ingredients of the approach to the teaching of grammar that has been used in the experiment reported in this piece of research, some background is provided concerning the historical role of grammar in a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) instructional context.

Grammar, from Ancient Greek '*grammatike*' (related to letters and written language) (Burton, 2020), constitutes any language's internal system of rules. Hence, it is crucial to understand and produce accurate language, both orally and written**.** Celce-Murcia (2015) stated that although grammar has not had the same importance in all teaching methodologies, it "has long been a crucial part of language teaching." (p.3).

Different methodologies throughout history have portrayed the role of grammar in ESL/EFL contexts in various ways. During the Renaissance, the focus attempted to shift from pure-form study through memorization to the use of mnemonic and analogical devices to promote the use of the language (Celce-Murcia, 2015). With textbooks as aid tools for language learning, imitation and repetition were encouraged, as well as matching pictures with words. However, a return to traditional ideas led the way to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) during the 19th century**.** It was focused on learning grammar through translation from one's first language (L1) to the target language (TL). Reading and writing were the main skills enhanced with almost no use of L2 (Celce-Murcia, 2015**;** Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013).

Yet, the beginning of the 20th century brought about the Direct Method, which, according to Prator (1974), was characterized by the exclusive use of TL within the classroom. Dialogues and communicative contexts were used to elicit students to use language with the help of visual input. With the establishment of the International Phonetics Association (IPA) in 1886, an

emphasis on oral productive skills **(**Celce-Murcia, 2015) led to new approaches such as the Audiolingual Method (ALM). However, a great emphasis on form made accuracy outperform fluency in most cases.

Later, with the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), listening was encouraged before language production. Grammar was taught implicitly, keeping rule learning for honing advanced skills. Yet, the most significant shift came with the Communicative Approach (Duff, 2014) in the 21st century. Language was understood as a tool to serve a communicative purpose, so meaning in context was emphasized over grammatical items (Celce-Murcia, 2015). However, it has hindered learners' grammar interlanguage, and current research aims to find how to "integrate the teaching of grammatical accuracy into communicative language teaching (CLT)" (Celce-Murcia, 2015, p. 7).

Larsen-Freeman (2014) described three dimensions to consider in language learning: form (structure understanding), meaning (semantic understanding), and use (context understanding). They match with the three main components of the Organic Approach (Nunan, 1998). According to Celce-Murcia (2015), teachers ought to anticipate potential challenges that students may face considering those dimensions, which may entail contrasting L1 with the TL. In fact, Lado (1957) presented the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), which compares two or more languages to establish differences and similarities between them at all levels of the system (e.g., phonology, syntax, morphology…).

According to Wardhaugh (1970), the strong version of this hypothesis was based on the prediction of potential difficulties only relying on prescriptive grammar, which was challenged due to its unrealistic nature. Alternatively, the weak version of it entailed finding evidence to provide potential explanations, although it was claimed that languages related to structures and phonetic representations differently.

After considering how different methodologies included grammar teaching in instructional contexts, Swan (2002) provided some reasons for favoring it. Along with its testable and organizational nature to be addressed in instruction environments, mastering the system of a language guarantees students security and control of their productions as well as avoiding repetition and further fossilization of errors (e.g., comprehensibility). Moreover, grammar mastery was argued to be connected to acceptability as social prejudices could appear when someone gives language a 'bad' use.

Upon revising the outlook of different methodologies throughout history, the present study's focus has now moved to grammatical content directly related to the experiment. Before dealing with the main grammatical item that is taken as the target, namely 'have/get' causatives, some observations concerning the passive and causative pattern are appropriate.

2.2.English Grammar: Empirical Basis

The grammar aspect that has been used as a testing ground for the present study is English 'have/get' causative structures. Historically, they have been taught as an exception to the passive voice pattern, which also entails resultative and causative implications. Therefore, in this section, some theoretical remarks are provided regarding the passive voice (e.g., *My car is fixed by the mechanic*), the causative pattern (e.g., *I had the mechanic fix my car*), and finally, the grammar item dealt with in this study, the passive-causative pattern (e.g., *I had my car fixed by the mechanic*).

2.2.1. Passive Voice

Voice is one of the grammatical aspects that characterizes every language. English is believed to have two grammatical voices, active and passive, and the main difference between them is the focus of the sentence. While active sentences focus on the doer of the action, passive

patterns emphasize the action that takes place. Furthermore, its use, syntax, and morphology are unique and, thus, briefly described below.

Regarding its use, passive voice constructions tend to be found in rather formal contexts, such as scientific descriptions and processes where the action is more important than the agent who performs it. Moreover, news, reports, advertisements, or headlines may employ passive voice examples as the focus lies on the action described (Alexander, 1988; Vince & Sunderland, 2003).

Syntactically, the passive voice structure is considered non-canonical in English. The fixed and, thus, canonical word order in this language belongs to the SVO type, that is, a subject followed by a verb and its objects (e.g., *The girl gives her brother a present*). Many languages, such as Catalan and Spanish, also share the same syntactic word order, which contrasts, for instance, with the German one (SOV).

Morphologically, the passive voice is constructed by a change in the order of the elements of a canonical structure. The active object becomes the subject of the passive sentence, changing the focus of the sentence (Vince & Sunderland, 2003). Hence, at least one object should be present in the sentence for it to become passivized. It means that intransitive verbs such as *fall* cannot be used in the passive voice (Vince & Sunderland, 2003, p. 33). Moreover, Cowan (2008) discussed stative verbs, such as *resemble*, which also resist passivization. A plausible explanation is that verbs need to affect objects for passivization to occur.

The phenomenon of promotion explains the change in the canonical structure. It takes place when an argument, a meaningful and complete unit in the predicate, is placed in a hierarchically higher position than where it is supposed to be found. For instance, the object is syntactically expected to be found after the verb (e.g., *The girl reads a book*), but in passive constructions, it is promoted to the beginning, becoming the topic (e.g., *A book is read by the girl*). In active

constructions, this is where the subject of the sentence, that is, the person who performs the action, is expected to be found. However, it is then *demoted* as a backgrounded agent with a prepositional phrase construction beginning with 'by'. It is also found in passive-causative constructions and, thus, applied to them as well.

As the passive voice construction focuses on the action rather than the doer, this prepositional phrase with 'by' can be omitted for various contextual reasons. According to Vince and Sunderland (2003) and Eastwood (1999), it is not mentioned when it is unknown to the speaker or so obvious that it becomes irrelevant to the listener like the police arresting someone. Moreover, it can be done intentionally when the speaker does not want to explicitly mention it for personal reasons, like accusing someone of a wrong action. The agent contrasts with the instrument, which is the object that triggers an event to take place, and despite being a prepositional phrase too, it is introduced by 'with' (Vince & Sunderland, 2003).

The verbal phrase, usually constituted by one, two, or three words depending on the grammatical tense, adopts the structure of an inflected verb 'to be' in the passive, which is in the same tense as the active form, and the past participle form of the main lexical verb. As highlighted in Eastwood (1999), negatives and questions follow the same structure as those in the active voice: the negative particle 'not' follows the auxiliary verb, and there is an inversion of the auxiliary and the subject, respectively.

Ditransitive verbs in passive constructions (i.e., those that take a direct and indirect object), such as "verbs of giving" (Eastwood, 1999) (e.g., *bring, hand, pass, send,* or *throw.*), can have both objects promoted to the subject position. For instance, *I have been offered a job,* and *A job has been offered to me.* However, according to Eastwood (1999), "it is quite normal in English for the person receiving something to be the subject" (p. 137). It entails that the

promotion of the dative (indirect object) complement is favored, unlike what happens in Catalan and Spanish (e.g., *He sigut ofert una feina / He sido ofrecido un trabajo*).

In fact, speakers of such languages are not so used to the syntactic passive as their syntactic typology enables them to add inflections. The common passive construction entails the use of 'se' (e.g., Cat. *Se m'ha ofert una feina/* Sp. *Se me ha ofrecido un trabajo*), or even more idiomatic, the lexical verb is inflected according to the doer of the action, that is, the by-agent. Therefore, if the job was offered by them, the actual subject is 3rd person plural (e.g., *(Ells) M'han ofert una feina/ (Ellos) Me han ofrecido un trabajo*). Palacios and Garita (2015) thoroughly compared between Spanish and English passive voice patterns. They concluded that Spanish uses more active constructions due to the multiple choices for passive voice, leading to confusion.

After revising some background remarks related to the passive voice and providing elements of contrast with Catalan and Spanish patterns, the causative pattern is introduced as the other remaining element that enables the existence of the 'have/get' causative structure.

2.2.2. Causative Pattern

Causation is a fundamental linguistic notion (Gilquin, 2010). According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Hornby, 2015), it is "the process of one event causing or producing another event." (p.233). Moreover, it is linked to causality, which, according to the same dictionary, is "the relationship between something that happens and the reason for it happening" (Hornby, 2015, p.233).

This phenomenon entails a two-part configuration in which a causative verb (e.g., *have, get, let, make, help*…) syntactically governs a non-finite complement cause (e.g., past or present participle; to- or bare infinitive). The causative verb is inflected in the grammatical tense that

the contextual time of the sentence requires. Moreover, a cause and a result event are expressed in different tenses, and the latter depends on the former to exist.

Gilquin (2003) described causative structures within the theory of frame semantics. It was initiated by Charles Fillmore in 1982 and attempted to connect form with meaning. The notion of causation is expressed by four frame elements: 'causer', 'causee', 'effect', and 'patient'. Gilquin (2003) provides the following example to illustrate them: "*She had them send her email*" (p. 129).

- *She* is the 'causer', which is the entity that brings about the existence of the caused event. That is, *she* asks for her email to be sent by other people. The syntactic position of the causer is the subject, or a prepositional phrase introduced by 'by'.
- *Had* is the finite (e.g., it is inflected) causative verb, which requires an auxiliary verb for negative and question formation (e.g., *She did not have them send her email. / Did she have them send her email?*).
- *Them* is the 'causee' or 'agent' and is 'caused', influenced, or changed by the causer to carry out the effect or the action of the sentence. They are syntactically placed as objects.
- *Send* is the 'effect', which is the action or event carried out by the 'causee'. It is a non-finite verbal phrase (i.e., bare infinitive, to-infinitive, present or past participle).
- *Her email* is the 'patient', described as the entity that the 'causee' manipulates to perform the action caused properly. It can or cannot change. A transitive effect requires an agent, and especially a patient, just like a transitive verb requires an object.

Ordóñez (2024) has recently discussed the difference between the 'causee' element's position in English and Romance languages when using causative structures. Considering that most participants from the present study are native, if not advanced, speakers of Catalan and

Spanish, elements of contrast between Catalan/Spanish and English causative formation are further provided.

Importantly, English's 'causee' is found in the pre-infinitival position, that is, in "*she had them send*…" (Gilquin, 2003, p.129), *them* is the subject of the sending event and comes before *send*. However, French and other Romance languages, such as Catalan or Spanish, tend to locate the 'causee' in a post-infinitival position. Therefore, *"(Jo) faig treballar a la Maria"* [I make Marie work] (translated from Ordóñez, 2024), *Maria* comes after the infinitive form, *treballar.* Similarly, in Spanish, "*(Yo) hago trabajar a María*" [I make Marie work] (translated from Ordóñez, 2024).

Zyzik (2014) described these Spanish structures as 'complex predicates' that follow the 'hacer + infinitive' structure, in which the 'causee' comes after the infinitive. However, Catalan and Spanish also accept 'periphrastic or analytical causatives' such as 'hacer que + subjunctive' (e.g., Cat. *[Jo] faig que la Maria treballi*; Sp. *[Yo] hago que María trabaje*). In them, the infinitive has become a finite form as a subjunctive, and the 'causee' (Maria) is placed before it. Zyzik (2014) argued that the latter structure entails some subtle intentionality by the animate causer. It is morphologically marked by the change of grammatical person of the second verb, which constitutes the result of the cause. Therefore, a covert subject is entailed in the embedded clause. It may entail the use of that-clauses in participants' production mirroring this type of causative structure. However, due to their complex grammatical relationships between elements, Curnow (1993) considered them less common than the former.

D'hoedt et al. (2019) discussed the notion of 'secondary predicative constructions' (SPCs). Such structure is formed by a light verb, followed by a Noun Phrase (e.g., predicant), and a predicate, which can be an Adjective Phrase, a Noun Phrase, a Prepositional Phrase, or even an uninflected Verb Phrase, or Adverbial Phrase. Moreover, D'hoedt et al. (2019) recognized

different SPC structures ranging from external (i.e., verbs describing perceived and concrete actions) to internal (i.e., verbs describing cognitive actions that are not so easy to perceive). Among them, for instance, '*I have my house fixed*' would imply a change of state, and thus, it is a causative verb. On the contrary, *'I want my house fixed'* entails volition but does not ensure a tangible result in real life. It would become relevant with the analysis of patterns produced by the participants as part of their pretest and posttest.

Upon revising causative structures and presenting some contrast construction in most participants' native languages (e.g., Catalan and Spanish), both grammatical notions of the passive voice and causation are linked together by the passive-causative pattern (e.g., *I have/get my car fixed by the mechanic*). It is headed by the causative 'have' or 'get', along with an object and a non-finite form of the lexical verb (e.g., past participle).

2.2.3. Passive-causative Pattern

Considering the aspects dealt with in the two preceding sections, the passive-causative pattern brings them together in a particular and idiomatic structure in English, which is the primary focus of the present study. The object, the 'causee', becomes the subject of the clause, and it is somehow responsible for the event but not the actual doer (Parrott, 2000). According to many grammarians (Parrott, 2000; Murphy, 2004; Eastwood, 1999), it is used to arrange for someone else to undertake something, usually a service (Vince & Sunderland, 2003) for the subject of the sentence. Alexander (1988) also highlighted the responsibility of making someone else perform a specific task.

Downing and Locke (2006) argued that causative verbs *'get/have'* (e.g., *I have my hair cut*) are one of the four types of verbs that govern structures formed by a Subject (S); Predicator (P); Direct Object (Od); and Object Complement (Co), always being a past participle (-en clause). The other ones are volitional verbs (e.g., want), verbs of perception (e.g., see), and

verbs of finding and leaving. It is constructed using a form of the causative verbs ‘have’ or ‘get’ agreeing with the tense of its active counterpart. It is followed by the object of the sentence (i.e., a nominal group), which is the internal subject of the non-finite but lexical verb, the past participle. Optionally, the last element of the structure can be a prepositional phrase, ‘by-agent’, which contains the real performer of the action. However, just like passive structures, this element can be presented covertly or overtly depending on the semantic relevance of that element within the sentence.

Verbs ‘have’ and ‘get’ are normally used interchangeably. However, some semantic and stylistic implications are worth considering in given cases. As a question of style, ‘get’ is believed to be more informal and colloquial than ‘have’ (Eastwood, 1999; Thomson & Martinet,1986). Moreover, ‘get’ is used to portray some achievement managed after encountering difficulties (Parrott, 2000; Alexander, 1988; Vince & Sunderland, 2003) and conveys stronger ideas, such as those of mandatory tasks, than ‘have’ (Alexander, 1988; Vince & Sunderland, 2003). It aligns with the syntactic preference for ‘get’ in imperatives and orders (Alexander, 1988; Vince & Sunderland, 2003). However, such distinctions are not commonly acknowledged in real-life exchanges, for which they were not considered as a characteristic of ‘have/get’ causatives in the application of the intervention.

However, an exceptional case was considered in the undertaking of the practical sessions. Some grammarians (Eastwood, 1999; Murphy, 2004; Thomson & Martinet, 1986) described the ‘happenstance passive’ or ‘have meaning experience’. It requires the use of ‘have’, as opposed to ‘get’, in contexts where unpleasant experiences take place with someone or their possessions. For instance, someone’s phone is stolen, or their house is broken in (i.e., *I had my phone stolen*; *I had my house broken in*).

When attempting to contrast the target structure of the present study, no exact parallel construction can be found in Catalan or Spanish. Therefore, students are required to understand how it is formed and when it is used to ensure a successful application on their own. However, considering some potential errors among those students, the specific word order of the structure (i.e., have/get + NP+ past participle) should be addressed when dealing with the form. As stated by Murphy (2004), Thomson and Martinet (1986), and Alexander (1988), a misposition of the NP element turns a 'have' causative structure into an active present or past perfect tense construction (e.g., *I have/had my nails done* vs *I have/had done my nails*). Such change can lead to confusion, which makes it worth attention in instruction.

It is worth noting, though, that both 'have' are morphologically different. While it is a causative verb in causative constructions, it becomes an auxiliary verb in the active voice. Moreover, the participle form in causative constructions is passive, which reinforces its connection with the passive voice. However, in active constructions, it is the lexical verb in the past participle to form the perfect tense. *Faire-* constructions (Pineda & Sheehan, 2023) can be a useful devise to express the idea of 'have/get' causative structures in Catalan or Spanish. They are used with reflexive pronouns (e.g., Cat. '*fer-se'*; Sp. '*hacerse'*). For instance, "(*Jo*) *M'he fet la manicura*" or "(*Yo*) *Me he hecho la manicura*". As those constructions are in the active voice, the first part of the compound verb ('*he*') is an auxiliary verb, followed by a past participle ('*fet*'/ '*hecho*'). Altogether it becomes a perfect tense construction that mirrors those in English. Furthermore, there is a change in perspective because in the active voice, the subject is the doer, the one doing the nails. However, in causative constructions, the subject is the one affected by the action of the sentence. Such complexity should be addressed in further research to enable easier ways to make students aware of it in instruction.

After looking at the empirical basis of the grammatical item dealt with in the present study, 'have/get' causatives, the focus is now on the methodological approaches to teaching grammar.

The next section addresses both *explicit* and *implicit* teaching approaches as the underlying theoretical framework of the present study's experiment.

2.3.Theories of Teaching Grammar: Deductive versus Inductive Approach

This section reviews methodological approaches to grammar teaching connected to the present study. Basic distinctions throughout teaching pedagogies include *explicit* and *implicit* grammar teaching. On the one hand, *explicit* teaching entails general rules and structural patterns upon which production is built. According to Talley and Hui-ling (2014), this approach is based on a conscious effort by the learner based on memorization strategies, hypothesis formation, and testing.

Celce-Murcia (2015) presented a further basic subdivision between *deductive* and *inductive* approaches to grammar teaching. These constitute the underlying concepts for the present study's testing. The former entails presenting rules for further application, whereas the latter works with authentic examples from which learners derive the rules and further apply them in their productions.

On the other hand, *implicit* teaching includes sufficient meaningful input to produce accurate language. As stated by Talley and Hui-ling (2014), noticing strategies, a major component of the present study's methodology, are the first step for acquiring new linguistic knowledge. Learners are expected to have intuitive knowledge, which helps them determine what is grammatical and idiomatic in a language and what is not, with perhaps no plausible metalinguistic explanation for it.

The use of rules is a major distinction between *explicit* and *implicit* approaches, which justifies the identification of structural patterns in the deductive and inductive methodologies of this study. This section aims to provide some literature revision concerning both approaches and argue their use in the present study's intervention.

2.3.1. Deductive Approach

Thornbury (1999) described the deductive approach as a teaching methodology based on rules, that is, a rule-driven approach. Therefore, according to Sheen (2002), the first step involves the introduction and comprehension of prescriptive rules, and it should be followed by provided examples and further practice through communicative (e.g., role-plays) and non-communicative (e.g., fill-in-the-blank) activities. Finally, production of the given item is expected through controlled, semi-controlled, or free activities, also aiming for accurate use. This process also follows a quite common teaching structure, PPP, which stands for *presentation, practice,* and *production*.

Considering Long (1991)'s classification of options for grammar teaching in the ESL/EFL context, *focus-on-forms* (FonFs) is the most similar one to the deductive approach. It emphasizes linguistic forms over meaning, and according to Ellis, et al. (2002), a set of discrete grammatical items should be carefully selected and directly taught to the students throughout the lessons.

Regarding its application, some advantages and disadvantages can be argued. On the one hand, Thornbury (1999) posited that it is time-saving and efficient as the rule is presented straightforwardly. Moreover, it entails the student being mature enough to understand and apply it correctly. There should be no mistakes in the presentation of the rules, and thus, some students could feel more secure and confident about their learning. Also, teachers can deal with different particularities as they appear, so previous preparation is not especially required.

On the other hand, Long (2000) claimed that it has a teacher-centered nature and described it as boring or dull, which decreases the motivation of language learners, an important factor in their learning journey. Indeed, the use of metalinguistic terms to describe language can hinder understanding, especially for younger learners. Moreover, Thornbury (1999) argued that

knowledge can be easily forgotten as the student has a passive role in the instructional environment. Also, this approach seems to suggest that learning language equals knowing the rules, as opposed to its communicative goal.

Several studies have concluded that deductive approach outperforms the inductive one. An example could be Negahdaripour and Amirghassemi (2016), whose sample comprised pre-intermediate Iranian EFL adult students. Two groups were tested on the accuracy and fluency of picture descriptions using three tenses (e.g., present simple, present continuous, and past simple) following a deductive (control group) and inductive (experimental group) approach, respectively. Results showed that the deductive approach provided participants with a more accurate use of the given tenses than the inductive one, even though fluency was equally achieved in both groups. Reasons concerning such results had to do with the students' previous familiarity with the tenses selected and the confidence that the deductive approach provided students with for further free production.

Furthermore, Nazari (2013) conducted a similar test for two 30-student classes of Iranian adults using present perfect as their target structure in receptive and productive activities. Due to the learners' familiarity with traditional methodologies and the structure of the tests themselves, data showed that the deductive or explicit approach outperformed the inductive or implicit one. Moreover, the author stated the comfort of knowing the rule from the beginning and the form focus provided by this approach, which enabled a better performance in the tests.

The deductive approach resembles traditional and regular foreign language lessons, which focuses on a set of grammatical items as their syllabus and prefers theoretical understanding over free production in real-life scenarios. Considering the popularity of this approach in the Catalan education system, it is the instructional method followed by in the control group of the present study.

2.3.2. Inductive Approach

Thornbury (1999) described the inductive approach as a teaching methodology based on examples, that is, a rule-discovery approach. Students are presented with examples in context, and they need to analyze them and work out the rules for further use. Therefore, while the deductive approach entails explicitly teaching rules, the inductive one means individual or collective mental processing of patterns for further application. According to Sheen (2002), it is based on the belief that L1 and L2 acquisition are similar and exposure to authentic interactions is enough to discover the patterns and irregularities.

Within Long (1991)'s classification of grammar teaching options, *focus-on-form* (FonF) is the most suitable for the inductive approach. It entails a greater focus on meaning than on form. Learners' attention is drawn to the communicative event, which contains some linguistic elements in context from which rules and patterns can be inferred. Therefore, linguistic items are intensively distributed (flooding) to ensure many practice opportunities.

Considering the advantages and disadvantages of the deductive approach, Thornbury (1999) stated that the mental effort entails more meaningful and memorable rules, as well as autonomy for language processing. Moreover, student talking time (TTT) increases, and their role is rather active, which enhances their motivation. However, like the deductive approach, the time and effort devoted to compiling the rules can mislead students into believing language learning is based on knowing the rules instead of considering them the means for communication.

Moreover, production is less enhanced as the discovery of the rule is prioritized. Yet, the patterns and the rules can be wrongly identified, thus reducing the learners' confidence. This supports the results portrayed in the previous section, which led to an outperformance of the deductive approach. Also, linguistic items cannot be discussed along the way, and previous planning is required to ensure the lesson goals are achieved.

Some studies have shown an improvement in participants' performance with the inductive approach instead of the deductive one. For instance, Benitez-Correa et al. (2019) conducted a research study with senior Ecuadorian high school students. Two groups with similar grammar knowledge were taught grammar using a deductive and inductive approach, respectively. After ten weeks of intervention, the inductive approach used for grammar teaching in that EFL context proved more effective concerning the instruction and the rapport in the classroom.

Similarly, Alzu'bi (2015) conducted an experiment with these approaches with university and elemental-level Jordanian students. The results revealed that the inductive approach outperformed the deductive one at both levels. The author argued that such results in tertiary education are influenced by the students' preference for fluency, which enables communication, over the accuracy of forms. Also, school students' results were explained by the courses using rather modern methodologies that Jordanian's Ministry of Education was holding. Therefore, students being used to a teaching methodology can enable better performance when it is being used.

The inductive approach was chosen as the underlying basis for the experimental group's intervention. Despite being an essentially meaning-focused approach, form building is made aware through audiovisual authentic material, the use of subtitles, and noticing. Those elements complement this approach, which attempts to be communicative-related and provide learners with an eclectic view of the grammatical item in question.

An educational theory that supports the inductive approach is Constructivism or the Constructivist Theory of Knowledge (Piaget, 1936). It discusses the active role that students should take within an instructional environment, as opposed to being passive elements of their own learning (e.g., deductive approach). Within the inductive approach to language teaching, students are elicited to activate their previous knowledge and build on new information through

connections. Indeed, the intervention is based on a set of question prompts to help students induce grammatical rules and structures for further use and long-term memory transition.

Upon reviewing these approaches to grammar teaching, the deductive approach was assigned to the control group and the inductive approach to the experimental group, as it is the tested methodology. Despite their differences, both approaches indirectly include *focus-on-meaning* (Long, 1991). Based on a Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrel, 1983) to SLA, forms are believed to be subconsciously analyzed, and subsequent rules are deduced for further application.

Uysal and Bardakci (2014) criticized that it can cause the fossilization of L1 transfer errors and negatively affect the accuracy of L2 grammar production. Moreover, the lack of explicit teaching can hinder learning irregular forms in the L2. Uysal and Bardakci (2014) stated plenty of research studies (Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001; Ellis, 2002) that supported the efficacy of FonF on L2 accuracy and retention of the forms over focus-on-meaning, aligning with the criticism about its lack of instruction awareness.

The next sections of this chapter are devoted to the three basic aspects of the intervention. First, there is the notion of 'noticing', which regards inferring rules implicitly and is already entailed in an inductive approach. Second, the use of authentic audiovisual materials and the addition of subtitles bring novelty to this testing and create an eclectic inductive approach to grammar teaching. Third, there is the concept of motivation in foreign language learning, which values participants' impressions of the presented approach.

2.4.Noticing Hypothesis

The underlying basis of the experimental approach is the notion of 'noticing'. Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1995) sustains that it plays a huge role in the acquisition process as it constitutes the step from input to intake when a new form or a gap in knowledge arises (Youngs,

2019). The former can be any form of communicative-oriented language, whereas the latter is already processed in the working memory (Youngs, 2019). Input can be authentic if it comes from real-life linguistic exchanges or comprehensible by being modified and adapted using subtitles, for instance.

The ultimate goal of noticing processes is the production of accurate and fluent output. The need for further free, semi-controlled, or controlled production promotes noticing the input provided (Uggen, 2012). Due to the complexity of brain processing analyses, Ahn (2014) claimed that "there is no perfect methodology for measuring noticing." (p.61). However, some studies have been conducted using online or concurrent measures (e.g., think-alouds, underlining) and off-line or non-concurrent measures (e.g., pretests and posttests). The latter matches the procedure of the present study. Moreover, rather recent research (Godfroid et al., 2013; Smith, 2012) analyzes the effectiveness of eye-tracking for more precise results.

Two factors are entailed within the notion of 'noticing': attention and awareness. According to Schmidt (1995), attention and a low level of awareness ('noticing') are key for learning to take place, as opposed to a higher level ('understanding'). Despite being considered quite similar, they require different methodological treatments. While attention is a continuous variable (e.g., accepting in-between options), awareness is dichotomous (e.g., only polar opposites, yes or no). Furthermore, Tomlin and Vila (1994) discussed three components of attention: alertness, orientation, and their result, detection, which enables further processing of input and acquisition.

Further theories are related to the concept of 'noticing'. Input processing theory (VanPatten, 2004) presents a series of principles that are crucial for processing learned information, such as a second or foreign language. Benati (2020) describes the Primacy of Meaning Principle (VanPatten, 2004). It relates form and meaning, emphasizing the latter more. It can be related

to the *focus-on-meaning* approach presented in the previous section, which appears in both methodologies tested in the present study.

This principle is further broken down into six subprinciples: (i) the Primacy of Content Words, as opposed to function words, which do not add new meaning to the sentence but rather are used as linkers; (ii) the Lexical Preference, which advocates for the use of full lexical words as opposed adding grammatical morphemes at the end of nouns or verbs (e.g., yesterday as opposed to adding -ed); (iii) the Preference for Non-redundancy and (iv) the Meaning-Before-Nonmeaning, which can be linked to Grice's conversational Maxims of Quantity and Relation (Grice, H., 1975) belonging to the pragmatic Cooperative Principle; (v) the Availability of Resources; and (vi) the Sentence Location or First Noun Principle, which concerns the passive voice in terms of word order and canonical structures.

This subprinciple is also related to the Given-New Contract (Cowan, 2008). It entails a preference for passive voice structures to their active counterparts as the old or given information is placed at the beginning of the sentence. Therefore, new information is introduced at the end, which also aligns with the Principle of End Weight (Cowan, 2008). It argues that long and complex noun phrases should be demoted to the end, just like the by-agent prepositional phrases.

The use of an inductive approach sustained on the concept of 'noticing' certainly constitutes an interesting and motivating method for language learners. Nonetheless, the experimental approach followed in the intervention of the present study includes another element that works together with 'noticing'. It is the use of authentic audiovisual materials and the addition of subtitles for language learning purposes. This eclectic approach that combines all those elements attempts to appear as a novel approach to foreign language grammar teaching.

Moreover, it aims to shift the focus from the teacher to the student, as they will be responsible for their own progress.

2.5. Multimedia Learning Theory

Mayer's Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) (2001) argued the benefits of using written, aural, and visual input at the same time for the mental organization of information (Youngs, 2019). Mayer and Moreno (2003) described multimedia learning as the acquisition of knowledge from words and pictures, and multimedia instruction as the vehicle to achieve it using static (pictures) or animated (videos) means. As regards the present study, clips from series and films containing an instance of a 'have/get' causative structure have been used.

CMLT entails three assumptions. The first one has to do with the dual channel which enables auditory and visual information to be obtained at the same time as verbal and visual working memory. The second one assumes this duality has a limited capacity to be absorbed at the same time, and therefore, some information can be missed (Cognitive Load Theory). The last one involves active processing in which the learning is not passively engaged with the multimedia source but takes an active role in its deconstruction.

Furthermore, twelve principles support this theory: (i) the *Multimedia Principle* sustains the dual channel of words and imagery in a balanced way, attaining to (ii) the *Modality Principle*; (iii) the *Coherence Principle* aims at providing only relevant information to avoid overwhelming the viewers with information, which corresponds to (iv) the *Redundancy Principle*; (v) the *Signaling Principle* relies on typographical markers to draw learners' attention to a specific item; (vi) *Spatial and* (vii) *Temporal Contiguity Principles* argue the presentation of elements simultaneously and closely related in space; (viii) the *Segmenting Principle* discusses the importance of controlling the pace when presenting the elements by

dividing them into smaller units; (ix) the *Pre-training Principle* supports some previous knowledge before working with dual channels; (x) the *Voice Principle* presents the idea that human voices appeal more to learners' attention than machine ones; (xi) the *Personalization or Individual Differences Principle* refers to the use of first person pronouns to address the learners and informal language to engage with them; finally (xii) the *Image Principle* favors natural linguistic exchanges, as opposed to talking head videos.

Moreover, Paivio (1986) coined the Dual Coding Theory (DCT) which sustained the existence of two systems, a verbal and a non-verbal one. As presented by Clark and Paivio (1991), the former appealed to visual, auditory, and articulatory systems with sequential information and arbitrary symbols. On the contrary, the latter included shapes, background sounds, actions, and emotions, which were related to a denoted referent and were presented simultaneously.

According to Mayer (2001), words (e.g., subtitles or complementary written input) and pictures are retained through audition and vision in the sensory memory. Afterwards, they become sounds and images in the working memory (WM), and along with the prior knowledge, they are incorporated into the long-term memory. According to the Cognitive Load Theory (CLT) (Sweller, 2012), the aim of instruction is for knowledge to transfer from WM to long-term memory. This theory encompasses secondary knowledge, which is cultural and consciously acquired. However, the primary one is unconscious and evolved for many generations.

Three types of cognitive load are distinguished in literature (Sweller, 2012): intrinsic, extraneous, and germane. The former refers to the difficulty of the content by itself, while the second one argues the way information is presented and how it may hinder its acquisition. Thus, if materials are presented with excessive external distractions such as background music

or animations, the student may be less likely to retain everything regardless of their intellectual capacity. Finally, the latter type involves how new information is processed into long-term memory, creating the so-called 'schemas', which ultimately organize the knowledge acquired.

The eclectic approach implemented in the intervention appeals to various input sources using noticing and audiovisual materials, along with subtitles. One theory that can support this multimodal approach is Gardener's Multiple Intelligences (MI) (1983). According to Brualdi (1996), the theory aimed at expanding the two known intelligences until then, verbal and computational, into different but complementary eight. These are verbal/linguistic; logical/mathematic; visual/spatial; bodily/kinesthetic; musical; interpersonal; intrapersonal; and naturalist.

Yet, over the years, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences were combined, and naturalistic or existential intelligences were suggested (Warne, 2020). Therefore, there were from seven to nine intelligences recognized. Verbal/linguistic, logical/mathematic, and visual/spatial intelligences directly appeal to the present study as they are related to linguistic knowledge, the identification and use of patterns, and mental images to overcome issues.

Nevertheless, Warne (2020) provided some arguments to debunk this theory. Firstly, empirical evidence could not support it through research and there was some "vagueness, incoherence, inability to make new predictions" (p. 57). Besides, cognitive abilities were believed to be intertwined and therefore, a general (g) mental ability was supposed to exist. Due to the inconsistencies of this theory, it is nowadays rejected, yet it justifies the present study's underlying aim to attain all students' needs.

Finally, connectivism (Siemens, 2004) aligns with the intervention proposed as it relates to the use of technology within the EFL classroom. It aims at providing participants with new knowledge to source and update information. Connection to the net is their tool to access

knowledge and keep track of their own learning process. In the present study, the use of authentic audiovisual materials is key to presenting students with communicative contexts where the grammatical item is used naturally.

The subsections below deal with the role of such audiovisual material in linguistic instructional contexts, and the use of subtitles, which are included in the clips of the intervention, as a learning tool.

2.5.1. The impact of Video Materials in the EFL Classroom

Audiovisual content constitutes one channel to present authentic materials, which are considered as made by and for native speakers, with no didactic purposes (Nunan, 1989), and can be exposed in the form of printed or audiovisual materials (Ali Saleh, 2022).

Moreover, according to Bajrami and Ismaili (2016), audiovisual materials can bring about several advantages to L2/FL learners. Along with the dual nature of input loading and processing, video materials can trigger motivation, a fundamental aspect of language learning, and appear as an entertaining activity. Furthermore, working with original and authentic materials makes learners' experiences more meaningful as their learning goes beyond the linguistic interface. Cultural cues and attitudes are part of the input, so pragmatics awareness is raised. Furthermore, comprehension is emphasized attaining to the saying "a picture is worth a thousand words" (Bajrami & Ismaili, 2016).

Skills development is key for moving further on the learning journey, and video materials particularly elicit listening and speaking, both enhancing linguistic reception and production. Indeed, according to Bajrami and Ismaili (2016), the learning process has three differentiated phases: language input through receptive skills, such as listening and reading, which are directly implied in video materials; assimilation through an internal cognitive process from

short to long-term memory; and language output through productive skills, such as speaking and reading, which are benefited by the input received.

Ali Saleh, (2022) conducted an experiment at Abyan University (2021) on teacher's views of the use of authentic materials in EFL lessons. Upon being asked several questions, their answers were supportive of the use of authentic materials in ESL/EFL contexts and grammar teaching. They claimed that this kind of media enhanced motivation and skills development. Moreover, they believed in their use in already early and intermediate stages of their language process and their eventual impact on the lessen of translation.

Hence, real-life communicative events were described to be elicited using authentic materials, but training workshops were required to provide students with better teaching quality. Furthermore, these materials could be employed during or after the lesson, as a way for students to revise and consolidate their knowledge.

Yet, one of the drawbacks they claimed that hinder its use is the lack of equipment at schools. Indeed, the intervention of the present study encountered some technical issues regarding the implementation of audiovisual materials in the classroom. Although images worked well, sound did not in the first session. However, the use of subtitles enabled the session to take place and brought some insight to its use along audiovisual materials.

2.5.2. The Role of Subtitles in Video Materials

According to a recent article (Lei, 2023), subtitles in audiovisual materials bring about some advantages for language learning. Along with improving the understanding of the content and improving listening, reading, and lexical skills, subtitles can enhance the acquisition of grammatical structures for further production. Lei (2023) discussed the use of subtitles to create a relaxed and laid-back learning environment, in which learners can rely on written input along with images to make the most of authentic materials. Moreover, they can make connections

with the discrete grammatical items dealt with in instruction and their use within a real-life context. Yet, their beneficial uses may depend on the complexity of the grammatical structures and the learners' skills and competencies.

Previous research aligns with the positive impact of subtitles in a foreign language learning context. For instance, Bisson (2015) concluded that visual input outperformed sound, and Vulchanova et al. (2015) discussed that adding complementary subtitles benefitted meaning comprehension of a given situation.

Frumuselu et al. (2015) conducted a research study among undergraduate students of English at URV. Two groups were respectively assigned interlingual (Spanish) or intralingual (English) subtitles versions to several episodes from a popular sitcom, 'Friends'. Results showed that the intralingual (e.g., same language as the audio) subtitles' group outperformed better than the interlingual (e.g., different language as the audio, usually participants' L1) one. It aligns with the use of English subtitles in the clips shown to the experimental group of the present study.

Scholars such as Han (2010) further tested the use of monolingual, bilingual, and lack of subtitles in audiovisual content. Despite the limitations of the study, TL subtitles were considered more relevant than the lack of them, but bilingual ones including both L1 and TL were described as overloading for the student, aligning with the Cognitive Load Theory (Sweller, 2012).

Although subtitles were used as a tool to enhance inclusion among all students and as a complementary input to images and sound, it became indispensable during the implementation due to sound issues. Moreover, 'have/get' causatives' form and use inductive inferences were helped by the written input provided by subtitles.

Along with the notion of 'noticing' and the use of audiovisual authentic materials with subtitles, the last crucial element of the intervention is the factor of motivation. It enables students to be devoted to the experiment, and value further applications of the approach presented.

2.6. Motivation in FLA

Being motivated is key for language learning as it moves students to pursue their linguistic goals regardless of their competencies and skills. Brown (1994) describes it as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action." (p. 152). Language learners are motivated to achieve their goals by meeting communicative needs and engaging in different attitudes towards the linguistic community. Ausubel (1968) discussed six main needs learners have that enhance motivation: exploration of the unknown, manipulation of the environment (Skinner's behaviorism), activity or desire to move forward, stimulation from the outside, thirst for knowledge, and ego enhancement for external approval.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished two types of motivation. On the one hand, instrumental or extrinsic motivation aims to fulfill an immediate and practical personal goal, such as translating or reading material. On the other hand, integrative or intrinsic motivation regards language learning as a way for personal and cultural development. Learners aim to get involved in the sociocultural context of their TL and become an active part of it in the long run. Nevertheless, social and power relationships within cultures and identities should be considered, as they can affect students' attitudes toward a language.

Gardener (2001) described three key elements of motivation: eagerness, willingness, and enjoyment of learning. Moreover, his socio-educational model theory (1985) discussed four connected variables that enhance students' motivation. Firstly, social milieu, which concerns the social surroundings of the learner and brings an affective and cognitive effect. Then,

individual differences, both related to intelligence and aptitude, as well as to motivation and situational anxiety. Also, the settings where language is acquired can have an impact on the learner and can be formal (i.e., instructional contexts) or informal (i.e., naturalistic contexts). Finally, the outcomes obtained are linguistic or non-linguistic knowledge, the latter related to human attitudes and values.

Furthermore, Dörneyei (2001) argued that there are three phases in a process-oriented model of motivation. Firstly, potential goals should be chosen and clear for their further accomplishment. Secondly, different actions need to be carried out toward achieving these goals. They may have to do with a deeper focus on a linguistic skill to be honed or being consistent and perseverant with learning a foreign language. Thirdly, learners should look back and react to their performance. Self-criticism or positive evaluation is key to recognizing the effort and being eager for future challenges.

Enjoyment is treated as a section in the postquestionnaire of the present study, along with motivation, and comprehension and usage. It is considered a subjective emotional variable within motivation (Maclntyre & Vincze, 2017), which requires further analysis. Dewaele and Maclntyre (2014, 2016) conducted experiments to test the relationship between enjoyment and anxiety in foreign language learning. It was concluded that they are two separated yet interrelated dimensions, compared with two feet that need to be coordinated for someone to walk. Dewaele and Maclntyre (2016) described the external and social dimensions of enjoyment, as well as internal satisfaction, which can come hand in hand with achieving hard challenges. Moreover, learners are seen as active parts of their journey, and it enhances their motivation to keep studying. The present study proposes a student-centered methodology to foster students' enjoyment and, ultimately, motivation.

Upon reviewing the literature underlying and supporting the present study, a main and a secondary research question, as well as their respective hypotheses, are presented, which lead to the methodological basis for the intervention conducted.

2.7. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the theoretical and literature review presented above, two research questions arise concerning the gap in the teaching of English causative-passives and methodologies presented. The first one is the main research question of the present study, whereas the second one is a secondary research question that may need to be further addressed in future research.

- Has the eclectic approach to 'have/get' causatives teaching, which included the inductive approach, noticing, and multimedia materials, improved students' performance compared to a traditional and deductive approach?
- Has the eclectic experimental approach increased students' motivation and enjoyability toward the learning of the 'have/get' causative structure?

Therefore, the research hypotheses would be worded as follows:

- The alternative hypothesis for the first question states that the experimental approach would outperform the control one.
- The null hypothesis for the first question argues that the experimental approach would not outperform the control one.
- The alternative hypothesis for the second question states that the experimental approach would increase students' enjoyability and motivation toward the grammatical item presented.
- The null hypothesis for the second question argues that the experimental approach would not increase students' enjoyability and motivation toward the grammatical item presented.

Chapter 3: Method

After compiling some literature and background information, students from two group classes were tested on the 'have/get' causative structure and usage using two different methodologies: an inductive approach using noticing and subtitled audiovisual materials, and a rather deductive and traditional one. A mixed methods research approach was used to compile quantitative and qualitative data. Firstly, a prequestionnaire was distributed to gather background information from the participants. Secondly, pretests and posttests were conducted using Microsoft Forms on their laptops, and quantitative data was further analyzed using Repeated Measures ANOVA and a paired samples to test in JASP. Moreover, qualitative data from an open-ended question was broken down to patterns later discussed. Thirdly, a qualitative postquestionnaire was later carried out to consider the opinions of the participants regarding the intervention using a Likert Scale also in Microsoft Forms. It was analyzed using the Chi-Square Goodness of Fit.

3.1.Participants

Participants are first year students of post-mandatory education, known as *1st of Batxillerat* in the Catalan educational system, from a public high school located in Reus (Tarragona). They belonged to two different group classes, assigned by their subject choices for further career preferences. Although both groups included students interested in pursuing scientific careers, group "D" was more inclined to technological degrees whereas group "C" preferred rather health-related scientific ones.

Upon speaking with their English teacher and considering their linguistic skills, a decision was taken regarding the assignation of control and experimental group for the purpose of the present study. Considering that group "C" was known for being more talkative and struggling somehow more with English than group "D", the former was labeled as the control group (21

students) and the latter was identified as the experimental group (24 students). Despite being 29 and 30 students in each group respectively, on the days in which the intervention was conducted, six and eight students were missing in each class. In addition, a student from the control group attended the first session but not the second one, thus it was removed from the sample as an outlier.

According to the data gathered in the prequestionnaire, both groups were constituted of 16- and 17- year -old students (born in 2007). Further information is first presented from the answers obtained by the experimental group, and then those gathered from the control group.

Regarding the experimental group, most of them were 16, but four students were already 17 at the time of the intervention. Considering their L1s, a proficiency knowledge of Catalan and Spanish was expected by all the students as these are the languages of instruction in the education system. Eight students chose Catalan as their L1; four selected Spanish; and eleven considered themselves bilingual in Catalan and Spanish, which aligns with the expectations. Moreover, a student reported Spanish and Romanian as their L1s.

Their expected level of English was intermediate, around B1-B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)[1]. Under the experimental group's appreciations, 19 students believed to have an intermediate level, but three considered themselves beginners and two advanced learners. Moving on with their feelings toward linguistic skills, Speaking was chosen as their strongest skill (10 students); along with Vocabulary (6 students). On the contrary, Writing was considered their weakest skill with 6

[1] Due to time constraints, a diagnosis test could not be conducted to test their English level. Therefore, their intermediate level was subjected to the coursebook used (Oxford Key) and their teacher's opinion, along with their own appreciations.

students placing it in the last place of the ranking. Apart from English, most students were not familiar with any other foreign language. However, six students knew French (five as beginners and one as intermediate) and four German (two as beginners and another two as intermediate). Likewise, most of them did not take extracurricular English classes, only ten students (six once a week and four twice a week).

Regarding the control group, most of them were also 16, but eight students were already 17 when the intervention took place. Moreover, concerning their L1(s), seven students selected Catalan and another seven did the same with Spanish, but only four considered themselves bilingual in both languages. Additionally, five students portrayed native command of Chinese, Arabic, and Portuguese. Regarding their own acknowledgement of their English level, 18 students considered that they had an intermediate level, whereas two considered themselves beginners and one advanced.

Considering their believed mastering of English linguistic skills, Reading was regarded as their strongest skill (6 students), while Speaking (10 students) and Use of English (5 students) were portrayed as their weakest skill. Listening was mostly placed in the middle, similarly to what happened in the experimental group. Furthermore, only two students were familiar with other foreign languages besides English. Each one was a beginner in French and German, respectively. Finally, seven students in the control group took extracurricular English classes (four once a week and three twice a week).

3.2.Materials

Microsoft Forms was used for the prequestionnaire (see Appendix A), pretest and posttest (see Appendix B), as well as for the post-questionnaire (see Appendix J). All of them were administered using the students' personal laptops provided by the school at the beginning of the academic year. The intervention in the experimental group further required a series of clips

from authentic videos both from YouTube and TikTok. Therefore, the use of the room's computer, along with the speakers, was needed to carry out the experimental lessons. It is worth mentioning thar the speakers did not work during the first session, but the room was changed for the second one and therefore, the sound was enabled. Additionally, two template for notetaking, one for each session, was printed and further distributed to the experimental group's students (see Appendices D and H). Regarding the control group, two worksheets with space for notetaking and a fill-the-blanks activity, one for each session, were also printed and handing out to students (see Appendices G and I). Additionally, a blackboard was used to deliver the content. Finally, JASP was employed as the analysis tool once the data had been collected.

3.3.Procedure

The entire procedure consisted of the selection of linguistic and audiovisual materials; the creation of the pretest and posttest, along with the prequestionnaire and postquestionnaire; the organization of the intervention, and its final application in the instructional context within two sessions. Those are the topics in which the subsection will be organized. It must be anticipated that time and technical constraints external to the author's decisions may have hindered the procedure, and therefore, the results obtained.

3.3.1. Selection of Linguistic and Audiovisual Materials

Starting with the selection of materials, thirteen lexical items (see Appendices E and F) were chosen from the audiovisual clips that could be found using *Youglish*.[2] Criteria followed for the choice of clips considered verbal and nonverbal features. Regarding the former, good sound

[2] The clips chosen can be found in the following Dropbox folder: TFM intervention audiovisual material

quality and the natural pace of the native speakers were preferred, along with rather simple lexical items that did not hinder their understanding.

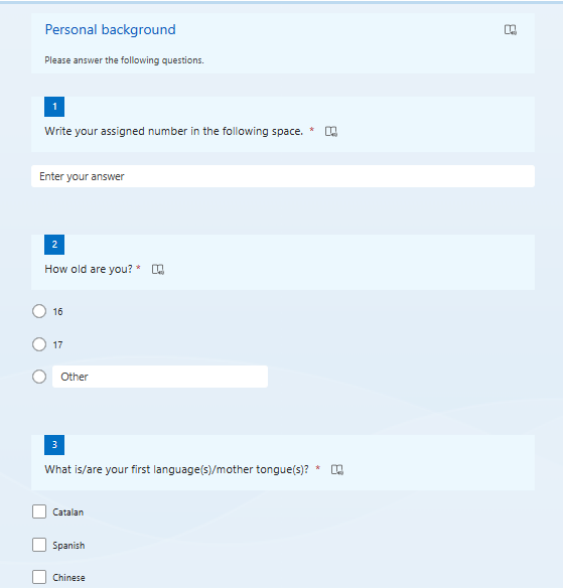
Concerning the latter, images that portrayed the actions and showed the elements clearly were favored for their selection. Hence, the visual input could provide learners with verbal cues to elicit the grammatical item. Clips were downloaded and further edited using *Clipchamp*. Subtitles were also added using the same software, which has an artificial intelligence feature that could create them automatically and were humanly revised afterwards.

3.3.2. Creation of Tests and Questionnaires

The creation of tests and questionnaires was undertaken at the same time considering that the lexical items from the clips did not appear in the pretest and posttest. Thus, students would not be given any hint or help before taking the posttest. MS Forms was used for the creation of the prequestionnaire and the pre/posttest, which were placed together using different sections. Later, the postquestionnaire would follow the same procedure.

The prequestionnaire (see Appendix A) started with an identification number that was provided to the participants based on their surnames order to keep their anonymity. It was also required in the posttest to ensure growth could be compared. This was the only open question as a multiple-choice was favored to make its completion easier and less tedious for the participants. The following questions looked for background information such as their age; their L1(s); their perception of their English level; their subjective order of linguistic skills from their strongest to their weakest; their knowledge of foreign languages and their respective level; and their attendance to extracurricular classes and the hours devoted to them. The answers obtained contributed to the competition of the participants section above.

Figure 1. *An extract from the prequestionnaire.*



The pre/posttest (see Appendix B) started in the second section and included 30 items divided into four exercises. Three of them consisted of multiple-choice questions concerning the use of form of the grammatical item, 'have/get' causatives. The options were automatically placed in random order for each student. However, the third activity included open-ended questions for the students to produce sentences with the item dealt with.

The first activity consisted of a set of ten pictures extracted from *Getty Images* representing different actions either done by oneself or by someone else. Therefore, the focus was entirely devoted to meaning, as opposed to form. Participants were expected to select the causative structure for actions done by someone else (five items), and the active structure for these done by oneself (five items). However, a third option was provided as a filler consisting of the passive structure. As participants were presented with the passive voice in class some weeks before the intervention, they were already familiar with it just as they were with the active voice structure.

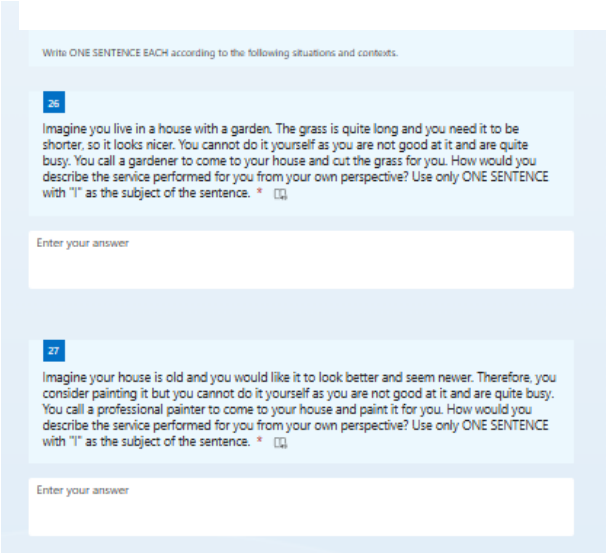
Figure 2. *An extract from the first activity of the pretest/posttest.*

The second activity was closely related to it regarding the focus on use. Participants were presented with six declarative sentences, four of which were examples of causative structures. Two of them did not include a by-agent, two of them had 'a friend' as their by-agent, and the other two were active fillers. Participants were asked who had done the action in each case, and three options were provided for them to select: *I, someone else,* or *a friend.*

Figure 3. *An extract from the second activity of the pretest/posttest.*

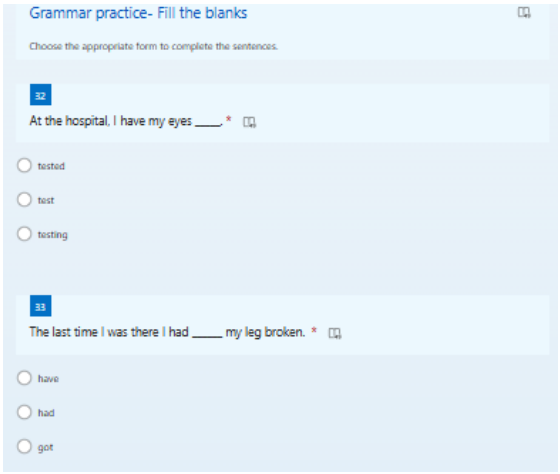
The third activity was entirely devoted to production. Participants were provided with six potential situations and contexts, four of which required the use of a causative structure. The other two could be formed using active constructions. In the pretest, they were not expected to use it as they were in the posttest, so other patterns could be utilized instead.

Figure 4. *An extract from the third activity of the pretest/posttest.*



Finally, the last exercise included eight multiple-choice questions linking use and form as an overall review. The first and third items focused on the third element of the structure, the past participle, along with two other options: the present participle (-ing) and the plain form. The second and fourth items were devoted to the exception (have meaning a bad experience) and sentences were presented in past perfect, so the past participle (had) was expected to be selected. The other two options corresponded to the plain form (have) and the past participle of get (got). While the former was grammatically incorrect, the latter violated this exception. The remaining four items of the exercise presented students with causative and active structures. The fifth and seventh elements expressed causative actions, whereas the sixth and eighth ones expressed active actions with the help of reflexive pronouns.

Figure 5. *An extract from the fourth activity of the pretest/posttest.*

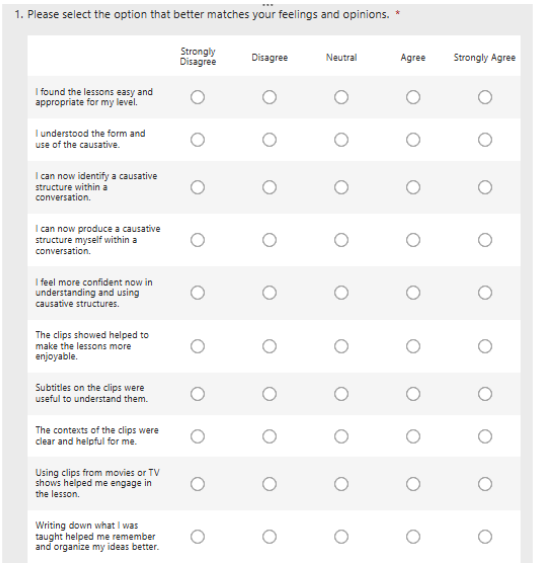


The postquestionnaire (see Appendix J) consisted of two different questions and was only distributed to the participants from the experimental group (N=24). Unlike in the pretest and posttest, the identification number was not required, and answers were thus completely anonymous. The first question was a Likert Scale with fifteen positive declarative statements about their experience with the intervention. Five different options (e.g., *Strongly Agree; Agree; Neutral; Disagree; Strongly Disagree*) were presented on top of the Likert Scale for students to select the one that best matched their feelings toward the statement. The second question was open-ended and optional. It asked for further comments regarding their experience with the intervention.

The statements belonged to three different categories with five sentences each. The first one involved the comprehensibility and usage of the target structure. Statements from this section were related to the difficulty of the sessions, their identification, understanding, and production of the grammatical item, as well as their confidence when encountering it. The second category was related to the motivation raised by the methodology used. Statements regarded their engagement with the use of clips, subtitles, the given contexts, and written output. Finally, the last category looked at their enjoyment concerning the overall format and organization, as well

as their preference for this methodology to regular teaching, and the incorporation of audiovisual clips into their English lessons.

Figure 6. *An extract from the postquestionnaire.*



1. Please select the option that better matches your feelings and opinions. *

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I found the lessons easy and appropriate for my level.	○	○	○	○	○
I understood the form and use of the causative.	○	○	○	○	○
I can now identify a causative structure within a conversation.	○	○	○	○	○
I can now produce a causative structure myself within a conversation.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel more confident now in understanding and using causative structures.	○	○	○	○	○
The clips showed helped to make the lessons more enjoyable.	○	○	○	○	○
Subtitles on the clips were useful to understand them.	○	○	○	○	○
The contexts of the clips were clear and helpful for me.	○	○	○	○	○
Using clips from movies or TV shows helped me engage in the lesson.	○	○	○	○	○
Writing down what I was taught helped me remember and organize my ideas better.	○	○	○	○	○

3.3.3. Organization of the Intervention

The organization of the intervention included the distribution of the clips selected into the two sessions allocated for the intervention by the internship's tutor. Six clips were selected for the first session, and they focused on the use and form of the 'have/get' causatives. Moreover, seven were chosen for the second session, and they included instances to a special case or exception, 'have' meaning a bad experience.

The first step to enable the intervention to take place was the approval of the documentation of the present study by the Ethics Committee for Research in People, Society, and the Environment (CEIPSA)[3]. Afterwards, the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix C) was translated into Catalan and distributed to the participants' parents or legal guardians by email for them to sign through an MS Forms template. Furthermore, pilot testing was required before the intervention took place. Two English native speakers went over them and provided me with

[3] The ethics file number is CEIPSA-2024-TFM-0013.

some comments on wording to aim at clarity and avoid confusion. Moreover, a student from 2nd of *Batxillerat* (17 years old) gave me positive feedback on them and showed an excellent level of understanding. The internship's tutor and the master thesis's tutor also supervised their content before starting the intervention.

3.3.4. Application of the Intervention

The intervention was conducted in two sessions on Wednesday 13th and Thursday 14th March 2024 during their English lessons. On the first day, the experimental group had the first session from 8:30 to 9:30h (CET), which was their first hour of lessons. It started with the completion of the pretest using their personal laptops and entering the Microsoft Forms through their Classroom. They spent around 20 minutes doing it and no questions were raised. When everybody had finished, the intervention started. Due to some technical issues, sound would not work in that classroom. However, subtitles were provided in all the clips, and the teacher read them out loud to ensure participants had the auditory input. Handouts (Appendix D) were distributed to the participants and the clips were played several times before eliciting information through questions (see Appendices E and F).

On the second day, both groups started the session with a review from the contents of the day before. Students who had not attended the first session could catch up with their peers and despite not performing the posttest, they were shown what was expected to be done.

The experimental group had the second session from 9:30 to 10:30h (CET) as their second lecture of the day. Just like the first session, handouts (Appendix H) were distributed to the students as a template to take notes. To avoid sound issues, the classroom was changed so videos could be properly visualized. It helped the lesson go smoother and the exception case was covered, along with some further practice through an elicitation game. Participants were presented with four clips with no sound or subtitles. They were asked to write down what they

believed was said, and some of them were asked each time to tell their answer out loud. Afterward, the clip was played with subtitles and sound. Students were encouraged to write down the sentences of all the clips played, along with the theory remarks that they had extracted from noticing and elicitation. The last twenty minutes of the lesson were devoted to the posttest, which students completed more tired and less focused than the previous day due to the time restrictions of the intervention.

The control group had their first session on the same day as their fifth lesson of the day. It was a 50-minute lesson from 13:10 to 14:00h (CET) after the second recess. They were asked to complete the pretest and it lasted longer than the experimental group. Many questions were asked regarding both the pre-questionnaire and the pretest. Handouts (Appendix G) were distributed to the students and there was little time to provide them with deductive explanations of use and form with the help of a whiteboard. Despite little class time was left, six students were randomly selected to check the practice sentences out loud.

The second session with the control group was conducted at the same time as the first one. After some initial review, they were first presented with the exception case using the classroom's whiteboard and then, seven sentences were completed (see handout in Appendix I). The fill-the-blanks activity was conducted individually and checked out loud by random assignation of the students. Afterward, the posttest took place in the same conditions as the experimental group.

The postquestionnaire (see Appendix J) was conducted on Wednesday,17th April 2024 in the experimental group, that is, almost a month later. It took place within the last fifteen minutes of their lesson, from 9:15 to 9:30h (CET), after a regular lesson was undertaken. Only those 24 students who completed the pre/posttest were expected to answer it. However, 22 students attended class that day and could complete it, but two were missing and they were assigned to

do it afterwards. The procedure was the same as in the pre and posttest. They had to access their Classroom with their personal laptops and a link to the MS Forms was provided.

3.4.Data Analysis

Upon collecting all the data, they were organized in a notebook assigning a page to every single participant. The pretest and posttest's answers of each student were placed side by side for further comparison. Therefore, overgeneralizations, similar answers, and peculiar cases could be analyzed in detail. Free production answers from the third exercise were copied into Word tables using the same format, so further patterns could be extracted based on the data. Improvement percentages were calculated by hand and later, introduced into an Excel sheet. Post-questionnaire's responses were also handled in the notebook, firstly analyzed by statements and then, as a whole category. Excel sheets were used to collect all the quantitative data for further analysis using JASP (Jeffreys's Amazing Statistics Program), a free and open-source statistic program, created by the University of Amsterdam.

Chapter 4: Results

After compiling the data, results from the quantitative data are presented in two different sections. On the one hand, the pretest and posttest have been analyzed using a Shapiro-Wilk test and afterward, a Repeated Measures ANOVA. Moreover, a pair samples t test was conducted to determine the growth of both groups' pre and posttest. On the other hand, the post-questionnaire, whose data has undergone Chi Square Goodness of Fit. Qualitative data from the production exercise and the optional comments in the post-questionnaire are also portrayed and further analyzed.

4.1. Pretest and Posttest

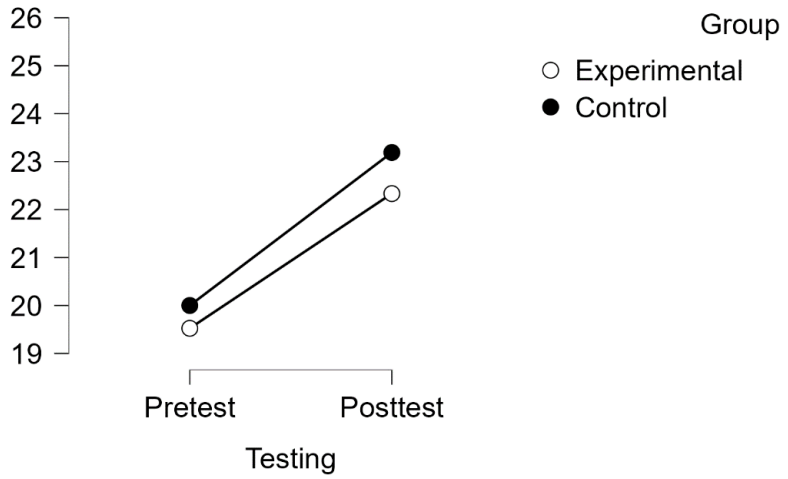
Firstly, a Shapiro-Wilk test (see table 1, Appendix K) was run because there were more than 10 participants, but less than 30 in each group. Indeed, while the experimental group included 24 participants, the control group had 21. Looking at the pretests for both groups, the p-value was not significant ($p>.05$). It was 0.067 for the experimental group and 0.235 for the control group. It meant that the data was normally distributed, and a parametric test, namely repeated measures ANOVA, could be used for the analysis.

Repeated measures ANOVA was performed to compare the growth between pretests and posttest for both groups before and after a different intervention had been conducted. It portrayed that there is not a statistically significant difference in the tests between the two groups, $F (1, 20) = 0.242$, $p = 0.628$ with a medium to high effect size ($\eta^2= 0.008$) (see table 2, Appendix L).

Despite the difference not being statistically significant, Tukey's HSD Test for multiple comparisons (see table 3, Appendix M) were conducted. They showed that the results for the experimental pretest and posttest ($p = 0.004$, 95% C.I. = -4.957, -0.662), as well as those for the control pretest and posttest ($p = 0.001$, 95% C.I. = -5.338, -1.043), were significatively

different as the confidence intervals did not cross zero. However, a lack of statistically significant difference occurred between experimental and control pretests (p = 0.988); experimental pretest and control posttest (p = 0.075); control pretest and experimental posttest (p = 0.381); and experimental and control posttests (p = 0.938).

Figure 7. *Descriptive plots for the Repeated Measures ANOVA.*



Upon realizing that the post hoc test suggests there is a difference between the testing for the experimental group, a paired samples t test was conducted. The results from the pretest (M=20.66, SD=5.814) and the posttest (M=22.95, SD=5.812) show that the students performed higher in the posttest and the difference between tests is significant t(23) = -3.114, p =0.005 with a medium to high Cohen's d effect (d= -0.636) (see table 4, Appendix N).

Furthermore, the data from the pretest and posttest of the control group underwent another paired samples t test. In this case, the results from the pretest (M=20, SD=4.393) and the posttest (M=23.19, SD=5.382) portrayed a higher performance in the posttest for the control group. The difference between tests is significant t(20) = -4.142, p < .001 with a high Cohen's d effect (d= -0.904) (see table 5, Appendix O).

Figure 8. *Descriptive plots for paired samples t test. Experimental group.*

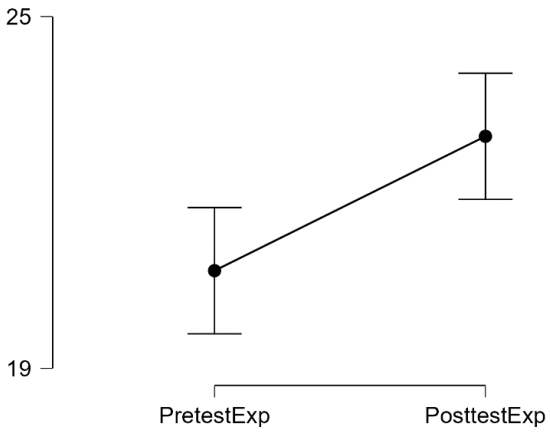
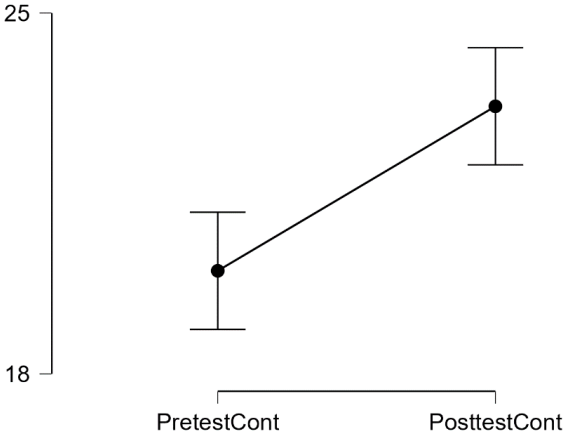


Figure 9. *Descriptive plots for paired samples t test. Control group.*



Looking deeper into each section of the pre/posttest, data confirm the results presented above (see tables 6, 7, 8, and 9, Appendices P, Q, R and S). The first section included a series of pictures, from which five were expected to be identified as causatives. In both groups, the performance increased by around 80% from one test to the other. In the pretest, both groups scored below the mean (60 and 52.5 as 120 and 105, respectively, were the maximum score with the five answers corrected), whereas they scored above it in the posttest. Nine participants in the experimental group improved by one more answer right and one by the five right. Yet, six participants in the control group improved by three more answers right. In the second section, they were expected to select the doer or causer of the action in six sentences. Their performance was above the mean in both groups and both tests. Yet, there was a 2/3% improvement between the pretest and posttest in both cases. In the experimental group, seven people did not get full points in one of the tests or both, while in the control group, it was nine.

The third section was devoted to the production of six sentences, four of which were expected to be causatives. In both groups, they scored below the mean in the pretest and above

it in the posttest. However, the experimental group improved their performance by 42% while the control group did so by 71%. Concerning the qualitative analysis of the production, tables for comparison between pre and posttest were created in a Word document regarding both groups[4]. As only four sentences were supposed to be causatives, the remaining two were left out. A further analysis concerning this data will be provided in the Discussion section.

Regarding the last section of the tests, three different foci were looked at with two items concerning the causatives. Firstly, the form, which presented an increase in performance in both groups although they scored above the mean in both tests. The experimental group showed a 6% increase whereas the control group portrayed a 21%. Half of the students in each group (12 and 11, respectively) got the two right in both tests. Secondly, the exception, in which both groups also scored above the mean in both tests. However, the experimental group presented a 10% decrease between the pretest and posttest, whereas the control group increased their performance by 15%. Six participants in the experimental group had the same one right in both tests, whereas nine in the control group had the two right in both cases. Finally, the two causative items mixing form and meaning portrayed a 27% increase in performance in the experimental group and 76% in the control group. Nine students in the experimental and five in the control got both answers correct in both tests.

4.2. Postquestionnaire

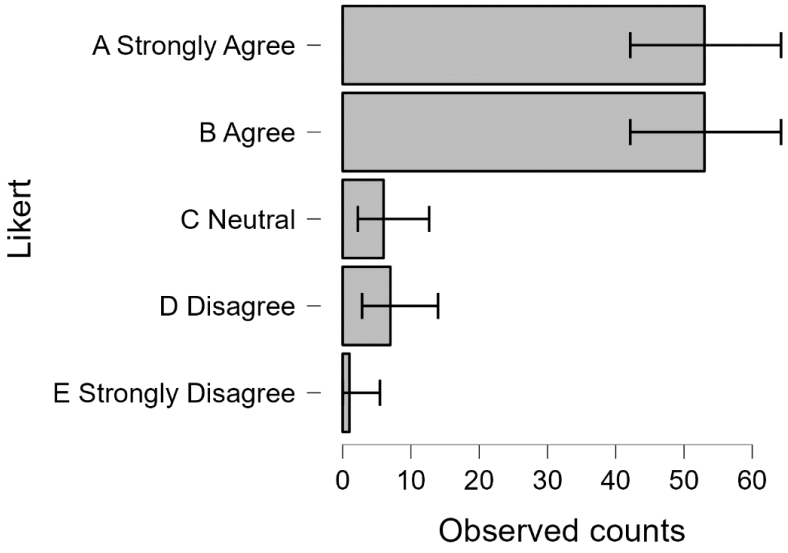
The Chi Square Goodness of Fit was used to determine the frequency and significance of the responses provided by students in a post-questionnaire qualitative survey using a Likert Scale. The fifteen positive statements were distributed into three main groups, five each: Comprehension and Usage, Motivation, and Enjoyability (see tables 10, 11, and 12,

[4] The qualitative data can be found in the following Dropbox folder: TFM qualitative data tables

Appendices T, U, and V). Moreover, some qualitative data was obtained upon asking for further comments in an open-ended style (see table 13, Appendix W).

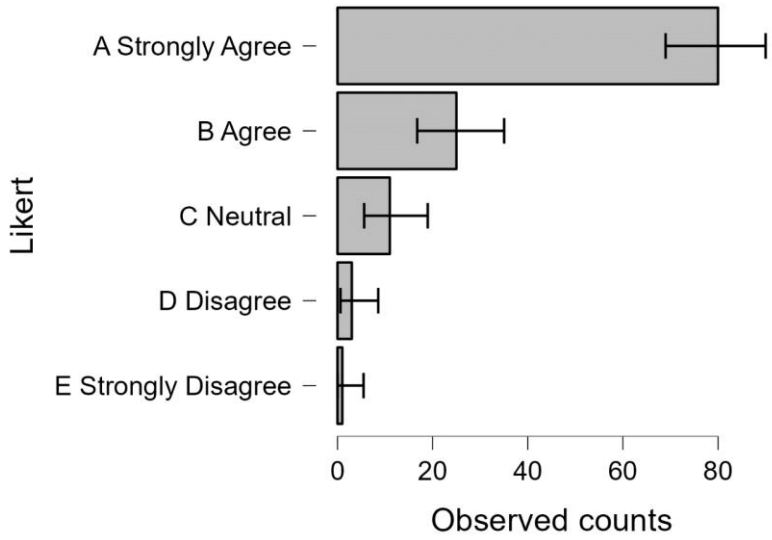
For the former one, the Chi Square Goodness of Fit portrayed that the frequency of responses where the majority of participants both strongly agreed (53) and agreed (53) that the methodology benefited their understanding and usage of the given grammatical item X^2 (4, N=24)= 117.667, p= <.001 (see table 14, Appendix X).

Figure 10. *Descriptive plots for understanding and usage.*



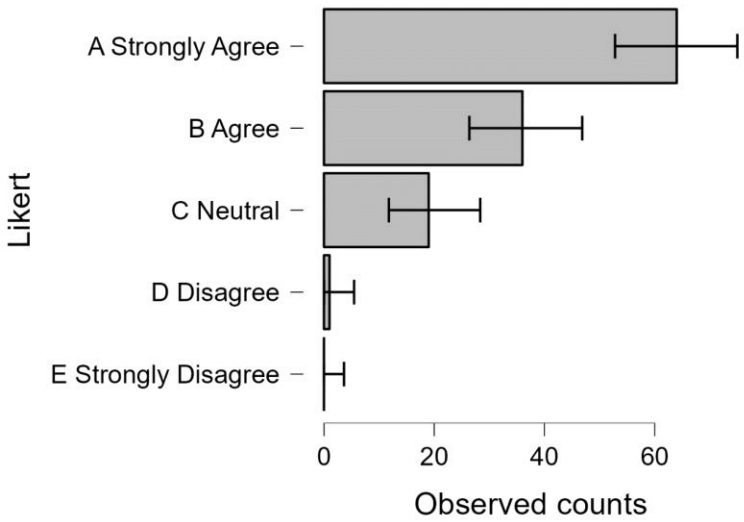
For the second one, it was shown that the majority of participants strongly agreed (80) that the methodology used was motivating for their learning journey X^2 (4, N=24)= 178.167, p=<.001 (see table 15, Appendix Y).

Figure 11. *Descriptive plots for motivation.*



For the latter one, it was described that the majority of participants strongly agreed (64) that the intervention was enjoyable and further instances of such methodology could be used in their regular English lessons X^2 (4, N=24)= 119.750, p=<.001 (see table 16, Appendix Z).

Figure 12. *Descriptive plots for enjoyability.*



Chapter 5: Discussion

The intervention conducted aimed to provide an alternative methodology to the traditional teaching of 'have/get' causatives. It entails the use of an eclectic and student-centered approach using authentic audiovisual materials with subtitles and noticing to increase motivation. It was performed considering the lack of previous research on such a topic and the difficulty of this causative structure for Catalan and Spanish students, which do not have a grammatically parallel structure in their native languages. Besides, it was understood as potential new grammatical content to those post-mandatory education students after being presented with a brief introduction to passive voice patterns as part of their course syllabus. This section includes the analysis and discussion of the quantitative and qualitative results obtained through data collection, as well as how research questions and hypotheses can be addressed.

5.1. Effectiveness of the intervention

Participants were expected to complete a pretest before the intervention was conducted to check on their previous knowledge of the topic. The second part of the first session and the first part of the second session were devoted to content retention to perform the posttest and show their learning progress. Considering they were unfamiliar with the topic, growth was foreseen between the pretest and the posttest.

Data from the post-hoc test turned out to be revealing, in which the difference between the pretest and posttest from both groups appeared statistically significant. Moreover, the paired samples t test further confirmed this difference between both tests in the two groups. Also, considering the results obtained, 16 students from the experimental group and 13 from the control group showed an improvement between both tests. It indicates that both methodologies brought along considerable learning and that the intervention yielded results.

However, a slightly higher improvement was observed in the control group than in the experimental one. Considering the means, the control group improved by 3.19 (20,66; 22.95), whereas the experimental group only by 2.29 (20; 23.19). It entails less than a point of difference between both groups, namely 0.9. It is also supported by the increment percentages for all the activities, in which the control group continuously outperformed the experimental. Moreover, the two exception discrete items suffered a 10% decrease in the experimental group between tests but increased 15% in the control group. Therefore, concerning the main research question, which looked at a better efficiency of the experimental methodology, the alternative hypothesis is rejected in support of the null one.

Hence, the present study aligns with previous research that favored the deductive approach (Negahdaripour & Amighassemi, 2016; Nazari, 2013) as opposed to the inductive one (Benitez-Correa et al., 2019; Alzu'bi, 2015). However, due to time constraints and technical issues during the intervention, further research and revision would provide more conclusive results. Reasons that may support the results obtained, though, have to do with some students' familiarity with the topic or their outstanding level of English. It might have boosted their confidence when performing the tests, thus resulting in failing to show their full potential. Also, tidiness due to the little time allocated to the intervention and external organizational issues may have hindered the results of the experiment. Furthermore, their English instructor has observed better class means from the control group's evaluative tests throughout the academic year despite their overall lower English level. Its justification is thought to be related to the fact that about three students from the experimental group presented relatively low means, which hindered the group's general mark.

As the intervention had a clear linguistic production purpose mirroring communication-focused approaches like CLT, one activity of the tests was devoted to free written production

elicited by some prompts. The following subsection provides an analysis of the patterns obtained from the production.

5.1.1. Qualitative data from production

The activity provided six extensive statements, including the subject of each sentence (I). All of them were meant to entail a service done to the first-person subject related to cutting the garden's grass (i.e., I had/got my grass cut); painting the house (i.e., I had/got my house painted); repairing the shoes (i.e., I had/got my shoes repaired); translating a text (i.e., I had/got my text translated), respectively.

As the grammatical tense expected could be misleading due to the hypothetical nature of the statement, all of them were valid and accepted. The ones used by the participants were present simple (have), past simple (had), present continuous (am having), future will (will have), present perfect (have had), only the first and the third sentences. Moreover, the fourth example included an interesting instance of the past perfect of 'have got' (had gotten) with the *-en* past participle popularly used in American English.

The pretests did not register any use of the causative verb 'get'. However, the posttest presented examples of present simple (get), except for the first sentence; past simple (got), except for the second sentence; present continuous (am getting), only the second and third sentence; and even a modal verb (need to) followed by the plain form of 'get', except in the second sentence. Indeed, on this occasion, it was used with the causative verb 'have' (need to have). Its use is justified by the appearance of this modal verb in the clips.

When causative structures were not formed, two other verbs, 'need' and 'call', were used to convey the meaning. Different patterns have been found with such verbs as the head element. Regarding the use of 'need', a common pattern in all the examples has been 'need + somebody + *for*- infinitive (or present participle)'. It entailed a negative transfer from Catalan and

Spanish, in which it is an idiomatic expression (e.g., *necessito un pintor per a pintar…/ necesito un pintor para pintar…)*. Moreover, both 'need' and 'call' were followed by an object, at times, and *to*-infinitive. Such structure is more idiomatic in English, but instances of bare infinitives following those verbs also presented parallelisms with Catalan and Spanish (e.g., *necessito tallar…/ necesito cortar…).*

Some examples portrayed the use of embedded clauses after those verbs, either using a defining relative clause headed by 'who', a *that*-clause, or less common, *if*-clauses, mirroring the Catalan and Spanish peripherical causatives presented in Zyzik (2014). Also, there were other instances of embedded clauses with the to-infinitive 'help' as the head element of its own construction (e.g., I have called *somebody* to help me translating…). Furthermore, another verb used in the first example is 'pay', only followed by *to*-infinitive. Also, seldom instances of other constructions included the use of '*would like'* in the second example, followed by a present participle or a *that*-clause.

Two participants from the experimental group portrayed interesting patterns worth acknowledging. On the one hand, a student (identification number: 2) created active voice structures starting with "*I am watching how…*" for each example of the pretest. However, passive voice structures in present continuous were used in the posttest. It can be inferred that since active voice use turned into passive, a potential use of causatives could be the next step if a delayed test was performed. Yet, it can be argued that the knowledge of passive voice hindered the use of causatives in the posttest.

On the other hand, another student (identification number: 9) used other causative patterns that aligned with the use of a volitional verb, '*want*' or even '*need*' (Downing & Locke, 2006). The first example, "*I need the grass shorter*" can be analyzed as a secondary predicate construction (SPC) (D'hoedt et al., 2019): the semi-modal verb '*need*', followed by an NP ('*the*

grass') and an Adjective Phrase ('*shorter*') in the comparative level. The other instances included the verb '*want*', along with an NP ('*my house'; 'my shoes'*) and an uninflected Verb Phrase in past participle ('*painted'; 'repaired'*). This structure presents great parallelisms with the target one in the present study but lacks the use of 'have/get' as their head.

Another common pattern observed in the data entailed the misplace of the elements involving a focus on word order. As mentioned by Murphy (2004), Thomson and Martinet (1986), and Alexander (1988), it is a common error for English learners as they may be misled by the past perfect structure. Indeed, the four examples present instances of past perfect sentences, probably influenced by word order issues. Students may have meant to create a past simple causative structure (had). However, they eventually placed the past participle after it as though it was an auxiliary, as opposed to placing the object in between.

Although it does not directly concern grammar, some systematic spelling issues have also been identified. Regarding the first sentence, many participants have produced an overgeneralization of the regular past stating "cutted" or "cuted" as the participle form of *cut*. Because this verb does not overly mark inflection, students have applied regular past rules like adding the '-ed' morpheme and, in most cases, the duplication of the last consonant after a 'CVC' pattern. Moreover, the last sentence presents L1 negative transfer with the use of "traduced" instead of *'translate'*. It is a lexical issue based on the similarities between the roots of both words in their respective languages.

The next section is devoted to the postquestionnaire results concerning the students' attitudes and feelings towards the intervention undertaken. It aims to answer the secondary research question, which addresses the students' positive overview of the experiment.

5.2. Students' attitudes and feelings towards the intervention

Despite not achieving a statistically significant overperformance of the experimental group over the control group on the tests, students from the former group were asked about their opinions on the intervention conducted. Fifteen positive statements were provided to the students, and they were expected to value their experience with the options of a Likert Scale (e.g., *Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree*). The statements belonged to three different categories: 'Comprehension and Usage', 'Motivation', and 'Enjoyability', with five statements each.

Students were explicitly told not to choose the *Neutral* option as the questionnaire was anonymous, and they could feel completely free to be honest. Most of the responses corresponded to the *Strongly Agree or Agree* options, whereas around one-sixth of each section, that is, 20 answers, were consistent with the *Neutral, Disagree,* and *Strongly Disagree* options.

Upon analyzing the results of the postquestionnaire, students had a positive experience during the intervention. Moreover, the Chi Square Goodness of Fit portrayed statistically significant results ($p = <.001$) in all cases. Also, qualitative comments from the students show an overall good experience (see table 13, Appendix W). Yet, the results of each section are discussed below.

Considering the first section, 'Comprehension and Usage', all students *strongly agreed* and *agreed* that the level was appropriate for them. However, two students encountered issues when understanding or identifying 'have/get' causatives in context. Moreover, four students were not able to produce them on their own, only even selecting *Strongly Disagree*. Also, five students did not feel confident about such structure as part of their linguistic devices.

Regarding the second section, 'Motivation', the use of subtitles was well received by almost all the students. However, the contexts were not believed to be always clear and relevant, yet

they did not affect their engagement in the lessons. Writing down the new content was helpful for most of them, except for four students.

Considering the third section, 'Enjoyability', which is linked to the students' motivation, students seemed to have enjoyed the overall experience and liked the format and organization of the lessons. Only four students opposed such statements. Moreover, the time was believed to have gone by quicker for most students except for five. Furthermore, only four students did not prefer the methodology over traditional and regular lessons (as in the control group), nor would they like to implement such a method as a regular practice in their English lessons.

Aligning with Dewaele and Maclntyre (2014, 2016)'s studies, enjoyability enhanced motivation, and the results pointed to some potential correlation between them. Moreover, the rise in comprehension can be related to lower anxiety among students. However, since it has been treated as a secondary research question in the present study, further research is needed to draw more accurate conclusions.

Yet, after considering all the data mentioned above, in the secondary research question, which concerns the motivation and enjoyability of the students in the intervention, the null hypothesis is rejected in support of the alternative one.

The next subsection discusses the limitations encountered during the intervention that may have sensibly affected the results obtained and provides suggestions that can be addressed in future experimental research.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

The findings of the present study need to be considered in the light of some limitations. Like most research studies, the present study was also subjected to different issues that may have impacted the intervention and, thus, the results obtained. Firstly, one of the most significant limitations of this study has to do with a procedure issue, namely, time constraints. Due to the

course organization, only four hours (two sessions per group) could be allocated to the intervention. Despite devoting two of the three weekly lessons to each group, the intervention time was lessened by the completion of the pretest and posttest. Therefore, less than an hour for each group was dedicated to the content exposition, leaving little space for significant linguistic acquisition. Also, technical issues concerning the room's sound system were encountered during the intervention, which enhanced time limitations and created a rather stressful and uneasy learning environment.

Another procedure issue was the media used to collect data. Because the present study highlights the importance of communicative methodologies, role-plays as a methodological tool were considered to collect productive information for further analysis. However, time restrictions and space limitations hindered its application, and thus, it was substituted for a written productive activity elicited by potential real-life scenarios. Furthermore, the sample entailed some participant issues. Students came from different linguistic backgrounds, and the groups were not subjected to differences in their English level, which created two heterogeneous groups of students concerning their foreign language mastery. Moreover, some participants may have been already familiar with the specific grammatical item, which hindered the increase in performance between tests and the effectiveness of the intervention.

Considering that the sessions were conducted during their English lessons, the students' attention span was affected by their tiredness and other subjects they had. The first session of the experimental group was done during the first period of the day after most of them had just come back from an exchange abroad, which also followed an exam week. Therefore, students could not show their best work due to external and personal factors. Similarly, the two sessions for the control group were carried out after their second recess, which entailed more time and effort to focus on the content delivered. Yet, those limitations were related to the school organization and the syllabus structure, which was ultimately subjected to their expected

knowledge for their following year's final exam (i.e., *Selectivitat*) to access tertiary education. Regarding background issues, a lack of previous experimental studies on this topic created a gap in methodologies and results to refer to.

All in all, the present study encountered several limitations but shed light on a new aspect for further foreign language learning research. Considering a different setting and focus, new data can be brought to the field in the future. It may help improve students' foreign language learning experience and adapt the instructional environment to current times and technological innovations. Indeed, the present study constitutes a novelty in terms of empirical basis for testing ground (i.e., 'have/get' causative constructions) and also, due to its eclectic methodology, which is an enhanced multimedia-based inductive approach.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Considering the limitations of the present study due to a wide range of issues, further research is encouraged to clear the gaps and conduct more reliable and specific data to contribute to the great pool of knowledge.

Firstly, to avoid previous knowledge or even conscious exposure to a particular item, younger students from mandatory education could be selected as a potential new sample. Moreover, the environmental conditions could be quite different, reducing stress and time pressure for both students and instructors. Yet, considering the growth improvement between tests, a potential delay test could be conducted next academic year to prove whether the small intervention carried out made any impact on their long-term linguistic memory and, thus, easier the acquisition of the given linguistic item as a part of their subject syllabus.

Secondly, procedure characteristics could differ in enhancing communicative situations through role-plays. Therefore, it would elicit a shift from instrumental or extrinsic motivation to integrative or intrinsic one (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) because students would portray

language learning as more than passing exams. It would require the use of more complex instruments for data collection, such as videos or recordings of the participants, which at the same time entails more time for the application of the intervention and an appropriate setting for it. Furthermore, the secondary research question of the present study, which concerns motivation and enjoyability, could be revised and further addressed.

Thirdly, referring to the theoretical framework, several causative structures were portrayed besides the 'have/get' one. Therefore, further research could include a broader analysis of causative structures, which would extend and raise awareness about their teaching and learning. Indeed, a student portrayed causative patterns using verbs such as *need* and *want*. It entails an indirect recognition of specific idiomatic structures in English that are not usually directly addressed in foreign language instruction. As they constitute a valuable idiomatic linguistic corpus of the English language, it makes sense that learners are exposed to them and taught when and how to use them appropriately.

Lastly, the passive voice was tackled as part of the background and literature framework as it was the grammatical item dealt with before the intervention was conducted. Therefore, several examples were portrayed in the tests, and students were expected to be familiar with them. However, it can be understood as a potential hindrance to the learning of 'have/get' causative patterns as the verb is in active voice. Further research may address the benefits and downsides of teaching causative structures within a passive voice context. For this purpose, an analysis of the active productions from the present study could be performed, and new insights could be shed light on in future research papers.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This master's thesis set out to discuss deductive and enhanced inductive grammar teaching concerning 'have/get' causatives (e.g., *I have my hair cut*). A novel methodological approach has been proposed and tested, which has been termed eclectic because it incorporates authentic audiovisual material in short clips and the notion of 'noticing' into an inductive approach to grammar teaching. Results showed that the methodology proposed has fostered students' motivation and enjoyability, which supports the alternative hypothesis on the secondary research question on increasing students' motivation. However, regarding the main research question, results have shown that the experimental group did not outperform the control group, thus rejecting the alternative hypothesis and supporting the null one. These results must have taken cautiously, though, since time and technical limitations that may have hindered the intervention.

Yet, despite these shortcomings that were unforeseen and external to the experimental design, the present study sheds light on an unexplored topic within foreign language teaching research, namely the pedagogical approach to the 'have/get' causative structure. While further work is needed, the present study is the first step towards understanding this structure within the larger context of the teaching of passives and causatives more generally. Specifically, this study also suggests potential relations to other causative structures with different verbs such as *need* or *want.* A better understanding of causation and passives patterns found in the analysis of the production activity may be a starting point for further research and contribute to a breakthrough within the field.

References

Ahn, J. (2014). Attention, Awareness, and Noticing in SLA: A Methodological Review. *Humanities Commons*. https://doi.org/10.17613/QSVM-VC32

Alexander, L. (1988). *Longman English grammar paper*. Longman

Ali Saleh, M. (2022). Applying Authentic Materials in Teaching English Grammar to Improve EFL Student's Skills (Teachers' Attitude). *ELS Journal on Interdisciplinary Studies in Humanities*, *5*(2), 293–296. https://doi.org/10.34050/elsjish.v5i2.19470

Alzu'bi, M. A. (2015). Effectiveness of Inductive and Deductive Methods in Teaching Grammar. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 6*(2): 187-193.

Ausubel, D. (1968). *Educational psychology: a cognitive view.* New York.

Bajrami, L., & Ismaili, M. (2016). The Role of Video Materials in EFL Classrooms. *Procedia: Social & Behavioral Sciences*, *232*, 502–506. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.068

Benati, A. (2020). The Effects of Structured Input and Traditional Instruction on the Acquisition of the English Causative Passive Forms: An Eye-tracking Study Measuring Accuracy in Responses and Processing Patterns. *Language Teaching Research*, *26*(6), 1231–1251. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820928577

Benitez-Correa, C., Gonzalez-Torres, P., Ochoa-Cueva, C., & Vargas-Saritama, A. (2019). A Comparison between Deductive and Inductive Approaches for Teaching EFL Grammar to High School Students. *International Journal of Instruction*, *12*(1), 225-236. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.12115a

Bisson, J., Conklin, K. & Tunney, R. J. (2015). The Role of Verbal and Pictorial Information in Multimodal Incidental Acquisition of Foreign Language Vocabulary. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology (2006)*, *68*(7), 1306-1326. https://doi.org/10.1080/17470218.2014.979211

Blake, R. (2020, August 7th). *WARNING! YouTube Hackers Stealing Channels // Massive YouTube Bitcoin Scam!* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SoWvTtMJhAE

Boleyn, C. (2017, March 8th). *7th March 2017 VLOG (Driving lessons, pierced ears, and Emmerdale!)* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U87Qds1-UZ8

Brown, H. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Prentice Hall.

Brualdi, A. (1996). Multiple Intelligences: Gardner's Theory. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation, 5*(1) http://doi.org/10.7275/7251-ea02

Burton, G. (2020). Grammar. *ELT Journal*, *74*(2), 198–201. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa004

Celce-Murcia, M. (2015). An Overview of Teaching Grammar in ELT. In M. Christison, D. Christian, P.A. Duff. & N. Spada (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning English Grammar: Research Findings and Future Directions* (Global Research on Teaching and Learning English) (pp. 3-18). Routledge.

Clark, J., & Paivio, A. (1991). Dual Coding Theory and Education. *Educational Psychology Review*, *3*, 149-210. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01320076

Clipchamp. *Quick and easy video editor.* https://clipchamp.com/en/

Cowan, R. (2008). *The Teacher's Grammar of English with Answers: A Coursebook and Reference Guide*. Cambridge University Press.

Curnow, T.J. (1993). Semantics of Spanish Causatives Involving *hacer*. *Australian Journal of Linguistics, 13*(2), 165-184. https://doi.org/10.1080/07268609308599494

Dewaele, J. M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 4*(2), 237-274. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.2.5

Dewaele, J. M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2016). Foreign Language Enjoyment and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety: The Right and Left Feet of the Language. In T. Gregersen, P. D, MacIntyre, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive Psychology in SLA* (pp. 215-236). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783095360-010

D'hoedt, F., De Smet, H., & Cuyckens, H. (2019). Constructions Waxing and Waning: A Brief History of the Zero-Secondary Predicate Construction. *Journal of English Linguistics, 47*(1), 3-28. https://doi.org/10.1177/0075424218805524

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667343

Downing, A., & Locke, P. (2006). *English Grammar: A University Course* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Duff, P. A. (2014). Communicative Language Teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia, D.M. Brinton & M.A. Snow (Eds.). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (4th ed., pp. 15-30). Boston, MA; National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.

Eastwood, J. (1999). *Oxford Practice Grammar: With Answers* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Economics Explained. (2020, October 1st). *Is Hyperinflation Coming?* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r7GzaLROW0E

Ellis, R. (2002). Does Form-focused Instruction Affect the Acquisition of Implicit Knowledge? A Review of the Research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *24*(2), 223-236. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263102002073

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2002). Doing Focus on Form. *System*, *30*(4), 419–432. http://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(02)00047-7

Fillmore, C. J. (1982). Frame Semantics. In Linguistic Society of Korea (Ed.), *Linguistics in the Morning Calm.* (pp. 111-137). Hanshin Publishing Company. http://brenocon.com/Fillmore%201982_2up.pdf

Frumuselu, A. D., De Maeyer, S., Donche, V., & Gutiérrez-Colon Plana, M. (2015). Television Series inside the EFL Classroom: Bridging the Gap between Teaching and Learning Informal Language through Subtitles. *Linguistics and Education*, *32*, 107–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.10.001

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: A Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1985). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (2001). *The unschooled mind: How children think and how schools should teach*. Basic Books.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning.* Newbury House Publishers.

Gilquin, G. (2003). Causative Get and Have: So Close, So Different. *Journal of English Linguistics, 31*(2), 125-148. https://doi.org/10.1177/0075424203031002002

Gilquin, G. (2010). *Corpus, Cognition, and Causative constructions.* John Benjamins.

Godfroid, A., Boers, F. & Housen, A. (2013). An Eye for Words: Gauging the Role of Attention in Incidental L2 Vocabulary Acquisition by Means of Eye-Tracking. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 35*(3), 483-517. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263113000119

Gretty Images. (n.d.). https://www.gettyimages.es/

Grice, H. (1975). Logic and Conversation. In *Speech Acts* (pp. 41–58). BRILL.

Han, Y. (2010). The Influence of the Choice of Subtitles on the Second Language Acquisition of Learners. *Film review* (10): pp. 70-71.

Hhmovies84. [@hhmovies84]. (2023, December 22nd). *Young Sheldon Part 8* #tiktok #foryou #show [Video]. TikTok. https://www.tiktok.com/@hhmovies84/video/7315232489725873438?is_from_webapp=1&sender_device=pc&web_id=7185622525807838725

Hornby, A. (2015). Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English. (9th ed.). Oxford University Press.

JASP - *A Fresh Way to Do Statistics*. https://jasp-stats.org/

Krashen, S. & Terrell, T. (1983). *The Natural approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Pergamon.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across Cultures*. University of Michigan Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. & Anderson, M. (2013). *Techniques and principles in language teaching 3rd edition-Oxford handbooks for language teachers*. Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2014). Teaching grammar. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. Brinton & M.A. Snow (Eds.). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 256-270). Boston, MA; National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.

Lei, S. (2023). The Role of Videos' Subtitles in Second Language Acquisition. *Journal of Education, Humanities and Social Sciences, 13*, 12-20. https://doi.org/10.54097/ehss.v13i.7848

Lin, F. (2017). A Refutation of Universal Grammar. *Lingua*, *193*, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2017.04.003

Long, M. (1991). Focus on Form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology. In: K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg. & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign Language Research in Cross-cultural Perspective*. (pp.39-52). John Benjamins. http://doi.org/10.1075/sibil.2.07lon

Long, M. (2000). Focus on Form in Task-Based Language Teaching. In: R. Lambert, & E. Shohamy. (Eds.), *Language Policy and Pedagogy: Essays in Honor of A. Ronald Walton* (pp. 179-192). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/z.96.11lon

MacIntyre, P. D., & Vincze, L. (2017). Positive and negative emotions underlie motivation for L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *7*(1), 61–88. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2017.7.1.4

Mariah, K. (2023a, June 21st). *Causative form in movies 1* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=79McbycXC4w

Mariah, K. (2023b, June 21st). *Causative form in movies 2* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xkQdJleYEw0

Mayer, R. & Moreno, R. (2003). Nine Ways to Reduce Cognitive Load in Multimedia Learning. *Educational Psychologist*, *38*(1), 43–52. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3801_6

Mayer, R. E. (2001). *Multimedia learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Mayer's 12 principles of multimedia learning. (n.d.). Digital Learning Institute. Retrieved from https://www.digitallearninginstitute.com/blog/mayers-principles-multimedia-learning

Murphy, R. (2004). *English Grammar in Use with Answers: A Self-study Reference and Practice Book for Intermediate Students of English* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Nazari, N. (2013). The Effect of Implicit and Explicit Grammar Instruction on Learners' Achievements in Receptive and Productive Modes. *Procedia: Social & Behavioral Sciences, 70*, 156–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.051

Negahdaripour, S., & Amirghassemi, A. (2016). The Effect of Deductive vs. Inductive Grammar Instruction on Iranian EFL Learners' Spoken Accuracy and Fluency. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, *5*(1), 8-17.

Norris, J., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *50*(3), 417-528. http://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00136

Norris, J., & Ortega, L. (2001). Does Type of Instruction Make a Difference? Substantive Findings from a Meta-analytic Review. *Language Learning*, *51*(s1), 157-213. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.2001.tb00017.x

Nunan, D. (1998). Teaching Grammar in Context. *ELT Journal*, *52*(2), 101–109. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/52.2.101

Ordoñez, F. (2024). Spanish Causatives: Two Specs for Causees and Two Ways to Resolve Case. *Isogloss A Journal on Variation of Romance and Iberian Languages*, *10*(4), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.5565/rev/isogloss.364

Paivio, A. (1986). *Mental representations: A dual coding approach.* Oxford University Press.

Palacios, S.P., & Garita, Y.O. (2015). Teaching Spanish Three Passive Constructions versus English Passive Voice. *Asian Journal of Education and e-Learning, 3*(6). https://ajouronline.com/index.php/AJEEL/article/view/2853

Parrott, M. (2000). *Grammar for English language teachers: With exercises and a key*. Cambridge University Press.

Piaget, J. (1936). *Origins of intelligence in the child*. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Pineda, A., & Sheehan, M. (2023). A Cyclic Agree account of the Romance faire–infinitive causative: New evidence from Catalan. *Syntax*, *26*(2), 183-222. https://doi.org/10.1111/synt.12247pk

Prator, C. (1974). *Invited lecture on the history of language teaching*, 370K, Fall Quarter, University of California, Los Angeles.

SAMHSA. (2019, August 21st). *Crisis Counseling Skills* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=528pfiNJt7o

Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and Foreign Language Learning: A Tutorial on Attention and Awareness in Learning. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and Awareness in Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 1-63). University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Sheen, R. (2002). 'Focus on form' and 'focus on forms.' *ELT Journal*, *56*(3), 303–305. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/56.3.303

Shopify. (2019, September 25th). *500 of my Diaper Bags Were Made Incorrectly & I Almost Lost my Business* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MntZEqGzcdA

Siemens, G. (2004). Connectivism: A learning theory for the digital age. *Elearnspace. org*, 14-16. Retrieved from http://elearnspace.org/Articles/connectivism.htm

Skinner, B. (1957). *A Functional Analysis of Verbal Behavior.*

Smith, B. (2012). Eye tracking as a measure of noticing: A study of explicit recasts in SCMC. *Language Learning & Technology, 16*(3), 53-81. http://doi.org/10125/44300

Studio C. (2020, February 29th). *Dad Driving Test – Studio C* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ytRjULU0AmM

Swan, M. (2002). Seven bad reasons for teaching grammar-and two good ones. *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*, 148-152.

Sweller, J. (2012). Cognitive Load Theory. In N. Seel (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of the Sciences of Learning* (pp. 601-605). Springer, Boston, MA. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1428-6_446

Talley, P. C., & Hui-Ling, T. (2014). Implicit and Explicit Teaching of English Speaking in the EFL Classroom. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *4*(6), 38-45.

TheEllenShow. (2018, April 30th). *Kim Kardashian Speaks Out on Kloe's 'Messed Up' Situation* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ulhkRnjrjZ0

Thomson, A., & Martinet, A. (1986). *Practical English Grammar: A classic grammar reference with clear explanations of grammatical structures and forms* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

Thornbury, S. (1999). How to teach grammar. *Readings in Methodology*, *129*.

Thornton, G. [@gertrude.thornton]. (2024, March 6th). *Young Sheldon* #movie #tiktok [Video]. TikTok. https://www.tiktok.com/@gertrude.thornton/video/7343251137820183851?is_from_webapp=1&sender_device=pc&web_id=7185622525807838725

Tomlin, R., & Villa, V. (1994). Attention in Cognitive Science and Second Language Acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *16*(2), 183-203. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100012870

Uggen, M. S. (2012). Reinvestigating the Noticing Function of Output. *Language learning, 62*(2), 506-540. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00693.x

Uysal, H., & Bardakci, M. (2014). Teacher beliefs and practices of grammar teaching: focusing on meaning, form, or forms? *South African Journal of Education*, *34*(1), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.15700/201412120943

VanPatten, B. (2004). Input processing in second language acquisition. *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary*, *5*, 31.

Vince, M., & Sunderland, P. (2003). *Advanced language practice: With key* (2nd ed.). Macmillan Education.

Vogue. (2020, October 6th). *24 Hours of Non-Stop Hustle with Rapper YG |Vogue* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xBcsIiE27WQ

Vulchanova, M., Aurstad, L., Kvitnes, I. & Eshuis, H. (2015). As naturalistic as it gets: subtitles in the English classroom in Norway. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *5*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014.01510

Wanted Adventure. (2017, February 1st). *Why Are Houses in America MADE OF WOOD?!* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yJIvBJPODAg

Wardhaugh, R. (1970). The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. *TESOL Quarterly*, *4*(2), 123–130. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586182

Warne. R. (2020). There are multiple intelligences in the human mind. *In the Know: Debunking 35 Myth about Human Intelligence* (pp. 52–61). Cambridge University Press.

Youglish. *Improve Your English Pronunciation*. (n.d.). https://youglish.com/

Youngs, B. (2019). SLA Theories and Practices in CALL. In N. Arnold & L. Ducate (Eds.), *Engaging Language Learners through CALL: From Theory and Research to Informed*

Practice (pp. 7-50). Advances in CALL Research and Practice. Equinox Publishing, Ltd.

Zyzik, E. (2014). Expressing Causation in Spanish: A Functional Analysis of Heritage Speakers' Written Production. *Heritage Language Journal*, *11*(1), 76-97. https://doi.org/10.46538/hlj.11.1.4

Appendix A. Prequestionnaire

Hello! I am Alícia Gual, and I am currently doing my internship as an English teacher. Since I am working on my Master's Thesis (TFM), I need to compile some information about students from two classes of 1st Batxillerat. However, it is an anonymous questionnaire, so questions are only related to general and linguistic topics. I appreciate your honesty and the results will have no effect on your final mark on the English subject. It is only going to take around 20 minutes of your time. I would very much appreciate your participation and thank you in advance!

Personal background
Please answer the following questions.

1. Write your assigned number in the following space.

2. How old are you?
   a. 16
   b. 17
   c. Others

3. What is/are your first language(s)/mother tongue(s)?
   a. Catalan
   b. Spanish
   c. Chinese
   d. Arabic
   e. Romanian
   f. Others

4. What is your English level?
   a. Beginner (A1/A2)
   b. Intermediate (B1/B2)
   c. Advanced (C1/C2)

5. What other languages do you speak besides English?
   a. None
   b. French
   c. German
   d. Others

6. What is your level?
   a. Beginner (A1/A2)
   b. Intermediate (B1/B2)
   c. Advanced (C1/C2)

7. Order the following English skills from the STRONGEST (the one you are better at) at the top to the WEAKEST (the one you are worst at) at the bottom in your opinion: Speaking; Listening; Writing; Reading; Use of English (grammar); Vocabulary.

8. Do you currently attend extracurricular English lessons outside high school?
   a. Yes
   b. No

9. How many times a week do you attend those lessons?
   a. Once a week
   b. Twice a week
   c. Three times a week
   d. Four times a week
   e. Every day
   f. Only from time to time when a test is coming.

Appendix B. Pretest and Posttest

A. Grammar practice- Pictures

Choose the sentence that best describes what happens in each picture.

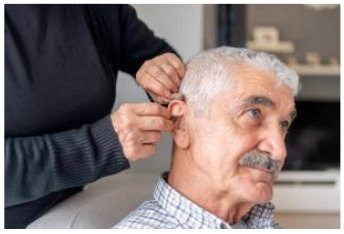
10. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. He is bandaging his foot.
b. The patient (he) is having his foot bandaged.
c. His foot is being bandaged.

11. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. The girl is having her hair combed.
b. Her hair is being combed.
c. She is combing her hair.

12. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?



a. The hearing aid is being placed behind the old man's ear.
b. The old man is having his hearing aid placed behind his ear.
c. The old man is placing his hearing aid behind his ear.

13. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. The woman is having her hair braided.
b. Her hair is being braided.
c. The woman is braiding her hair.

14. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. The man is shaving his beard.
b. The man is having his beard shaved.
c. His beard is being shaved.

15. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. The woman is massaging her forehead.
b. Her forehead is being massaged.
c. The woman is having her forehead massaged.

16. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. Her knuckles are being cracked.
b. She is cracking her knuckles.
c. She is having her knuckles cracked.

17. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. He is having his arm tattooed.
b. His arm is being tattooed.
c. He is tattooing his arm.

18. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. He is having his third book written.
b. His third book is being written.
c. He is writing his third book.

19. How would you describe what is going on in the picture based on what you can see?

a. The roof is being repaired.
b. She is repairing the roof.
c. She is having the roof repaired.

B. Grammar practice- Who did it?

Select who do you believe has done the action stated.

20. "I had my watch cleaned." Who cleaned my watch?

a. A friend
b. Someone else (the watchmaker)
c. I

21. "I made my new skirt." Who made my new skirt?

a. I
b. A friend
c. Someone else (the dressmaker)

22. "I changed the curtains of the living room." Who changed the curtains?

a. A friend
b. Someone else (the designer)
c. I

23. "I had my plants watered by a friend." Who watered the plants?

a. I
b. A friend
c. Someone else (the gardener)

24. "I had the central heating installed." Who installed the central heating?

a. A friend
b. Someone else (the technician)
c. I

25. "I had my lunch cooked by a friend." Who cooked my lunch?

a. Someone else (the cooker)
b. A friend
c. I

C. Grammar practice- Situations and contexts

Write ONE SENTENCE EACH according to the following situations and contexts.

26. Imagine you live in a house with a garden. The grass is quite long, and you need it to be shorter, so it looks nicer. You cannot do it yourself as you are not good at it and are quite busy. You call a gardener to come to your house and cut the grass for you. How would you describe the service performed for you from your own perspective (I) using ONE SENTENCE?

27. Imagine your house is old and you would like it to look better and seem newer. Therefore, you consider painting it, but you cannot do it yourself as you are not good at it and are quite

busy. You call a professional painter to come to your house and paint it for you. How would you describe the service performed for you from your own perspective (I) using ONE SENTENCE?

28. Imagine you see your old neighbor carrying four heavy bags and you help her because the elevator is not working, and she needs to use the staircase. How would you describe the service performed for her from your own perspective (I) using ONE SENTENCE?

29. Imagine your shoes are damaged, you have no money, so you want your old shoes to look like new. You cannot repair them yourself because you are not good at it and are quite busy. Therefore, you call a shoemaker to repair them for you. How would you describe the service performed for you from your own perspective (I) using ONE SENTENCE?

30. Imagine you have written a text, and you need to translate it into German. You do not know any German, so you call a professional translator to do it for you. How would you describe the service performed for you from your own perspective (I) using ONE SENTENCE?

31. Imagine your best friend's family has to go to a relative's funeral out of town. Your best friend's younger cousin is only two, so her parents prefer her to stay at home. You love kids and are free that day, so they ask you whether you could babysit her until they come back. How would you describe the service performed for them from your own perspective (I) using ONE SENTENCE?

D. Grammar practice- Fill the blanks.

Choose the appropriate form to complete the sentences.

32. At the hospital, I have my eyes _____.
a. test
b. testing
c. tested

33. Also, my sister _____ her wisdom teeth removed.
a. gets
b. get
c. lets

34. Moreover, my mother gets her body _____.
a. examine
b. examined
c. examining

35. Finally, my father _____ his blood pressure checked.
a. have
b. lets
c. has

36. At the saloon, I _____.
   a. apply the hair mask
   b. let the hair mask applied
   c. have the hair mask applied

37. However, my sister herself ____ at home.
   a. has already let the hair mask applied
   b. has already had the hair mask applied
   c. has already applied the hair mask

38. Yet, my mother _____ at the saloon like me.
   a. lets her skin treated
   b. has her skin treated
   c. treats her skin

39. On the contrary, my father himself _____ at home this morning.
   a. has already fixed his moustache
   b. has already let his moustache fixed
   c. has already had his moustache fixed

Appendix C. Informed Consent Form (in Catalan)

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

Formulari de consentiment informat

Títol Provisional del Treball de Fi de Màster: 'Have/get' causative teaching: traditional vs modern approaches. (L'ensenyament de la causativa amb 'have/get': mètodes tradicionals vs moderns) [CEIPSA-2024-TFM-0013]
Contacte de l'estudiant: Alícia Gual Miró – alicia.gual@estudiants.urv.cat +34646898381-43202 (Reus)

INFORMACIÓ SOBRE EL TRACTAMENT DE DADES PERSONALS

Dades: El responsable del tractament de les seves dades és la Universitat Rovira i Virgili amb CIF Q9350003A i l'adreça és carrer de l'Escorxador, s/n, 43003, Tarragona.

Finalitat: Les dades personals són tractades amb la finalitat de participar en el treball de Fi de Màster (TFM). En el cas que l'estudi prevegi la publicació, difusió i reutilització dels resultats obtinguts incloent dades personals, les dades personals seran utilitzades per a aquesta finalitat sempre que l'interessat hagi atorgat el seu consentiment. Les dades personals seran anonimitzades i que en cap cas es faran públiques de manera que puguin ser identificades.

Drets: L'interessat podrà exercir els drets d'accés, rectificació, cancel·lació, oposició, limitació i portabilitat mitjançant comunicació escrita, detallant motivadament la sol·licitud, adreçada al Registre General o mitjançant la seva presentació al Registre General de la Universitat, presencialment o telemàtica, segons s'indica a https://seuelectronica.urv.cat/registre.html.**I**

Informació addicional: Es pot trobar informació addicional sobre el processament de les dades personals al treball de Fi de Màster a la URV i sobre els seus drets al Registre de Processament de la URV, publicat a https://seuelectronica.urv.cat/rgpd, on també es pot trobar la Política de Privacitat de la URV. A banda, es pot trobar aquesta informació al document d'informació al participant en relació amb aquest estudi. A més a més, es pot preguntar als tècnics de protecció de dades qualsevol qüestió relacionada amb la protecció de dades personal enviant un correu a dpd@urv.cat.

1-Nom i cognoms i relació amb l'alumne

2- He llegit la còpia que he rebut sobre el document d'informació al participant en relació amb l'estudi. - He pogut preguntar i rebre resposta sobre els meus dubtes personals en relació amb l'estudi i la participació de l'alumne/a. - Entenc que l'alumne/a participi en aquest estudi segons les especificacions en el document d'informació al participant i segons les respostes que he rebut als meus dubtes i entenc els riscos i beneficis que aquest comporta. - Accepto que la participació de l'alumne/a és voluntària i dono el meu consentiment lliurement perquè així sigui.- Entenc que l'alumne pot retirar-se de l'estudi en qualsevol moment i que això no l'afectarà negativament de cap manera. -Una vegada s'hagi completat la recerca, les dades obtingudes poden ser d'interès per altres estudis relacionats. Considerant això, s'ofereixen les següents opcions:

a. NO AUTORITZO l´ús de les dades en altres estudis relacionats.

b. AUTORITZO l'ús de les dades en altres estudis relacionats.

3- Lloc i data

4- Escrivint el nom a l'espai de sota i enviant aquest formulari, està d'acord que l'alumne/a participi en aquest estudi.

Appendix D. Experimental group worksheet for the first session

THE CAUSATIVE

Clip 1:

Clip 2:

How is it used (use)?

Clip 3:

Clip 4:

Clip 5:

Clip 6:

How is it built (form)?

Appendix E. Eliciting questions template for the first session.

Session 1

ENHANCE USE (sth done to me)

- *I **get my nails done** every week.*
- *I **get my hair cut** once a week. It's mandatory.*

Watch these short clips about two people speaking about things that they do every week. (routine- present simple)

*What do they say? What actions are described by these people? (nails done; hair cut)

With Captions

*In the first clip, does the man do his hair himself? Does he go to the hairdresser?

*In the second clip, does the woman do her nails herself? Does she go to the salon?

ENHANCE FORM (have/get + object +past participle)

- *I just need to **get my house fixed**.*
- *And if you could **have your house built** out of any material in the world, what material would you want it made of?*

*Is there a common element in both videos? Which one? (The house)

*Which verbs are used before this element? (get and have) Which tense are they in? (infinitive) Why? (They come after 'to' or modal verb)

*Which verbs are used after this element? (fixed and built) Which tense are they in? (past participle)

*Who fixes or builds the house? (not mentioned but builders) and to whom? (To me and to you) Which position of the sentence are 'I' and 'you' found in? (subject) Therefore, which position is 'the house' found in? (object) [Think about WHAT is fixed or built.]

*Is the order of these three elements the same for both videos? Which is it? Write it down. Can you also recognize it in the following videos from 'Young Sheldon'?

- *Sheldon, lots of people **get their teeth pulled**. It's not a big deal.*
- *Sheldon, do you want to **have your fortune read**? Absolutely not.*

Appendix F. Eliciting questions template for the second session.

Session 2

**ENHANCE HAVE MEANING EXPERIENCE

- *I think it must be so hard to **have your heart broken** and fall in love all in a day or two.*
- *You ready? Honestly, I didn't think I'd be this nervous to **get my license renewed**, but…*
- *John Prosser **had his YouTube account hacked** today.*

*Which events are described in those clips? (heart broken, license renewed, YouTube account hacked)

*Which of them are positive (good) and which are negative (bad)? (license renewed is positive; heart broken and YouTube account hacked are negative)

*What do the negative ones have in common and is different from the positive one? (use of have vs get)

Guess the dialogue (context in the video to infer tenses)

- *I **had my ears pierced** the other day.*
- *I **had your jacket cleaned.***
- *(They may be) **getting their car fixed** or whatever it may be. (mended/repaired)*
- *I **get this big box delivered** and I open it up.*

Appendix G. Control group worksheet for the first session.

THE CAUSATIVE

When is it used (use)?

How is it built (form)?

Complete the following sentences using causatives structures with the verbs in the box in the appropriate tense.

fix	pull	do	read	cut	build

a) Every Friday I _____ my nails _____, so I am ready to go out over the weekend.

b) Now I am about to _____ my hair _____ and then I will go shopping.

c) Some burglars broke into my house last week and it was badly damaged. However, I will soon _____ my house _____.

d) The children's teeth have been hurting for a long time, so I decided to bring them to the dentist yesterday. The dentist said it definitely did not look good. So, I set an appointment and tomorrow they will _____ their teeth _____.

e) You have just got married and need a place to move in together. As you have no place to live in, you need to _____ a new house _____.

f) Hey! I am going to the neighborhood fair this weekend. There are plenty of things to do there, but I am especially interested in the tarot workshop. I cannot wait to know about my future! Do you also want to _____ your fortune _____?

Answers: a. have/get my nails done; b. have/get my hair cut; c. have/get my house fixed; d. have/get their teeth pulled; e. have/get a new house built; f. have/get your fortune read.

Appendix H. Experimental group worksheet for the second session.

THE CAUSATIVE

Clip 1:

Clip 2:

Clip 3:

Special case:

Clip 4:

Clip 5:

Clip 6:

Clip 7:

Appendix I. Control group worksheet for the second session.

THE CAUSATIVE

Special case:

Complete the following sentences using causatives structures with the verbs in the box in the appropriate tense.

renew	fix	break	pierce	deliver	clean	hack

a) I know love is not an easy thing and you still love him dearly. I am sorry you now _____ your heart _____ into a thousand pieces.
b) When I was younger, I really wanted to wear earrings like all my friends. So, I _____ my ears _____ and I have worn big earrings ever since!
c) I have been driving for ten years now, so it is time for me to _____ my license _____.
d) I went to the laundromat yesterday and I _____ your jacket _____ there.
e) He has lots of views on his channel, but he has recently _____ his YouTube account _____.
f) They were on a road trip last month when they had an accident. Luckily, nobody was injured but the car was severely damaged. They will soon _____ their car _____ so they do not need to buy a new one.
g) I need to be at home soon because I am about to _____ a big box _____ from Amazon.

Answers: a. have your heart broken; b. had/got my ears pierced; c. have/get my license renewed; d. had/got your jacket cleaned; e. had his YouTube account hacked; f. have/get their car fixed; g. have/get a big box delivered.

Appendix J. Post-questionnaire

Hello! Following the two sessions I conducted on March 13th and 14th about the causative, I'm interested in hearing your feedback. If you have any comments or recommendations, I would greatly appreciate them. It will not take you longer than 5 minutes. Thank you for your assistance and once again, thank you for all your efforts!

1. Please select the option that better matches your feelings and opinions.

Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I found the lessons easy and appropriate for my level.					
I understood the form and use of the causative.					
I can now identify a causative structure myself within a conversation.					
I can now produce a causative structure myself within a conversation.					
I feel more confident now in understanding and using causative structures.					
The clips showed helped to make the lessons more enjoyable.					
Subtitles on the clips were useful to understand them.					
The contexts of the clips were clear and helpful for me.					

Using clips from movies of TV shows helped me engage in the lesson.	
Writing down what I was taught helped me remember and organize my ideas better.	
The format and organization of the lessons were okay.	
Overall, I enjoyed the lessons.	
The time passed by quicker than in regular lessons (i.e., without clips).	
In general, I preferred the use of clips from movies and TV series to learn grammar rather than the teacher directly explaining grammatical items.	
I would like to have audiovisual clips incorporated into my English lessons regularly.	

2. Further comments.

Appendix K

Table 1. *Shapiro-Wilk test contingency table.*

Descriptive Statistics

	ExpPretest	ContrPretest
Valid	24	21
Missing	0	3
Mean	20.667	20.000
Std. Deviation	5.814	4.393
Shapiro-Wilk	0.923	0.942
P-value of Shapiro-Wilk	0.067	0.235
Minimum	11.000	13.000
Maximum	29.000	28.000

Appendix L

Table 2. *Repeated Measures ANOVA contingency table.*

Within Subjects Effects

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	η^2
Group	9.333	1	9.333	0.242	0.628	0.008
Residuals	770.167	20	38.508			
Testing	189.000	1	189.000	42.235	< .001	0.155
Residuals	89.500	20	4.475			
Group ∗ Testing	0.762	1	0.762	0.095	0.761	6.253×10^{-4}
Residuals	159.738	20	7.987			

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

Appendix M

Table 3. *Post Hoc test*

Post Hoc Comparisons - Group ✻ Testing

			95% CI for Mean Difference				
		Mean Difference	**Lower**	**Upper**	**SE**	**t**	**p_{tukey}**
Experimental, Pretest	Control, Pretest	-0.476	-4.701	3.749	1.488	-0.320	0.988
	Experimental, Posttest	-2.810	-4.957	-0.662	0.770	-3.647	0.004
	Control, Posttest	-3.667	-7.771	0.438	1.431	-2.563	0.075
Control, Pretest	Experimental, Posttest	-2.333	-6.438	1.771	1.431	-1.631	0.381
	Control, Posttest	-3.190	-5.338	-1.043	0.770	-4.142	0.001
Experimental, Posttest	Control, Posttest	-0.857	-5.082	3.368	1.488	-0.576	0.938

Note. P-value and confidence intervals adjusted for comparing a family of 6 estimates (confidence intervals corrected using the bonferroni method).

Appendix N

Table 4. *Paired samples t test experimental group contingency tables.*

Paired Samples T-Test

							95% CI for Cohen's d	
Measure 1	**Measure 2**	**t**	**df**	**p**	**Cohen's d**	**SE Cohen's d**	**Lower**	**Upper**
PretestExp	PosttestExp	-3.114	23	0.005	-0.636	0.139	-1.070	-0.190

Note. Student's t-test.

Descriptives

	N	**Mean**	**SD**	**SE**	**Coefficient of variation**
PretestExp	24	20.667	5.814	1.187	0.281
PosttestExp	24	22.958	5.812	1.186	0.253

Appendix O

Table 5. *Paired samples t test control group contingency tables.*

Paired Samples T-Test

							95% CI for Cohen's d	
Measure 1	**Measure 2**	**t**	**df**	**p**	**Cohen's d**	**SE Cohen's d**	**Lower**	**Upper**
PretestCont	PosttestCont	-4.142	20	< .001	-0.904	0.180	-1.406	-0.386

Note. Student's t-test.

Descriptives

	N	Mean	SD	SE	Coefficient of variation
PretestCont	21	20.000	4.393	0.959	0.220
PosttestCont	21	23.190	5.382	1.174	0.232

Appendix P

Table 6. *Data from the experimental group's pretest.*

Students	Activity 1: 5 pictures	Activity 2: 6 'who did it?'	Activity 3: 4 productions	Activity 4: 2 forms	Activity 4: 2 exceptions	Activity 4: 2 combined with reflexives	TOTAL /21	TOTAL /30 (9 fillers)
1	1	6	3	2	0	0	12	19
2	1	6	0	2	0	2	11	20
3	4	6	4	2	2	2	20	29
6	1	5	0	1	2	0	9	18
7	3	6	4	2	0	2	17	26
8	2	6	0	0	1	0	9	17
9	0	6	0	1	0	0	7	13
10	3	6	0	2	1	1	13	18
12	0	4	0	1	1	1	7	13
14	3	6	4	2	0	2	17	26
15	4	6	4	2	1	2	19	28
16	2	6	0	0	1	1	10	17
17	2	5	4	2	0	2	15	23
18	2	3	0	1	1	2	9	13
19	1	6	0	0	1	0	8	16
20	1	6	0	1	1	1	10	18
21	1	6	4	1	1	2	15	23
22	1	6	0	1	1	1	10	16
25	4	6	4	1	1	2	18	26
26	0	4	0	0	0	1	5	11
27	0	5	4	2	1	0	12	20
28	5	6	4	2	1	2	20	29
29	4	6	4	2	1	2	19	28
30	4	6	4	2	2	2	20	29

Appendix Q

Table 7. *Data from the experimental group's posttest.*

Students	Activity 1: 5 pictures	Activity 2: 6 'who did it?'	Activity 3: 4 productions	Activity 4: 2 forms	Activity 4: 2 exceptions	Activity 4: 2 combined with reflexives	Total /21	Total /30 (9 fillers)
1	3	6	3	2	0	2	16	24
2	3	6	0	2	1	2	14	19
3	5	6	4	2	2	2	21	30
6	5	6	2	0	2	1	16	25
7	5	6	4	2	1	2	20	29
8	5	6	4	0	1	2	18	18
9	3	6	0	0	0	1	10	15
10	5	6	4	2	2	2	21	28
12	1	5	0	1	1	0	8	9
14	4	6	4	2	0	2	18	26
15	5	6	4	2	1	2	20	29
16	5	6	3	1	0	1	16	22
17	5	6	4	2	0	1	18	26
18	2	1	0	1	1	1	6	12
19	2	6	4	0	1	0	13	20
20	1	6	0	1	0	2	10	19
21	2	6	4	2	1	1	16	24
22	5	5	3	2	0	2	17	23
25	5	6	4	2	0	2	19	26
26	1	6	0	0	0	2	9	16
27	5	6	4	2	2	2	21	29
28	4	6	4	2	2	2	20	29
29	2	6	4	2	0	2	16	25
30	5	6	4	2	0	2	19	28

Appendix R

Table 8. *Data from the control group's pretest.*

Students	Activity 1: 5 pictures	Activity 2: 6 'who did it?'	Activity 3: 4 productions	Activity 4: 2 forms	Activity 4: 2 exceptions	Activity 4: 2 combined with reflexives	Total /21	Total /30 (9 fillers)
1	2	6	2	2	1	2	15	23
2	0	6	4	1	2	1	14	23
3	0	5	1	2	2	1	11	18
4	2	4	0	0	1	0	7	13
5	3	4	0	1	2	1	11	19
6	0	5	0	2	2	0	9	18
7	2	3	0	0	0	1	6	14
8	3	6	4	2	2	1	18	27
9	0	6	0	1	0	0	7	16
10	1	5	0	2	1	1	10	16
11	5	6	0	1	2	1	15	23
12	1	6	0	2	1	2	12	19
13	2	6	4	2	1	1	16	24
14	0	6	0	0	0	0	6	15
16	0	6	4	2	2	2	16	23
17	1	6	0	2	1	0	10	18
18	0	6	0	0	2	1	9	14
19	4	6	4	2	1	2	19	28
23	3	6	4	1	1	1	16	23
27	5	6	0	2	1	1	15	22
28	0	6	4	2	2	2	16	24

Appendix S

Table 9. *Data from the control group's posttest.*

Students	Activity 1: 5 pictures	Activity 2: 6 'who did it?'	Activity 3: 4 productions	Activity 4: 2 forms	Activity 4: 2 exceptions	Activity 4: 2 combined with reflexives	Total /21	Total /30 (9 fillers)
1	5	6	4	2	1	2	20	29
2	3	6	4	2	2	2	19	27
3	1	5	4	2	2	2	16	20
4	1	5	0	0	0	2	8	13
5	4	6	0	1	2	1	14	22
6	3	6	4	2	2	2	19	26
7	4	4	0	2	0	1	11	20
8	5	6	4	2	2	2	21	30
9	4	5	4	2	2	2	19	24
10	4	6	4	2	2	2	20	27
11	4	6	0	2	2	1	15	23
12	0	6	4	2	0	2	14	16
13	0	6	4	2	1	2	15	23
14	1	5	0	0	0	2	8	15
16	3	6	4	2	2	2	19	28
17	0	6	0	1	2	1	10	18
18	3	5	1	1	2	2	14	16
19	5	6	4	2	2	2	21	30
23	5	6	4	2	2	2	21	29
27	5	6	0	2	1	1	15	22
28	4	6	4	2	2	2	20	29

Appendix T

Table 10. *Data from the comprehension and usage category in the postquestionnaire.*

A-Strongly Agree; B- Agree; C- Neutral; D- Disagree; E- Strongly Disagree

Students	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
1	A	A	A	A	A
2	B	B	A	B	D
3	B	B	B	B	B
4	A	A	A	A	A
5	A	A	A	A	A
6	A	B	B	A	A
7	A	B	B	B	B
8	A	A	A	B	B
9	A	A	A	A	A
10	B	D	B	B	D
11	B	A	B	D	C
12	B	B	C	B	B
13	B	D	D	E	D
14	A	B	B	C	B
15	A	A	B	A	A
16	A	A	A	A	A
17	B	B	B	C	B
18	A	A	B	B	B
19	B	A	B	B	C
20	A	A	A	A	A
21	A	A	A	B	A
22	A	A	B	B	B
23	B	B	B	B	B
24	B	B	B	C	B
Total for each question	14 A 10 B	13 A 9 B 2 D	9 A 13 B 1 C 1 D	8 A 11 B 3 C 1 D 1 E	9 A 10 B 2 C 3 D
Total for the whole category			53 A; 53 B; 6 C; 7 D; 1 E		

Appendix U

Table 11. *Data from the motivation category in the postquestionnaire.*

A-Strongly Agree; B- Agree; C- Neutral; D- Disagree; E- Strongly Disagree

Students	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10
1	A	A	A	A	A
2	B	A	A	B	C
3	A	A	A	A	A
4	A	A	A	A	A
5	A	A	A	A	A
6	A	A	B	A	A
7	A	A	A	A	A
8	A	A	A	A	A
9	A	A	A	B	A
10	A	A	D	A	A
11	B	B	E	B	D
12	B	B	A	A	C
13	B	A	A	B	B
14	A	A	A	A	A
15	B	A	C	B	A
16	A	A	A	A	A
17	D	B	C	C	B
18	A	A	B	A	A
19	C	B	C	C	B
20	A	A	A	A	C
21	A	A	A	A	A
22	A	A	A	A	A
23	A	A	B	B	B
24	B	C	B	C	B
Total for each question	16 A 6 B 1 C 1 D	19 A 4 B 1 C	15 A 4 B 3 C 1 D 1 E	15 A 6 B 3 C	15 A 5 B 3 C 1 D
Total for the whole category	80 A; 25 B; 11 C; 3 D; 1 E				

Appendix V

Table 12. *Data from the enjoyability category in the postquestionnaire.*

A-Strongly Agree; B- Agree; C- Neutral; D- Disagree; E- Strongly Disagree

Students	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15
1	A	A	A	A	A
2	C	A	A	A	B
3	B	A	B	A	A
4	A	A	A	A	A
5	A	A	A	A	A
6	B	B	B	C	B
7	A	A	A	A	A
8	A	A	B	A	A
9	A	A	A	A	A
10	D	B	B	B	B
11	C	A	B	A	B
12	B	C	B	A	B
13	B	C	C	A	C
14	B	B	C	B	C
15	B	A	A	B	A
16	A	A	A	A	A
17	B	C	C	C	C
18	B	A	A	A	A
19	A	B	B	A	B
20	B	B	A	A	A
21	A	A	A	A	A
22	A	B	B	B	B
23	B	B	C	A	A
24	C	C	C	C	C
Total for each question	10 A 10 B 3 C 1 D	13 A 7 B 4 C	11 A 8 B 5 C	17 A 4 B 3 C	13 A 7 B 4 C
Total for the whole category	64 A; 36 B; 19 C; 1 D				

Appendix W

Table 13. *Qualitative data from the postquestionnaire.*

- It was a very interesting activity!
- good experience
- It was such a great time, we had learned many things and it wasn't like the type of boring classes, it wasn't that bad really
- I think she did an incredible work with us, she controlled the class perfectly but at the same time she knew how to make the class dynamic and that helped a lot not just to understand what she was explaining to us also to pay atention to the whole hour of class, the videos helped a lot and the way she explained the grammar was way easier than a regular class, so yes, you did an incredible work Alicia, thanks a lot, you will be a really good teacher.
- I think it was an entertaining way of learning.

Appendix X

Table 14. *Chi Square Goodness of Fit for understanding and usage contingency tables.*

Multinomial Test

	χ^2	df	p
Multinomial	117.667	4	< .001

Descriptives

			95% Confidence Interval	
Likert	Observed	Expected: Multinomial	Lower	Upper
A Strongly Agree	53	24.000	42.133	64.221
B Agree	53	24.000	42.133	64.221
C Neutral	6	24.000	2.228	12.678
D Disagree	7	24.000	2.853	13.980
E Strongly Disagree	1	24.000	0.025	5.467

Note. Confidence intervals are based on independent binomial distributions.

Appendix Y

Table 15. *Chi Square Goodness of Fit for motivation contingency tables.*

Multinomial Test

	χ^2	df	p
Multinomial	178.167	4	< .001

Descriptives

			95% Confidence Interval	
Likert	**Observed**	**Expected: Multinomial**	**Lower**	**Upper**
A Strongly Agree	80	24.000	68.979	90.008
B Agree	25	24.000	16.751	35.039
C Neutral	11	24.000	5.598	18.972
D Disagree	3	24.000	0.622	8.559
E Strongly Disagree	1	24.000	0.025	5.467

Note. Confidence intervals are based on independent binomial distributions.

Appendix Z

Table 16. *Chi Square Goodness of Fit for enjoyability contingency tables.*

Multinomial Test

	χ^2	df	p
Multinomial	119.750	4	< .001

Descriptives

			95% Confidence Interval	
Likert	Observed	Expected: Multinomial	Lower	Upper
A Strongly Agree	64	24.000	52.807	74.991
B Agree	36	24.000	26.371	46.848
C Neutral	19	24.000	11.772	28.340
D Disagree	1	24.000	0.025	5.467
E Strongly Disagree	0	24.000	0.000	3.633

Note. Confidence intervals are based on independent binomial distributions.