

**AUDIOVISUAL PROGRAMS AS AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE
INPUT FOR SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION IN INFORMAL
SETTINGS**

TAHER BAHRANI

**THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

2013

UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA

ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

Name of Candidate: **Taher Bahrani** (Passport No: U18096604)

Registration/Matric No: **THA100011**

Name of Degree: **Doctor of Philosophy**

Title of ~~Project Paper/Research Report/Dissertation/Thesis~~ ("this Work"):

**Audiovisual Programs as Authentic Language Input for Second Language
Acquisition in Informal Settings**

Field of Study: **Language Learning and Assessment**

I do solemnly and sincerely declare that:

- (1) I am the sole author/writer of this Work;
- (2) This Work is original;
- (3) Any use of any work in which copyright exists was done by way of fair dealing and for permitted purposes and any excerpt or extract from, or reference to or reproduction of any copyright work has been disclosed expressly and sufficiently and the title of the Work and its authorship have been acknowledged in this Work;
- (4) I do not have any actual knowledge nor do I ought reasonably to know that the making of this work constitutes an infringement of any copyright work;
- (5) I hereby assign all and every rights in the copyright to this Work to the University of Malaya ("UM"), who henceforth shall be owner of the copyright in this Work and that any reproduction or use in any form or by any means whatsoever is prohibited without the written consent of UM having been first had and obtained;
- (6) I am fully aware that if in the course of making this Work I have infringed any copyright whether intentionally or otherwise, I may be subject to legal action or any other action as may be determined by UM.

Candidate's Signature

Date

Subscribed and solemnly declared before,

Witness's Signature

Date

Name: **Dr. Tam Shu Sim**

Designation: **Supervisor**

ABSTRACT

For second language acquisition (SLA), having access to language input is critical. Although the theories of SLA attach different importance to the role of language input, they all acknowledge the need for it (Ellis, 2008). Learners of English as a second (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL) are always encouraged to avail themselves of all forms of authentic language input within the classroom and beyond. In contexts with limited social interaction in the English language, however, various audiovisual technologies are available to be utilized as sources of authentic language input for enhancing language learning in both formal and informal learning settings. Although the growth of audiovisual applications and their rapid development in transforming the process of learning is unbelievable (Mayya, 2007), the empirical evidence to support the use of audiovisual technologies on the language development of learners is not much. This research was aimed to fill this gap to provide the empirical evidence on the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input in informal settings on the language proficiency development of learners. Additionally, the study was interested to investigate the effectiveness of this exposure on the language learners of different levels of language proficiency. To this end, a quantitative research design was employed utilizing a pre-post tests design, an adapted survey design and a factorial design. 75 language learners majoring in teaching of English as a second language (TESL) were assigned to three language proficiency levels based on their scores on an IELTS (parallel) pre-test: low (N=25), intermediate (N=25), and upper-intermediate (N=25) levels. The instruments for data collection were a self-report sheet and a set of parallel IELTS (equivalent) pre-post tests. During the 16-week study, all the participants were asked to record the amount and type of exposure of their preferred audiovisual program(s) in a self-report sheet. The data obtained from the self-report sheets indicated that the intermediate and upper-intermediate participants

preferred movies and news broadcast more than the other audiovisual programs while the low level participants preferred cartoons. Moreover, the results of the post-test indicated that the intermediate and the upper-intermediate language learners showed significant improvement in their language proficiency, while, this for the low level language proficiency learners who revealed an improvement, was not statistically significant. In relation to the type and amount of exposure to the various audiovisual programs as sources of language input to develop SLA in both EFL and ESL contexts, the findings support the importance of choice of authentic audiovisual input which has a more significant impact on language development compared to the amount of exposure. These findings have pedagogical implications for the selection of audiovisual programs for the different levels of language proficiency for second language learning and acquisition.

ABSTRAK

Untuk pemerolehan bahasa kedua (SLA), akses kepada input bahasa adalah kritikal. Walaupun teori SLA memberi kepentingan yang berbeza kepada peranan input bahasa, mereka semua mengakui keperluan untuk ia (Ellis, 2008). Pelajar bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa kedua (ESL) atau bahasa asing (EFL) sentiasa digalakkan untuk mengambil kesempatan yang diberi dalam segala bentuk input bahasa sah dalam dan luar bilik darjah. Dalam konteks di mana interaksi sosial adalah terhad dalam bahasa Inggeris, pelbagai teknologi audiovisual sedia ada untuk digunakan sebagai sumber input bahasa sah untuk meningkatkan pembelajaran bahasa dalam konteks formal dan tidak formal. Walaupun pembangunan aplikasi audiovisual adalah secara pesat (Mayya, 2007), bukti empirik untuk menyokong penggunaan teknologi audiovisual kepada pembangunan bahasa pelajar adalah kurang. Kajian ini bertujuan mendapat bukti empirikal mengenai keberkesanan pendedahan kepada pelbagai program audiovisual sebagai sumber input bahasa sah dalam konteks informal untuk peningkatan penguasaan bahasa pelajar. Selain itu, kajian ini adalah berminat untuk menyiasat keberkesanan pendedahan ini kepada pelajar tahap penguasaan bahasa yang berbeza. Untuk tujuan ini, reka bentuk penyelidikan kuantitatif telah digunakan menggunakan reka bentuk ujian pra-post, satu kaji selidik disesuaikan reka bentuk dan reka bentuk faktorial. 75 pelajar bahasa pengkhususan dalam pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa kedua (TESL) telah diberikan kepada 3 tahap penguasaan bahasa berdasarkan skor mereka pada IELTS (selari) pra-ujian: rendah ($N = 25$), pertengahan ($N = 25$), dan atas pengantara ($N = 25$) tahap. Instrumen untuk pengumpulan data adalah jurnal laporan diri dan satu set selari peperiksaan IELTS sebagai ujian 'pre-post'. Semasa kajian 16 minggu, semua peserta telah diminta untuk merekodkan jumlah dan jenis pendedahan program pilihan audiovisual mereka (s) dalam jurnal laporan diri. Data yang diperolehi dari jurnal laporan diri menunjukkan bahawa filem dan berita siaran

menjadi pilihan peserta pertengahan dan pertengahan atas pengantara lebih digemari oleh peserta pertengahan dan pertengahan atas dibandingkan dengan program audiovisual yang lain manakala peserta tahap rendah memilih kartun. Selain itu, keputusan ujian 'post' menunjukkan bahawa peserta tahap pertengahan dan pertengahan atas menunjukkan peningkatan yang ketara dalam penguasaan bahasa mereka. Sementara itu, pelajar tahap rendah walaupun mendapat pendedahan yang paling banyak, tidak dapat keputusan statistik yang signifikan. Penemuan penyelidikan ini menunjukkan bahawa dengan mengambil kira jenis dan jumlah pendedahan kepada pelbagai program audiovisual sebagai sumber input bahasa untuk membangunkan SLA dalam kedua-dua konteks ESL dan EFL, pilihan input audiovisual mempunyai kesan yang lebih besar ke atas pembangunan bahasa berbanding dengan jumlah pendedahan. Penemuan ini mempunyai implikasi pedagogi untuk pemilihan program audiovisual untuk pelbagai peringkat penguasaan bahasa untuk pembelajaran dan pemerolehan bahasa kedua. Sehingga kini, penemuan penyelidikan berkaitan diterbitkan dalam empat ISI jurnal berindeks.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am happy to have the opportunity to thank all those who helped and supported me on this exciting journey of challenges and personal growth. Above all, I extend my heartfelt gratitude to my thesis supervisor Dr. Tam Shu Sim for her extensive knowledge, professional commitment, moral support, prompt feedback and most able editorial eye. She has been my true academic guru and my indispensable sounding board for a number of years, without whom this dissertation would not have been completed. I also appreciate my supervisor whose insights led to the following *ISI indexed publications related to my thesis*:

1. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2012). The effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input on second language acquisition in informal settings. *Southern African linguistics and applied linguistics studies* 30 (3): will be online in late December 2012 (ISI-cited)
2. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2012). Audiovisual News, Cartoons, and Films as Authentic Language Input and Language proficiency Development. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology* 11 (4): 56-64. (ISI-cited)
3. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2012). Informal Language Learning Setting: Technology or Social Interaction? *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology* 11 (2): 142-149. (ISI-cited)
4. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2011). Technology and language learning: Exposure to TV and radio news and speaking proficiency. *Kritika Kultura* (17): 144-160. (ISI-cited)

I am grateful to the proposal and candidature defense panels without whose comments I could not have received further input for this thesis. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Hamid Nilsaz Dezfouli who offered me valuable feedback in terms of statistical analysis. I am also grateful to all the participants in my study without their help I would not have been able to gather the necessary data for my research.

Last but not least I would like to thank my wife for her continuous support and patience as well as my little son.

DEDICATION

*To my dear late father and mother to whom I owe my
entire life and success. . .*

I am deprived of having the opportunity to see my parents' happiness at this moment because of the unpleasant fact that they passed away few years ago. Nevertheless, I have always felt them accompanying me during every moment of this particular journey and every juncture of my entire life. I can feel their satisfaction, pleasure and happiness now. Without their blessing, I can do nothing...

I also dedicate this work to my dear wife who encouraged me and supported me in every aspect of this journey. Without her support, I might not have been able to achieve this success so easily. The last but not the least is my dear son who gave me motivation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Original Literary Work Declaration	ii
Abstract	iii
Abstrak	v
Acknowledgement	vii
Dedication	viii
Table of contents	ix
 Chapter one: Introduction	
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background and rational	1
1.3 Statement of the problem	6
1.4 Purpose of the study	7
1.5 Research questions	9
1.6 Significance of the study	10
1.7 Limitations of the study	11
1.8 Conclusion	13
 Chapter two: Literature review	
2.1 Introduction	15
2.2 Language input and second language acquisition	16
2.2.1 The role of input in second language acquisition	16
2.2.2 Krashen's input hypothesis and second language acquisition	22
2.2.3 Critiques of the input hypothesis	23
2.3 Sources of language input	28
2.3.1 Informal and formal language learning settings	28
2.3.2 Sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts	31

2.3.3 Authentic language input	33
2.3.3.1 Defining authenticity	33
2.3.3.2 Sources of authentic language input in EFL/ES contexts	34
2.3.3.3 Benefits and drawbacks in using authentic materials	35
2.4 Audiovisual technologies as sources of authentic language input	39
2.5 Related studies on various types of audiovisual programs	46
as sources of authentic language input	
2.5.1 Audiovisual news as authentic sources of language learning	46
and language learning	
2.5.2 Movies as a source of authentic language input and language	52
learning	
2.5.3 Singing shows as a source of authentic language input and	56
language learning	
2.5.4 Cartoons as a source of authentic language input and	58
language learning	
2.5.5 Comedies (series) as a source of authentic language input and	60
language learning	
2.6 Conclusion	62
 Chapter three: Methodology	
3.1 Introduction	66
3.2 Research questions	67
3.3 Variables	67
3.4 Design of the research	68
3.4.1 Survey design	68
3.4.2 Pre-test and post-test design	69

3.4.3 Ex post facto design (factorial design)	70
3.5 Participants	71
3.6 Instruments	72
3.6.1 IELTS language proficiency test	72
3.6.2 Self-report sheet	72
3.7 Research site	72
3.8 Pilot study	73
3.9 Data collection procedure	78
3.9.1 Pre-study selection and pre-test	79
3.9.2 Data obtained from the self-report sheet	81
3.9.3 Data obtained from the post-test	83
3.10 Data analysis procedure	83
3.11 Conclusion	86
 Chapter four: Results and discussion	
4.1 Introduction	87
4.2 Research question 1	87
4.2.1 All the participants' preferred type of audiovisual program	88
4.2.2 Low language proficiency level participants' preference	91
4.2.3 Intermediate language proficiency level participants' preference	94
4.2.4 Upper-intermediate language proficiency level participants' preference	97
4.2.5 Summary of the findings for the first research question	100
4.3 Research question 2	101
4.3.1 Language proficiency improvement of all the participants	102
4.3.2 Language proficiency improvement of the low level participants	104

4.3.3 Language proficiency improvement of the intermediate level participants	109
4.3.4 Language proficiency improvement of the upper-intermediate level participants	113
4.3.5 The highest significant language proficiency development	119
4.3.6 Summary of the findings for the second research question	122
4.4 Research question 3	125
4.4.1 The correlations for the data of all the participants	126
4.4.2 The correlations for the low language proficiency level	130
4.4.3 The correlations for the intermediate language proficiency level	137
4.4.4 The correlations for the upper-intermediate language proficiency level	140
4.4.5 Summary of the findings for the third research question	144
4.5 Research question 4	146
4.5.1 Improvement across all the skills for all the participants	146
4.5.2 Improvement across all the skills for the low language proficiency level	149
4.5.3 Improvement across all the skills for the intermediate language proficiency level	151
4.5.4 Improvement across all the skills for the upper-intermediate language proficiency level	154
4.5.5 Summary of the findings for the fourth research question	157
4.6 Discussion	158
4.6.1 All the participants	158
4.6.2 The low language proficiency level	161
4.6.3 The intermediate language proficiency level	167

4.6.4 The upper-intermediate language proficiency level	170
 Chapter five: Conclusion	
5.1 Introduction	174
5.2 Summary of the findings	175
5.3 Conclusions and implications	178
5.3.1 Conclusions	178
5.3.2 Implication for SLA theory	180
5.3.3 Implication for pedagogy	182
5.4 Suggestions for further studies	184
 Bibliography	 240

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: The relationships between independent, moderator, and dependent variables	187
Appendix B: Weekly self-report sheet	188
Appendix C: Weekly self-report sheet (second version)	189
Appendix D: Consent form	190
Appendix E: Low level learners' amount and the type of exposure to various audiovisual programs during the 16-week period of the research	191
Appendix F: Intermediate level learners' amount and the type of exposure to various audiovisual programs during the 16 weeks period of the research	192
Appendix G: Upper-intermediate level learners' amount and the type of exposure to various audiovisual programs during the 16 weeks period of the research	193
Appendix H: The two sample IELTS language proficiency tests	194

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Gass and Selinker's model (1994) for second language acquisition	20
Figure 2.2: Ellis's model (1997) for second language acquisition	21
Figure 2.3: Graphic representation of the distinctions between formal and informal language learning in terms of setting and instruction	30
Figure 2.4: Graphic representation of authentic language input for SLA in informal language learning setting in EFL and ESL contexts	65
Figure 4.1: All the participants' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs	90
Figure 4.2: The low level participants' mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs	93
Figure 4.3: The intermediate level participants' mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs	96
Figure 4.4: The upper-intermediate participants' mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs	99
Figure 4.5: The graphic representation of the low language learners' pre-post tests scores	105
Figure 4.6: The graphic representation of the intermediate language learners' pre-post tests scores	111
Figure 4.7: The graphic representation of the upper-intermediate language learners' pre-post tests scores	115
Figure 4.8: The trend of the rate of increase in pre-post tests scores in all proficiency groups	121
Figure 4.9: The percentage of the time spent by the low level participants on watching the same or different segments of cartoons	133

Figure 4.10: The percentage of the time spent by the low level participants on watching the same or different segments of documentary films	135
Figure 4.11: The percentage of the time spent by the intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of movies	139
Figure 4.12: The percentage of the time spent by the intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of news	140
Figure 4.13: The percentage of the time spent by the upper-intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of movies	143
Figure 4.14: The percentage of the time spent by the upper-intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of news	143
Figure 4.15: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by all the participants in the pre-post tests	149
Figure 4.16: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by the low level language learners in the pre-post tests	150
Figure 4.17: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by the intermediate level language learners in the pre-post tests	153

of the four skills obtained by the upper- intermediate level
language learners in the pre-post tests

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Descriptive statistics related to the administration of the both tests to the same group	74
Table 3.2: Reliability statistics related to the two parallel tests	76
Table 3.3: The relationships between the designs, the instruments, and the research questions	84
Table 4.1: All the participants' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs	89
Table 4.2: The total amount of time spent by the participants watching different audiovisual programs during the period of the study (according to proficiency levels)	91
Table 4.3: The low level language learners' amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs	93
Table 4.4: The intermediate level language learners' amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs	96
Table 4.5: The upper-intermediate level language learners' amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs	98
Table 4.6: Participants' preferred types of audiovisual programs: All and the three language proficiency levels	100
Table 4.7: The descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the pre-post tests for all the participants	103
Table 4.8: The descriptive analysis of the paired-sample t-test for the data of all the participants	103
Table 4.9: The low level language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores	104

Table 4.10: Descriptive analysis of the paired-sample t-test for the low level language learners' data	105
Table 4.11: The intermediate language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores	110
Table 4.12: Descriptive analysis of the paired-sample t-test for the intermediate level language learners' data	110
Table 4.13: The upper-intermediate level language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores	114
Table 4.14: Descriptive analysis of the paired-sample t-test for the upper-intermediate level language learners' data	114
Table 4.15: Descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests mean band scores of the low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate levels	120
Table 4.16: Descriptive analysis of the paired-sample t-test for all participants and the three differentiated proficiency levels	123
Table 4.17: Guilford's rule of thumb for interpreting pearson correlation coefficient	126
Table 4.18: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of all the participants	127
Table 4.19: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of the low level proficiency group	131
Table 4.20: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of the intermediate level proficiency group	137

Table 4.21: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of the upper-intermediate level proficiency group	141
Table 4.22: The correlation coefficient between the various types of Audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of all the participants and the three differentiated proficiency levels	144
Table 4.23: All participants' means and standard deviations for the pre-tes, post-test, and the improvement results	147
Table 4.24: Bonferroni post hoc test for comparing the mean improvement of all the participants	148
Table 4.25: The low level participants' means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results	150
Table 4.26: The intermediate level participants' means and standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results	151
Table 4.27: Bonferroni post hoc test for comparing the mean improvement of the intermediate level participants	152
Table 4.28: The upper-intermediate level participants' means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results	155
Table 4.29: Bonferroni post hoc test for comparing the mean improvement of the upper-intermediate participants	155
Table 4.30: The most improved language skill for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels	157

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Authentic Language Input: It refers to a type of language input which has not been initially produced for language learning purposes.

Audiovisual Programs: In this study, news, movies, documentary films, singing shows, cartoons, talk shows, game shows, series, speeches, and sports programs are considered as various types of audiovisual programs.

Audiovisual Technologies: In the present research audiovisual technologies refers to those technologies which can provide simultaneous access to both video and audio such as TV, CDs/DVDs, Mobile audiovisual tools, and computers.

Cartoons: It is most often used with reference to TV programs and short films for children featuring anthropomorphized animals, superheroes, the adventures of child protagonists and related genres.

Documentary films: It constitutes a broad category of nonfictional motion pictures intended to document some aspect of reality. Documentary films cover various topics such as science, technology, economy, and policy.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Context: It refers to a context where English language is not the medium of instruction at universities and communication in the society.

English as a Second Language (ESL) Context: It refers to a context where English language is the medium of instruction at universities and communication in the society.

Formal language learning settings: It refers to situations when/where language is taught to a group of people consciously.

Game shows: The terminology refers to types of shows in which contestants compete for prizes by playing games of knowledge or chance.

Informal language learning settings: It refers to language learning situations where learning takes place unconsciously. In fact, it takes place in situations where learning is not the focus.

Movies: Movies are fictional motion pictures which follow a story and have different types such as family, comedy, horror, action, and so on.

News: News are the communication of selected information on current events which is presented by broadcast and the Internet.

Series: Series are daily or weekly programs with the same cast, format and a continuing story such as a soap opera, situation comedy, or drama.

Sports programs: These types of programs are concerned with various sports events.

Talk shows: They are shows in which notably people such as authorities in a particular field participate in discussions or are interviewed and often answer questions from viewers or listeners.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA): It refers to acquiring a language other than the first language.

Singing shows: They are shows which broadcast various types of songs by different singers.

Speeches: They are talks or public addresses usually by one person to a group of people about political, economic, social or other issues.

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This initial chapter aims at providing the background and the rationale for the study framed within the field of second language acquisition (SLA). It further delineates the role of audiovisual technologies as potential sources of authentic language input for the development of SLA in formal as well as informal language learning settings. This chapter also consists of the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, and the significance of the study. The limitations of the study are also explained.

1.2 Background and the rationale

There are many internal as well as external factors which influence SLA. Among them, the language input that learners receive in SLA is one of the external factors which plays a fundamental role. Corder (1967) is one of the pioneers among SLA researchers who underscored the importance of language input for SLA by drawing a distinction between input and intake. Following Corder (1967) and among the pool of researchers, Long (1982) noted that comprehended input rather than comprehensible input constitutes the primary data for SLA. Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987) also stated that the primary data for SLA come from language input.

While the importance and the role of language input have been advocated by various theories of language learning, there has been a controversy over the extent of its importance. According to Ellis (1994; 2008), although SLA theories attach different importance to the role of language input in language acquisition, they all acknowledge

the need for language input. In fact, what has been changed in relation to the role of input in language learning from the viewpoint of various language learning theories is the conceptualization of how language input is processed by language learners (Doughty & Long, 2003).

In view of the above, Gass (1997) considered the role of language input in the input-interaction model, the input hypothesis, the universal grammar model, and the information processing model which treat the role of language input in different ways. Ellis (2008) also considered the role of language input in SLA based on behaviorist, mentalist, and interactionist theories of language learning. Other theories that underscore the important role of language input in SLA are the information processing and skill-acquisition theories (Nassaji & Fotos, 2010).

Besides the role of language input in SLA which has been considered from the perspectives of different language learning theories and models, language input has also been given the initial role to provide the necessary data for SLA in some frameworks. In a similar view, Gass and Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) introduced two theoretical frameworks for SLA with an initial focus on language input. Although both frameworks attach the initial importance to language input for SLA, they differ in the number of input processing stages. Besides, neither of them provided further details about the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the type of language input for SLA.

In relation to the type of language input which can constitute the primary data for SLA, Krashen (1982) claimed that language acquisition can happen in formal and informal language learning settings only if language learners are directly involved in intensive exposure to a type of language input which is comprehensible. In contrast to this claim,

other researchers considered comprehended input (Gass, 1988, 1997) incomprehensible input (White, 1987), and comprehensible output (Swain, 1985) to provide the necessary language input for SLA. The conclusion that can be inferred from Krashen's input hypothesis and his critiques' concerns is that some type of language input is required for SLA to take place in formal and informal language learning settings and the importance of language input for SLA is not questioned.

The difference between formal and informal language learning is largely in terms of the settings of the learning (in-or-outside the class environments), and instruction which refers to form-focused or meaning focused-instruction (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal setting is considered as the context in which language learners are exposed to the target language at school, home, and work where the focus is on the meaning whereas formal setting is considered as the context where the target language is being taught to a group of second or foreign language learners and the focus is rather on the form (Lightbown & Spada, 2001). Accordingly, formal language learning takes place in the class environment but informal language learning, mostly, takes place out of the class environment.

However, it should be borne in mind that informal language learning can also occur in a class setting when the focus is not on the form of the language but on the meaning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). In this relation, Krashen (1981) also noted that while formal language learning is directly aimed at increasing conscious linguistic knowledge (focus on form), informal learning (focus on meaning) may also occur. In fact, the classroom may serve as a source of language input for informal learning when peers interact with each other. The interaction between the peers in the classrooms is a source

of language input for informal learning when the focus is on the meaning rather than the form.

In view of the above, whether language acquisition is to take place in formal or informal language learning settings, in English as a second language context (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) context, language learners need to have exposure to some form of language input. In fact, language acquisition simply cannot take place in a vacuum without considering having exposure to some sort of language input (Gass, 1997). In other words, for second language acquisition to occur, language input in both EFL and ESL contexts should not be neglected.

English is dominantly spoken or is one of the official languages in an ESL context. Language learners can make use of social interaction as a source of language input to acquire the language in an informal setting (Rogers, 2004). Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis emphasizes that conversational interaction enhances SLA. Particularly, in a native-nonnative interaction, negotiation of meaning as a component of interaction triggers interactional adjustments by the native speaker or more proficient interlocutor to provide opportunities for SLA.

In contrast, in an EFL context, social interaction in English is very limited or does not exist as a source of language input in informal settings. English is considered as a foreign language rather than a second language in this context. As a result, English is not used as a medium of communication or for other purposes in society. Indeed, English is only used by language learners in formal language learning setting at schools, universities or language institutes. Nevertheless, different audiovisual technologies are

available in both EFL and ESL contexts that make access to authentic language input in formal as well as informal language learning settings possible.

Taylor (1994) describes the different types of authenticity as falling into three categories, namely (i) authenticity of the task, (ii) authenticity of language input, and (iii) authenticity of the situation. Taylor (1994) defines authentic language input as any material in English which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching/learning. Gilmore (2007) also considers authentic language input to be language conveying a real message which is produced by a real speaker or writer. In the same way, Nunan (1999) also defines authentic language materials as written or spoken material that has been produced in real communication and not explicitly produced for the purpose of language teaching.

In the last few years, various audiovisual technologies such as computers, mobile tools, and audiovisual mass media have dominated the world. Massive developments in showing and sharing a variety of audiovisual programs provide the language teachers with sources of authentic language input to construct activities for language learning. These activities range from providing the learners with different programs, related videos, and virtual conversations in real-time in formal and informal language learning settings (Bedjou, 2006; Bell, 2003; Chinnery, 2005; Ishihara & Chi, 2004; Salaberry, 2001). Indeed, language learners can have access to various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input through various technologies such as the computers, TV, and CDs/DVDs for language learning outside the classrooms or in informal settings.

Many studies, which will be reviewed in the next chapter (Literature Review), have highlighted the pedagogical values of employing various audiovisual programs such as news broadcasts, movies, singing shows, and cartoons to provide authentic language input for language learning. Among them, news broadcasts have been observed to boost listening comprehension and help language learners build their vocabulary over time (Poon, 1992; Baker, 1996; Brinton and Gaskill, 1987). Movies, singing shows, and cartoons have also been considered to be pedagogically valuable authentic language materials for language learning because they increase the motivation by reducing the affective filter (Aida, 1994; Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Clark, 2000; Doring, 2002; Gebhardt, 2004; Heffernan, 2005; Lowe, 1998; Ryan, 1998; Schoepp, 2001; Trapp, 1991).

1.3 Statement of the problem

Learning English outside of the English-speaking countries (i.e., in a foreign or even some second language settings) can be a challenge. One of the main challenges for language learners to acquire the language in formal and informal settings in both EFL/ESL contexts is having access to potential sources of language input. For the formal setting, the dominant sources of language input are the huge number of published materials and the language teachers themselves.

However, the challenge for acquiring the target language in informal settings in both EFL/ESL contexts is greater. While language learners in ESL contexts have the chance to make use of social interaction with native or non-native speakers as a means to practice output in an informal setting, the lack of social interaction in EFL contexts has made the situation much more difficult and limiting. In EFL contexts and even some ESL contexts, the few hours a week in English classes may be the only time for the

language learners to be formally exposed to the English language. In other words, the challenge facing language learners in EFL contexts and some ESL contexts to acquire the language outside the classroom setting is that they do not have access to social interaction similar to that of the native country.

However, in the last two decades, this challenge has been steadily minimized by technological developments which have provided easy access to various audiovisual programs for various audiences including language learners. These types of audiovisual programs have the potential to be utilized as sources of authentic language input. As a result, not to be located in a country where English is spoken out in the society as the first or the second language has become much less of an obstacle to acquire the language in informal settings in EFL contexts.

In view of the above, the present research aims at discovering the most effective type of audiovisual programs for SLA development in informal settings in EFL/ESL contexts.

1.4 Purpose of the study

Although various theories of SLA attach different importance to the role of language input in SLA, there is a general agreement that having exposure to some form of language input is necessary for SLA to take place. This has given birth to many studies on language input and its role in SLA.

Considering the fact that some sort of language input is required for SLA in both formal and informal settings, authentic language materials have the potential to be used as sources of language input for SLA which can indirectly involve the language learners in the language learning process. In the same line, the remarkable developments in audiovisual technologies recommend a lot of possibilities for teachers to design and

conduct activities for second language learning by providing easy access to authentic language input for language learners in both EFL and ESL contexts.

While there is an agreement on the use of various types of audiovisual programs such as news, movies, singing shows, cartoons, and series from various audiovisual technologies such as satellite or conventional TV as sources of authentic language input particularly in classroom environment for language learning, little empirical evidence has been provided about their effectiveness on the enhancement of language proficiency in informal settings without direct teacher's intervention.

The question that is important to be answered by the present research is the correlation between the amount of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs in informal settings and language proficiency development. In this study, the learners are in charge of selecting the type and amount of exposure to various audiovisual programs. Moreover, the activities in informal settings will mainly be centered around the context of home, the work place, and other social environments where the language learners can simply have access and exposure to any type of audiovisual program.

In a nutshell, the aim of this research is to conduct an empirical study to determine the effectiveness of exposure to audiovisual programs in informal settings and language proficiency development. Additionally, the study is interested to investigate the effectiveness of this exposure on the learners of different levels of language proficiency.

1.5 Research questions

The present research was aimed at answering the following questions:

1. A) What type of audiovisual program is reported to have been watched the most as an authentic source of language input by all the participants? B) What type of audiovisual program is preferred as an authentic source of language input by each differentiated language proficiency level in informal settings?
2. A) To what extent, do the participants improve their language proficiency during the period of the research? B) To what extent, do the participants in each differentiated language proficiency level improve their language proficiency during the period of the research? C) Which language proficiency level obtains the greatest significant improvement?
3. A) What is the correlation between the amount of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs and the language proficiency improvement of all the participants? B) What is the correlation between the amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement of the three differentiated language proficiency levels?
4. A) For all the participants, which language skill obtains the greatest improvement? B) For each language proficiency level, which language skill obtains the greatest significant improvement?
- 5.

1.6 Significance of the study

The role of language input in SLA development has been well established. In examining the various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input, the findings of the present study provide further insights on the type and amount of exposure to the various audiovisual programs toward SLA development in informal settings in EFL/ESL contexts. Also, the present study explores the question of choice of authentic audiovisual input or the amount of exposure which has positive impact on language development.

The pedagogical value of implementing various types of audiovisual programs as potential sources of authentic language input to enhance SLA is mostly underscored without empirical evidence. With the readily available and rapid development of satellite television, the Internet, multimedia, and CDs/DVDs, this research will contribute to the field of SLA by providing comprehensive empirical evidence on the effectiveness of exposure to different types of audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input.

In EFL contexts and some ESL contexts such as Malaysia, language learners have little access to social interaction. However, they can benefit from various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input which provide the necessary language input for language learning. In the same line, the results of this study will provide a guide to EFL/ESL learners on the most appropriate type of audiovisual program that would aid SLA development particularly for those in EFL context where language input is limited beyond the language classroom. Besides, the findings of the present research will be important to language teachers, practitioners, and institutions for considering various audiovisual programs for language learning.

1.7 Limitations of the study

In relation to the limitations of the study and the findings, it should be noted that the present study was conducted in informal settings where many variables which might have influenced the results could not be controlled. Hence, the relationship, rather than cause and effect, between greater amount of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs in informal settings and language proficiency development were considered. However, different results might be obtained if the study is conducted in formal settings with control and experimental groups.

In the present research, the participants were asked to view their favorite audiovisual programs outside the classrooms and keep a diary of the amounts and the types of programs which they viewed. The participants, however, might have had some language materials other than audiovisual programs which might have caused their language proficiency to improve or the reverse.

The study has addressed low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate language learners. Advance level participants were not included in the study because the number of participants meeting the advanced level criteria (above 7 in the IELTS pre-test) was insufficient. Consequently, the findings of the study are limited to low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate language proficiency levels. The need to conduct the study with advance level language learners is warranted. Different results might be obtained if the study is conducted with advance level language learners.

The number of the participants in each differentiated language proficiency level was 25. Although 30 participants for each level would have been statistically ideal, only 25 participants were selected because only 25 scored 6 or 6.5 in the pre-test which were

assigned as upper-intermediate level language learners. To keep the number of the participants in all the three groups equal, the researcher decided to select 25 participants for each level.

Because the present research utilized a self-report sheet in order to collect the necessary data regarding the participants' amount and type of exposure to various audiovisual programs in informal settings, another limitation is related to the data obtained from the self-report sheets. One of the drawbacks of a survey design is that it is generally unsuitable where biases may occur. There might have been a lack of response from the participants or the accuracy and nature of the responses that are received. In other words, the participants from either proficiency level might have misreported the type or the amount of exposure to their favorite audiovisual programs which might have affected the survey results; although there is no reason to assume that the participants in any of the particular group were doing so. Potential attempts to eliminate these problems can be made by increasing the sample size to allow for no response and for incomplete responses, unusable, and unreadable (Salant & Dillman, 1994). In the case of the present research, 25 self-report sheets were distributed to each differentiated language proficiency level. In other words, a total of 75 self-report sheets were distributed and collected.

The present research did not investigate how the participants in low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate groups dealt with the comprehension and internalization of the type of language input which they were exposed to in informal settings. Indeed, the input processing was out of the scope of the present research. Consequently, there is a need for other studies to investigate how language learners with different proficiency levels

deal with the comprehension and internalization of the language input embedded in various types of audiovisual programs.

Lastly, because the participants in all the three differentiated proficiency levels were in charge of selecting their preferred audiovisual program(s), they might have watched different types of programs which might have included very few/no language input or a lot of language input with various delivery modes such as with or without subtitling. This might have influenced the results of the study. Consequently, further studies can be carried out to gauge the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs on language proficiency development by controlling not only the amount of language input but also the quality of the language input.

1.8 Conclusion

A brief summary of the issues related to SLA in formal as well as informal settings, various sources of language input in EFL/ESL settings, and authentic language input brought by various audiovisual technologies was given in this chapter. The statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, and the significance of the study were illustrated as well. The second chapter covers the literature review on the role of language input in SLA, the concepts of formal and informal language learning settings, available sources of language input for SLA in English as a foreign language (EFL) context and English as a second language (ESL) context, the notion of authentic language input, and a closer look will be taken at the related literature regarding the integration of various types of audiovisual programs as potential sources of authentic language input into language learning. In the third chapter, issues related to the methodology are presented. In the fourth chapter, the data analysis and the findings are

presented and discussed accordingly. In the fifth chapter, a summary of the results, implications, recommendations, and suggestions for further studies are presented.

Chapter Two

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter comprises five sections which describe the issues that shape the study. In the first section, issues underlying the role of language input in second language acquisition (SLA) will be put forth. The role of language input in SLA will be considered from the perspective of various theories of language learning. Two theoretical frameworks for SLA in which language input is central will also be elaborated.

In the second section, the concepts of formal and informal language learning settings and the available sources of language input for SLA in English as a foreign language (EFL) context and English as a second language (ESL) context will be considered. Since authentic language input has the potential to be utilized for SLA in formal and informal language learning settings, the concept of authentic language input, its benefits, and drawbacks will be delineated. A number of studies regarding the use of desktop and non-desktop technologies as available sources of authentic language input in informal settings will be examined in the third section while a closer look will be taken at the related literature regarding the integration of various types of audiovisual programs as potential sources of authentic language input into language learning in the fourth section. Finally, the fifth section of this chapter will be devoted to the conclusion which underlines the rationale for conducting the present research.

2.2 Language input and second language acquisition

In this section, the role of language input in SLA is discussed. This is done based on: firstly, the importance which is given to the role of input in various theories of language learning, and secondly, some frameworks for SLA such as those introduced by Gass and Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) with the direct focus on language input for SLA. Additionally, Krashen's input hypothesis is followed by critiques of his hypothesis.

2.2.1 The role of input in second language acquisition

There are many internal as well as external factors which influence SLA. Among them, the language input that learners receive in SLA is one of the external factors which plays a fundamental role. Corder (1967) is one of the pioneers among SLA researchers who underscored the importance of language input for SLA by drawing a distinction between input and intake. According to Corder, language input refers to what is available to be utilized by language learners for SLA which should be differentiated from intake which is that part of the input which is comprehended by the language learners.

The review of the literature on language input and SLA reveals that much work in this area of research has been concerned with the importance, the role, and the processing of linguistic input (Doughty & Long, 2003; Ellis, 1994; Ellis, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Gass, 1997; Grady, Lee & Lee, 2011; Hart & Risley, 1995; Long, 1982; Nasaji & Fotos, 2010; Patten & Benati, 2010; Pica, Young & Doughty, 1987; VanPatten & Williams, 2007; Williams, Ritchie & Taj, 1999). From this large pool of research, it can be deduced that SLA simply cannot take place in a vacuum without considering having exposure to some sort of language input (Gass, 1997).

However, while the importance and the role of language input have been advocated by various theories of language learning, there has been a difference between those theories which attribute a small or no role to language input and those attributing it a more important role. According to Ellis (1994; 2008), SLA theories attach different importance to the role of input in the language acquisition process but they all acknowledge the need for language input. In many SLA theories, language input is considered as being a highly essential factor while in other theories it has been given the secondary role. In fact, what has been changed in relation to the role of input in language learning from the viewpoint of various language learning theories is the conceptualization of how language input is processed by language learners (Doughty & Long, 2003).

In this relation, Ellis (2008) considered the role of language input in SLA based on behaviorist, mentalist, and interactionist theories of language learning. The behaviorists view language learning as environmentally controlled by various stimulus and feedback that language learners are exposed to as language input. Indeed, the behaviorists consider a direct relationship between input and output. They ignore the internal processes of the mind for language acquisition. For the behaviorists, language acquisition is controlled by external factors among which language input which consists of stimuli and feedback is central (Ellis, 2008).

The mentalist theories also claim that input is needed for SLA but because the learners' brains are equipped to learn any language with innate knowledge, language input is merely considered as a trigger that activates the internal mechanism (Ellis, 2008). The interactionists theories of SLA highlight the importance of both input and internal language learning processing. They view language acquisition as the outcome of an

interaction at the discourse level between the learners' mental abilities and the linguistic environment and input as the role of affecting or being affected by the nature of internal mechanisms (Ellis, 2008).

Other theories that underscore the important role of language input in SLA are the information processing and skill-acquisition theories (Nassaji & Fotos, 2010). According to Nassaji and Fotos (2010), the role of language input in information processing theories is important because it is the information embedded in the input and its frequency that help language learners acquire the target language. Moreover, language input is essential in skill-acquisition theories because it forms learners' initial declarative knowledge which refers to the knowledge about the language. Other researches in spoken languages also indicate that the amount of language in the input and its frequency are indeed highly relevant for the acquisition of language (Hart & Risley, 1995; Ellis, 1997).

Gass (1997) also considered the role of language input in the input-interaction model, the input hypothesis, the universal grammar model, and the information processing model which treat the role of language input in different ways. According to Gass (1997), in the input-interaction model, the language input that language learners receive is strengthened by the manipulation of the input through interaction which forms a basis for SLA. Within Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (1981), SLA takes place merely by means of comprehensible input which the language learners receive. That is, only the language input that is a little beyond the learners' language competence is useful for SLA. The third model as explained by Gass (1997) is the universal grammar which asserts that language input is important but there must be something in addition to language input. This is the innate capacity which helps language learners acquire the

second language. The last model is the information processing model in which the learner must first notice that there is something to learn. Then, the learner's attention is drawn to those parts of the input which do not coincide with the internalized competence. In this model, language input is necessary for providing information for language construction (Gass, 1997).

The role of input in SLA has been highlighted as constituting the primary data for SLA (Long, 1982; Pica et al., 1987; VanPatten & Williams, 2007). Patten and Benati (2010) have emphasized that language input is a major source of data for language learners to construct their competence or mental representation of the language based on the examples embedded in the input. Grady et al. (2011) also highlighted the role of input in SLA by noting that in some cases of SLA there are indications that at least some features such as lexical development are directly shaped by the input. In other words, the language acquisition process is dependent upon the availability of appropriate language input.

Besides the role of language input in SLA which has been considered from the perspectives of different language learning theories and models, language input has also been given the initial role to provide the necessary data for SLA in some frameworks. Among the researchers who have studied the role of language input in SLA, Gass and Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) proffered two frameworks which indicate the importance of input in the SLA process.

Within the framework introduced by Gass and Selinker (1994), there are five levels for turning input into output: apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration, and output which account for the SLA process. According to their model (Figure 2.1), language input refers to various sources of second language data which the learners are exposed to.

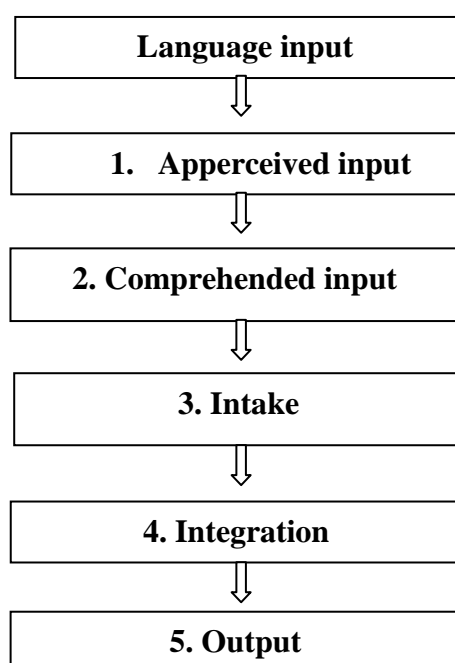


Figure 2.1: Gass and Selinker's model (1994) for second language acquisition

The first stage of the SLA model which is concerned with input utilization is called apperceived input. In this stage, some of the language input is noticed by the language learner because of some specific features such as frequency, prior knowledge, affect, and attention (Gass & Selinker, 1994). The second stage is the comprehension of that bit of language input which is apperceived. Then, in the third stage which is a mental activity, the language input is comprehended and internalized by the language learners which refers to intake. The fourth stage is the integration of the intake with the prior knowledge to arrive at the fifth stage which is the output in the form of written or spoken language.

Likewise, Ellis (1997) introduced a basic computational model of SLA with an initial focus on language input (Figure 2. 2). In this model, language learners are first exposed to language input which is then processed in two stages. First, some parts of the input that are comprehended by the language learners turn into intake. Second, some of the intake which finds its way to the long term memory is then turned into knowledge which results in spoken or written output. While Gass and Selinker's (1994) and Ellis's (1997) theoretical frameworks for SLA attach the initial importance to language input, they differ from each other in the number of stages that language input is processed in the minds of language learners.

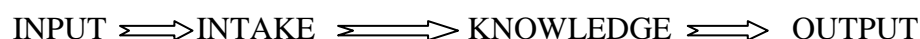


Figure 2.2: Ellis's model (1997) for second language acquisition

In a nutshell, both the above-mentioned frameworks are concerned with the various steps in which language input is turned into output. In other words, the language input processing is the focus of both frameworks. However, comparing the theories and theoretical frameworks for SLA based on the role of language input, it is revealed that the importance of language input is highlighted by various theories and theoretical frameworks for SLA. Taking up on this, one of the most influential SLA hypotheses concerned with the role and importance of language input in SLA is the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985). Indeed, most of the studies on the type of language input and SLA have been developed to either support or criticize Krashen's input hypothesis which first claimed the important role of comprehensible input for SLA. Indeed, input hypothesis triggered numerous studies in the investigation of issues related to the type of language input for SLA (Ying, 1994).

2.2.2 Krashen's input hypothesis and second language acquisition

One of the important psychologically-oriented theories of language learning was established by Krashen (1981, 1982, 1985). He proposed a 'monitor model' of second language learning including five hypotheses: the input hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. The hypothesis related to this study is the input hypothesis which is put forth.

As was discussed in the previous section (2.1.1), language input is considered as a highly important factor in the SLA process. In this relation, the input hypothesis continues to make strong claims regarding the role of language input and the necessity of exposure to comprehensible language input in SLA. The input hypothesis strongly claims that for SLA to take place, language learners should have exposure to a type of second language data which they can comprehend. Krashen identified comprehensible language input as "the only causative variable in SLA" (Krashen, 1981, p. 57). According to Krashen, for SLA to occur, language learners have to have exposure to comprehensible language input that includes language structures that are beyond their current level ($i+1$).

Based on Krashen's claims regarding language input and SLA, the basic assumptions of the input hypothesis are summarized as: (1) access to comprehensible input is the main feature of all cases of effective SLA, (2) more quantities of comprehensible input seem to cause faster or better SLA, and (3) lack of access to comprehensible input causes little or no SLA.

A few researchers (Ellis & He, 1999; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1982) have advocated the input hypothesis by suggesting modified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output as three rich sources of comprehensible input for SLA. Modified input refers to a type of language input that has been modified or simplified in some ways before the language learners are exposed to it, interactionally modified input, on the other hand, originates from input modification that occurs when language learners experience difficulty comprehending a message in interaction with interlocutors, and modified output refers to language learners' efforts to modify their output to make it more comprehensible to the interlocutor (Ellis & He, 1999; Long, 1996).

Another aspect of the input hypothesis in relation to acquiring the language in informal settings (out of the classroom environment) is the importance of direct exposure to a source of language input. According to Krashen (1981), language acquisition can take place in an informal environment if language learners are directly involved in intensive exposure to language input. Later, it will be discussed that this aspect of the input hypothesis which emphasizes the necessity of exposure to language input for language learning to occur has also been emphasized by Krashen's critics. Nevertheless, empirical evidence related to the sources of language input, the quality, and quantity of the input have not been provided neither by Krashen nor his critics.

2. 2. 3 Critiques of the input hypothesis

Regardless of the significant effect that the input hypothesis has had on the researches about the role of language input in SLA, it has been criticized strongly by several researchers. Serious concerns regarding the input hypothesis were expressed by McLaughlin (1987). McLaughlin claimed that it is very difficult to define the concept of

a learner's level which limits the application of its rule in the classroom because individual differences should be taken into consideration when determining the learners' current levels. In fact, determining the current level of each language learner and providing $i+1$ language input for each of them separately in the classroom seems to be very difficult to fulfill. Krashen did not provide solutions considering this issue. There are also some problems regarding the approach to provide language learners with language input which matches their $i+1$ level.

The input hypothesis has also been challenged by many researchers particularly because it has made a large number of claims about the type and the qualitative aspect of the necessary language input for SLA development without providing solid empirical evidence. In other words, because Krashen's input hypothesis limits SLA to merely exposure to comprehensible input, the criticisms directed at the input hypothesis are mainly around the nature and the type of language input that can constitute the primary data for SLA. In fact, although second language researchers and the critics of Krashen's input hypothesis highlight the important role of input in SLA and agree on the fact that language input is a necessary ingredient in SLA (Salaberry, 2003), they claim that SLA is not achieved merely through comprehensible input. Other types of language input such as incomprehensible input, comprehended input, and comprehensible output are also considered to improve language learning through providing the necessary input.

White (1987) considered the necessary language input which constitutes the primary data for SLA to be either comprehensible or incomprehensible. In his incomprehensible input hypothesis, White underscored the point that it is the comprehension difficulties or input incomprehensibility that can provide important negative feedback to the learner that is indispensable for the constitution of SLA. When language learners encounter

language input that is incomprehensible to them because their inter-language rules cannot, for example, analyze a particular structure, they have to modify those inter-language rules to understand the structure (White, 1987).

It can be concluded from what White (1987) has put forth in relation to comprehensible or incomprehensible input that when the language input is comprehensible, the acquisition of the missing structures may not occur. In contrast, when the language input is incomprehensibility because of some aspects which the language learners have not yet acquired, the given language input to the language learners draws their attention to the specific features to be acquired.

Gass (1988, 1997) also emphasized that priority should be attached to the concept of comprehended input rather than comprehensible input. According to Gass, only that part of the language input which is comprehended is involved in the SLA process. In other words, the primary language input which is necessary for SLA may be beyond the boundaries of comprehensible input.

In the same line and as was discussed earlier, in Gass and Selinker's (1997) and Ellis's (1994) theoretical models for SLA, language input which is apperceived by the language learners and then is turned into comprehended input and intake is not limited merely to language data (input) which should necessarily be comprehensible. Indeed, language learners are exposed to a body of second language input which may or may not be within the range of $i+1$. Out of this initial body of language input, some of the input is noticed by the language learners because of frequency, affect, prior knowledge, and attention (Gass & Selinker, 1997). Hence, the qualitative aspect of language input in Gass and Selinker's (1997) and Ellis's (1994) theoretical models for SLA is not limited

to language input that is necessarily at the language learners' $i+1$ current language proficiency level.

In addition to incomprehensible input and comprehended input, Swain (1985) also argued that besides comprehensible input, comprehensible output can also provide the necessary data for SLA. The comprehensible output hypothesis put forth by Swain (1985) states that language learning occurs when the language learner faces a gap in his/her linguistic knowledge of the second language. By noticing this gap, the language learner tries to modify his/her output. This modification of output may end in learning a new aspect of the language which has not been acquired yet.

Although Swain did not claim that comprehensible output is solely responsible for all or even most parts of the language acquisition, she highlighted the point that under some conditions, comprehensible output facilitates SLA in ways that it can provide the necessary input. As a matter of fact, although Swain (1985) acknowledged that without comprehensible input language learners are not able to make connections between forms and meanings for SLA development, she provided evidence of the immersion programs in which comprehensible input alone did not lead to SLA. This view sharply contrasts with Krashen's input hypothesis where the role of comprehensible output is neglected or minimized.

The input hypothesis underscores the point that increased comprehensible input causes more language acquisition not the increased output. Yet, no evidence has been provided for this claim. In this regard, Romeo (2000) showed support for Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis when he indicated that output of some kind is considered as a necessary phase in SLA.

Romeo (2000) highlighted the role of output in SLA by underlying the point that teachers need language learners' output to be able to judge their improvement and adapt future materials to their needs. Moreover, language learners need the opportunity to use the second language because when faced with communication failure, they are forced to make their output more precise. These arguments suggest that both comprehensible input and comprehensible output are important to be utilized as a source of input in SLA process. This view goes against Krashen's input hypothesis.

To this point, according to what was put forth in relation to Krashen's input hypothesis and his critiques' concerns, it can be concluded that the importance of language input for SLA is not questioned and some type of language input is necessary for SLA. Accordingly, in addition to modified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output which are considered as various types of comprehensible input for SLA, comprehended input, incomprehensible input, and comprehensible output can also provide the necessary language input for SLA. Hence, without debating on the right or wrong of Krashen's hypothesis which is beyond the scope of this study, the premise taken is that some forms of language input is necessary for the study without delving into the psychological aspects of the language input.

The controversial issues in relation to language input are the type and the amount (quantity) of language input necessary for SLA which have also been highlighted by Gass (1997). As a matter of fact, although the importance of input in SLA has been emphasized by the majority of the researchers, little has also been written about the type and amount of language input for SLA. In fact, the studies on the role and importance of language input in SLA fall short of providing evidence of the sources of language input which can provide the necessary language input for SLA in informal settings

particularly in EFL contexts. In the same line, the focus of the present research is on the sources of language input and the impact on language proficiency.

2.3 Sources of language input

In this section, issues in relation to formal and informal language learning settings and sources of language input will be put forth. First, the concepts of formal and informal language learning settings for SLA will be compared. Then, the available sources of language input in English as a foreign language (EFL) context and English as a second language (ESL) context are considered. Finally, the concept of authentic language input, its benefits, and drawbacks will be discussed.

2.3.1 Informal and formal language learning settings

The term informal learning was drawn from informal education which was first introduced and popularized in the field of education by Knowles (1950). In focusing on the concept of informal education, Knowles highlighted the informal environment in many learning situations, the flexibility of the process, and the use of experience. Although Knowles did not explicitly define informal education, he utilized the term to refer to the use of informal programs and, to some extent, the learning obtained from interaction in society. In the same line, Coombs and Ahmad (1974) defined informal education as a widely accepted process of developing knowledge and skills of people in a highly uninstitutional and unstructured setting. In contrast, formal education is highly institutional and occurs in structured settings.

Based on informal education, informal learning, as opposed to formal learning, was also defined as the lifetime process by which every individual acquires and gathers knowledge and skills from exposure to the environment outside the classroom settings

through, for example, reading newspapers and books or by listening to the radio or watching various programs on television (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974).

Following the concepts of informal and formal learning, informal and formal language learning were also introduced and studied by some researchers (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Rogers, 2004). In this regard, similar to Coombs and Ahmed, Rogers (2004) noted that informal language learning is unstructured and unpurposeful but is the most extensive and essential part of all the learning that all of us do every day of our lives. On the contrary, formal language learning is structured.

The distinction between formal and informal language learning is significant in terms of the settings of the learning (in-or-outside the class environments), and instruction which refers to focus on the form or the meaning of language (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal setting is considered as the context in which language learners are exposed to the target language at school, home, and work or in social interaction and formal setting as the context where the target language is being taught to a group of second or foreign language learners (Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

In view of that, formal language learning takes place in the class environment but informal language learning, mostly, takes place out of the class environment. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that it is not always the case that formal and informal language learning settings are separate from each other and do not overlap. Informal language learning can also occur in a class setting when the focus is not on the form of the language (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Marsick and Watkins (1990) highlighted the point that informal language learning may occur in classrooms or institutions when peers have interaction with each other, but it is not typically

classroom-based or highly structured. Moreover, informal learning can be deliberately encouraged where the environment is not highly conducive to learning.

In relation to formal and informal language learning settings, Krashen (1981) also noted that while formal setting is directly aimed at increasing conscious linguistic knowledge, informal learning may occur. In fact, the classroom may serve as a source of language input for informal learning when peers interact with each other. The interaction between the peers in the classrooms is a source of language input for informal learning when the focus is on the meaning rather than the form of the language. In formal language learning settings, the focus of learning is on the language itself. In other words, the focus is on the form of the language. In contrast, in informal language learning settings the focus is on the meaning (Rogers, 2004). Figure 2.3 shows the comparison between formal and informal language learning in terms of settings and instructions.

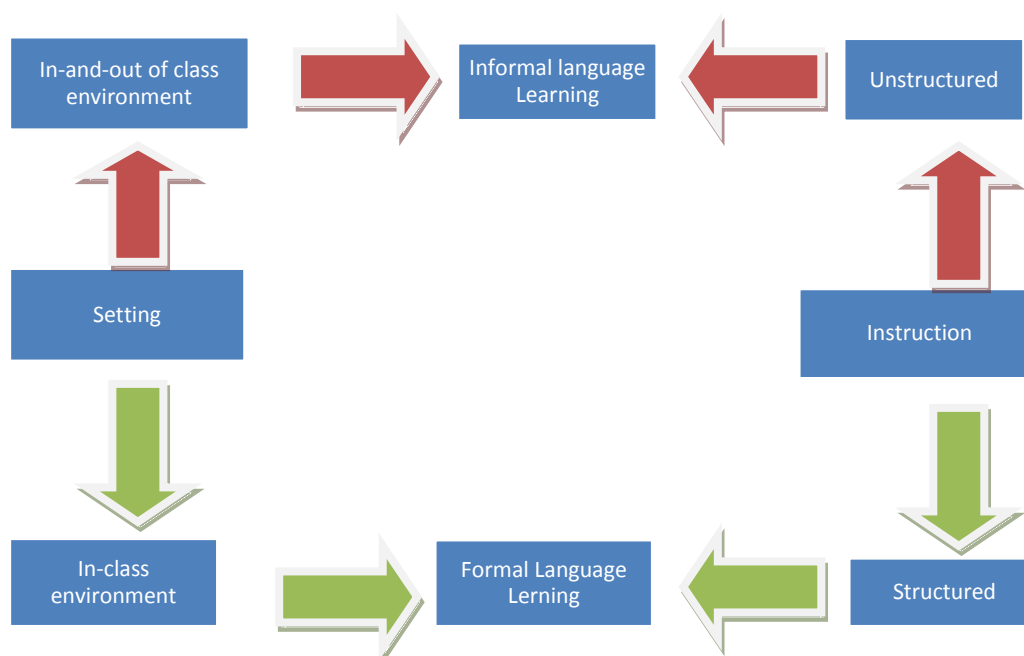


Figure 2. 3: Graphic representation of the distinctions between formal and informal language learning in terms of setting and instruction

Based on what Marsick and Watkins (1990) put forth, formal language learning is classroom-based, highly structured, and teacher-directed in terms of the content to be learnt. Conversely, informal language learning occurs in-and-out of classroom while the focus is not on the form of the language. Moreover, informal language learning is not structured.

Considering the fact that some type of language input is required for language learning/acquisition, one issue in relation to acquiring the language in informal settings in EFL/ESL contexts is the source of language input.

2.3.2 Sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts

Various sources of language input are available in ESL and EFL contexts. Before the discussion on the sources of language input in EFL and ESL contexts is put forth, the concepts of ESL and EFL contexts need to be elaborated.

An ESL context is an environment where English language is spoken in society as the official language or the medium of communication among people from different countries. In fact, English language plays an institutional and social role in the community in an ESL context (Ellis, 2008). According to Ellis (2008), in an ESL context, English language functions as a means of communication among members who speak various languages. In contrast, an EFL context refers to an environment where English language is not the primary or secondary language spoken. Indeed, English is considered as a foreign language rather than a second language and the use is limited to language classrooms (Freed, 1995). In EFL context, English language has no major role in society and is learnt in the classroom setting (Ellis, 2008).

Back to the discussion on the available sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts, it should be mentioned that in ESL contexts, people can have interaction with other people from different countries using the English language. English is then considered as a source of language input which can facilitate and pave the way for SLA (Gass, 1997). The social interaction in ESL contexts is one of the authentic sources of language input which can help language learners acquire the language in informal settings.

This has been emphasized by Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis in which conversational interaction enhances SLA. Accordingly, negotiation of meaning which triggers interactional adjustments by the native speakers or more proficient interlocutor in social interaction can contribute to SLA. In contrast, in an EFL context social interaction as a source of language input in an informal language learning setting is lacking. English is not used as a medium of communication or for other purposes in society in the EFL contexts. Indeed, the use of English language is mainly limited to formal settings at universities, language institutes or language classrooms. As a matter of fact, in EFL contexts, limited usage of English language can only be observed when language learners use English language in interactions with their instructors and their peers.

In short, examples of learning the language in informal setting include learners' interaction with native or non-native speakers in the target language country or a country where English is the second language. Besides, learners' use of different technologies at home or at work via watching a movie or listening to music or song which provide appropriate language input is considered as another example of language learning in informal settings (Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

By viewing, for example, a movie or listening to a song, language learners indirectly get involved in the language learning process when they try to understand the movie or the song by using different language learning strategies (Pemberton, Fallahkhair & Mosthoff, 2004). The various types of audiovisual programs are considered to be authentic language materials which have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA in informal setting by indirectly involving the language learners in the language learning process (Pemberton et al., 2004).

2.3.3 Authentic language input

In this section the concept of authentic language input needs to be defined first. Then, the sources of authentic language input which are available in EFL and ESL contexts will be highlighted. Lastly, the benefits and possible drawbacks of utilizing authentic language input in language learning are considered.

2.3.3.1 Defining authenticity

Using authentic language input through authentic materials in foreign/second language learning has a long history. For example, Henry Sweet (1899, cited in Gilmore, 2007) is considered as one of the first linguists who utilized authentic texts because he was aware of their potential advantages over contrived materials.

In order to determine the definition of authentic language input as precisely as possible, the term authenticity should be considered first. In this regard, there are varieties of definitions of this concept which relate to second/foreign language classroom (Gilmore, 2007; Nunan, 1999; Porter & Roberts, 1981; Taylor, 1994; among others). These various definitions emerge from the debate as to whether authentic materials which are utilized in language classrooms are in fact considered to be authentic or inauthentic.

Taylor (1994) considered different types of authenticity as falling into three categories: authenticity of the task, authenticity of language input, and authenticity of the situation. Authentic language input is any material which has not been explicitly prepared for the purpose of language teaching such as movies, singing shows, stories, games, and plays. Although these materials are not made for language teaching purposes, they contain the characteristics of language used by the native speakers (Taylor, 1994).

In relation to the concept of authentic language input, Nunan (1999) described authentic language materials as written or spoken language materials that have been produced in real communication. In fact, these spoken or written language materials are not specifically produced for the very purpose of language teaching. Nunan (1999) further highlights the assumption that authentic language input can be extracted from various sources such as news, movies, singing shows, series, and comedies, recorded conversations, meetings, and newspapers. Gilmore (2007) also defined authentic language input as the language conveying a real message which is produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience. In short, the point can be concluded that authentic materials that are not initially made for language teaching purposes can be extracted from various print or audiovisual sources.

2.3.3.2 Sources of authentic language input in EFL/ESL contexts

There are varieties of authentic teaching sources and materials available to EFL/ESL teachers to utilize for different needs for various teaching situations in formal as well as informal language learning settings. As was discussed earlier, while social interaction as an authentic source of language input is not available in EFL contexts, many other sources of authentic language input are available in both EFL and ESL contexts. In this relation, desktop technology such as computers and non-desktop technologies such as

TV and radio can provide easy access to authentic language input for SLA in both EFL and ESL contexts.

The review of the literature on the integration of different audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input for language learning highlight the pedagogical value of such materials. As Gebhard (1996) put forth, there are unlimited sources of authentic language materials from various audiovisual sources such as TV commercials, singing shows, cartoons, news clips, quiz shows, comedy shows, movies, series, and documentaries that language teachers and learners can use for language learning purposes.

2.3.3.3 Benefits and drawbacks in using authentic materials

There is a general agreement among language instructors that authentic materials have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA. According to many scholars (Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Brinton, 1991; Gebhard, 1996; Gilmore, 2007; Kerridge, 1982; Martinez, 2002; Melvin & Stout, 1987; Nunan, 1999; Porter & Roberts, 1981; among others), there are many advantages associated with authentic language materials which make these materials pedagogically valuable sources of exposure to the target language.

Porter and Roberts (1981) emphasized the advantages of using authentic language materials by making a comparison between authentic and non-authentic materials in terms of spoken language for language learning. As an example, conversations which are recorded for language texts often have a slow pace, special structures, and very distinctive turn-taking of speakers. In fact, what language learners hear in classrooms is different from the language outside the classroom. In most of cases, the language of

classrooms is an artificial use of spoken language. Indeed, authenticity is lost because of the need to teach detailed language points in a way that most of the teachers feel would be more learnable for learners.

Kerridge (1982) underscored the point that authentic audiovisual language materials can play an essential role in developing language learning. However, Kerridge (1982) further emphasized that if authentic material are used without preparation, they can waste the time of both the teachers and the learners. In the same line, Brosnan, Brown, and Hood (1984) stated that by simplifying the language or changing it for teaching purposes, the task may become more difficult. According to Brosnan et al. (1984), authentic language materials provide language learners the opportunity to deal with a small amount of authentic materials which contain complete and meaningful messages. Moreover, authentic language materials help language learners to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do in the real world communication.

Melvin and Stout (1987) found more motivation to learn in students when they use authentic language materials for the study of culture in language classroom. In addition to gaining more confidence while dealing with authentic materials, language learners also reported an increased understanding of the practical benefits of being able to use the language in real world communication. Melvin and Stout (1987) went on to state that authentic language input would be helpful for language learners to practice skills they might need outside the classroom and learn about cultures on their own.

Brinton (1991) also believed that authentic materials from media can strengthen the direct relationship between the classroom language and the language used in the real world. In the same line, Nunan (1999) noted that it is essential for language learners to have exposure to various kinds of authentic language material because it helps motivate them by bringing the content and the subject matter to life. Moreover, it enables them to make the important connections between the classroom world and the real world outside the classroom setting.

Martinez (2002) provided a number of sound advantages for using authentic language materials for language teaching. Among the advantages, the important one is that authentic language materials provide a wide range of language change of the target language which can be used in the classroom. For example, listening to authentic singing shows and stories in the target language helps the language learners to hear dialectal differences of different countries that speak the target language (Martinez, 2002).

Authentic language materials have also been considered to be more appealing to the language learners than non-authentic language materials because of their objective to communicate a message rather than emphasizing certain aspects of the target language (Gilmore, 2007). Authentic language materials, unlike contrived language materials, focus on every feature of the language rather than continual repetition of specific grammatical constructions, certain elements of the vocabulary, or particular combinations of words. In other words, authentic language materials expose language learners to wider variety of lexical and grammatical features but with less frequency than non-authentic language input (Gilmore, 2007).

Gilmore (2007) further provided empirical evidence on the pedagogical value of utilizing authentic materials through a study which was conducted at a Japanese university. The study focused on comparing the potential of authentic versus non-authentic materials on learners' communicative competence development. The results of his study were indicative of the fact that the experimental group which received authentic language input made significant improvements over the control group which received non-authentic language input. The result of his study contributed insight to the fact that the authentic language input allowed the language learners to concentrate on a wider range of features such as interaction patterns, discourse markers, and communicative strategies.

Besides the above-mentioned benefits of authentic materials, limited drawbacks have also been stated by few researchers with providing empirical evidence. In this relation, Martinez (2002) underlined the problem associated with the use of authentic language materials in classrooms with different language proficiency levels. According to Martinez (2002), the authentic language materials which are used for language learning may be too culturally biased and the vocabulary may be irrelevant to the language learners' needs. More importantly, low level language proficiency or beginner level language learners may have a hard time interpreting what they hear or read because of the mixed structures that are used.

Other researchers such as Widdowson (1996) also argued that there are some difficulties associated with the use of authentic materials such as the difficult vocabulary used which may de-motivate language learners. Much of the difficulty language learners experience with the use of authentic language materials originates from the students

lack of familiarity with authentic language input and the processing strategies required for comprehending it (Bacon & Finneman, 1994).

In short, most of the researchers emphasize the pedagogical value of authentic language materials and agree on the integration of such materials in language learning (Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Brinton, 1991; Gebhard, 1996; Gilmore, 2007; Martinez, 2002; Melvin & Stout, 1987; Nunan, 1999; Porter & Roberts, 1981; among others). Considering this issue, audiovisual technologies have the potential to provide easy access to authentic language input for SLA in both EFL and ESL contexts.

2.4 Audiovisual technologies as sources of authentic language input

Computers as a type of desktop technology have systematically been used in teaching and learning of foreign/second languages since the 1960s. The early use of computers in language learning both in informal and formal language environments constituted an extension and development of the work done in the audiovisual language labs. The pedagogical effectiveness of computer-assisted language learning in formal and informal settings also began with the development of the capacities of computers. In fact, the remarkable developments in audiovisual and computer-mediated communication programs provided many possibilities for teachers to construct activities for second language learning.

Considering the fact that in the last few years audiovisual technology has dominated the world by showing different programs both to instruct and entertain various audiences, many studies have focused on the incorporation of computers as an audiovisual technology that can provide authentic language input for SLA in formal as well as in informal language learning settings in ESL/EFL contexts.

Regarding the use of computers in informal settings of language learning, Adams, Morrison, and Reedy (1968) noted that computers have the potential not only to supervise language learners' performance in informal settings but also to monitor, record, analyze, and summarize data about their learning. Decker (1976) also argued that most significantly, computers provide instant feedback through correcting exercises and tests. This application of computers for language learning has been based on the behaviorist approach that emphasizes stimulus and response for habit formation. In other words, language learners use the computers to learn the language in both formal and informal learning settings through a number of repetition and drills which are believed by the behaviorist theory of learning to boost language learning.

Although, the application of computers in language learning has apparently gone beyond limited repetition and drills since the 1980s, it still reflected the behaviorist viewpoint. In this regard, Keller (1987) highlighted the pedagogical values of the use of computers by focusing on the speed of electronic dictionaries compared to the conventional ones. According to Keller, computer dictionaries offer a multidimensional presentation of English translations and further explanatory information.

In the same line, Egan (1999) developed a computer-based software program requiring the language learners to get engaged in language learning through doing some exercises such as filling the blanks, choosing the correct answers, practicing in reading and listening to authentic written and spoken language, producing language by repeating words or sentences, recording their responses and comparing them to native models (Egan, 1999).

Although Egan's software leads language learners to produce speeches through interaction with the computer, the interaction is based on stimulus and response which reflect the behaviorist approach. Language learners seem to be in charge of their learning but the authentic language input which is offered to them and what they can gain is limited to what the software offers. This limitation may break the interaction when the software lacks the necessary stored data for a particular stimulus or response. In other words, the critical point is that this type of interaction with machines rather than human beings can be limited at times. If one stimulus is not recognized by the software, the interaction may fail or may be directed to something rather than what the language learner intends. The reason behind this is that computers may not be able to negotiate for meaning to facilitate comprehension in a way which is done in real communication.

The acquisition of communicative language skills through computers makes it necessary to develop computer programs that engage the language learners in real interactive speaking activities with native or proficient non-native speakers or language learners in both formal and informal settings. In fact, the use of any technologies including computers to provide the necessary input for language learning in informal setting should not reflect the behaviorist view to language learning (Pemberton et al., 2004).

The point to be underscored is that in informal language learning setting compared to formal language learning setting, language learners are not supposed to get involved in a sort of activity which requires them to do repetitions and drills similar to that of the classroom settings. In fact, if different technological tools are to be utilized in informal settings for language learning, it should be unstructured, unconscious or unpurposeful (Rogers, 2004). As a result, informal language learning cannot be based on the

behaviorist approach because it requires repetition and drills in informal settings similar to that of the formal settings.

Bray (2005) also claimed that the integration of computers for language learning in both formal and informal settings should not be based on the behaviorist theory. According to Bray, in informal language learning setting, adults like to have fun and have little desire to solve a problem. When it comes to learning the language in informal settings, language learners do not like to get involved in the same scenario which exists in most of the formal language learning settings. Informal language learning is in contrast to the behaviorist approach which requires language learners to do some repetitions and drills even in informal settings. In learning the languages in informal setting through, for example, the Internet as a computer based technology, language learners are self-directed, self-motivated, and have the ability to interact with other language learners using computer-mediated communication (Bray, 2005). In fact, the Internet can provide the language learners with a huge amount of authentic language input for SLA without requiring them to do any repetition and drills exercises.

To sum up, the important point to be underlined in relation to the application of computers as a desktop technology for language learning is that in most of the cases computers have been employed in informal language learning setting based on the behaviorist theories of language learning which does not comply with some of the criteria for informal language learning such as unstructured, unconscious or unpurposeful learning.

In recent years, however, the use of non-desktop technologies such as audiovisual devices, for example, television is also attracting increasing interest among many researchers in informal learning and SLA (Milton, 2002; Pemberton et al., 2004).

According to Milton (2002), mass media technologies can give the teachers as well as the learners a pool of activities and experiences that can reinforce language learning in informal settings as well as the formal settings of the school. Watching different programs, for example, on TV is a sort of activity in informal settings which can lead to language learning regardless of the fact that the focus is not on learning (Milton, 2002). In other words, language learners learn the language without directly getting involved in any sort of explicit language learning activities. However, in highlighting the pedagogical value of exposure to mass media technology, Milton did not further specify what type of mass media technology can boost language learning in informal language settings. Also, he did not provide any details on the amount of exposure to a specific type of mass media which may lead to language improvement. More importantly, in his study, language learners were required to do some exercises in informal settings which does not comply with informal language learning criteria.

Another study concerning the use of non-desktop technology such as interactive television to provide authentic language input for language learning in informal setting was conducted by Pemberton et al. (2004). The foremost rationale of the study was to focus on the learning potential of interactive television in informal settings, currently available in the UK and some other countries via cable and satellite technologies. According to Pemberton et al., unlike conventional television, interactive TV allows the users to interact with each other and also provides new facilities for information retrieval and communication.

In order to support the great potentiality of interactive TV for language learning in informal settings, Pemberton et al. (2004) based their claim on a sound pedagogical framework that was derived from language learners' interests, motivations, and learning styles. Furthermore, the study considered the possibility of using interactive TV in informal setting based on different language learning theories such as constructionist and constructivist.

According to the constructionist view, the acquisition of language can occur through exposure to authentic language input in informal settings (Pemberton et al., 2004). In this regard, various audiovisual programs from different non-desktop technologies such as TV have the potential to be utilized as authentic sources of language input in informal settings. The study of Pemberton et al. (2004) supported the constructionist approach through the use of subtitle which provided comprehensible input. The participants of the study were given a language learning version of subtitles that provided extra language support, which could help language learners to understand more from their viewing.

The study also supports the self-directed language learning approach which reflects one of the characteristics of informal language learning. The constructivist approach can be supported by enabling language learners to create their own learning space that can be accessed anytime or anywhere. Accordingly, language learners are in charge of selecting their preferred type of language learning material through interactive TV which enables them to be in charge of their own learning experience. In fact, in learning the language through interactive TV in informal language learning setting, language learners want to sit back and relax while being immersed in pedagogically valuable

authentic audiovisual programs and to be able to get extensive support to help them gain more from their foreign language viewing (Pemberton et al., 2004).

In short, the above discussed study anecdotally considered the pedagogical value of interactive TV as a type of non-desktop technology in informal settings for language learning and its application based on different language learning approaches. It also focused on introducing a framework to support the use of interactive TV as a source of authentic language input in informal settings. However, the study lacks empirical evidence of the effect of exposure to TV on SLA. Furthermore, it focused on interactive TV rather than conventional TV or satellite TV which is readily available around the globe.

More recently, Bahrani and Tam (2012) compared the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs in informal settings in an EFL context with social interaction in English in an ESL context on speaking proficiency. To explore which source of language input would have a greater impact, two types of exposure were provided: audiovisual programs (in EFL context) and social interaction (in an ESL context). During the study which lasted for , EFL participants (n=30) had exposure to audiovisual programs while the ESL participants (n=30) had exposure social interaction. The post-test results indicated that the EFL group performed better which was indicative of the fact that exposure to technology promotes speaking proficiency.

In view of that, the next section takes a closer look at some studies related to the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs such as news, movies, singing shows, comedies, etc as authentic sources of language input currently available in both EFL and ESL contexts on language proficiency development.

2.5 Related studies on various types of audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input

Audiovisual devices such as satellite and conventional televisions can offer easy access to authentic programs which are considered to be a rich source of language input for SLA. The immediacy of various programs ensures that language learners' exposure is up-to-date and embedded in the real world of native speakers. In this part, some studies related to the use of news, movies, cartoons, singing shows, and comedies as authentic sources of language input for SLA are discussed in terms of their findings and possible shortcomings.

2.5.1 Audiovisual news as authentic language input and language learning

Audiovisual news as pedagogically valuable and rich source of authentic language input to be utilized for language learning has been the focus of many studies since the 1970s (Bahrani & Tam, 2011; Baker, 1996; Beach & Somerholter, 1997; Bell, 2003; Berber, 1997; Blachford, 1973; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992; Wetzell, Radtke, Stern, 1994; to name only a few).

Almost four decades ago, Blachford (1973) emphasized the implicit pedagogical value embedded in TV news episodes. As audiovisual news regularly includes the same words and utterances, the lexico-syntactic feature of audiovisual news genre is what makes it a rich source of vocabulary input for language learning (Blachford, 1973). Blachford went further by stating that because news writers, newscasters, and reporters know the potential role of the news genre in the public attitude, they make their efforts to present the stories in news as precisely and directly as possible by using specific vocabularies and structures. As this is done to make the news more comprehensible with a large group of people, the recycling feature of the vocabularies can help language learners

build their lexicon. The point should be underlined here that Blachford did not provide any empirical evidence on the pedagogical value of TV news for language learning.

A few years later, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) conducted a study on the effectiveness of listening to audiovisual news programs on enhancing EFL/ESL language learners' listening skill. The study was carried out in Germany as an EFL context and in the United States of America as an ESL context where videotaped news broadcasts from TV as a source of authentic language input were incorporated in advance EFL/ESL classes once a week for approximately six months to find out whether any improvements would be achieved on listening skill.

During the study, the 11-15 minute videotaped news materials were prepared for use in the classroom following a transcript which aimed at facilitating comprehension. Subsequently, an English-English gloss of difficult vocabulary items including the definitions and some sentences related to the context in which they would appear in the broadcast were also prepared. Some follow up listening comprehension questions were also prepared to be answered by the students.

Accordingly, the students went through some pre-listening activities which required them to discuss the unfamiliar vocabulary items and read the comprehension questions before viewing the related video. Then, the related news video was viewed once, while the students were asked to focus on the gist. After the first viewing, the students were required to answer the comprehension questions. Following that, the video was played for the second time. The students were allowed to recheck their answers and answer any questions they had left unanswered. The students' improvement in listening skill was

measured based on checking the answers of the comprehension questions which was done in a class basis.

As regards to EFL students' difficulties comprehending fast speeches, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) noted that when EFL/ESL learners are faced with rapid native speeches, they often fail to comprehend it mainly because of their insufficient amount of exposure to audiovisual news. Classroom materials which are used to enhance listening comprehension are not sufficient enough to help the language learners cope with rapid speeches. According to Brinton and Gaskill (1987), exposure to audiovisual news language input has the potential to improve the listening skill because different newscasts bring reality into the classroom and enable the students to focus on substantive issues. Additionally, because of the recycling feature of vocabulary in different audiovisual news, EFL/ESL language learners become more familiar with many contextualized vocabulary items during a long period of exposure. The study also highlighted the point that by listening to audiovisual news, improvements in the target language go beyond listening comprehension.

Although, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) claimed that exposure to audiovisual news can enhance other language skills, they did not undertake to investigate the potentials of improvement for the other skills. More importantly, the results of the improvements in EFL and ESL contexts were limited to advance level language learners. Besides, the data obtained from the language learners from both contexts were not compared with each other.

In the 1990s, similar studies empowered by quantitative data also focused on using audiovisual news as a type of authentic language material to improve listening skill (Baker, 1996; Poon, 1992). Poon (1992) investigated the effectiveness of listening to news on listening skill in an ESL context as compared with the efficiency of non-news listening materials. The participants of the study were 66 language learners aged 18-22. 34 participants were in the experimental group and 32 participants were in the control group. Throughout the study, the experimental group was instructed by incorporating the recordings from audiovisual news materials. In contrast, the control group was instructed by non-news listening materials including commercial listening comprehension materials. The research employed a pre-post test design.

The findings of the study indicated that the participants of the experimental group improved their listening more than the control group. In other words, the study found that listening to TV news materials as a source of authentic language input was more beneficial than listening to non-news materials. Poon (1992) further highlighted the point that exposing the language learners more to audiovisual news broadcasts as a source of authentic language input gives them the chance to be in a closer contact with real language which provides more opportunities for them to learn how to make nonlinguistic judgments that listening skill requires. Moreover, audiovisual news broadcasts provide an intrinsic reason for the language learners to listen because the topics are about people's daily events.

Baker (1996) also studied the pedagogical value of audiovisual news in EFL classrooms and listening skill. Accordingly, audiovisual news has the potential to help language learners improve their listening skill. According to the study, language learners with different proficiency levels approach audiovisual news, for example, audiovisual news

in the target language with various objectives: low proficiency level language learners focus on listening skills and vocabulary building, whereas advanced level language learners concentrate on content and accuracy. As a result, some suggestions for the effective utilization of news broadcasts were given for language learners with different levels of language proficiency. However, the study was rather anecdotal.

The integration of fast speeches such as those of audiovisual news in EFL/ESL classrooms and the relationship between direct encounters with this authentic materials and teaching listening to EFL students has been studied by Cauldwell (1996). It was found that language learners might have some problems comprehending the fast speeches at first because of the lack of vocabulary and the speed of the speeches. Nevertheless, language learners can diminish these problems and enhance their listening through having great amount of exposure to fast speeches and imitating the utterances (Cauldwell, 1996). However, the study was rather anecdotal and lacked valid findings. In fact, it did not provide empirical evidence on the effect of exposure to TV news on listening comprehension.

To go further, the possibility of using audiovisual news reports as language input for lower proficiency levels of EFL/ESL learning has been the focus of a research conducted by Mackenzie (1997) with elementary and intermediate language proficiency levels. The study was conducted at Simul Academy in Japan. Mackenzie (1997) rejected the idea that because the newscasters speak very fast, the content is very multifaceted, and the vocabulary is very difficult, audiovisual news cannot be integrated into low basic levels of language learning situations. As a matter of fact, Mackenzie (1997) highlighted the point that with the careful selection of audiovisual news items and applying some simple techniques, news reports can be used even at elementary or

intermediate levels. According to the study, the selection of the content of the news reports should depend mainly on the language learners' interest and background knowledge because they feel more comfortable listening to familiar content.

Mackenzie's (1997) study was mostly around the concept of introducing some techniques regarding the use of TV news in EFL/ESL classrooms such as vocabulary, schemata, gist listening, listening for details, retelling the reports, and reacting to the reports. In the same line, Bell (2003) considered content schemata, formal schemata, and linguistic difficulty as three criteria for selecting any types of audiovisual news for EFL classrooms. Similar study was also conducted by Wetzel et al. (1994). However, these studies were also anecdotal and pedagogical in nature.

More recently, Bahrani and Tam (2011) conducted an experimental research on the effect of exposure to audiovisual news broadcasts materials and non-news materials on improving the speaking proficiency of intermediate language learners. The research was carried out with 60 intermediate language learners who were assigned two groups: group one and group two. During the experiment, the participants in the first group were exposed to authentic materials from audiovisual news while the second group of participants were exposed to non-news materials.

The findings of the study were indicative of the fact that exposure to audiovisual news promotes intermediate language learners' speaking proficiency more than exposure to non-news materials. According to Bahrani and Tam (2011), the intermediate participants showed their enthusiasm in creative use of various vocabularies, sentences, and structures in talking about the topics during the interviews (speaking test) in the post-test. Through this, they could present the amount of their ability in the kind of words they wanted to express their ideas with high fluency of speeches. The intermediate

participants' automatic production of speeches and appropriate use and rate of pauses at specific junctures with correct use of supersegmental features were significant and similar to that of the audiovisual news.

In short, the review of the literature on the use of audiovisual news as a source of authentic language input for SLA reveals that:

- Most of the studies were descriptive and examined the pedagogical value, the possibility of using news at all levels of language learning, and the selection criteria without empirical evidence.
- A few experimental studies provided empirical evidence on the effect of exposure to audiovisual news programs on enhancing a particular language skill such as listening comprehension or speaking proficiency. In fact, the effect of exposure to news on other language skills or language proficiency as a whole was not investigated.
- As far as it can be determined, all the quantitative studies were conducted with intermediate language learners. In other words, the effect of exposure to audiovisual news as a source of authentic language input on improving the language proficiency of different language proficiency levels was not studied.

2.5.2 Movies as a source of authentic language input and language learning

Movies have long been regarded as an important resource for foreign language instructors because it is an authentic source of material (Kaiser, 2011). In fact, movies provide the language learners exposures to the real language uttered in authentic settings (Stempleski, 1992). The spoken language of movies often includes various types of speeches such as the speeches of various educational levels, the speeches of children and non-native speakers, slang and jargon, rural and urban speeches, and a range of regional dialects that language learners will encounter in the target language country (Kaiser, 2011). In fact, movies provide language learners with multi-sensory input that

is close to what they will likely find and encounter in the real world communication (Arcario, 1993). In the same line, Istanto (2009) highlighted the pedagogical value of movies as an effective platform for the language learners to immerse themselves in the target language culture.

Chapple and Curtis (2000) favored movies as a source of authentic language materials to be integrated in content-based instruction classes because they have many cross-cultural values, provide an excellent basis for the development of critical thinking skill, provide a rich source of content for language learners, and offer linguistic diversities. Moreover, the visual input of movies such as the interesting content, extended context, and rich visual imagery make movies motivating authentic material for language learning. The contextual clues also boost language learners' comprehension of the language used in the movies (Chapple & Curtis 2000).

The review of the qualitative studies regarding the integration of movies as a source of authentic language input for language learning is limited. For example, a study was conducted by Yuksel (2009) focusing on the effectiveness of viewing captioned movie clip on EFL learners' vocabulary enhancement. The research was carried out with 120 language learners in a preparatory class. The participants were randomly divided into two groups. Before the treatment, the participants in both groups took a sample 20-item vocabulary knowledge scale pre-test. During the study, group one participants were exposed to some movie clips with captions while the second group participants were exposed to the same movie clips without captions. One month after the treatment, both group participants were given another vocabulary knowledge scale test with 20 words as a post-test.

The results obtained from the pre-post tests of both groups revealed that both groups demonstrated significant gains. In fact, viewing the movie clips reinforced the expansion of the vocabulary knowledge of the language learners regardless of the presence or the absence of captions (Yuksel, 2009). According to Yuksel (2009), the development in the vocabulary knowledge stems from the importance of encountering the vocabularies in the real context. In fact, incidental vocabulary learning can be facilitated through contextual cues. Accordingly, teachers are encouraged to utilize movies as authentic sources of materials to support learners' vocabulary learning instead of only explaining the vocabularies in an isolated manner (Yuksel, 2009).

Other quantitative studies have usually focused on the effects of exposure to movies with or without captions/subtitles on developing listening skill (Huang & Eskey, 2000; Markham, 1999; Markham & Peter, 2003). Huang and Eskey's (2000) research considered the effectiveness of exposure to closed captioned TV on intermediate language learners' listening comprehension. The findings of the study showed that captions improved listening comprehension skill. Similarly, Markham (1999) carried out a research on the effectiveness of captioned videotapes on listening vocabulary recognition skills. Markham concluded that the captions significantly help language learners develop their listening word recognition skill.

However, a more recently comprehensive research has been conducted by Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) on the effect of exposure to movies with and without subtitles on listening comprehension improvement. The study was carried out with 90 intermediate language learners who were randomly divided into three groups of 30 participants at an Islamic Azad University in Iran. During the study which lasted for 6 weeks, group one was exposed to some segments of various movies with English subtitle, group two was

exposed to the same segments of the same movies without subtitle, and group three was exposed to the same segments of the same movies with Persian subtitle. At the end of the study, a multiple-choice comprehension test was given to all the three groups to measure their listening comprehension development and provide grounds for comparison. The results of the study were indicative of the fact that the English subtitles group performed significantly much better than the Persian subtitles group and the no subtitle group on the listening comprehension test.

More particularly, the results proved that exposure to movies with English subtitles helps intermediate students in EFL context to develop their listening comprehension significantly. According to Hayati and Mohmedi (2011), for low and intermediate language learners, watching a movie with the first language subtitle is beneficial for the better comprehension of the film because low and intermediate level language learners may have limited range of vocabulary items. On the other hand, intermediate and advance levels language learners may have little problem in understanding the movies without subtitles because their proficiency level is higher.

In addition to the above-mentioned quantitative studies, a few researchers (Ryan, 1998; Heffernan, 2005; Gebhardt, 2004; Kusumarasdyati, 2004) have also considered movies to be utilized as motivating materials which have the potential to enhance language learning. For example, Kusumarasdyati (2004) introduced a technique for utilizing movies in language classes for promoting listening skill. The technique included pre-viewing, while-viewing, and post-viewing. However, the review of the related literature on the use of movies as a source of authentic language input is mostly limited to either some qualitative studies which have considered movies to be pedagogically valuable

authentic motivating material for language learning or a few quantitative studies which have focused on the effects of exposure to movies on enhancing listening skill.

2.5.3 Singing shows as a source of authentic language input and language learning

A review of the related literature in the area of using singing shows in language teaching provides limited empirical evidence on the effect of listening to singing shows on language acquisition. Nevertheless, some researchers (Aida, 1994; Gatti-Taylor, 1980; Leith, 1979; Lowe, 1998; Martinez, 2002; Miché, 2002; Schoppe, 2001; Trapp, 1991) have proposed singing shows in the foreign/second language classroom to decrease anxiety and increase motivation, provide physiological benefits, guide lesson planning and practical classroom, and enhance cultural awareness and sensitivity. A study was conducted by Schoppe (2001) highlighting affective reasons, cognitive reasons, and linguistic reasons as three important factors that make singing shows pedagogically effective authentic language materials for the enhancement of language learning.

In relation to the effective reasons, it was noted that for optimal language learning to take place, the affective filter must be low. In this regard, using singing shows is one way to achieve low affective filter. Schoppe supported this claim based on the affective filter hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1981). Regarding cognitive reasons, Schoppe (2001) noted that singing shows provide EFL learners with opportunities for developing fluency because they have repetitive style. Finally, Schoppe (2001) acknowledged that singing shows are linguistically valuable because they are excellent examples of the language of informal conversation. However, the study fails to provide any quantitative data to prove the effect of exposure to singing shows and developing fluency.

Lowe (1998) conducted a study in Canada to find out whether the use of singing shows would improve language learning. The participants of the research were 53 second-grade students in two classes of the French Immersion program. Both classes were instructed using the same materials and content. However, the participants in the experimental group were given eight weekly units of five 15-minute music lessons that were incorporated into the regular French second language classes. The results indicated that the experimental group that received the additional music lessons performed significantly better than the control group in all grammar and reading comprehension French tests.

Without providing empirical evidence, Leith (1979) and Gatti-Taylor (1980) emphasized that listening to singing shows is the better and quicker way to teach phonetics because it is easy to find singing shows that are filled with lyrics which stress a particular phoneme. Miché (2002) draw attention to the pronunciation variations that are provided through the input of authentic singing shows as well as various dialects of the target language. According to Miché (2002), employing authentic singing shows is very effective to make students aware of the dialectal variations through repetition in conjunction with rhythm that leads learners to remember not only the pronunciation but also the vocabulary. Martinez (2002) also emphasized that through listening to authentic singing shows and stories in the target language, language learners will be able to get familiar with dialectal differences of various countries that speak English language.

Although many studies have highlighted the motivating aspect and the pedagogical value of incorporating various singing shows in language learning atmospheres along with the possibility of improving fluency and pronunciation through exposure to singing

shows, the review of the related literature shows no solid empirical evidence on the effectiveness of exposure to singing shows on different language skills.

2.5.4 Cartoons as a source of authentic language input and language learning

The pedagogical value of cartoons as an authentic source of language input has been the focus of limited number of studies (Bahrani & Tam, 2012; Clark, 2000; Doring, 2002; Rule & Ague, 2005). Among the few researchers who have focused on the pedagogical values of cartoons as a source of language input, however, Bahrani and Tam (2012) provided empirical evidence of the effectiveness of exposure to cartoons on language proficiency development of the low level language learners.

In their research, Bahrani and Tam (2012) compared the effectiveness of exposure to audiovisual news, movies, and cartoons as three different sources of language input on language proficiency development of the low level language learners. To do so, Bahrani and Tam (2012) assigned 60 low level language learners into three groups. The three groups ran by one of the researchers and met in three different classes once a week for a period of four months. Each group had exposure to different audiovisual materials. Group one had exposure to news, group two had exposure to movies, and group three had exposure to cartoons. The results of the study showed that those participants who had exposure to cartoons could enhance their language proficiency to a significant extent. In contrast, the participants who had exposure to either news or movies could not gain significant language proficiency development.

In an anecdotal study conducted by Clark (2000), it was highlighted that cartoons can engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere. Besides, cartoons have the potential to reinforce thinking processes and

discussion skills (Clark, 2000). Another study was carried out by Doing (2002) focusing on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language learning. The results of a study were indicative of the fact that the language learners who had exposure to cartoons could produce oral answers that were very proactive and interesting in different discussions held in the classes. Moreover, the discussions were rich and the students had high confidence. It seems that the high confidence that the language learners acquire is due to exposure to cartoons which create low affective filter atmosphere for learning. As Schoppe (2001) indicated that singing shows have the pedagogical potential to create low affective filter atmosphere for language learning, cartoons can also create the same situation.

In this relation, Rule and Ague (2005) conducted a study providing evidence of the students' preferences to use cartoons in language learning. Similar to singing shows, cartoons are preferred because they create low affective filter atmosphere which causes high degree of motivation. The high confidence and motivation achieved through exposure to cartoons is claimed to enhance the memory of the language learners when they try to make connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy in a comfortable atmosphere (Rule & Ague, 2005).

Without providing empirical evidence, Rule and Ague (2005) also claimed that students who use cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores. However, Rule and Ague (2005) did not specify which language skill(s) can be improved through the use of cartoons. The evidence thus far points to cartoons as a source of authentic language input which may prove effective in developing different language skills of differentiated language proficiency language learners.

2.5.5 Comedies (series) as a source of authentic language input and language learning

Comedy, as a type of authentic source of language input to be employed in language classrooms, has not captured the attention of many researchers. As an exception, Chiu (2006) highlights the use of comedy to enrich language learners' vocabulary based on his own experiences of using comedy in a college course of reading and vocabulary in Taiwan which lasted for one academic semester. For every two hour reading course, the instructor played one episode of a sample comedy. While watching, each student was required to pick up as many words as he/she wanted to learn from the show. After the end of the show, the students were asked to volunteer to list on the board the vocabulary words they picked from the show. Then, the instructor selected ten words from the list of the words on the board to be discussed according to their meanings in the context of the situation comedy.

According to Chiu, situation comedy helps language learners learn new words, culture, and body language which they could not achieve through reading books. Chiu (2006) states that comedy creates a relaxing atmosphere for learning. The findings of the study were based on a survey carried out a day after utilizing comedy. According to Chiu, nearly all the language learners agreed that the activities integrated with the use of comedy helped them build up their vocabulary. As the result, these activities may lead to the development of learner autonomy.

In short, wide arrays of audiovisual programs are available as authentic sources of language input for SLA in EFL and ESL contexts. What is concluded from the related studies can be summarized in the following four parts:

1) The claims made by the studies conducted regarding the pedagogical values of the use of various authentic audiovisual programs to provide the necessary language input for SLA are mostly anecdotal.

2) Most of the studies have investigated the psychological aspects of various audiovisual programs. For example, cartoons, movies, and singing shows can enhance language learning through creating low affective filter atmosphere.

3) The related studies have mostly investigated the formal language learning setting. Indeed, informal language learning setting which has a great potential for SLA has not been investigated.

4) A few studies have provided limited empirical evidence on the effect of utilizing audiovisual news in language learning classrooms. However, the findings are limited to improving only the listening skill or speaking proficiency of intermediate language learners through exposure to audiovisual news. Hence, there is a gap in terms of other proficiency levels and other language skills to be investigated.

With the reviewed literature the gaps with regard to the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs on SLA could be identified. Thus, the present research aims to provide empirical evidence on the effect of exposure to various audiovisual programs in informal settings in SLA.

2.6. Conclusion

One of the essential issues in SLA which has been the focus of many studies in the last three decades is language input and its role in SLA. Among the pool of researchers, Long (1982) noted that comprehended input rather than comprehensible input constitutes the primary data for SLA, Pica et al. (1987) also stated that the primary data for SLA comes from language input, Ellis (1994) highlighted the point that various theories of SLA attach different importance to the role of input, Gass (1997) considered the role of input in four models of SLA, Williams et al. (1999) emphasized that the main role of input is to facilitate language acquisition by making the environment conducive to learning, Doughty and Long (2003) emphasized the role of input in SLA and noted that the conceptualization of how the input is processed by language learners is different in various theories of SLA, VanPatten and Williams (2007) highlighted the importance of exposure to language input for SLA, Patten and Benati (2010) emphasized that input is a major source of data for language learners to construct their competence based on the examples embedded in the input, and recently Nasaji and Fotos (2010) discussed the importance of input in SLA in the information processing and skill-acquisition theories.

In the same line, Gass and Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) introduced two theoretical frameworks (Figures 2.1 & 2.2) for SLA with an initial focus on language input. Although both frameworks attach the initial importance to language input for SLA, they differ in the number of input processing stages. Besides, neither of them investigated the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the type of language input for SLA.

In relation to the type of language input which can constitute the primary data for SLA, Krashen (1982) claimed that language acquisition can happen in formal and informal language learning settings only if language learners are directly involved in intensive

exposure to a type of input which is comprehensible. In contrast to this claim, other researchers also considered comprehended input (Gass, 1988, 1997) incomprehensible input (White, 1987), and comprehensible output (Swain, 1985) to provide the necessary language input for SLA.

Considering the fact that some sort of language input is necessary for SLA in both formal and informal settings, authentic language materials have the potential to be used as sources of language input for SLA which can indirectly involve the language learners in the language learning process. In the same line, the remarkable developments in audiovisual technologies recommend many possibilities for teachers to construct activities for second language learning by providing easy access to authentic language input for language learners in both EFL and ESL contexts.

Since the 1970s, the application of various authentic programs such as news, movies, singing shows, cartoons, and comedies from various audiovisual technologies such as satellite or conventional TV to provide the necessary language input for SLA have also been attracting increasing interest among researchers. While there is an agreement on the use of various types of audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input particularly in classroom environment for language learning, little empirical evidence has been provided about their effects on the enhancement of language proficiency in informal setting. To bridge the gap, the opportunities for informal language learning through exposure to various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input in EFL/ESL contexts are the subject matter of this research. In fact, the fundamental purpose of the present research is to highlight the contributions of informal authentic opportunities of independent learning through exposure to audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input.

The question that is important to be answered by the present research is to find out the correlation between the amount of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs in informal settings and language proficiency development. In this study, the learners are in charge of selecting the type and amount of exposure to audiovisual program. Moreover, the activities in informal settings will mainly be centered around the context of home, the work place, and other social environments where the language learners can simply have access and exposure to any type of audiovisual program.

The following figure (2.4) is the graphic representation regarding the potential sources of authentic language input for SLA in informal language learning setting in EFL and ESL contexts.

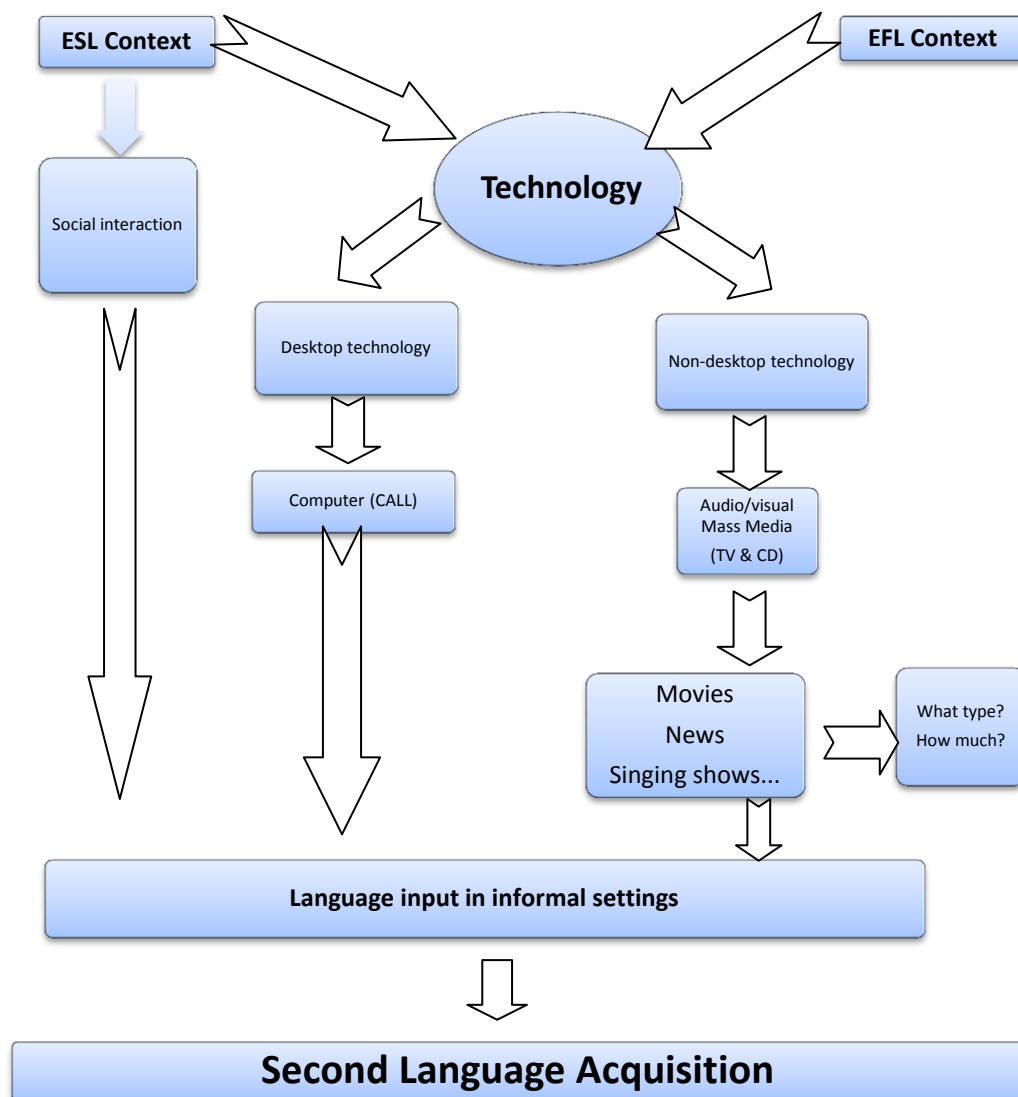


Figure 2.4: Graphic representation of authentic language input for SLA in informal settings in EFL and ESL contexts

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Considering the fact that some form of language input is necessary for SLA, one essential issue is the source of language input in English as a second language (ESL) context and English as a foreign language (EFL) context. In this relation, many studies have considered various audiovisual technologies to provide access to authentic language input in formal language learning settings. While there is agreement on the use of various types of audiovisual programs as authentic sources of language input to be incorporated in the classroom environment, little has been written on the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs in informal settings on various language skills or language proficiency as a whole.

In view of the above, the primary aim of the present research was to further investigate the potential sources of authentic language input in informal settings. More particularly, it aimed at discovering the most effective type and amount of language input through exposure to audiovisual programs in informal settings that could improve the language proficiency of language learners with differentiated language proficiency levels.

This chapter describes the methodology employed for the present research. It comprises the explanation about the variables, the design, the subjects of the study, the instruments that were used to collect the data and reliabilities and validity issues, the research site, the pilot study, the data collection procedure including participants selection and data collection, and finally the data analysis procedure.

3.2 Research questions

The present research was aimed at answering the following questions:

1. A) What type of audiovisual program is reported to have been watched the most as an authentic source of language input by all the participants? B) What type of audiovisual program is reported to have been watched the most as an authentic source of language input by each differentiated language proficiency level in informal settings?
2. A) To what extent, do the participants improve their language proficiency during the period of the research? B) To what extent, do the participants in each differentiated language proficiency level improve their language proficiency during the period of the research? C) Which language proficiency level obtains the greatest significant improvement?
3. A) What is the correlation between the amount of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs and the language proficiency improvement of all the participants? B) What is the correlation between the amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement of the three differentiated language proficiency levels?
4. A) For all the participants, which language skill obtains the greatest improvement? B) For each language proficiency level, which language skill obtains the highest significant improvement?

3.3 Variables

This research was aimed at providing empirical evidence on the relationship between the type and amount of exposure to various audiovisual programs on language proficiency at three differentiated language proficiency levels. Accordingly, there were three sets of variables in this study: independent variables, dependent variables and moderator variable (please refer to Appendix A for a graphic representation).

The type and the amount of exposure to various audiovisual programs were considered as two independent variables for the present study. Language proficiency scores of the participants were selected as the dependent variable. Furthermore, the language proficiency level of the participants was considered as the moderator variable. The moderator variable consisted of three levels; low level, intermediate level, and upper-intermediate level.

3.4 Design of the research

The present research employed a quantitative methodology. It adapted a survey design to answer Research Question 1, a pre-post test design to answer Research Questions 2 and 4 and a factorial design (subset of ex post facto design) to answer Research Question 3.

3.4.1 Survey design

A survey design refers to a design in which the information about opinions of a large group of people is gathered (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993). Surveys can be used for gathering information from large samples of the population with minimal investment to develop and administer. Surveys can also be utilized for making generalizations (Bell, 1996). Moreover, they can elicit information about attitudes which are difficult to measure (McIntyre, 1999). A survey design is often employed to quantitatively estimate particular aspects such as the relationships among variables of some participants. Although independent and dependent variables are used in a survey design to define the scope of study, they cannot be explicitly controlled by the researcher (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993).

Regarding the drawbacks of a survey design, Bell (1996) noted that surveys are generally unsuitable where biases may occur, in the lack of response from the participants or in the accuracy and nature of the responses. Intentional misreporting of behaviors by respondents to confound the survey results or to hide inappropriate behavior are other sources of error. However, these problems can be eliminated once the researcher ensures that the sufficient number of surveys are distributed to allow for no response and for unusable, illegible, and incomplete responses (Salant & Dillman, 1994). In the case of the present research, 25 self-report sheets were distributed to each differentiated language proficiency level. In other words, a total of 75 self-report sheets were distributed and collected.

In the same line, a self-report sheet is one of the data collection tools for carrying out a survey design. In view of the above, the present research adopted a survey design through a self-report sheet (please refer to Appendices B & C for the pilot sample and the final sample of the self-report sheet). The self-report sheet was used to provide quantitative data or numeric information on each participant's amount and type of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs during the period of the study to answer Research Question 1.

3.4.2 Pre-test and post-test design

In order to answer Research Questions 2 and 4, a pre-post test design was adopted. In this design, the participants in the study completed a pre-test at the beginning of the research, and a post-test at the end. For each group, a measure of change is computed by comparing the scores from the pre-test to that of the post-test.

The important point to be considered in relation to pre-post-test design is the internal validity of the results. If the same test is used as the pre-post tests with a very short interval (less than two weeks), the results will be questioned (Hatch & Farhady, 1981). To overcome this issue, the present research employed two parallel tests (please refer to section 3.6.1 for details). Moreover, the interval between the administration of the pre-test and the post-test was 16 weeks.

3.4.3 Ex Post Facto design (factorial design)

The present study is interested in examining the relationship between the variables (research question 3). Ex Post Facto design is used in a study when some variables that might affect the results cannot be controlled as is the case for this study where the data were collected beyond the classroom context. Consequently, the focus will be on the relationship between the variables rather than cause and effect (Hatch & Farhady, 1981). Furthermore, the four sub-designs of the Ex Post Facto design are correlational design, criterion group design, two-criterion design, and factorial design (Hatch & Farhady, 1981). The correlational, the criterion group, and the two-criterion designs are used when the research consists of one independent variable and one dependent variable. The factorial design, on the other hand, is used when the research includes more than one independent variable and the dependent variable has one or many levels as it is the case in this research. In the present research, the type and amount of exposure to audiovisual programs were the two independent variables, the language proficiency scores were the dependent variable, and the three language proficiency levels (low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate) were taken as moderator variables.

In addition, an ex post facto design was also adopted because the present research was conducted in an informal language setting outside the classroom environment where the researcher did not have control over extraneous variables which might affect the result of the study. A factorial design as a sub-design of Ex Post Facto design was utilized to find the correlation between the amount of exposure to various audiovisual programs and language proficiency development in the three groups.

3.5 Participants

Initially, a total of 182 language learners majoring in teaching of English as a second language (TESL) at the B.A level including both males and females volunteered for the research. The participants aged from 19 to 26 at the time of the study. A smaller population of 75 participants was selected out of the initial 182 participants based on a sample International English Language Testing System (IELTS) pre-test.

The 75 participants were divided into three differentiated language proficiency levels on the basis of the scores which they obtained in the pre-test; 25 participants who scored band 4 or 4.5 as low level, 25 participants who scored band 5 or 5.5 as intermediate level, and 25 participants who scored band 6 or 6.5 as upper-intermediate level. A point should be highlighted that advance level was not included in the study because of insufficient number of participants obtaining band scores of 7 and above (please refer to section 3.9.1 for details).

3.6 Instruments

Two instruments were utilized to elicit the necessary data for the present research: a set of two parallel IELTS language proficiency tests and a self-report sheet.

3.6.1 IELTS Language proficiency test

A set of two sample IELTS language proficiency tests including the four skills (speaking, listening, writing, and reading) were utilized from Cambridge IELTS 3 and 4 as pre-post-tests (Appendix H). Prior to the study, the sample IELTS language proficiency tests were verified to be parallel and reliable to ensure the internal validity of the findings (details of the verification process are in section 3.8).

3.6.2 Self- report sheet

To obtain data on the type and the amount of each participant's preferred choice of exposure to various authentic audiovisual programs, a self-report sheet was given to the 75 selected participants after the pre-test. The self-report sheet lists 10 different types of audiovisual programs for the participants to tick. The self-report sheet was verified through a pilot study (please refer to section 3.8 for the details).

3.7 Research site

The research was conducted in an ESL context. Similar to EFL contexts, the language learning in some ESL contexts such as Malaysia has very limited social interaction as a source of authentic language input for English language learning. However, language learners in EFL/ESL contexts can easily have access to various audiovisual programs through different technologies such as TV, CD players, etc. Moreover, many English language channels which broadcast different programs are also available. These

programs are a rich source of authentic language materials which can provide the required language input for language learning.

3.8 Pilot study

The term pilot experiment or pilot study is used in both qualitative and quantitative researches. According to Polit, Beck, and Hungler (2001), the pilot study can be used to uncover the feasibility of a particular study at a small scale version before the main study is carried out. Indeed, pilot study is the pre-testing of a particular research instrument (Baker, 1994).

For this purpose, a pilot study including two stages was conducted prior to the study. 60 trial language learners majoring in TEFL including both males and females participated in the first stage of the pilot study which aimed at verifying the pre-post tests. Subsequently, 30 participants from those who took part in the first stage were selected to participate in the second stage of the pilot study which aimed at verifying the self-report sheet. The pilot study had aimed at determining the feasibility of the research instruments. More particularly, the pilot study was set out to answer the following questions:

1. Are the pre-post tests parallel and reliable enough to be used for the study?
2. Are the questions in the self-report sheet clear?
3. Can the participants fill in the self-report sheet without any problem?
4. Are the entries for the self-report sheet sufficient for the intended data?

The first stage of the pilot study was to verify that the two sample IELTS language proficiency tests were parallel and reliable. This was done in two steps: in the first step

the two tests were verified to be parallel and in the second step the two tests were verified to be reliable.

In order for the two tests to be considered as parallel, they should measure the same ability or skill (Bachman, 1990). In other words, an individual's true scores on one test should be the same as his true scores on the other. However, Bachman (1990) highlighted the point that because it is never feasible to know the actual true scores for a given test, the definition of parallel tests in classical measurement theory should be utilized in order to verify that the selected sample tests are parallel.

According to the operational definition of parallel tests put forth by Bachman (1990), parallel tests are two tests of the same ability that have the same statistical means and variances when administered to the same group. Although it may never be possible to find two strictly parallel tests, the two tests are considered as parallel if the differences between their means and variances are not statistically great (Bachman, 1990).

In view of that, both sample IELTS language proficiency tests were administered to 60 trial participants within a week interval. Then, the means and the variances of both tests were calculated separately. The results of the statistical analysis of the both tests are as follows.

Table 3.1: Descriptive statistics related to the administration of the two tests to the same group

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
First Test	60	4.00	6.50	5.2167	0.75558	0.571
Second Test	60	4.00	7.00	5.3250	0.73545	0.541
Valid N	60					

Based on the results obtained from the administration of both tests to the 60 trial participants, the mean score of the first test was 5.2167 and the mean score of the second test was 5.3250. Moreover, the variance of the first test was 0.571 and the variance of the second one was 0.541. As the results show, both the means and the variances of both tests were almost the same. This was indicative of the fact that the two IELTS tests were parallel.

Following the first step, the second step was to verify the reliability of the two parallel IELTS language proficiency tests. Considering the issue of reliability in testing, there are many basic methods of estimating test reliability such as test-retest, parallel tests, split-half, KR-20, and KR21 (Hatch & Farhady, 1981; Bachman, 1990; Cresswell, 2003). However, it should be emphasized that employing split-half, KR-20, and KR-21 methods require utilizing the exact number of the test items in the formula. In this regard, there may be disagreement about the exact number of IELTS language proficiency test items because the writing and speaking tests are subjective. For that reason, parallel tests method was utilized to verify the reliability of the two sample parallel tests.

According to Bachman (1990), in order to calculate the reliability of two tests by parallel tests method, the correlation between the two tests should be calculated. Then, the correlation is considered as the reliability coefficient.

Hence, the reliability coefficient of both parallel IELTS tests was computed. The following table shows the results of the statistical analysis of the reliability coefficient of the two parallel tests.

Table 3.2: Reliability statistics related to the two parallel tests

Common Variance	0.556	
True Variance	0.496	
Error Variance	0.060	
Common Inter-Item Correlation	0.893	
The correlation between Test 1 & Test 2	0.943	N=60

From the results of the statistical analysis, the correlation between the two parallel tests was positive and significant. Moreover, the reliability coefficient of the two tests was calculated as 0.943 using the Cronbach's Alpha formula. This was indicative of the fact that the two parallel IELTS were also verified in terms of reliability.

The second instrument to be verified was the self-report sheet. 30 participants out of the initial 60 trial participants helped to verify the self-report sheet. In order to select 30 participants out of the 60 trial participants, the researcher utilized the two sets of overall IELTS band scores obtained by each of the 60 initial participants from the administration of both parallel IELTS language proficiency tests in the first stage of the pilot study. The mean band score for each participant was calculated separately. Following that, all the 60 participants were grouped into four differentiated language proficiency levels according to the following criteria:

- 23 participants who obtained 4 to 4.5 in the overall band score were considered as low level (entry level)
- 19 participants who obtained 5 to 5.5 in the overall band score were considered as intermediate level (level 1)
- 17 participants who obtained 6 to 6.5 in the overall band score were considered as upper intermediate (level 2)
- One participant who obtained 7 and above in the overall band score was considered as advance (level 3)

After that, the researcher selected 10 participants from each level for the self-report sheet verification process excluding the advance level because only one participant scored 7. In this way, the researcher conducted the pilot study with three differentiated language proficiency levels rather than four levels.

The 30 selected participants were then asked to take part in the second stage of the pilot study. The entries of data for the self-report sheet were explained to them during a briefing session. They were asked to choose to listen/watch the various audiovisual programs in an informal setting for a period of four weeks and report on their preferred type and amount of exposure by filling in the required columns of the self-report sheet. To increase the reliability of the amount of exposure entries, the participants were asked to document the average amount of exposure rather than the exact number of minutes, for example, five minutes, 10 minutes, or 15 minutes.

The 30 participants were asked to return the self-report sheets to the researcher once a week. To facilitate this, the researcher set one day a week for all the participants to return their self-report sheets. The researcher also provided the participants with a soft

copy of the self-report sheet and his email address so that they could email the self-report sheets in case of problem returning them in person.

In relation to the format and entries, the researcher asked the participants to report any possible difficulty or problem they faced while filling out the self-report sheet. They were also asked to add any other types of audiovisual programs which were not in the list provided. An expert in English language testing also gave his input evaluation of the format of the self-report sheet.

At the end, the second, third, and the fourth aims of the pilot study were achieved according to the input and the feedback extracted from the analysis of the participants' self-report sheets. It was found that the participants filled in the entries without any problem. However, some participants did not total up the amount of weekly exposure for some types of audiovisual programs. This was not a problem as it did not impact on the data obtained. The totaling of the amount of exposure to every type of audiovisual programs was done by the researcher himself. In addition, game shows and speeches were added as two types of audiovisual programs viewed by the participants.

Consequently, the results of the pilot study led to some modifications of the final draft of the self-report sheet (please refer to Appendix C for the actual version of the self-report sheet).

3.9 Data collection procedure

After verifying the sample IELTS language proficiency tests and modifying the self-report sheet, the main data collection procedure of the study was conducted. The actual data collection took place from 2 July to 28 October, 2011 i.e., 16 weeks in total. Before

the actual experiment began, permission for the conduct of the study was sought and granted from the administration. The data were collected in four stages: the pre-study selection and the pre-test, the self-report sheet entries, and the post-test.

3.9.1 Pre-study selection and pre-test

The pre-study selection stage which was concerned with the selection of the participants for the research was carried out concurrently with the administration of the pre-test. In this regard, the pre-test had dual roles. The first role was concerned with the pre-study selection which was based on the participants' language proficiency levels obtained from the administration of the pre-test to the initial population.

In order to obtain the language proficiency level of the participants, one of the parallel IELTS language proficiency tests was administered as a pre-test to a population of 182 language learners who volunteered to be part of the study. They included both males and females majoring in TEFL. From this 182, the initial intent was to scale 100 participants following the IELTS ranking criterion: 25 participants who obtain 4 or 4.5 in the overall band score were to be selected as low level (entry level), 25 participants who obtain 5 or 5.5 in the overall band score were to be selected as intermediate level (level 1), 25 participants who obtain 6 or 6.5 in the overall band score were to be selected as upper intermediate (level 2), and 25 participants who obtain 7 and above in the overall band score were to be selected as advance (level 3).

Regarding the administration of the IELTS language proficiency pre-test, it should be mentioned that two experts in language teaching and testing cooperated with two IELTS official raters to conduct the test. The language proficiency test consisted of listening, reading, writing and speaking tests. The listening, reading, and writing tests were given

to the 182 participants in one day. Moreover, it took three days to give the speaking test to all the 182 participants. The point should be made that the scoring was done by the two official IELTS raters and the inter-rater reliability was met ($r=0.937$)

The following results were obtained after the researcher received the scores of the IELTS language proficiency pre-test: 17 participants scored band below 4, 74 participants scored band 4 or 4.5, 46 participants scored band 5 or 5.5, 33 participants scored band 6 or 6.5, and three participants scored band 7.

Therefore, due to inadequate number of participants at the advance level, only 75 participants rather than 100 were selected: 25 participants as low level, 25 participants as intermediate level, and 25 participants as upper-intermediate level based on random judgment sampling. Insufficient number of participants' score band was 7 and above to be assigned as advance level language learners. Finally, the research was conducted only with low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate language proficiency levels. The same situation occurred in the pilot study where only one participant's band score was 7.

The second role of the pre-test was to provide the initial data to be compared with that of the post-test. In fact, one of the sources of data necessary for the present study was the scores obtained from the administration of one of the two parallel IELTS language proficiency tests as a pre-test in the pre-study selection. As was mentioned earlier, the test was administered to the initial 182 population as a pre-test to select 75 participants. The scores obtained by the 75 participants in the pre-test were used as a source of initial data to be compared with the scores obtained by them from the administration of the post-test (section 3.9.3) at the end of the research.

3.9.2 Data obtained from the self-report sheet

The self-report sheet was another source of data which was aimed at collecting information about the type and amount of exposure to audiovisual programs that each participant had during the research period.

After selecting 75 participants and assigning them to three differentiated language proficiency levels, they were asked to take part in a briefing session before the study was conducted. During the briefing session, the self-report sheet was explained in detail and a sample sheet was filled out for practice. Issues on how to return the self-report sheets, the number of sheets to be filled out, and the type of audiovisual programs were explained to the participants.

At the end of the briefing session, 16 hard copies (each one for one week) and one soft copy of the self-report sheet were given to each participant. The researcher made each self-report sheet exclusive to each participant by assigning a code for the name of the participant and a code for his/her language proficiency level. This was done to ease the data tabulation.

The self-report sheets were collected weekly. The participants were asked to either return one hard copy to the researcher once a week or send the completed self-report sheet via email to the researcher. Furthermore, the participants were asked to fill out a consent form (Appendix D) to give the researcher the permission to utilize the data obtained from the self-report sheets for research publication.

The duration of the research was four months (16 weeks). Throughout the research, the researcher asked all the participants in the three language proficiency levels to watch and listen to any type of audiovisual programs outside the classroom and keep a diary of the amount (minutes of exposure) and the type of the program(s) they watch, for example, news, movies, singing shows, documentary films or cartoons.

The point should be highlighted that in order to ensure that the participants were familiar with the concept of authenticity and different types of audiovisual programs, the following general concepts of various types of audiovisual programs (from Free Online Dictionary) were defined to them:

- **News** is the communication of selected information on current events which is presented by broadcast and the Internet in the form of audiovisual.
- **Movies** are fictional motion pictures which follow a story and have different types such as family, comedy, horror, action, and so on.
- **Documentary films** are nonfictional motion pictures which document some aspects of reality. Documentary films cover various topics such as science, technology, economy, and politics, history and so on.
- **Series** are daily or weekly programs with the same cast, format and a continuing story such as a soap opera, situation comedy, or drama.
- **Sports programs** are concerned with various sports events.
- **Talk shows** are shows in which notable people such as authorities in a particular field take part in discussions or are interviewed and often answer questions from viewers/listeners.
- **Game shows** are shows in which contestants compete for prizes by playing games of chance or knowledge.

- **Singing shows** are shows which broadcast various types of songs by different singers.
- **Cartoons** are TV programs for children featuring animals, superheroes, the adventures of child protagonists and related genres.
- **Speeches** are talks or public addresses usually by one person to a group of people about political, economic, social or other issues.

Then, some samples of various authentic audiovisual programs were also shown to them. Additionally, the participants were told not to record those English programs which are designed for language teaching. This is because the focus of the study was on authentic audiovisual programs. At the end of the study, the data obtained from the self-report sheets of the three groups were tabulated separately.

3.9.3 Data obtained from the post-test

The last source of data necessary for the present study was obtained from the second parallel IELTS language proficiency test which was utilized as a post-test. The test was administered to the 75 participants after the period of four months. The scoring was done by the two official IELTS examiners. The scores obtained by the 75 participants in the post-test were used as a source of data to be compared with the scores obtained by them from the administration of the pre-test at the pre-study selection.

3.10 Data analysis procedure

The present research employed SPSS 19 statistical software to analyze the data. Statistical analysis was carried out on the data from the two parallel IELTS pre-post tests and the self-report sheets at three stages. Table 3.3 shows the relationships between the designs, the instruments, and the research questions at the three stages of data analysis.

Table 3.3: The relationships between the designs, the instruments, and the research questions

STAGES	STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3
RESEARCH DESIGN	Survey	Pre-post tests	Ex-post facto
INSTRUMENTS	Self-report sheet	Parallel IELTS language proficiency tests	Parallel IELTS language proficiency tests
STATSTICAL TOOLS	Repeated measures of ANOVA	A paired samples t-test & Mixed ANOVA	Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	RQ 1	RQ 2,4	RQ 3

In the first stage, the self-report sheets of the participants in each language proficiency level provided quantitative data on the most preferred type and amount of exposure to audiovisual program.

The most preferred type of audiovisual program for each language proficiency level was considered to be the one which was viewed more by the participants in each group during the research period. This tabulation of the data obtained from the self-report sheets of the participants in the three differentiated language proficiency levels provided answer to the first research question.

The second stage of the data analysis was concerned with the data obtained from the pre-post-tests. The second stage was carried out at two levels: within and between groups comparison of the means of the two parallel IELTS language proficiency pre-post tests scores of the participants in groups one, two, and three to answer research questions two and four.

The first level of analyzing the results of the pre-post tests of each language proficiency level was the within groups comparison. Within group comparison was done by utilizing the statistical analysis of a t-test separately for data obtained from the administration of the pre-post tests to each group of language proficiency level. The t-test which was calculated for each group indicated the extent of language proficiency improvement through exposure to various types and amount of audiovisual programs. Moreover, by comparing the mean band scores of each language proficiency skill obtained by the three groups in the pre-post tests through applying the statistical analysis of t-test separately, the most improved language skill in each group was revealed.

The second level of analyzing the data obtained from the pre-post tests was between groups comparison. In relation to the between groups comparison of the band scores obtained from the pre-post-tests, it should be underscored that “planned comparison” and “post hoc comparisons” are two types of between groups comparison of the means (Hatch & Farhady, 1981). Planned comparison is utilized when there are strong empirical reasons that expect certain difference among the groups. However, most of the researchers tend to do comparison after the research which is post hoc comparison because they cannot say exactly the location of differences before the research (Hatch & Farhady, 1981). In this regard, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to reveal the difference in the means obtained by the three language proficiency levels.

The third stage of analyzing the data was first concerned with calculating the correlation between the amount of exposure to the most preferred type and language proficiency of each language proficiency level to answer research question three. Then, the

correlations between exposure to other types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency of each level were also calculated separately.

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter aimed at describing the methodology underlying the present research. Accordingly, issues related to the variables, the design, the subjects of the study, the instruments that were used to collect the data and reliabilities issues, the research site, the pilot study, the data collection procedure including participants selection and data collection, and finally the data analysis procedure were explained in detail.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This study aimed at discovering the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input on language proficiency development in informal settings. To this end, a quantitative methodology was employed by adapting a survey design to answer Research Question 1, a pre-post test design to answer Research Questions 2 and 4, and a factorial design (subset of ex post facto design) to answer Research Question 3. The participants of the study were 25 low, 25 intermediate, and 25 upper-intermediate proficiency levels selected out of 182 initial population based on the scores which they obtained from the administration of an IELTS test.

In view of the above, this chapter comprises two main sections: results and findings. The result section presents the descriptive results for each research question. The data related to all the participants and each differentiated language proficiency level is analyzed separately. A summary of the results is also presented at the end of each research question. The second section discusses the findings pertaining to all the participants as a whole as well as to each proficiency level.

4.2 Research question 1

A) What type of audiovisual program is reported to have been watched the most as an authentic source of language input by all the participants?

B) What type of audiovisual program is reported to have been watched the most as an authentic source of language input by each differentiated language proficiency level in informal settings?

4.2.1 All the participants' preferred type of audiovisual program

To answer part A of the first research question, the analysis of one way repeated measures of ANOVA was conducted for the data obtained from the self-report sheets of all the participants to assess if there were significant differences between the mean amounts of exposure to each type of audiovisual program. The assumptions of Sphericity and Normality of the data of all the participants were tested. The assumption of Normality was met but the assumption of Sphericity was violated (Chi-square=314.241, $P<0.001$). So, the Green House Geisser correction was used to correct the degrees of freedom.

The results indicated a significant main effect of program. $F(3.524, 85.229)=185.254$, $P<0.001$, partial $\eta^2=0.784$. Comparing this eta-squared value ($\eta^2=0.784$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria (0.01=small effect, 0.06=moderate effect, and 0.14=large effect), it is obvious that the obtained effect size of 0.784 is a great effect size which indicates that the mean amounts of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs are not equal. Among the various types of audiovisual programs, the participants had the highest exposure to news (Mean=3533.80 min, SD= 408.89), less exposure to movies (Mean=3453.20, SD=803.02), cartoons (Mean=3206.80, SD=1402.36), series (Mean=2269.33, SD=773.70), least amount of exposure to singing shows (Mean=392.93, SD=599.20), documentary films (Mean=125.60, SD=293.70), speeches (Mean=41, SD=39.86), talk shows (Mean=37.06, SD=277.05), sports programs (Mean=2.00, SD=21.21), and game shows (Mean=0.00, SD=0.00). Table 4.1 represents

a descriptive analysis of the data related to all the participants' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs as authentic language input in informal settings.

Table 4.1: All the participants' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs

Audiovisual Programs	Mean Amount of Exposure in Minutes	SD	N
News	3533.80	408.89	75
Movies	3453.20	803.02	75
Documentary films	98.93	293.70	75
Series	2269.33	773.70	75
Sports programs	2.00	21.21	75
Talk shows	37.06	277.05	75
Game shows	0.00	0.00	75
Singing shows	419.60	599.20	75
Cartoons	3206.80	1402.36	75
Speeches	41	39.86	75

Figure 4.1 is a graphic representation of all the participants' mean amounts of exposure from the most preferred to the least preferred type of audiovisual programs.

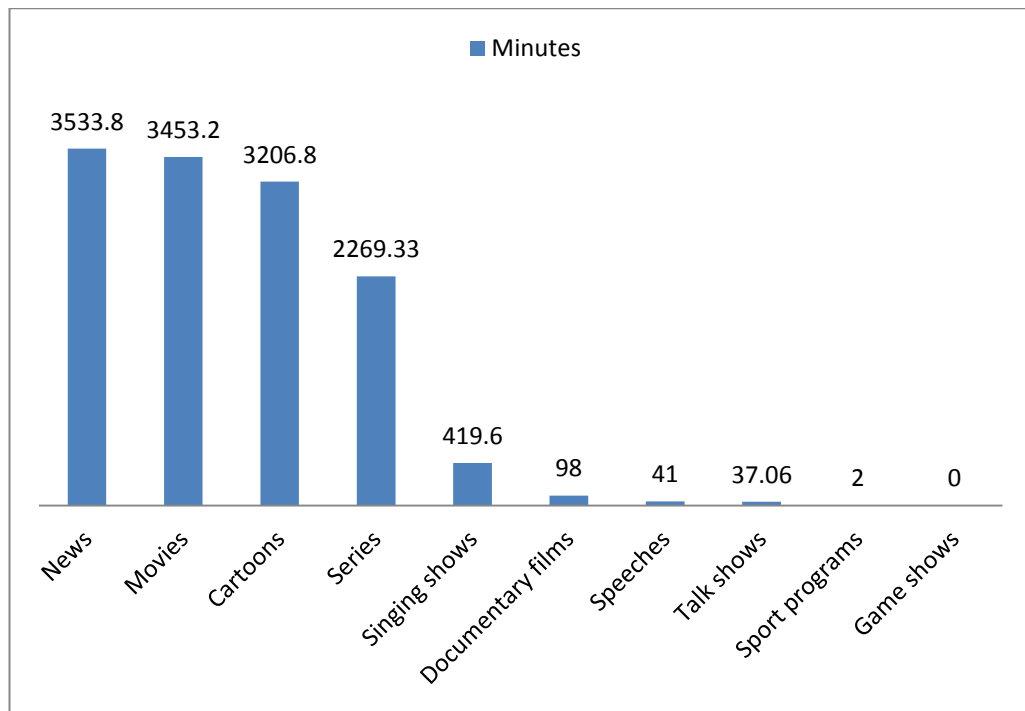


Figure 4.1: All the participants' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs

Further analysis of the self-report sheets of all the participants showed that all the seventy five participants spent some amount of time watching news and movies. With regard to the other types of audiovisual programs, seventy four participants watched series, seventy one participants watched cartoons, thirty five participants watched singing shows, seventeen participants watched documentary films, thirteen participants watched speeches, eight participants watched talk shows, two participants watched sports programs, and none of the participants watched game shows. Table 4.2 represents the total amount of time spent by all the participants on watching different audiovisual programs during the period of the study.

Table 4.2: The total amount of time spent by the participants watching different audiovisual programs during the period of the study (according to proficiency levels)

Proficiency Level	News	Movies	Documentary films	Series	sports programs	Talk shows	Game shows	singing shows	Cartoons	Speeches
Low	51765	73935	4150	42930	150	1800	0	13710	131255	330
Intermediate	85930	112325	1750	68725	0	540	0	7900	63760	2415
Upper-intermediate	127340	72730	1520	58545	0	440	0	9860	45495	1800
Total	265035	258990	7420	170200	150	2780	0	31470	240510	3075

According to Table 4.2, the low level participants spent more time than the intermediate or the upper-intermediate participants on watching documentary films, sports programs, talk shows, singing shows, and cartoons. The intermediate participants, on the other hand, spent more time than the low and the upper-intermediate participants on watching movies, series, and speeches. With regard to the upper-intermediate participants, they spent more time than the low and the intermediate participants on watching news. The details for the type of programs which the three differentiated proficiency levels watched are provided in the next section.

4.2.2 Low language proficiency level participants' preference

To obtain the results for the low level language learners, one way repeated measures of ANOVA was applied to assess whether there were significant differences between the mean amounts of exposure to each type of audiovisual programs. The assumptions of Sphericity and Normality were tested. The assumption of Normality was met but the

assumption of Sphericity was violated. (Chi-square=418.729, $P < 0.001$). So the Green House Geisser correction was used to correct the degrees of freedom.

The results indicated a significant main effect of program. $F(2.840, 68.160) = 199.974$, $P < 0.001$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.893$. Comparing this eta-squared value ($\eta^2 = 0.893$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it is obvious that the obtained effect size of 0.893 is a great effect size. This indicates that the mean amounts of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs are not equal. Among the various types of audiovisual programs, low level language learners had the highest exposure to cartoons (Mean=5259 min, SD=1402.36), less exposure to movies (Mean=2957.4, SD=803.02), news (Mean=2070.6, SD=408.89) and, series (Mean=1717.2, SD=773.70) and the least exposure to singing shows (Mean=548.40, SD=599.20), documentary films (Mean=166.00, SD=293.70), talk shows (Mean=72.00, SD=277.05), speeches (Mean=13.2, SD=39.86), sports programs (Mean=6.0, SD=21.21), and no exposure to game shows (Mean=0.0, SD=0.00).

Table 4.3 represents a descriptive analysis of the data related to low level language learners' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs as authentic language input in informal settings.

Table 4.3: The low level language learners' amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs

Audiovisual Programs	Mean Amount of Exposure in Minutes	SD	N
News	2070.60	408.89	25
Movies	2957.40	803.02	25
Documentary films	166.00	293.70	25
Series	1717.20	773.70	25
Sports programs	6.00	21.21	25
Talk shows	72.00	277.05	25
Game shows	0.00	0.00	25
Singing shows	548.40	599.20	25
Cartoons	5250.20	1402.36	25
Speeches	13.20	39.86	25

Figure 4.2 is a graphic representation of the low level language learners' mean amounts of exposure from the most preferred to the least preferred type of audiovisual programs.

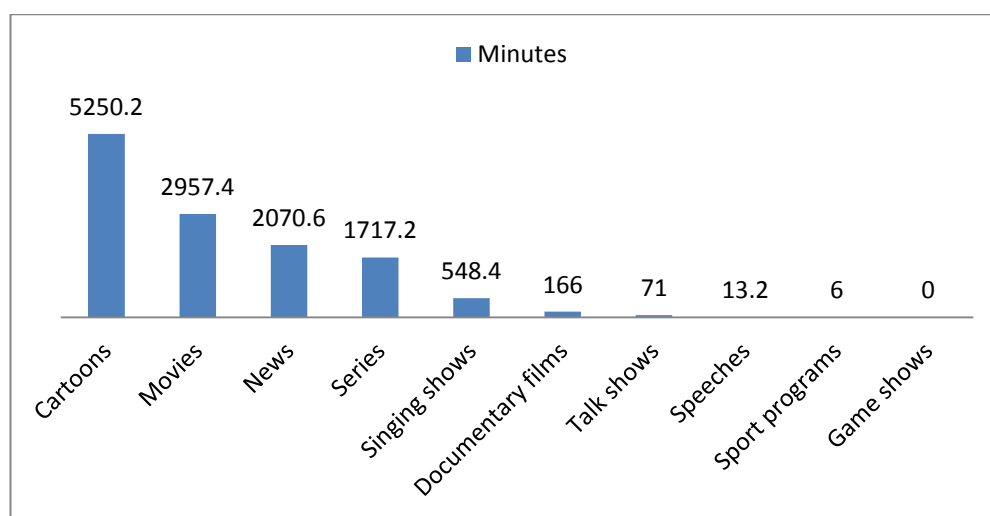


Figure 4.2: The low level participants' mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs

Based on the findings obtained from the self-report sheets which provided answer to the first research question, the low level participants preferred watching cartoons more than other types of audiovisual programs. One of the possible reasons might be related to the motivating and non-threatening nature of this type of audiovisual program. This is in line with the studies conducted by Clark (2000), Doring (2002), and Rule and Ague (2005) in which cartoons were generally understood to be preferred more by language learners because of the low affective filter atmosphere created which promotes a high degree of motivation. The high confidence and motivation achieved through exposure to cartoons is claimed to enhance the memory of the language learners when they try to make connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy in a comfortable atmosphere (Rule & Ague, 2005).

Similarly, the low level participants of the present study might have preferred cartoons more than other types of audiovisual programs because of the comfortable low anxiety atmosphere created by watching cartoons which probably made them make connections between the new materials and what they had already acquired. Another reason that various cartoon programs were preferred more by low level participants might be related to comprehensibility. The type of language input which is at/below low level language learners' proficiency level embedded in some of the cartoons might have created no comprehension difficulty for them.

4.2.3 Intermediate language proficiency level participants' preference

To obtain the results of the first research question for the intermediate level language learners, the analysis of one way repeated measures of ANOVA was conducted to assess whether there were significant differences between the mean amounts of exposure to each type of audiovisual program. Similar to the data of the low level

language learners, the assumptions of Sphericity and Normality were tested. The assumption of Normality was met but the assumption of Sphericity was violated. (Chi-square=425.516, $P<0.001$). So the Green House Geisser correction was used to correct the degrees of freedom.

The results indicated a significant main effect of program. $F(3.103, 74.467)=136.192$, $P<0.001$, partial $\eta^2=0.850$ which is a very large effect size based on Cohen's criteria. This indicates that the mean amounts of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs are not equal. Among the various types of audiovisual programs, the intermediate level language learners had the highest exposure to movies (Mean=4493 min, SD=1168.07), less exposure to news (Mean=3437.20, SD=1010.62), series (Mean=2749.00, SD=983.59), and cartoons (Mean=2550.40, SD=1720.42), and the least exposure to singing shows (Mean=316, SD=518.25), speeches (Mean=96.60, SD=189.59), documentary films (Mean=70, SD=290.91), and talk shows (Mean=21.60, SD=74.81), and no exposure to sports programs (Mean=00.00, SD=00.00), and game shows (Mean=00.00, SD=00.00).

Table 4.4 represents a descriptive analysis of the data related to the intermediate level language learners' mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs.

Table 4.4: The intermediate level language learners' amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs

Audiovisual Programs	Mean Amount of Exposure in Minutes	SD	N
News	3437.20	1010.62	25
Movies	4493.00	1168.06	25
Documentary films	70.00	290.91	25
Series	2749.00	983.59	25
Sports programs	0.00	0.00	25
Talk shows	21.60	74.81	25
Game shows	0.00	0.00	25
Singing shows	316.00	518.25	25
Cartoons	2550.40	1720.42	25
Speeches	96.60	189.59	25

The mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs from the most preferred to the least preferred type are displayed in Figure 4.3.

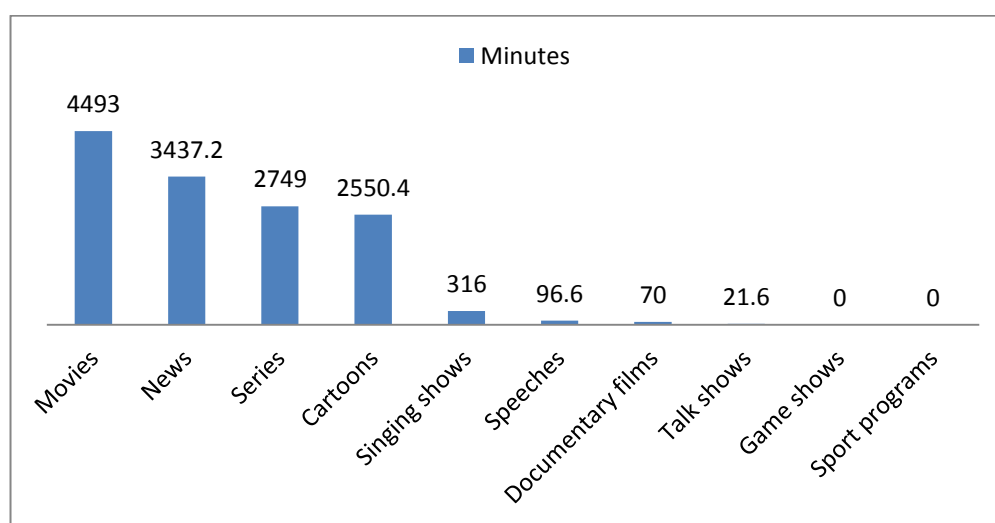


Figure 4.3: The intermediate participants' mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs

In contrast to the low level participants, the intermediate participants preferred movies more than other types of audiovisual programs. According to Stempleski (1992), Arcario (1993) and Kaiser (2011), exposure to the real spoken language such as that of the movies uttered in authentic settings often includes various types of speeches of different groups of people, nonnative speakers, slang, jargon, rural and urban speeches and a range of regional dialects that language learners will encounter in the use of the target language in real communication or the target language country. Indeed, movies provide language learners with multi-sensory input that is close to what they will likely find and encounter in real world communication (Arcario, 1993).

In view of the above, the intermediate participants with a better grasp of the language probably were able to follow the stories in the movies. Moreover, the interesting content along with a rich source of real language might have made movies as the most preferred type of audiovisual program for the intermediate level participants.

4.2.4 Upper-intermediate language proficiency level participants' preference

Similar to the data obtained from the self-report sheets of the low and the intermediate proficiency levels, an analysis of one way repeated measures of ANOVA was also applied to the self-report sheets data of the upper-intermediate proficiency level to assess whether there were significant differences between the mean amounts of exposure to each type of audiovisual programs. The first step was to test the assumptions of Sphericity and Normality. The results indicated that the assumption of Normality was met but the assumption of Sphericity was violated ($P < 0.001$). So, the Green House Geisser correction was used to correct the degrees of freedom.

The results indicated a significant main effect of program. $F(2.903, 69.665)=224.507$, $P<0.001$, partial $\eta^2=0.903$ with a very large effect size. This indicates that the mean amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs are not equal. Among the various types of audiovisual programs, the upper-intermediate level language learners had the highest exposure to news (Mean=5093.6, SD=1287.76), less exposure to movies (Mean=2909.20, SD=557.64), series (Mean=2341.80, SD=468.44), and cartoons (Mean=1819.80, SD=809.78), and the least exposure to singing shows (Mean=394.40, SD= 614.62), speeches (Mean=72, SD=169.21), documentary films (Mean=60.80, SD=170.80), and talk shows (Mean=17.60, SD=62.60). The upper-intermediate participants had no exposure to sports programs and game shows.

Table 4.5 represents a descriptive analysis of the data of the upper-intermediate level language learners mean amounts of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs.

Table 4.5: The upper-intermediate level language learners' amount of exposure to the various audiovisual programs

Audiovisual Programs	Mean Amount of Exposure in Minutes	SD	N
News	5093.60	1287.76	25
Movies	2909.20	557.64	25
Documentary films	60.80	170.80	25
Series	2341.80	468.44	25
Sports programs	0.00	0.00	25
Talk shows	17.60	62.60	25
Game shows	0.00	0.00	25
Singing shows	394.40	614.62	25
Cartoons	1819.80	809.78	25
Speeches	72.00	169.21	25

The mean amounts of the upper-intermediate language learners' exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs from the most preferred to the least preferred are presented in Figure 4.4.

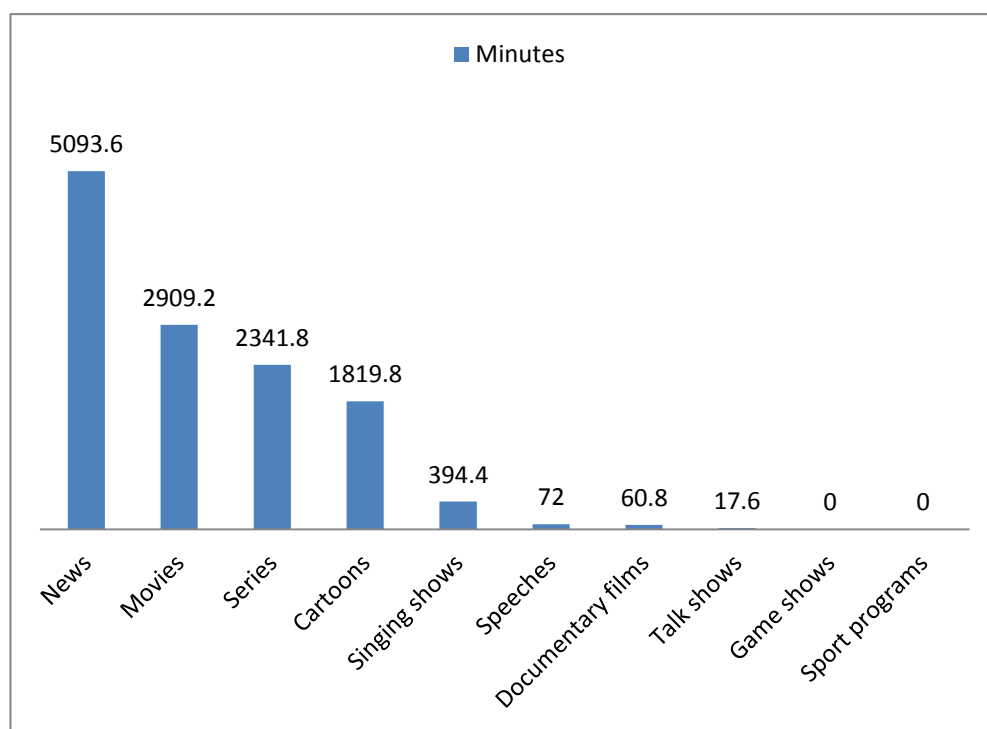


Figure 4.4: The upper-intermediate participants' mean amounts of exposure to the different types of audiovisual programs

The upper-intermediate level participants' preferences followed similar patterns as the intermediate level participants except for a switch in the first and the second preferences. The intermediate level participants' first preference was movies and the second was news. In contrast, the upper-intermediate level participants' first preference was news and the second was movies.

Regardless of the fact that audiovisual news is considered as a type of fast speeches which may require more cognitive processes for comprehension of the language input (Mackenzie, 1997), the upper-intermediate participants spent much of their time viewing audiovisual news. Audiovisual news are mostly about people's daily current events and according to Poon (1992), audiovisual news is the best type of authentic

material that provides an intrinsic reason for the language learners to spend more time on it.

The upper-intermediate participants' preference for news and movies might have been based on the quality of the programs regardless of the amount of time they had to spend comprehending and internalizing the language input.

4.2.5 Summary of the findings for the first research question

Taken as a whole, the most preferred type of audiovisual programs was news. Movies and cartoons were the second and the third preferred types of audiovisual programs for all the participants respectively. However, there are differences in the sequence of the preferences across the three differentiated language proficiency levels (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Participants' preferred types of audiovisual programs: All and the three language proficiency levels

Language proficiency level	First preference	Second preference	Third preference
All participants	News	Movies	Cartoons
Low level	Cartoons	Movies	News
Intermediate level	Movies	News	Series
Upper-intermediate level	News	Movies	Series

The low level participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program is cartoons and the second and the third most preferred types of audiovisual programs for them were movies and news. Movies and news were, interestingly, the first and the second most preferred types of audiovisual programs for the intermediate level participants. For the upper-intermediate level participants, the most preferred types of audiovisual programs were movies and news followed by series. In other words, the intermediate and the upper-intermediate level participants' preferences for audiovisual programs are very similar. News and movies are common among the three levels but not cartoons and series.

Next, the results for the second research question are analyzed for all the participants and the participants in the three differentiated proficiency levels to find out to what extent exposure to various audiovisual programs enhances language learners' language proficiency development.

4.3 Research question 2

- A) To what extent, do the participants improve their language proficiency during the period of the research?
- B) To what extent, do the participants in each differentiated language proficiency level improve their language proficiency during the period of the research?
- C) Which language proficiency level obtains the greatest significant improvement?

In order to answer Parts A and B of the research question 2 and to find out if there was any language proficiency improvement for all the participants and each differentiated language proficiency level, a paired-samples t-test was applied to compare the means of the pre-tests and the post-tests band scores of all the participants and each differentiated

language proficiency level separately. Then a mixed ANOVA with one between subject and one within subjects' variables was conducted to investigate the effect of groups and to answer Part C of the research question 2.

4.3.1 Language proficiency improvement of all the participants

According to the descriptive analysis of all the participants' data presented in Table 4.7, there was a significant difference in the means of the pre-test ($M=5.20$ $SD=0.75$) and the post-test ($M=5.54$, $SD=0.93$). Moreover, the results of the paired-samples t-test (Table 4.8) show that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of all the participants is 0.34, $t(74)=-7.79$, and $p=0.000$ which is smaller than 0.05. A comparison of the two means shows that the mean for the post-test was higher than the mean of the pre-test.

The magnitude of the differences in the means was large ($\eta^2=0.735$). Comparing this obtained eta-squared value ($\eta^2=0.735$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it is obvious that the obtained effect size of 0.735 is a large effect size. A large effect size suggests that the mean difference of the pre-post tests band scores of all the participants is very big or large. This implies that exposure to various audiovisual programs was very effective in improving the language proficiency of all the participants.

Table 4.7 presents the descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the administration of the pre-post tests to all the participants. Table 4.8 represents the descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the data of all the participants.

Table 4.7: The descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the pre-post tests for all the participants

Tests	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	5.20	75	0.75	0.08
Post-test	5.54	75	0.93	0.10

Table 4.8: The descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the data of all the participants

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre Band Score-Post Band Score	-0.34	0.38	0.44	-0.43	-0.25	-7.79	74	0.00

Further analysis of the data from all the participants' pre-post tests scores revealed that out of the total of 75 participants, 44 gained better post-test scores, 28 gained the same pre-post tests scores, and three received lower post-test scores. Details of these scores will be presented in the next section when presenting the results for each proficiency level.

4.3.2 Language proficiency improvement of the low level participants

According to the descriptive analysis of the low level language learners' data presented in Table 4.9, there was a significant difference in the means of the pre-test ($M=4.30$ $SD=0.25$) and the post-test ($M=4.46$, $SD=0.32$). Moreover, the results of the paired-samples t-test (Table 4.10) show that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of the low level participants is 0.16, $t(24)=-2.551$, and $p=0.018$ which is smaller than 0.05. A comparison of the two means shows that the mean for the post-test was higher than the mean of the pre-test.

The magnitude of the differences in the means was large ($\eta^2=0.033$). Comparing this obtained eta-squared value ($\eta^2=0.033$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it is obvious that the obtained effect size of 0.033 is a moderate effect size. A moderate effect size suggests that the mean difference of the pre-post tests band scores of the low level language proficiency group is not very big or large. This implies that the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs was minor in improving the language proficiency of the low level language learners. Table 4.9 presents the descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the administration of the pre-post tests to the low level language learners. Table 4.10 represents the descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the low level language learners' data.

Table 4.9: The low level language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores

Tests	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	4.30	25	0.25	0.23
Post-test	4.46	25	0.32	0.41

Table 4.10: Descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the low level language learners' data

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre Band Score-Post Band Score	-0.16	0.31	0.06	-0.28	-0.03	-2.55	24	0.018

Figure 4.5 is a graphic representation related to the low language learners' pre-post tests scores. As the graph shows, sixteen participants' band scores were the same in the pre-post tests, eight participants' band scores increased in the post-test, and one participant's band score decreased in the post-test.

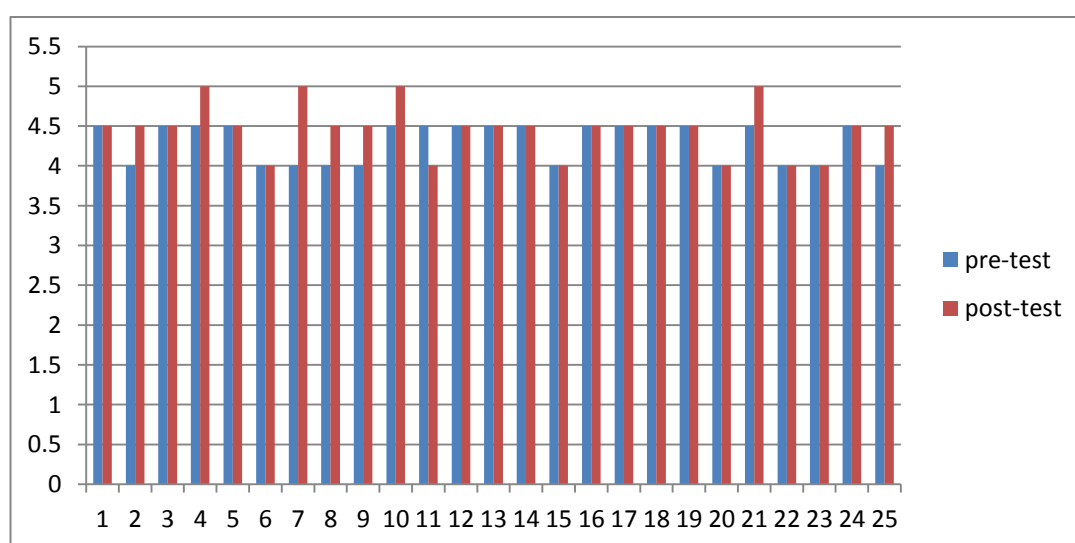


Figure 4.5: The graphic representation of the low language learners' pre-post tests scores

Considering the second research question, the findings of the paired-samples t-test of the low level participants' pre-test and post-test mean band scores indicated that the low level participants' could improve their language proficiency but it was not statistically significant. One of the possible reasons for the low level participants' lack of significant language proficiency improvement might be related to the choice of audiovisual program i.e. mainly cartoons. The language input provided by cartoons, which the low level participants watched, most probably was not of the quality that could enhance their language proficiency significantly.

By considering the data obtained from the pre-post tests (Figure 4.5) and the self-report sheets of the participants in the low level (Appendix E), it was found that all the 25 participants spent some amount of time watching cartoons (from 3110 min to 7050 min). More particularly, the sixteen participants who gained the same post-test scores spent most of their time watching cartoons, movies, news, and series. In addition to these four types of audiovisual programs, eleven of the participants who gained the same post-test scores also spent some time watching singing shows. Besides this, three of them spent some time watching talk shows, two of them watched speeches, one of them watched sports programs, one of them also spent some time watching documentary films, and none of them watched game shows.

More relevant would be the eight participants who gained better post-test scores. The data from their self-report sheets showed that all of them spent most of their time also watching cartoons, movies, news, and series. However, besides these four types of audiovisual programs, six of the participants also spent some time watching documentary films, five of them spent some time watching singing shows, one of them spent some time watching speeches, one of them spent some time watching sports

programs, and none of them watched talk shows and game shows. And finally the one participant who gained lower score in the post-test also spent most of his/her time watching only cartoons, movies, news, series, talk shows, and singing shows.

This finding seems to contradict Rule and Ague (2005) who claimed that students who have a great amount of exposure to cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores. Rule and Ague (2005), however, did not provide any empirical evidence of the students' achieving higher test scores through greater amount of exposure to cartoons. Similarly, they did not provide any information about the type of cartoons and the type of activities to be utilized.

The finding of the second research question for the low level group also contradicts Bahrani and Tam's (2012) research regarding the effectiveness of greater exposure to cartoons in formal settings on the low level participants' language proficiency improvement. According to Bahrani and Tam (2012), careful selection of cartoons which include those aspects of the language which the low level participants have not acquired yet along with the motivating feature of such audiovisual programs can significantly enhance the language proficiency of the low level participants.

In contrast to the study of Bahrani and Tam (2012), the low level participants of the present research who had greater amount of exposure to cartoons more than other types of audiovisual programs in informal settings did not improve their language skills. The point should be highlighted that unlike the research conducted by Bahrani and Tam (2012) in which the audiovisual program was controlled, in this study, the type and the content of the cartoons which the low level participants of the present watched were not controlled by the researcher. In Bahrani and Tam's (2012) study, the selected cartoons

were rich in language input. They were selected by the researcher from, for example, *Shrek 1 and Toys*.

In view of the above, one of the possible reasons behind the low level participants' lack of significant language proficiency improvement might be related to the language input embedded in the preferred type of audiovisual program. Because the low level participants were in charge of selecting their preferred type of audiovisual programs, the content of the language input embedded in the cartoons which they selected to watch might not have been so rich in terms of language input to contribute to SLA development.

By further analysis of the data obtained from the self-report sheets, it was found that the low level language learners who watched cartoons spent much of their time viewing different segments rather than the same segments of the cartoons. For the language input to be apperceived, comprehended, and internalized, certain degree of repetition and recognition of the language input is necessary (Blachford, 1973). In the case of the low level participants, it is likely that the language input of cartoons was very limited and was deemed comprehensible; so, it was not necessary to repeat the segments. This, however, does not seem to enhance SLA development.

Moreover, as was discussed earlier, the low level participants might have preferred and watched cartoons more than other types of audiovisual programs merely because of the motivating feature of this type of programs. According to many anecdotal studies (Clark, 2000; Doring, 2002; Rule & Ague, 2005), cartoons can increase the motivation of the language learners. However, this increase in the motivation may not necessarily translate into SLA development given the duration of this study.

Another possibility for the low level participants' lack of significant language proficiency improvement which has not been investigated might be related to the amount of language input in cartoons that have been selected by the learners. The watching time might be immense but the amount and the quality of the language input might be debatable.

4.3.3 Language proficiency improvement of the intermediate level participants

The analysis of the data obtained from the results of the pre-post tests of the intermediate language learners (Table 4.11) indicated that there was a significant difference in the mean of the pre-test ($M=5.24$, $SD=0.25$) and the post-test ($M=5.56$, $SD=0.33$). Additionally, the results of the paired-samples t-test presented in Table 4.12 show that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of the intermediate level participants is 0.32, $t(24)=-3.720$, and $p=0.001$ which is smaller than 0.05.

A comparison of the two means indicates that the mean for the post-test was significantly higher than the mean of the pre-test. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large ($\eta^2=0.366$). Comparing this eta-squared value obtained ($\eta^2=0.366$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it can be concluded that the obtained effect size is a large effect size. A large effect size implies that exposure to various audiovisual programs was significantly effective in improving the language proficiency of the intermediate level language learners.

Table 4.11 presents the descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the administration of the pre-post tests to the intermediate level language learners. Moreover, Table 4.12 represents the descriptive analysis of the paired-sample t-test for the intermediate level language learners' data.

Table 4.11: The intermediate language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores

Tests	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	5.24	25	0.25	0.05
Post-test	5.56	25	0.33	0.66

Table 4.12: Descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the intermediate level language learners' data

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre Band Score-Post Band Score	-0.32	0.43	0.08	-0.049	-0.14	-3.72	24	0.001

The intermediate language learners' pre-post tests scores are shown in Figure 4.6. According to the graph, nine participants' band scores were the same in the pre-post tests, 14 participants' band scores increased in the post-test, and two participants' band score decreased in the post-test.

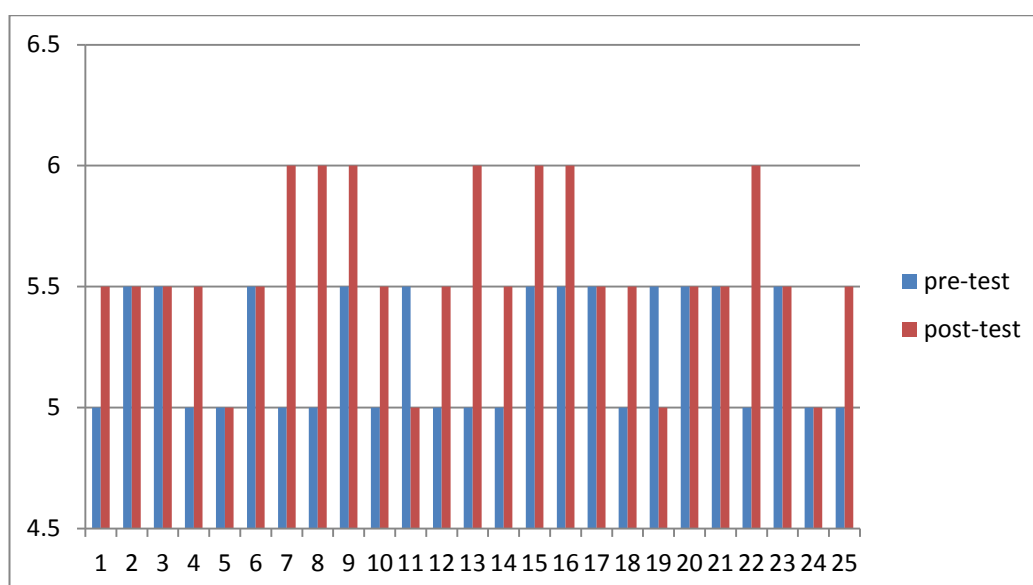


Figure 4.6: The graphic representation of the intermediate language learners' pre-post tests scores

By considering the data obtained from the pre-post tests and the self-report sheets of the participants in the intermediate level, it was found that all the nine participants who gained the same post-test scores spent most of their time watching movies, news, series, and cartoons. In addition to these four types of audiovisual programs, three of the participants who gained the same post-test scores also spent some time watching documentary films, and two of them also watched singing shows, and none of them watched sports programs, talk shows, game shows, and speeches.

With regard to the fourteen participants whose post-test scores were better than their pre-test scores, the data from the their self-report sheets showed that all of them spent most of their time watching movies and news. Besides these two types of audiovisual programs, thirteen of the participants also spent some time watching series, eleven of them also watched cartoons, six of them also watched speeches, four of them also watched singing shows, three of them also watched documentary films, two of them spent some time watching talk shows, and none of them watched sports programs and game shows.

And finally the two participants whose post-test scores were lower than their pre-test scores spent most of their time watching movies, news, series, and cartoons. One of them also spent some time watching documentary films. None of them, however, watched sports programs, talk shows, game shows, singing shows, and speeches.

Generally, a comparison between the self-report sheets of those who gained higher or the same post-test scores with the two participants whose scores decreased in the post-test showed that the two participants spent more time watching different programs than eighteen participants (out of 23) who gained better or the same post-test scores. This may indicate that the higher amount of exposure might not necessarily contribute more to SLA development. In contrast, less amount of exposure to language input that is of the quality that can enhance language proficiency development might be much more important.

The significant language proficiency improvement gained by the intermediate level participants supports and sheds more light into the qualitative studies of Chapple and Curtis (2000), Gebhardt (2004), Heffernan (2005), and Ryan (1998) which claimed that exposure to movies can enhance motivation and language learning. Chapple and Curtis (2000) claimed that movies have many cross-cultural values, provide an excellent basis for the development of critical thinking skill, provide a rich source of content for language learners, and offer linguistic diversities. Besides, the visual input of movies such as the interesting content, extended context, and rich visual imagery make movies a relevant source of motivating authentic material for language learning. The contextual clues also help students' comprehension of the language used in the movies (Chapple & Curtis, 2000).

The results of the intermediate proficiency level participants also shed more light to the quantitative studies conducted by Yuksel (2009), Huang and Eskey's (2000), Markham (1999), and Hayati and Mohmedi (2011). According to Yuksel (2009), captioned movie clips are pedagogically valuable source of vocabulary learning for EFL learners. Markham (1999) also underscored the effectiveness of captioned videotapes on second language listening word recognition skills. Similarly, Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) found that movies with English subtitles were more effective in improving language learners' listening comprehension than movies without subtitles.

Unlike the above-mentioned studies, however, the content and the mode of the movies which the participants of the present research watched were not controlled by the researcher. In fact, the intermediate level participants of the present research might have watched movies with different modes such as subtitled or captioned ones. The result of the second research question for the intermediate level group is indicative of the fact that greater exposure to various audiovisual programs particularly movies is very effective in improving the intermediate level participants' language proficiency.

4.3.4 Language proficiency improvement of the upper-intermediate level participants

According to the descriptive analysis of the data presented in Table 4.13, there was a significant difference in the mean of the pre-test ($M=6.06$, $SD=0.16$) and the post-test ($M=6.62$, $SD=0.26$). The results of the paired-samples t-test presented in Table 4.14 also show that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of the upper-intermediate participants is 0.56, $t(24)=-9.33$, and $p<0.001$.

Table 4.13: The upper- intermediate level language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores

Tests	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	6.06	25	0.16	0.03
Post-test	6.62	25	0.26	0.05

Table 4.14: Descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the upper-intermediate level language learners' data

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre Band Score-Post Band Score	-0.56	0.30	0.60	-0.68	-0.43	-9.33	24	0.00

Based on the results obtained from the comparison of the two means, the mean for the post-test was significantly higher than the mean of the pre-test. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large ($\eta^2=0.784$). Comparing this eta-squared value obtained ($\eta^2=0.784$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, the obtained effect size is a very large effect size which implies that exposure to various audiovisual programs was significantly effective in improving the language proficiency of the upper-intermediate level language learners.

Figure 4.7 is a graphic representation related to the upper-intermediate language learners' pre-post tests scores. Accordingly, three participants' band scores were the same in pre-post tests and twenty two participants' band scores increased in the post-test.

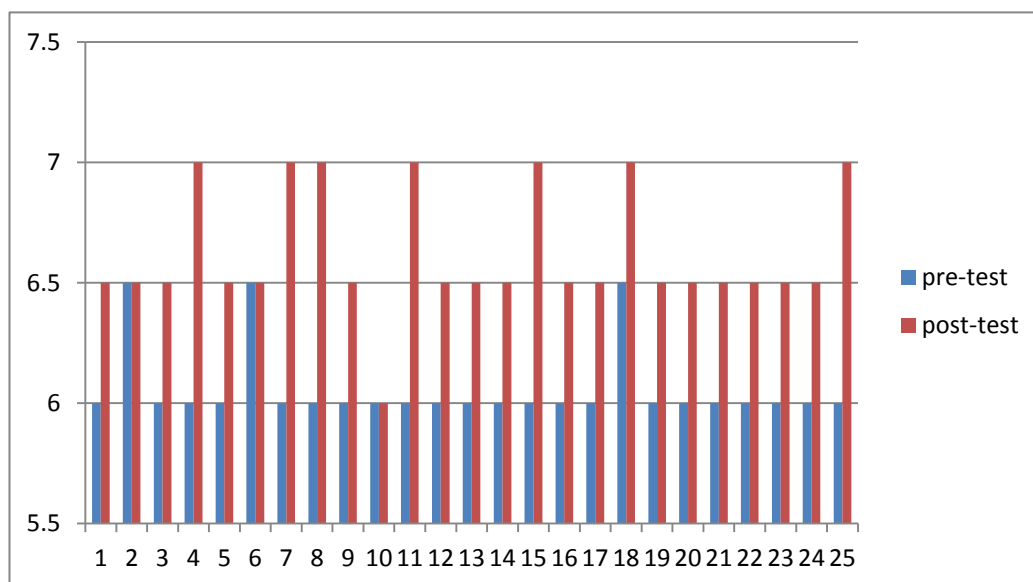


Figure 4.7: The graphic representation of the upper-intermediate language learners' pre-post tests scores.

The findings of the paired-samples t-test of the upper-intermediate level participants' pre-test and post-test mean band scores indicated that similar to the intermediate level participants and unlike the low level participants, upper-intermediate level participants improved their language proficiency significantly. One of the reasons for the upper-intermediate participants' significant language proficiency development might be related to the type of audiovisual program which they had exposure to during the period of the study.

By considering the data obtained from the pre-post tests and the self-report sheets of the participants in the upper-intermediate level, it was found that all the three participants who gained the same post-test scores spent most of their time watching news, movies, series, and cartoons. In addition to these four types of audiovisual programs, two of the

participants who gained the same post-test scores also spent some time watching singing shows and one of them spent some time watching speeches. None of them watched documentary films, sports programs, talk shows, and game shows.

With regard to the twenty two participants whose post-test scores were better than their pre-test scores, the data from their self-report sheets showed that all of them also spent most of their time watching news, movies, and series. Besides these three types of audiovisual programs, twenty one of the participants also spent some time watching cartoons, eleven of them spent some time watching singing shows, three of them spent some time watching speeches, three of them spent some time watching documentary films, two of them spent some time watching talk shows, and none of them watched sports programs and game shows.

Accordingly, similar to the twenty two participants who gained better post-test scores, the three participants who gained the same pre-post tests scores spent most of their time watching news, movies, and series. By further considering the self-report sheets of the upper-intermediate level participants it is found that the amount of time spent on watching various audiovisual programs by one of the three participants was also more than the amount of time spent separately by twenty two participants (out of twenty two participants) who gained better scores in the post-test. The amount of time spent on watching various audiovisual programs by the other two participants who gained the same pre-post tests scores was also more than the amount of time spent separately by eight participants (out of twenty two participants) who gained better scores in the post-test. It can be inferred that although the three participants spent more amount of time on watching various types of audiovisual programs compared with some of the participants, they did not gain better scores in the post-test.

As it was found from the first research question, the upper-intermediate level participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program was news. The quality of the language input embedded in news broadcasts might be one of the reasons for the upper-intermediate level language learners' language proficiency improvement. There are some characteristics which are observed in developing any news broadcasts that make the quality of the language input of news broadcast pedagogically valuable to provide opportunities for language proficiency enhancement.

One of the distinctive features of audiovisual news that make it pedagogically valuable to be incorporated in language learning classrooms is vocabulary recycling (Brinton & Gaskill, 1987). The recycling feature of vocabulary in audiovisual news genre is also considered as redundancy of language input which facilitates comprehension (Chaudron, 1983; Chiang & Dunkel, 1992). In the same line, because news writers are aware of the role of the news genre in the public attitude, they make their efforts to present the news, discussions, and commentaries as precisely and directly as possible to draw individuals' attention. To do this, specific vocabulary items and structure are used in various news in order to make the news more understandable for a large group of people. As a result, ambiguous structures which may hinder comprehension are not used as much as possible in developing news items. Because the news often includes the same jargon and utterances, a good pedagogical benefit implicitly exists in TV news programs (Blatchford, 1973).

The finding of the present research sheds more light to a pool of qualitative and quantitative studies on the effectiveness of exposure to audiovisual news as pedagogically valuable and rich source of authentic language input to be utilized for language learning (Bahrani & Tam, 2011; Baker, 1996; Beach & Somerholter, 1997;

Bell, 2003; Berber, 1997; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992; Wetzel et al, 1994; to name only a few).

According to Poon (1992), exposure to audiovisual news seems to be more effective than other types of authentic materials because of the standard English spoken by the newscasters and the topics which are about people's daily events. The language input of the news broadcasts is also less informal which renders a much easier comprehension process for non-native speakers. However, a point should be highlighted that the previous quantitative studies were conducted with intermediate level language learners and in classroom settings. It should be noted that in this study, given the freedom to choose on their own, the upper-intermediate language learners could select appropriate audiovisual programs for their own language development. In the same line, the findings of the present research showed that the upper-intermediate language learners can also benefit from exposure to news broadcasts.

In a nutshell, similar to the intermediate level participants, the upper-intermediate level participants seem to prefer a type of audiovisual program that provide opportunities for SLA. They seem to be able to select the type of audiovisual program that could enhance language development.

4.3.5 The highest significant language proficiency improvement

Part (C) of research question 3: Which language proficiency level obtains the greatest significant improvement?

Part C of the second research question examines the differentiated language proficiency level which gained the highest significant improvement. To obtain this result, the study incorporated between subjects variables of proficiency groups with three levels (low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate), and the within-subject variable of test (pre-test and post-test). Hence, a mixed ANOVA with one between subject and one within subjects' variables was conducted to investigate the effect of groups and to find out which language proficiency level obtained the highest significant improvement. For this purpose, the assumption of Normality was tested and it was met.

According to Table 4.15, the first group, the low level, participants' mean band score in the pre-test was 4.30, SD=0.25 and in the post-test was 4.46, SD=0.32. The mean band score difference between the pre-test and the post-test was 0.16, SD=0.31. As a result, the rate of the increase in the language proficiency development of the low level participants was 1.04%. The second group, the intermediate level, participants' mean band score in the pre-test was 5.24, SD=0.25 and in the post-test was 5.56, SD=0.33. The mean band score difference between the pre-test and the post-test was 0.32, SD=0.43. The rate of the increase in the language proficiency development of the intermediate level participants was 1.06%. Finally, the third group, the upper-intermediate level, participants' mean band score in the pre-test was 6.06, SD=0.16 and in the post-test was 6.62, SD=0.261. The mean band score difference between the pre-

test and the post-test was 0.56, SD=0.30. The rate of the increase in language proficiency development of the upper-intermediate level participants was 1.09%.

Table 4.15: Descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests mean band scores of the low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate levels

Groups	Pre- test Mean Score	SD	Post- test Mean Score	SD	Mean Difference	SD	Rate of Increase
Low	4.30	0.25	4.46	0.32	0.16	0.31	1.04
Intermediate	5.24	0.25	5.56	0.33	0.32	0.43	1.06
Upper- intermediate	6.06	0.16	6.62	0.26	0.56	0.30	1.09

The results of tests for between-subject effects indicated that the groups exerted a significant effect on the language proficiency improvement. $F(2, 72)=576.56$, $P<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.941$.

The effect size, calculated using eta-squared was 0.941 showing that the mean difference between the improvement made by the three differentiated language proficiency levels was large. Moreover, the results indicated a significant interaction effect between the test and the groups. $F(2, 72)=8.143$, $P=0.0001$, $\eta^2=0.184$. This means that the overall trend of improvement across the pre-test and the post-test is different for the low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate groups (Figure 4.8).

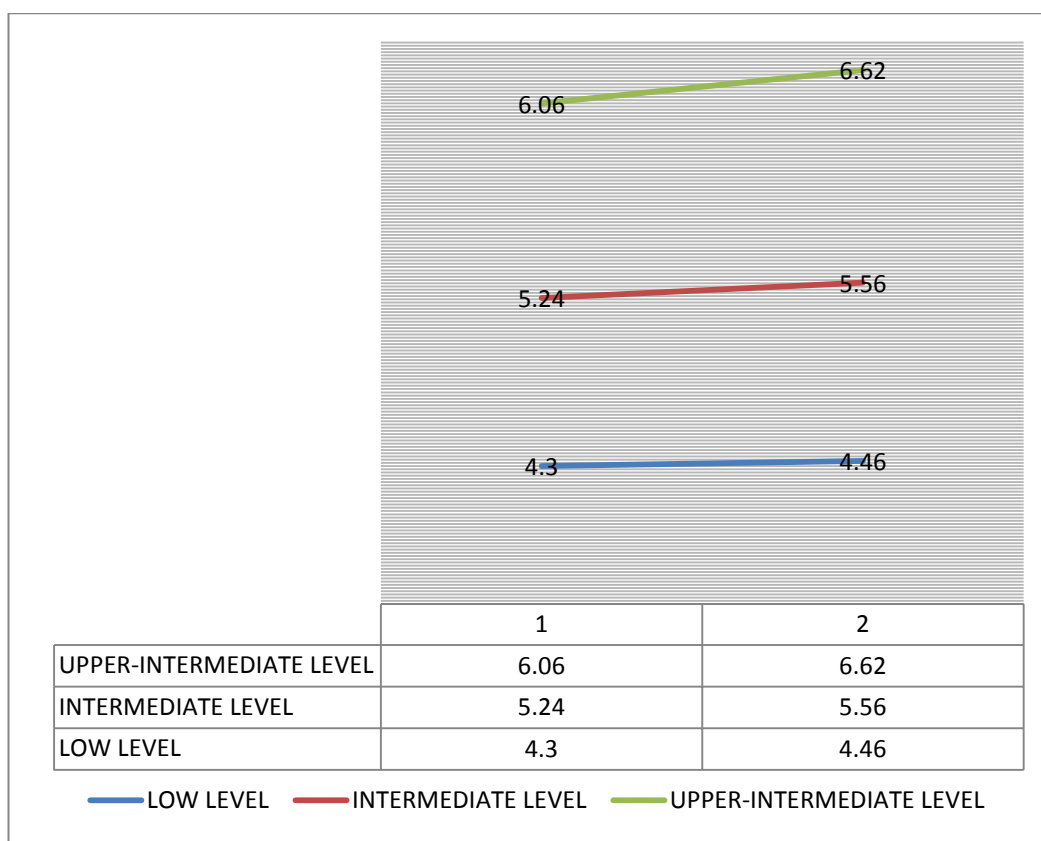


Figure 4.8: The trend of the rate of increase in the pre-post tests scores in all proficiency groups

The results of the tests of between-subjects effects were followed with Bonferoni Post Hoc multiple comparisons test. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean of improvement score for the following pairs:

First, the low proficiency + the intermediate proficiency where the low proficiency group had a mean improvement=0.16, SD=0.313 and the intermediate group had a mean improvement=0.32, SD=0.43). The mean difference is (MD) 0.16 and the p-value is smaller than 0.001.

Second, the low proficiency + the upper-intermediate proficiency where the low proficiency group had a mean improvement=0.16, SD=0.313 and the upper-intermediate group had a mean improvement=0.56, SD=0.30. The mean difference is 0.40 and the p-value is smaller than 0.001. This means that this pair had a larger mean difference than the first pair.

Finally, the third pair which shows a significant difference is the intermediate proficiency + the upper-intermediate proficiency. The intermediate proficiency level had a mean improvement=0.32, SD=0.43 and the upper-intermediate level had a mean improvement=0.56, SD=0.30). The mean difference is 0.24 and the p-value is smaller than 0.001.

According to the results of the Bonferoni Post Hoc multiple comparisons of the improvement means of the three differentiated language proficiency levels, the difference between the mean improvements is statistically significant in all the three above-mentioned comparisons. However, the difference between the low proficiency group and the upper-intermediate group was the largest difference among others. As was shown in Table 4.15, the rate of increase in the upper-intermediate level was more than the low proficiency and the intermediate proficiency groups. Accordingly, the upper-intermediate proficiency group gained the highest significant improvement in language proficiency.

4.3.6 Summary of the findings for the second research question

The second research question was aimed at finding out whether there was any language proficiency improvement for all the participants and the participants in each differentiated language proficiency level. To this end, a paired-samples t-test was applied to compare the means of the pre-tests and the post-tests band scores of all the participants and each differentiated language proficiency level separately. Research question two also aimed at finding out which language proficiency level obtained the greatest significant improvement. The summary of the results of the second research question is presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for all participants and the three differentiated proficiency levels

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean difference (Pre – Post)	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
All the participants	-0.34	0.38	0.44	-0.43	-0.25	-7.79	74	0.00
Low level	-0.16	0.31	0.06	-0.28	-0.03	-2.55	24	0.018
Intermediate level	-0.32	0.43	0.08	-0.049	-0.14	-3.72	24	0.001
Upper-intermediate level	-0.56	0.30	0.60	-0.68	-0.43	-9.33	24	0.00

As the table shows, the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of all the participants was 0.34, $t(74) = -7.79$, and $p = 0.00$ which was smaller than 0.05. A comparison of the two means showed that the mean for the post-test was higher than the mean of the pre-test. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large ($\eta^2 = 0.735$). Comparing this obtained eta-squared value ($\eta^2 = 0.735$) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it was obvious that the obtained effect size of 0.735 was a large effect size. A large effect size suggested that the mean difference of the pre-post tests band scores of all the participants was very big or large which implies that exposure to various audiovisual programs was very effective in improving the language proficiency of all the participants.

With regard to the low level participants, the results of the paired-samples t-test showed that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of the low level participants was 0.16, $t(24) = -2.551$, and $p = 0.018$ which was smaller than 0.05. A comparison of the two means showed that the mean for the post-test was higher than the mean of the pre-test. The magnitude of the differences in the means was a moderate effect size ($\eta^2 = 0.033$) according to Cohen's (1988) criteria which implied that exposure to various audiovisual programs was not very effective in improving the language proficiency of the low level language learners.

For the intermediate level participants, the results of the paired-samples t-test indicated that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of them was 0.32, $t(24) = -3.720$, and $p = 0.001$ which was smaller than 0.05. A comparison of the two means indicated that the mean for the post-test was significantly higher than the mean of the pre-test. According to Cohen's (1988) criteria, the magnitude of the differences in the means was large ($\eta^2 = 0.366$) which implied that exposure to various audiovisual programs was very effective in improving the language proficiency of the intermediate level language learners.

The results of the paired-samples t-test for the upper-intermediate level participants showed that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of them was 0.56, $t(24) = -9.33$, and $p < 0.001$. The mean for the post-test was significantly higher than the mean of the pre-test. Besides, the magnitude of the differences in the means was very large ($\eta^2 = 0.784$) based on Cohen's (1988) criteria which implied that exposure to various audiovisual programs was very effective in improving the language proficiency of the upper-intermediate level language learners.

And finally, according to the results of the Bonferoni Post Hoc multiple comparisons of the improvement means of the three differentiated language proficiency levels, the difference between the mean improvements was statistically significant in all the three comparisons (the low proficiency + the intermediate proficiency (mean difference=0.16), low proficiency + the upper-intermediate proficiency (mean difference=0.40), and the intermediate proficiency + the upper-intermediate proficiency (mean difference=0.24)). However, the difference between the low proficiency group and the upper-intermediate group was the largest difference among others. The results showed that, the upper-intermediate proficiency group had the highest significant improvement in language proficiency.

In the next section, the correlations between the amounts of exposure to various audiovisual programs and language learners' language proficiency improvements are analyzed for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels separately.

4.4 Research question 3

- A) What is the correlation between the amount of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs and the language proficiency improvement of all the participants?
- B) What is the correlation between the amount of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement of the three differentiated language proficiency levels?

In order to answer parts A and B of the third research question, the relationship between the amount of exposure to news (X_1), movies (X_2), documentary films (X_3), series (X_4), sports programs (X_5), talk shows (X_6), game shows (X_7), singing shows (X_8), cartoons

(X₉), and speeches (X₁₀) as the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement (Y) was investigated for all the participants and each language proficiency level separately using the Pearson product-moment correlation formula. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality and linearity. Moreover, Guilford's (1973) Rule of Thumb (Table 4.17) for interpreting Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was utilized.

Table 4.17: Guilford's (1973) rule of thumb for interpreting pearson correlation coefficient

Correlation	Interpretation
0.0 to 0.29	Negligible or little correlation
0.3 to 0.49	Low correlation
0.5 to 0.69	Moderate or marked correlation
0.7 to 0.89	High correlation
0.9 to 1.00	Very high correlation

4.4.1 The correlations for the data of all the participants

As the results obtained from the statistical analysis of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the data of all the participants presented in Table 4.18 indicate, the first highest relationship was found between news (X₁) and language proficiency improvement (Y). In fact, the amount of exposure to news significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.768$, $p=0.002$). The correlation coefficient of 0.768 obtained showed that there was a high relationship between (X₁) and language proficiency improvement (Y).

Table 4.18: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of all the participants

Variables		Y	P-value
Y	Change in proficiency level	1.00	
X ₁	News	0.768**	0.002
X ₂	Movies	0.584**	0.005
X ₃	Documentary films	0.121	0.023
X ₄	Series	0.371**	0.003
X ₅	Sports programs	0.017	0.968
X ₆	Talk shows	0.008	0.905
X ₇	Game shows	-	-
X ₈	Singing shows	0.241**	0.003
X ₉	Cartoons	0.085	0.735
X ₁₀	Speeches	0.104	0.749

*P<0.05 ** p<0.01

The second highest relationship was found between movies (X_2) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The amount of exposure to movies significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.584$, $p=0.005$). The third significant correlation was found between the amount of exposure to series (X_4) and all the participants' language proficiency (Y). Indeed, the amount of exposure to series significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.371$, $p=0.003$). The amount of exposure to singing shows and all the participants' language proficiency development also received a significant correlation ($r=0.241$, $p=0.003$).

Although the amounts of exposure to other types of audiovisual programs also positively correlated with all the participants' language proficiency improvement, the correlations were not statistically significant.

Further analysis of the data obtained from the self-report sheets and the pre-post tests scores of all the participants revealed that the high significant correlations between the amounts of exposure to news, movies, series, and singing shows and the language proficiency development of all the participants was because those participants who gained higher scores in the post-test and spent a lot of time watching these types of audiovisual programs were intermediate or upper-intermediate level participants who significantly improved their language proficiency (RQ2).

With regard to news and movies which had the highest significant correlations with the participants' language proficiency improvement, the data obtained from the self-report sheets showed that all the seventy five participants spent some amount of time watching news and movies. Out of the total participants who improved their language proficiency (fourty four participants), eight of them were low level participants, fourteen of them were intermediate participants, and twenty two of them were upper-intermediate participants. More importantly, 20% of the time for news was spent by the low level participants, 32% by the intermediate participants, and 48% by the upper-intermediate participants. Similarly, 29% of the time for movies was spent by the low level participants, 43% by the intermediate participants, and 28% by the upper-intermediate level participants. More particularly, it can be inferred that the high significant correlations between the amounts of exposure to news and movies and all the participants' language proficiency improvement might be because most of the time

spent by all the participants watching news and movies goes for the upper-intermediate participants who obtained the greatest language proficiency development.

With regard to series, the total amount of time spent by all the participants was 107200 which is less than the amount of time spent on cartoons. Out of this amount, however, 25 % of the total amount of the time goes to the low levels, 40% for the intermediate level, and 35% for the upper-intermediate level. Out of the forty three participants who watched series and gained better post-test scores, eight of them were low level, thirteen intermediate level, and twenty two upper-intermediate level. The significant correlation between the amount of exposure to series and the participants' language proficiency improvement is because those who gained better post-test scores and watched series were mostly among the intermediate and the upper-intermediate participants who also gained significant language proficiency improvement according to the findings of the second research question.

The total amount of exposure to singing shows was much less than that of cartoons. However, the correlation between the amount of exposure to singing shows and the participants' language proficiency improvement was significant. The total amount of time spent by all the participants for singing shows was 31470. Out of this amount, 44% of the total amount of the time goes to the low level, 25 % for the intermediate level, and 31% for the upper-intermediate level. On the other hand, out of the twenty participants who watched singing shows and gained better post-test scores, five of them were low level, four intermediate level, and eleven upper-intermediate level.

Similar to news, movies, and series, the significant correlation between the amount of exposure to singing shows and the participants' language proficiency improvement is because the intermediate and upper-intermediate participants who gained better post-test

scores together spent more time watching singing shows than the participants in the low proficiency group.

Although cartoons was the third preferred type of audiovisual program for all the participants, the correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons and the participants' language proficiency development was very little and lacked significance. All the participants spent 240510 minutes watching cartoons. Out of this amount, 54% of the total amount of the time goes for the low level, 26% for the intermediate level, and 20% for the upper-intermediate level. Out of the twenty participants who watched cartoons and gained better post-test scores, eight of them were low level, eleven intermediate level, and twenty one upper-intermediate level. The low correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons and the participants' language proficiency improvement is because the low level participants spent a lot of time watching cartoons but few of them improved their language proficiency. Indeed, seventeen low level participants spent a lot of time watching cartoons but they either gained lower scores in the post-test or the same pre-post tests scores. Although, eleven intermediate participants and twenty one upper-intermediate participants who gained higher post-test scores spent some time watching cartoons, the amount of time spent by them was not more than the amount of time spent by the low level participants to positively effect the correlation.

4.4.2 The correlations for the low language proficiency level

The results of the statistical analysis of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the data of the low level participants presented in Table 4.19 showed that the only significant relationship was found between the amount of exposure to documentary films as a type of audiovisual programs (X_3) and language proficiency

improvement (Y). In fact, the amount of exposure to documentary films significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.241$, $p=0.005$). However, a correlation coefficient of 0.241 indicated that there was a little linear relationship between (X_3) and (Y).

Table 4.19: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of the low level proficiency group

Variables		Y	X_1
Y	Proficiency level Change	1.00	-
X_1	News	0.010	0.103
X_2	Movies	0.008	0.055
X_3	Documentary films	0.241**	0.005
X_4	Series	0.006	0.477
X_5	Sports programs	0.072	0.543
X_6	Talk shows	-0.107	0.536
X_7	Game shows	-	.
X_8	Singing shows	0.154	0.599
X_9	Cartoons	0.122	0.906
X_{10}	Speeches	0.024	0.283

* $P<0.05$ ** $p<0.01$

According to Table 4.19, the second highest relationship was found between singing shows (X_8) and language proficiency improvement (Y) although the correlation was not significant ($r=0.154$, $p=0.599$). The correlation coefficient of 0.154 obtained showed that there was a low linear relationship between the amount of exposure to singing shows (X_8) and the low level participants' language proficiency improvement (Y).

The third highest relationship was found between cartoons (X_9) and language proficiency improvement (Y). However, similar to singing shows, the correlation between cartoons and language proficiency improvement was not significant ($r=0.122$, $p=0.906$). The correlation coefficient of 0.122 obtained also showed that there was a low linear relationship between cartoons (X_9) and language proficiency improvement (Y).

As presented in Table 4.13, the results of the analysis of the correlation coefficient showed that there were very low linear relationships between (X_5), (X_{10}), (X_1), (X_2), (X_4), and (Y). In all cases the correlation coefficients are smaller than 0.1. The point should also be mentioned that no correlation was calculated for game shows (X_7) as a type of audiovisual programs and language proficiency development (Y) in the low level group because no participant in the low level group reported viewing game shows during the period of the study. More importantly, a negative relationship was found between talk shows (X_6) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The correlation coefficient of -0.107 showed that there was a negative linear relationship between (X_6) and (Y).

The correlation analysis between the amounts of exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency development of the low level participants indicated that the correlation between the amount of exposure to documentary films and the low level participants' language proficiency development was the only highest significant one among others. This is while the correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons as the most preferred type of audiovisual program which was reported viewed by all the participants and language proficiency development was neither high nor significant.

By considering the data obtained from the pre-post tests (Figure 4.4) and the self-report sheets of the participants in the low level (Appendix E), it was found that although all the twenty five participants spent a lot of time watching cartoons, only eight participants gained better post-tests scores. The rest of the participants either gained the same pre-post tests scores (sixteen participants) or gained lower post-test score (one participant). This is why there was a little insignificant correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons and the low level participants' language proficiency development.

In view of the above, the analysis of the low level participants' self-report sheets revealed that they spent much of their time viewing different segments of cartoons rather than the same segments. According to Figure 4.9, the low level participants who watched cartoons spent 29% of their time watching the same segments of cartoons. In contrast, 71% of the allocated time for cartoons was spent on watching different segments.

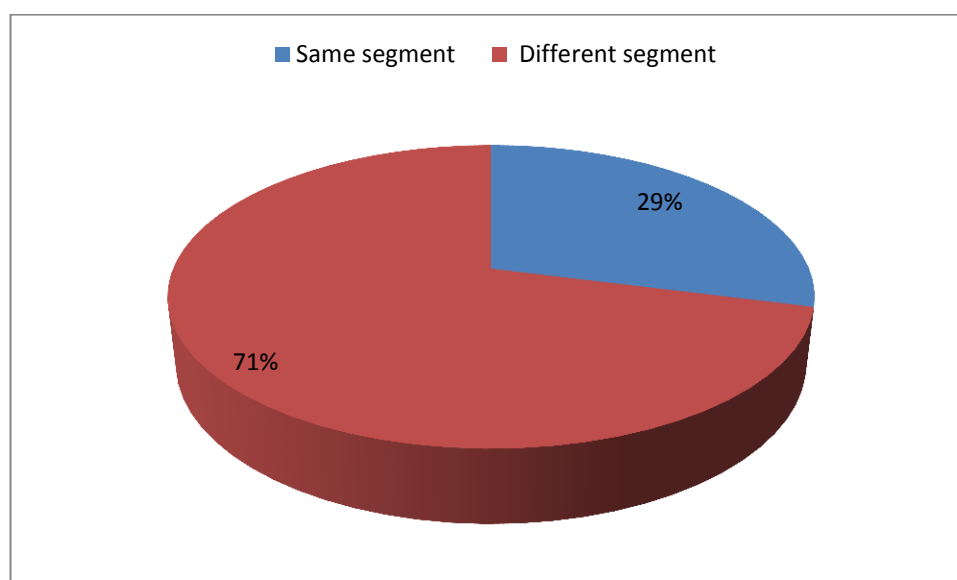


Figure 4.9: The percentage of the time spent by the low level participants on watching the same or different segments of cartoons

With regard to documentary films which had a significant correlation with the low level participants' language proficiency development, the data from the self-report sheets and the pre-post tests showed that only seven participants had exposure to documentary films. It is interesting to note that out of them, six participants gained higher post-test scores and one of them gained the same pre-post tests scores. As a result of the improvement in the language proficiency of those who watched documentary films, the correlation between the amount of exposure to documentary films and the low level participants' language proficiency improvement was significant. This means that the more they watch documentary films, the more their improvement increases.

In view of the above, although documentary films was not the low level participants most preferred type of audiovisual program, one of the possible reasons behind the significant correlation between the amount of exposure to documentary films and language proficiency development might be related to the language input provided by the documentary films programs selected. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has focused on the pedagogical values of documentary films as sources of authentic language input on language proficiency development. This is a worthwhile audiovisual program to be incorporated for the low level students.

Further analysis of the data obtained from the self-report sheets of those low level participants who had exposure to documentary films showed that they spent much of their time viewing the same segment of documentary films programs rather than different ones. According to Figure 4.10, the low level participants spent 78% of their time watching the same segments of documentary films. In contrast, 22% of the allocated time for documentary films was spent on watching different segments.

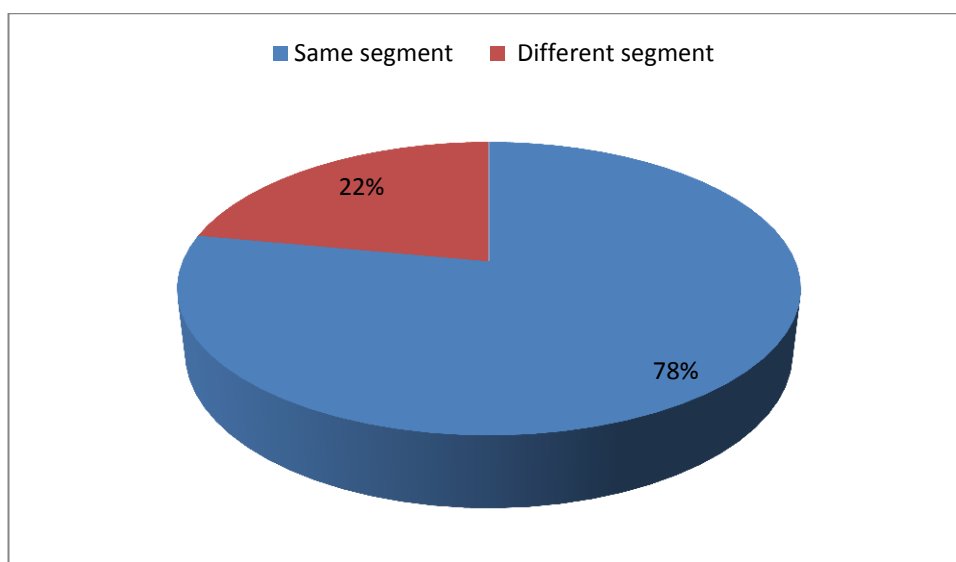


Figure 4.10: The percentage of the time spent by the low level participants on watching the same or different segments of documentary films

Because documentary films contain a lot of language input, it can be hypothesized that the low level participants who watched documentary films and also obtained better post-test scores spent much of their time watching the same segments of documentary films rather than different segments because they might have wanted to apperceive, comprehend, and internalize the language input. Another hypothesis is that they spent most of their time watching the same segments because they might have liked the topic of a particular documentary films program. As a result of their interest in the topic of the documentary films which they chose to watch, they spent most of their time watching the same segments.

As was mentioned above, the correlation between the amount of exposure to talk shows and the low level participants' language proficiency development was negative (-0.107). Based on the data obtained from the self-report sheets and the pre-post tests results of the low level participants, only four participants spent few amount of time watching talk shows (1800 minutes). Out of them, one gained lower post-test score and three gained the same pre-post tests scores. The negative correlation found is because only four

participants who did not improve their language proficiency spent a few amount of time watching talk shows. More particularly, one of them gained lower post-test scores which negatively affected the correlation.

According to the data of the self-report sheets of those who watched talk shows, 86% of the time was spent on watching different segments of talk shows and 14% of the time was spent on watching the same segments. As was mentioned earlier, in the case of cartoons, most of the time was also spent on watching different segments rather than the same segments. Compared to some cartoons which contain very few or no language input, talk shows are rich sources of language input. However, those low level participants who watched talk shows either gained the same or lower post-test scores. It can be hypothesized that they watched different segments because they either did not like the content/topic or the language input was very difficult for them to comprehend and internalize.

A comparison between the amounts of exposure to talk shows, sports programs, and speeches shows that the amount of exposure to talk shows (1800 minutes) is more than sports programs (150 minutes) and speeches (330 minutes). Moreover, the number of the participants who had exposure to talk shows (four participants) is more than the number of the participants who had exposure to sports programs (two participants) or the number of the participants who had exposure to speeches (three participants). However, the correlation for talk shows was negative whereas the correlations for sports programs and speeches were positive.

This is because of the post-tests scores gained by the participants who had exposure to these types of programs. One of the participants who watched sports programs gained a higher post-test score and the other one gained the same pre-post tests scores. With regard to speeches, one of the participants gained a higher post-test score and the other two gained the same pre-post tests scores. In contrast, in the case of talk shows, as was mentioned above, Out of the four participants who watched talk shows, one gained lower post-test score and three gained the same pre-post tests scores.

4.4.3 The correlations for the intermediate language proficiency level

The results obtained from the statistical analysis of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the data of the intermediate level participants are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of the intermediate level proficiency group

Variables		Y	P-value
Y	Proficiency level change	1.00	-
X ₁	News	0.429*	0.002
X ₂	Movies	0.545**	0.005
X ₃	Documentary films	0.039	0.859
X ₄	Series	0.150	0.476
X ₅	Sports programs	-	.
X ₆	Talk shows	0.051	0.808
X ₇	Game shows	-	.
X ₈	Singing shows	0.123	0.559
X ₉	Cartoons	0.106	0.615
X ₁₀	Speeches	0.073	0.728

*P<0.05 ** p<0.01

Accordingly, the highest relationship was found between the amount of exposure to movies (X_2) and language proficiency improvement (Y). In fact, the amount of exposure to movies significantly correlated with the intermediate level participants' language proficiency improvement ($r=0.545$, $p=0.005$). A correlation coefficient of 0.545 indicated that there was a moderate linear relationship between (X_2) and (Y).

The second highest relationship was found between news (X_1) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The amount of exposure to news also significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.429$, $p=0.002$). The third highest relationship was found between series (X_4) and language proficiency improvement (Y). However, the correlation between series and language proficiency improvement was not significant ($r=0.150$, $p=0.476$). The correlation coefficient of 0.150 obtained showed that there was a little linear relationship between series (X_4) and language proficiency improvement (Y).

According to Table 4.20, the correlation coefficient between the amounts of exposure to other types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement showed that there were very low linear relationships between (X_8), (X_9), (X_{10}), (X_3), (X_6) and (Y). In all cases, the correlation coefficients are smaller than 0.1. Besides, no correlation was calculated for game shows (X_7) and sports programs (X_5) because no participant in the intermediate level reported viewing game shows or sports programs during the period of the study. No negative correlation between the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency development was found in this group.

In relation to the high significant correlation between the amount of exposure to movies and the intermediate level participants' language proficiency improvement, the point should be mentioned that further analysis of the data obtained from the self-report sheets showed that all the twenty five intermediate participants including nine participants who obtained the same pre-post tests scores, fourteen participants who gained better scores in the post-test, and two participants who gained lower scores in the post-test spent some amount of time watching movies.

Further analysis of the data of the self-report sheets of the intermediate level participants showed that the intermediate level participants who watched movies spent 73% of their time watching the same segments of movies. In contrast, 27% of the allocated time for movies was spent on watching different segments (Figure 4.11).

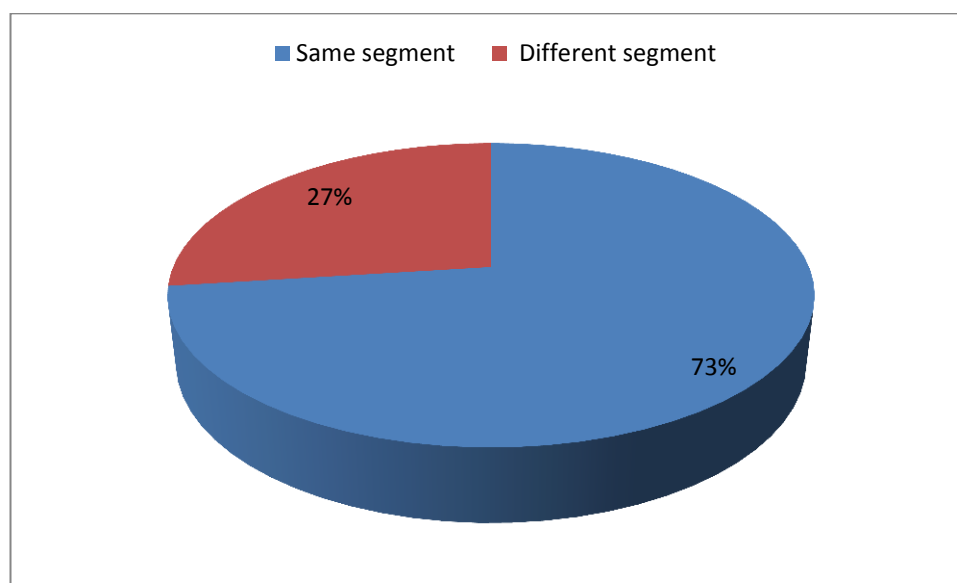


Figure 4.11: The percentage of the time spent by the intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of movies

The correlation between the amount of exposure to news and the intermediate level participants' language proficiency development obtained the second significance. This is because all the intermediate level participants had exposure to news. Out of them,

fourteen participants improved their language proficiency, nine gained the same pre-post tests scores, and two gained lower scores. As it is shown in Figure 4.12, similar to movies, the participants who watched news spent more time watching the same segments of news (59%) rather than different segments (41%).

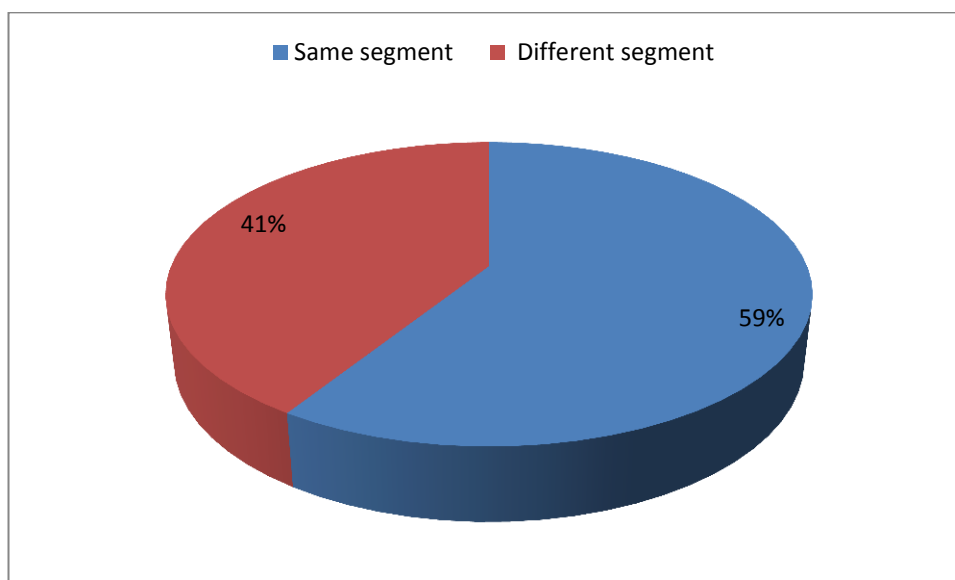


Figure 4.12: The percentage of the time spent by the intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of news

4.4.4 The correlations for the upper-intermediate language proficiency level

As the results obtained from the statistical analysis of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the data of the upper-intermediate level participants presented in Table 4.21 indicate, the highest relationship was found between the amount of exposure to movies (X_2) and language proficiency improvement (Y). In fact, the amount of exposure to movies significantly correlated with the upper-intermediate level participants' language proficiency improvement ($r=0.536$, $p=0.006$). A correlation coefficient of 0.536 indicated that there was a moderate linear relationship between (X_2) and (Y).

Table 4.21: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of the upper-intermediate level proficiency group

Variables		Y	P-value
Y	Change in proficiency level	1	
X_1	News	0.334**	0.004
X_2	Movies	0.536**	0.006
X_3	Documentary films	0.076	0.103
X_4	Series	0.092	0.661
X_5	Sports programs	-	-
X_6	Talk shows	0.085	0.536
X_7	Game shows	-	-
X_8	Singing shows	0.241**	0.003
X_9	Cartoons	0.025	0.906
X_{10}	Speeches	0.013	0.283

* $P < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

The second highest relationship was found between news (X_1) and language proficiency improvement (Y). In fact, the amount of exposure to news significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.334$, $p=0.004$). The correlation coefficient of 0.334 obtained, however, showed that there was a low linear relationship between (X_1) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The third highest relationship was found between singing shows (X_8) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The amount of exposure to singing shows significantly correlated with language proficiency improvement ($r=0.241$, $p=0.003$).

According to Table 4.21, the analysis of the correlation coefficient between the amounts of exposure to other types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement indicated that there were very low linear relationships between (X_4) , (X_6) , (X_3) , (X_9) , (X_{10}) and (Y) . In all cases, the correlation coefficients are smaller than 0.1. Similar to the intermediate level, no correlation was calculated for sports programs (X_5) and game shows (X_7) because no participant in the upper-intermediate level reported viewing game shows or sports programs during the period of the study. No negative correlation between the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency development was found in this group.

A point should be underscored and that is the correlation between the amount of exposure to movies and language proficiency improvement was the highest for the intermediate and the upper-intermediate groups. This is while movies was the first preferred type of audiovisual program for the intermediate group, it was the second preferred type of audiovisual program for the upper-intermediate group. Similarly, news which was the intermediate participants' second preferred audiovisual program and the upper-intermediate participants' first preferred type of audiovisual program gained the second significant correlation in both groups. By considering the data obtained from the pre-post tests and the self-report sheets of the participants in the upper-intermediate level, it was found that all the 25 participants had exposure to news and movies.

The tabulation of the data related to the upper-intermediate participants' self-report sheets presented in Figure 4.13 showed that the upper-intermediate level participants who watched movies spent more time watching the same segments (57%) rather than different segments (43%).

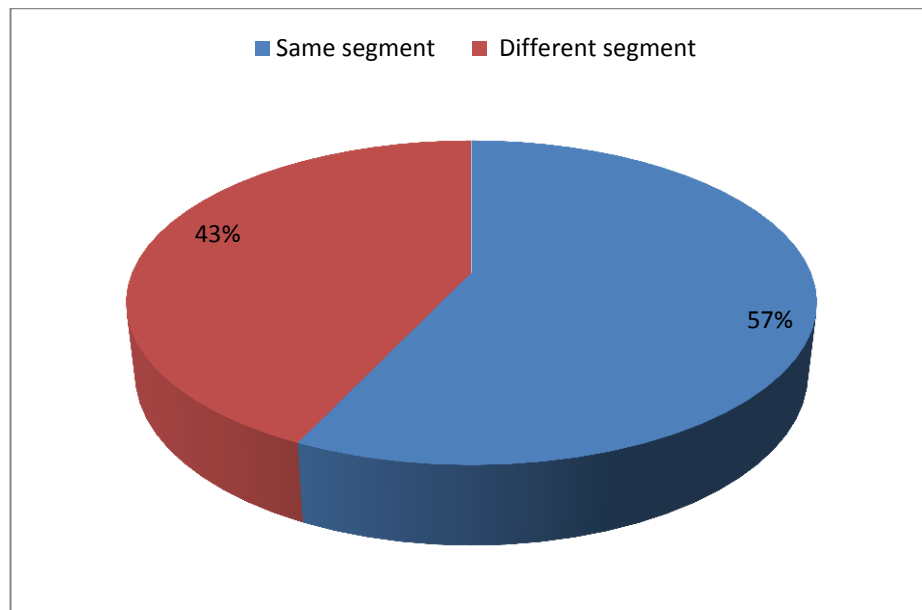


Figure 4.13: The percentage of the time spent by the upper-intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of movies

The correlation between the amount of exposure to news and the upper-intermediate level participants' language proficiency improvement received the second significance. Similar to movies, the amount of time spent on watching the same segments (83%) was more than the amount of time spent on watching different segments (17%).

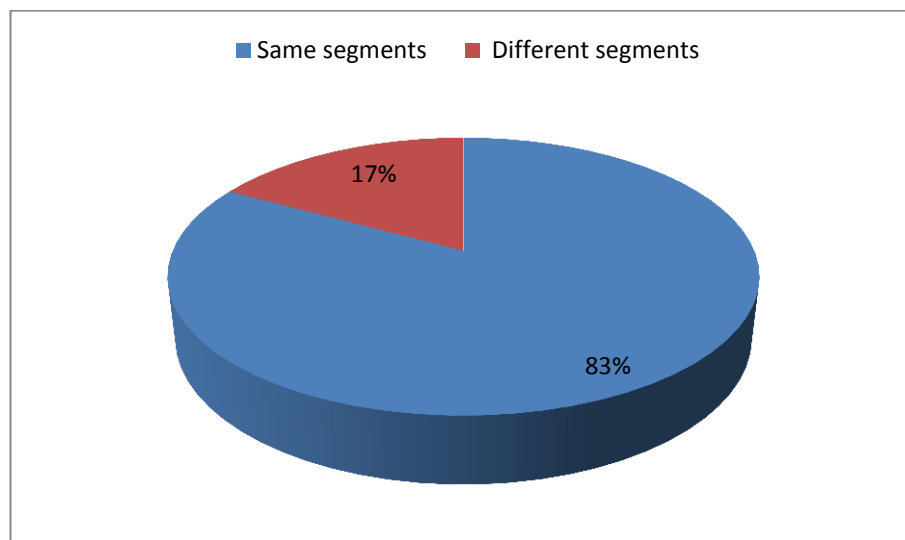


Figure 4.14: The percentage of the time spent by the upper-intermediate level participants on watching the same or different segments of news

4.4.5 Summary of the findings for the third research question

In order to answer the third research question, the relationship between the amount of exposure to news (X_1), movies (X_2), documentary films (X_3), series (X_4), sports programs (X_5), talk shows (X_6), game shows (X_7), singing shows (X_8), cartoons (X_9), and speeches (X_{10}) as the various types of audiovisual programs and language proficiency improvement (Y) was investigated for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels separately using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. Guilford's (1973) Rule of Thumb was also utilized for interpreting the results. Table 4.22 represents the summary of the findings of the third research question for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels.

Table 4.22: The correlation coefficient between the various types of audiovisual programs (X_1 - X_{10}) and language proficiency development (Y) of all the participants and the three differentiated proficiency levels

Variables		Correlation							
		All the participants		Low level		Intermediate level		Upper-intermediate level	
X_1	News	0.768**	P=0.002	0.010	0.103	0.429*	0.002	0.334**	0.004
X_2	Movie	0.584**	P=0.005	0.008	0.055	0.545**	0.005	0.536**	0.006
X_3	Documentary films	0.121	P=0.023	0.241**	0.005	0.039	0.859	0.076	0.103
X_4	Series	0.371**	P=0.003	0.006	0.477	0.150	0.476	0.092	0.661
X_5	Sports programs	0.017	P=0.968	0.072	0.543	-	.	-	-
X_6	Talk shows	0.008	P=0.905	-0.107	0.536	0.051	0.808	0.085	0.536
X_7	Game shows	-	-	-	.	-	.	-	-
X_8	Singing shows	0.241**	P=0.003	0.154	0.599	0.123	0.559	0.241**	0.003
X_9	Cartoons	0.085	P=0.735	0.122	0.906	0.106	0.615	0.025	0.906
X_{10}	Speeches	0.104	P=0.749	0.024	0.283	0.073	0.728	0.013	0.283

As the results obtained from the statistical analysis of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the data of all the participants presented in Table 4.22 indicate, the first highest relationship was found between news (X_1) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The amounts of exposure to movies, series, and singing shows and the participants' language proficiency development also received significant correlations.

With regard to the low level participants, the results of the statistical analysis of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient showed that the only significant relationship was found between the amount of exposure to documentary films (X_3) and language proficiency improvement (Y). The correlation between cartoons as the low level participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement was low and lacked significance ($r=0.122$, $p=0.906$).

Unlike the low level group in which the correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons as their most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement was not significant, the correlation between the amount of exposure to movies as the intermediate participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement gained the highest significance. The amount of exposure to news obtained the second significant correlation ($r=0.429$, $p=0.002$).

Similar to the intermediate level group, the highest relationship was found between the amount of exposure to movies (X_2) and language proficiency improvement (Y) in the upper-intermediate group ($r=0.536$, $p=0.006$). The second highest relationship was found between news (X_1) and language proficiency improvement (Y).

Following, the results for the fourth research question are presented for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels separately.

4.5 Research question 4

- A) For all the participants, which language skill obtains the greatest improvement?
- B) For each language proficiency level, which language skill obtains the highest significant improvement?

In order to find out which language skill obtained the highest significant improvement for all the participants and each differentiated language proficiency level, the improvement for each language proficiency skill of all the participants and each differentiated level was calculated separately by subtracting the pre-post tests scores for each skill. One way repeated measures of ANOVA was then applied to compare the improvement of the four skills for all the participants and in each differentiated proficiency level. Below, the results for all the participants and each language proficiency level are presented separately.

4.5.1 Improvement across all the skills for all the participants

For the data obtained from the pre-post tests results of all the participants, one way repeated measure of ANOVA was applied to compare the amount of improvement in the four skills. The assumption of Normality and Sphericity were both tested and met. The results of the test of within subject effects indicated that the mean improvement changed significantly across the four skills. It was found that $F(2.76, 58.25)=6.92$, $p=0.01 < 0.05$. $\eta^2=0.704$ which is a large effect size. This means that the amount of improvement was not equal in all the skills for the all the participants. Table 4.23

represents the means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results.

Table 4.23: All participants' means and standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results

Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Improvement
Speaking	5.16±0.80	5.62±1.15	0.46±0.85 ^(a)
Listening	5.36±0.86	5.99±1.07	0.63±0.82 ^(b)
Writing	5.26±0.97	5.42±1.05	0.16±0.69 ^(a)
Reading	5.03±1.04	5.16±1.07	0.13±0.72 ^(a)

Since the tests of between subject effects revealed a significant result, the Pairwise comparison was employed to assess which means of improvement differ from each other. As a result, the Bonferroni post hoc tests revealed that listening skill gained the highest improvement among the four skills (M=0.63 SD=0.82) which was also significantly different from improvement in speaking, writing and reading ($P<0.05$). The results of Pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Bonferroni post hoc test for comparing the mean improvement of all the participants

Comparisons	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Listening Improvement vs. Speaking Improvement	0.170	0.29	0.16	0.143	1.50
Listening Improvement vs. Writing Improvement	0.470 [*]	0.18	0.02	0.05	1.03
Listening Improvement vs. Reading Improvement	0.500 [*]	0.26	0.03	0.35	1.72

According to the results of the Pairwise comparison, the difference between the amount of improvements in the listening and writing pairs and the listening and the reading pairs were statistically significant and more than that of the listening and the speaking pairs.

Figure 4.15 shows the means band score of the speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills obtained by all the participants in the administration of the pre-post tests. As the graph indicates, the means band scores of all the skills increased in the post-test except the reading skill which decreased. Among the three skills which gained improvement, the improvement in the listening skill was more than the other skills. More importantly, according to the statistical analysis, the improvement in listening skill was the only significant one.

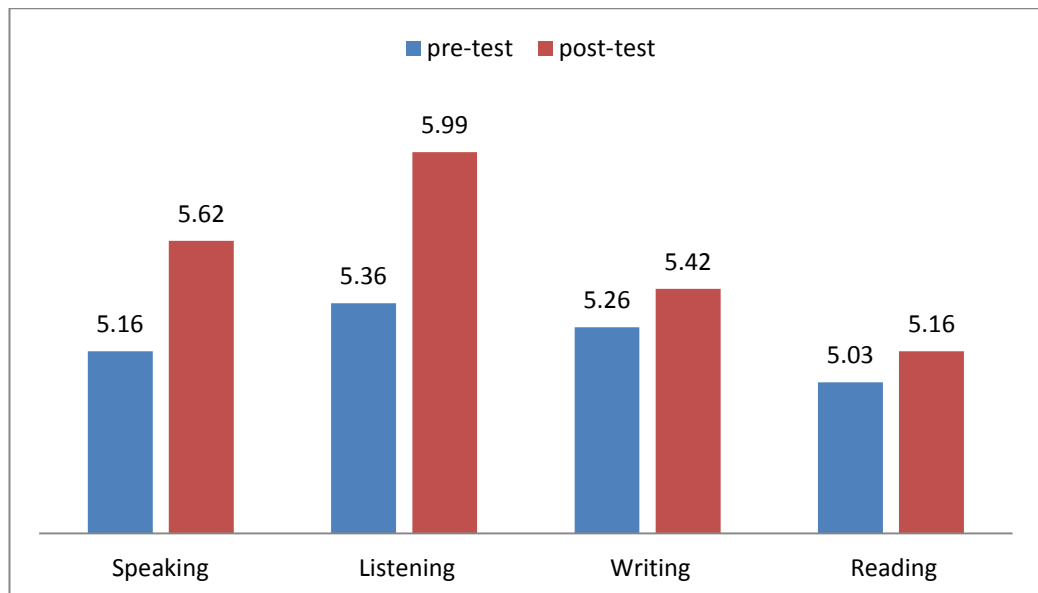


Figure 4.15: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by all the participants in the pre-post tests

4.5.2 Improvement across all the skills for the low language proficiency level

The data for the low proficiency level were subjected to the assumptions of Normality and Sphericity tests. The assumption of Normality was met but the assumption of Sphericity was violated ($p=0.011$). So, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was employed to correct the degrees of freedom.

The results of the test of within subject effects with Greenhouse-Geisser correction indicated that the improvement did not differ significantly across the four skills, $F(2.088, 50.116)=2.182, p=0.121>0.05, \eta^2=0.083$. This means that for the participants in the low proficiency group there was improvement in all the skills but the amount of improvement was not significant. The means and the standard deviations are presented in Table 4.25 for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results.

Table 4.25: The low level participants' means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results

Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Improvement
Speaking	4.52±0.51	4.60±0.58	0.08±.49 ^(a)
Listening	4.56±0.51	4.96±.72	0.40±.78 ^(a)
Writing	4.28±0.54	4.32±.45	0.04±.43 ^(a)
Reading	3.88±0.53	4.0±0.41	0.12±.52 ^(a)

In view of the above, the means of the four skills were examined. It was revealed that listening skill gained the highest improvement (0.40) among the four skills. However, the amount of improvement in the listening skill was not significant. Figure 4.16 shows the means band score of the speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills obtained by the low level language learners in the administration of the pre-post tests.

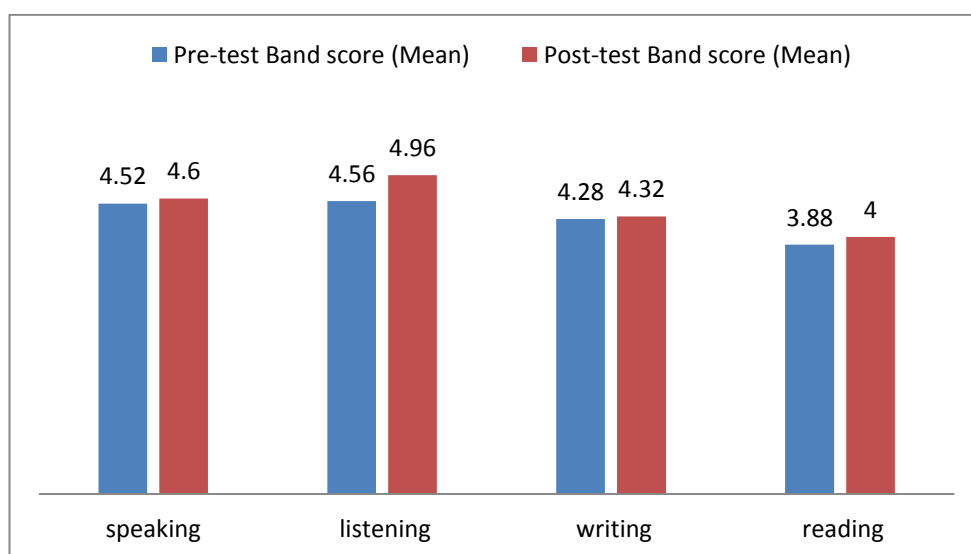


Figure 4.16: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by the low level language learners in the pre-post tests

The low level language participants could neither improve their language proficiency (RQ2) nor a particular language skill significantly although they had a great amount of exposure to cartoons as their most favorite type of audiovisual program.

4.5.3 Improvement across all the skills for the intermediate language proficiency level

For the intermediate proficiency level, one way repeated measure of ANOVA was applied to compare the degree of improvement in the four skills. The assumption of Normality and Sphericity were both tested and met. The results of the test of within subject effects indicated that the mean improvement changed across the four skills. It was found that $F(3, 72)=8.875, p=0.02 < 0.05$. $\eta^2=0.270$ which is a large effect size. The amount of improvement was also not equal in all the skills for the participants in the intermediate proficiency level. Table 4.26 represents the means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results.

Table 4.26: The intermediate level participants' means and standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results

Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Improvement
Speaking	5.24±0.78	5.28±0.61	0.04±0.79 ^(a)
Listening	5.32±0.48	6.30±0.08	0.98±0.95 ^(b)
Writing	5.30±0.56	5.42±0.64	0.12±0.84 ^(a)
Reading	5.22±0.6	5.16±0.62	-0.06±0.66 ^(a)

Since the tests of between subject effects revealed a significant result, the Pairwise comparison was employed to assess which means of improvement differ from each other. As a result, the Bonferroni post hoc tests revealed that listening skill gained the highest significant improvement ($M=0.98$ $SD=0.95$) which was also significantly different from improvement in speaking, and writing ($P<0.05$). The point should be highlighted that the participants' mean amount of reading scores decreased in the post-test. As a result, the participants' reading skill decreased. However, the amount of

decrease was statistically insignificant. The results of Pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Bonferroni post hoc test for comparing the mean improvement of the intermediate level participants

Comparisons	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Listening Improvement vs. Speaking Improvement	0.940 [*]	0.19	0.00	0.37	1.50
Listening Improvement vs. Writing Improvement	0.860 [*]	0.28	0.03	0.05	1.66
Listening Improvement vs. Reading Improvement	1.04	0.24	0.35	0.35	1.72

According to the results of the Pairwise comparison, the difference between the amount of improvements in the listening and speaking pairs and the listening and the writing pairs were statistically significant.

Figure 4.17 shows the means band score of the speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills obtained by the intermediate level language learners in the administration of the pre-post tests. As the graph indicates, the means band scores of all the skills increased in the post-test except the reading skill which decreased. Among the three skills which gained improvement, the improvement in the listening skill was more than the other skills. More importantly, according to the statistical analysis, the improvement in listening skill was the only significant one.

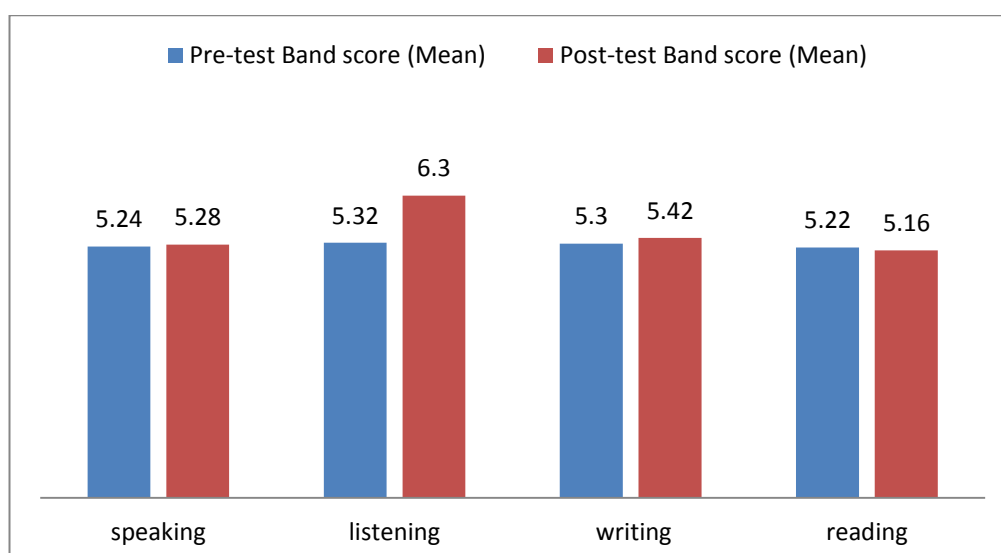


Figure 4.17: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by the intermediate level language learners in the pre-post tests

By providing solid empirical evidence, the findings of the fourth research question for the intermediate participants support the previous studies which highlighted the pedagogical values of utilizing movies as a source of authentic language input for the development of language learning in general and listening skill in particular. More specifically, the findings of the fourth research question shed more light to the studies (Huang & Eskey, 2000; Markham, 1999; Markham & Peter, 2003; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011) which claimed that intermediate level language learners can enhance their listening skill though exposure to movies with or without captions/subtitles.

However, the point should be highlighted that the above-mentioned studies were conducted in formal language settings with control and experimental groups. In all the studies, the experimental groups were exposed to movies with captions/subtitles and the control groups were exposed to movies without captions/subtitles. In contrast, the intermediate participants of the present research had exposure to movies in informal settings without being instructed to watch movies with or without captions/subtitles.

Empowered with the findings of the present research, movies have proved to be a rich source of authentic audiovisual language input to acquire the new aspects of the language for SLA development. Being a rich source of language input along with the motivating features of the movies such as the interesting topics and the real language used make this type of audiovisual programs pedagogically valuable authentic source of language input for not only the intermediate level language learners but also the low level ones.

According to Hayati and Mohmedi (2011), for the low level language learners, watching movies with the first language subtitle is beneficial for the better comprehension because low level language learners may have limited range of vocabulary items. In contrast, intermediate and advance levels language learners may have little problem in comprehending the movies without subtitle because their proficiency level is higher.

4.5.4 Improvement across all the skills for the upper-intermediate language proficiency level

Finally, the analysis of one way repeated measures of ANOVA was conducted to compare the degree of improvement in the four skills in the upper-intermediate proficiency level. The assumption of Normality and Sphericity were tested and met. Similar to the intermediate group, the results of test of within subject effects indicated that the mean improvement was significantly different among the four skills, $F(3, 72)=10.649$, $p=0.01 < 0.05$ and $\eta^2=0.307$ which is a large effect size. Table 4.28 represents the means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results.

Table 4.28: The upper-intermediate level participants' means and the standard deviations for the pre-test, post-test, and the improvement results

Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Improvement
Speaking	5.74±.06	7.00±0.5	1.26±0.75 ^(a)
Listening	6.22±0.63	6.72±0.80	0.50±0.72 ^(b)
Writing	6.20±0.63	5.52±0.57	0.32±0.51 ^(b)
Reading	6.0±0.6	6.32±0.48	0.32±0.60 ^(b)

To determine which language skill obtained a more and significant improvement, a Pairwise comparison was used. The results of the Pairwise comparison with Bonferroni correction revealed that speaking skill gained the highest improvement (M=1.26, SD=0.75) among the four skills and the difference was significant ($p=0.01 < 0.05$). The improvement in the listening skill (M=0.50, SD=0.72) was also statistically significant ($p=0.01 < 0.05$). The results of Pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Bonferroni post hoc test for comparing the mean improvement of the upper-intermediate participants

Comparisons	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Speaking Improvement vs. Listening Improvement	0.760 [*]	0.21	0.09	1.56	1.56
Speaking Improvement vs. Writing Improvement	0.940 [*]	0.19	0.00	1.56	1.56
Speaking Improvement vs. Reading Improvement	0.940 [*]	0.21	0.01	1.56	1.56

The results of the Pairwise comparisons also showed that the improvement differences between speaking and writing pairs ($1.26-0.32=0.940$) and the speaking and the reading pairs ($1.26-0.32=0.940$) were equal and more than the improvement difference in the speaking and the listening pairs ($1.20-0.50=0.740$).

Figure 4.18 shows the means band score of the speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills obtained by the upper-intermediate level language learners in the administration of the pre-post tests. As the graph indicates, the means band scores of all the skills have increased in the post-test. Among them, the improvement in the speaking skill is more than the other skills. More importantly, according to the statistical analysis, the improvement in speaking skill was the only significant one.

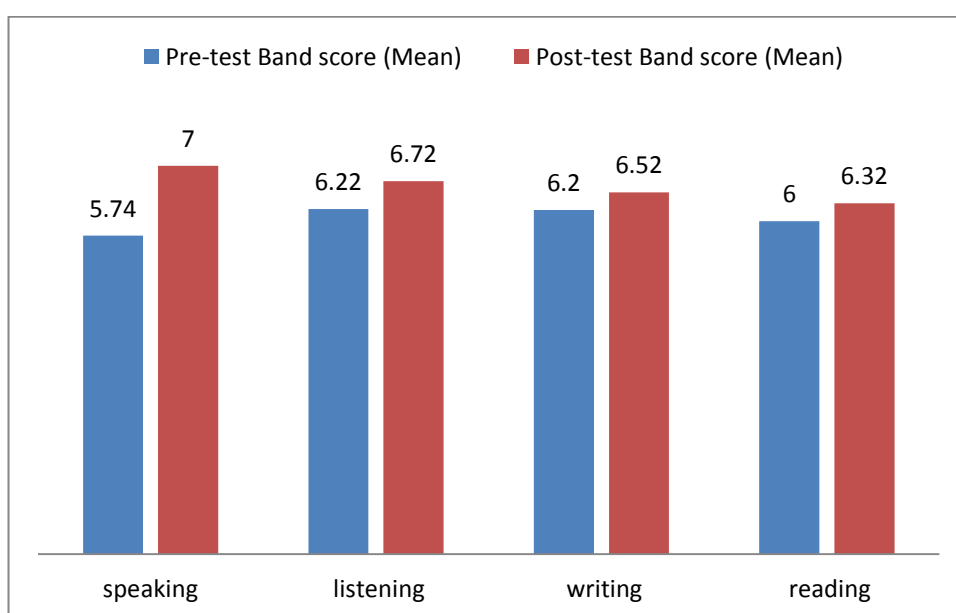


Figure 4.18: The graphic representation of the means band score of the four skills obtained by the upper-intermediate level language learners in the pre-post tests

The findings of the present research shed more light to the previous pool of studies which highlighted the pedagogical values of exposure to audiovisual news broadcasts for language proficiency development. More particularly, the results of the fourth

research question are in line with the study conducted by Bahrani and Tam (2011). In their study, Bahrani and Tam found that the intermediate level language learners could improve their language proficiency in general and their speaking proficiency in particular to a significant extent through greater amount of exposure to audiovisual news broadcasts in formal settings. Similarly, the present research showed that upper-intermediate level participants can also improve their speaking proficiency to a significant through greater amount of exposure to news in informal settings.

4.5.5 Summary of the findings for the fourth research question

The fourth research question was aimed at finding out which language skill obtained the greatest significant improvement for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels. Table 4.30 shows the language skill which gained the greatest significant improvement for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels

Table 4.30: The most improved language skill for all the participants and the three differentiated language proficiency levels

Participants/	The most improved language skill	Significance
All the participants	Listening	Significant
Low level	Listening	Not significant
Intermediate level	Listening	Significant
Upper-intermediate level	Speaking & Listening	Significant

For the data obtained from the pre-post tests results of all the participants, one way repeated measure of ANOVA was applied to compare the amount of improvement in the four skills. It was found that all the four skills improved. However, the improvement for the listening skill was the highest and the only significant one.

After considering the data of all the participants at the macro level, the data related to each language proficiency level was analyzed separately to find out which language skill obtained the greatest significant improvement for each language proficiency level.

It was found that for all the three differentiated language proficiency levels, the improvement for listening skill was high. More particularly, listening skill gained the first highest improvement for the low and the intermediate proficiency levels. For the upper-intermediate proficiency level, however, it gained the second highest improvement. More importantly, the improvement for the listening skill was statistically significant only for the intermediate and the upper-intermediate proficiency levels. The analysis of the data for the upper-intermediate proficiency level revealed that speaking skill gained the first highest significant improvement.

4.6 Discussion

This section discusses the findings of the research questions for all participants and the three differentiated proficiency levels separately.

4.6.1 All the participants

According to the findings of the first research question, all the participants most preferred types of audiovisual programs were news and movies. Each participant spent 220 minutes watching news (average) and 215 minutes watching movies (average). This

was calculated based on the amount of time recorded spent by the participants watching various types of audiovisual programs. In view of the findings of the second research question, all the participants could significantly improve their language proficiency during the period of the study. More particularly, the findings obtained from the fourth research question revealed that listening skill gained the highest significant improvement. The findings of the third research question revealed that the correlation between the amount of exposure to news and the participants' language proficiency improvement obtained the highest significance. The amount of exposure to movies and the participants' language proficiency improvement was the second significant correlation.

In short, all the participants preferred news and movies more than other types of audiovisual programs, they could significantly improve their language proficiency and particularly their listening skill, and the correlations between the amounts of exposure to news and movies and the participants' language proficiency improvement were statistically significant. These findings shed more light on a number of qualitative and quantitative studies which highlighted the pedagogical values of incorporating news (Bahrani & Tam, 2011; Baker, 1996; Beach & Somerholter, 1997; Bell, 2003; Berber, 1997; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992; Wetzel, Radtke, Stern, 1994; to name only a few) or movies (Arcario, 1993; Chapple & Curtis 2000; Huang & Eskey, 2000; Istanto, 2009; Kaiser, 2011; Markham, 1999; Markham & Peter, 2003; Stempleski, 1992; Yuksel, 2009) as sources of authentic language input for language development.

The findings of the previous quantitative studies, however, were based on the data obtained in formal settings with teachers' monitoring. The participants of the studies were also only intermediate proficiency level. Besides, the teachers/researchers were in charge of selecting the type of news or movies to be incorporated in language learning. Indeed, the previous quantitative studies were conducted with two groups of intermediate language learners; one group was, for example, instructed by various news programs and the other group was instructed with non-news programs or one group was instructed with subtitled movies and the other group without subtitled movies. In contrast, the participants of the present research were low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate proficiency levels who were in charge of selecting their own preferred type of audiovisual programs in informal language learning settings. In contrast to the previous studies, the participants of the present research did not have exposure to a type of audiovisual program selected by the teacher/researcher.

In view of the above, when the data obtained from all the three proficiency levels were considered as a whole at the macro level, it was found that the participants preferred news and movies more than other types of audiovisual programs. Indeed, without being instructed to select a particular type of audiovisual program, the participants preferred to spend most of their type watching news and movies. Their preferences also significantly correlated with their language proficiency improvement. This indicates that their selections of their preferences were effective in enhancing their language proficiency.

The analysis of the data of three differentiated language proficiency levels at the micro level also showed that the intermediate group preferred movies and news more than other types of audiovisual programs. Similarly, the upper-intermediate group preferred news and movies more than other types of audiovisual programs. More importantly, in

both groups, the amount of exposure to movies and news significantly correlated with their language proficiency improvement.

One of the plausible reasons for the participants' language proficiency improvement might be related to the language input embedded in the various types of news and movies which they watched. It can be hypothesized that language input embedded in various news and movies which they watched included those aspects of the language which they had not acquired yet. Another hypothesis is that the participants not only had exposure to a rich source of language input but also could fully comprehend and internalize the language input. The participants also spent most of their time watching the same segments of news or movies rather than different segments. They watched the same segments more than different ones because they probably wanted to comprehend and internalize the language input.

According to Gass and Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997), language input should be apperceived, comprehended and internalized in order to be utilized in the output and contribute to SLA development. In the same line, having exposure to rich language input via news and movies and internalizing it is one of the possible reasons for the participants' significant language proficiency improvement.

4.6.2 The low language proficiency level

The results of the first research question revealed that the low level participants preferred cartoons more than other types of audiovisual programs. The average amount of time spent by them watching cartoons was 5250 minutes during the research period or 328 minutes per week. One of the reasons might be related to the motivating and non-threatening nature of this type of audiovisual programs. According to Clark (2000),

Doring (2002), and Rule and Ague (2005), cartoons are generally preferred more by language learners because they create low affective filter atmosphere and cause a high degree of motivation. However, although the low level participants had great amount of exposure to cartoons, the results of the second and the fourth research questions showed that they neither obtained significant language proficiency development in general nor significant improvement in different language skills in particular.

These findings are not in line with Rule and Ague (2005) who claimed that students who have great amount of exposure to cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores. The findings also contradict the results obtained by Bahrani and Tam (2012) regarding the effectiveness of exposure to cartoons as a source of language input on low level language learners' language proficiency development.

Likewise, the results of the third research question indicated that there was no significant relationship between the amount of exposure to cartoons as the low level participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency development. Indeed, the findings indicated that the increase in the amount of exposure to cartoons would not lead to increase in the language proficiency development.

The low level participants' lack of significant language proficiency improvement might be related to the quality of the language input embedded in the type of cartoons which they selected to watch. With regard to language input, cartoons range from those which contain few or no language input to those which contain a lot of language input. In fact, the language input embedded in various types of cartoons which the low level language learners preferred to watch more might not have included those aspects of the language which they had not acquired yet. Indeed, they preferred to watch cartoons more than

other types of audiovisual programs because they might have experienced less difficulty comprehending the language input embedded in cartoons. They might have also preferred cartoons because of the story or the topic regardless of the amount of language input. However, they could not improve their language proficiency to a significant extent because they had less exposure to those aspects of language which they had not acquired yet.

The above possible explanation can be supported by White's (1987) incomprehensible input hypothesis which was proposed against Krashen's (1981) comprehensible input hypothesis. In her incomprehensible input hypothesis, White (1987) underscored the point that it is the input incomprehensibility or comprehension difficulties which can provide important feedback to the learner that is necessary for the constitution of SLA. When language learners encounter language input that is not comprehensible because, for example, their inter-language rules cannot analyze a particular structure, they have to modify those inter-language rules to understand the structure (White, 1987). Accordingly, the incomprehensible input enhances SLA. It can be concluded that when the language input is comprehensible, the acquisition of the missing structures would not take place. In fact, the incomprehensibility of some aspects of the given language input to the language learners pushes them to draw their attention to those specific features to be acquired.

In line with the above possible explanation, the point should be underscored that because the researcher did not control the low level participants' selection of cartoons, for example, in terms of language input, it cannot be claimed that the language input embedded in the types of cartoons that the low level participants watched was limited merely to language input which was not rich in terms of quality or was very limited.

Indeed, some of the language input of cartoons might have also included a lot of rich language input or what White (1987) named as incomprehensible input which could contribute to SLA development. However, considering the fact that the type of language input of cartoons also included a lot of rich language input which included new aspects of the language, another possible reason behind the low level participants' lack of significant language proficiency improvement might be related to comprehension difficulties of the new aspects of the language input.

As was discussed earlier in the literature review (2.1.1), Gass and Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) emphasized the point that language input should be apperceived, comprehended and internalized in order to be utilized in the output and contribute to SLA development. In the same line, one of the possible explanations is that the low level participants might have had a great amount of exposure to a lot of language input which was rich in terms of quality. However, they failed to significantly improve their language proficiency because they might not have comprehended and internalized the new aspects of the language input to contribute to their language proficiency development.

As was mentioned earlier, the correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons and the low level participants' language proficiency improvement was low and lacked significance. According to the data obtained from the self-report sheets of the low level participants, all the 25 participants spent a lot of time watching cartoons. Out of the total amount of time spent for cartoons, the low level participants spent 29% of their time watching the same segments of cartoons and 71% of their time watching different segments. One possible hypothesis regarding the low level participants' watching different segments of cartoons more than the same segments is that they might have had

difficulties comprehending and internalizing the language input of the various cartoons which they selected to watch. In fact, the low level participants might have selected some cartoons which provided them with a lot of language input including those aspects of the language which they had not acquired yet. They might have selected to watch a different segment every time without comprehending and internalizing the language input. In fact, they might have had great amount of exposure to a rich source of language input via cartoons but they might not have realized how to comprehend and internalize the language input to be acquired and incorporated later in their output.

Another possible explanation is that they might have comprehended and internalized the language input which they were exposed to. However, the language input which they had comprehended might not have been so rich in terms of quality to significantly contribute to their SLA development. In other words, the low level participants might have had great amount of exposure to various cartoons which were not pedagogically valuable in terms of the quality of the language input.

The content of the cartoons which the low level participants of the present research watched was not controlled by the researcher. In contrast, in Bahrani and Tam's (2012) study which revealed that exposure to cartoons can enhance the low level language learners' language proficiency development, the content of the selected cartoons was selected by the researchers to ensure that the participants have exposure to cartoons with a lot of language input. This indicates that cartoons are pedagogically valuable sources of language input if they contain language input that the low level language learners need to enhance their language proficiency.

In contrast to cartoons, the amount of exposure to documentary films and the low level participants' language proficiency was statistically significant. This is while only seven participants reported watching documentaries during the period of the study. Out of them, however, six participants gained higher post-test scores. As a result of the improvement in the language proficiency of those who watched documentary films, the correlation between the amount of exposure to documentary films and the low level participants' language proficiency improvement was significant. This means that the more they watch documentary films, the more their improvement increases.

In view of the above, although documentary films was not the low level participants most preferred type of audiovisual program, one of the possible reasons behind the significant correlation between the amount of exposure to documentary films and language proficiency development might be related to the language input provided by the documentary films programs selected. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has focused on the pedagogical values of documentary films programs as sources of authentic language input on language proficiency development. This is a worthwhile audiovisual program to be incorporated for the low level students.

Further analysis of the data obtained from the self-report sheets of those low level participants who had exposure to documentary films showed that they spent 78% of their time watching the same segments of documentary films and 22% of their time watching different segments. The documentary films which the very six participants, who gained better post-test scores, watched might have been very rich in terms of language input. It can be hypothesized that the participants might have watched the same segments of documentaries rather than different ones to fully comprehend the language input and internalize it.

In a nutshell, the findings of the present research showed that the low level participants do not benefit a lot from being in charge of selecting their preferred type of audiovisual programs. They might have a lot of exposure to their preferred type of audiovisual programs without considering the quality of the language input. As a result, greater amount of exposure to a particular type of audiovisual may not guarantee SLA development if the quality of the language input is ignored.

4.6.3 The intermediate language proficiency level

In contrast to the low level participants, the intermediate participants preferred movies more than other types of audiovisual programs (RQ1). The average amount of time spent by them watching movies was 4493 minutes during the research period or 280 minutes per week. Unlike the low level participants, the intermediate participants spent much of their time watching movies because they might have realized that movies can provide them with exposure to language input in the form of the real language uttered in authentic settings (Stempleski, 1992).

Based on the findings of the second research question, the intermediate level participants also obtained a significant language proficiency development. This finding sheds more light to the qualitative studies of Chapple and Curtis (2000), Gebhardt (2004), Heffernan (2005), and Ryan (1998) which underscored the motivating features of movies. In accordance to the results obtained from the third research question, the relationship between the amount of exposure to movies as the intermediate level participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement was significant. This means that greater amount of exposure to movies results in significant language proficiency development.

According to the findings of the fourth research question, the intermediate level participants also gained the highest improvement in listening skill. This finding is in line with many researchers (Huang & Eskey, 2000; Markham, 1999; Markham & Peter, 2003; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011) who found that intermediate level language learners can enhance their listening skill through exposure to movies with or without captions/subtitles.

The findings of the present research showed that if the intermediate language learners are given the freedom to select their preferred type of audiovisual program, they make a right choice. Further analysis of the data obtained from the pre-test and the post-test scores of all the 25 intermediate level participants who had exposure to movies revealed that fourteen out of twenty five participants gained better band scores in the post-test compared to the their pre-test band scores. This indicates that greater exposure to movies most probably has been one of the reasons for the intermediate participants' better performance in the post-test. In fact, the language input embedded in various movies might have provided the intermediate level participants with those aspects of the language which they understand as probably those which they had not acquired yet.

It can be hypothesized that the intermediate participants' selection of their preferred type of audiovisual program might have been not only based on their interest but also on the quality of the language input. Indeed, the intermediate participants might have recognized their needs to have exposure to a rich source of language input which includes those aspects of the language which they had not acquired yet. More importantly, it might have been also important to them to fully comprehend and internalize the type of language input embedded in various types of programs which they watched more particularly movies. As was mentioned earlier, the intermediate

participants spent most of their time watching the same segments of different movies rather than different segments. This might be because they wanted to fully comprehend and internalize the language input to contribute to their SLA development before they watch new segments.

In the same line, the data obtained from the self-report sheets of the intermediate level participants showed that they spent 73% of their time watching the same segments of movies and 27% of their time watching different segments. They might have watched the same segments of movies rather than different segments in order to comprehend the language input completely before they move to another movie or different segments.

While comparing the self-report sheets of the low level participants with the intermediate level participants' self-report sheets, it is found that the amount of time spent by the low level participants on watching cartoons (131255 minutes) as their most preferred type of audiovisual program was more than the amount of time spent by the intermediate level participants on watching movies as their most preferred type of audiovisual program (112325 minutes). Nevertheless, the correlation for cartoons and the low level participants' language proficiency improvement was not significant but the correlation for movies in the intermediate group was significant. This reveals that greater amount of exposure does not necessarily cause better SLA development. Indeed, the language input embedded in various types of audiovisual programs should be considered more.

The correlation between the amount of exposure to news and the intermediate level participants' language proficiency development obtained the second highest significance. This means, greater exposure to news might be one of the reasons for the intermediate participants' significant language proficiency improvement. This sheds more light into the previous studies (Baker, 1996; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Cauldwell,

1996; Poon, 1992) which particularly showed that greater exposure to news can enhance intermediate participants' listening skill. However, as was mentioned earlier, the point should be highlighted that the difference between the findings of the previous studies and the present research is that the previous studies were all conducted in formal settings with teachers' monitoring. In contrast, the present research was carried out in informal language learning settings without teachers' monitoring or controlling the content or the language input of various news programs. The results of the present research showed that if intermediate language learners are given the freedom to select their preferred type of audiovisual program, they select audiovisual programs which probably contribute to their SLA development.

4.6.4 The upper-intermediate language proficiency level

According to the results of the first research question, the upper-intermediate participants preferred news broadcasts more than other types of audiovisual programs (The average amount of time spent by them watching cartoons was 5093 minutes during the research period or 318 minutes per week) because, similar to the intermediate level group, they might have recognized their needs to have exposure to a type of language input which included those aspects of the language which they had not acquired yet. According to Poon (1992), audiovisual news is the best type of authentic audiovisual material that provides an intrinsic reason for the language learners to spend more time on it.

The types of audiovisual programs which were preferred more by the upper-intermediate participants were the same as those which were preferred by the intermediate level participants. The difference is found in the sequence of the preferences. As was mentioned earlier, the intermediate level participants' first

preferred type of audiovisual program was movies and the second one was news. For the upper-intermediate level participants, however, it was the reverse. In other words, the upper-intermediate level participants' first preferred type of audiovisual program was news and the second one was movies. However, it is interesting to note that for both the intermediate and the upper-intermediate proficiency levels, the correlation between the amount of exposure to movies and the participants' language proficiency improvements obtained the highest significance. For both levels, the correlation between the amount of exposure to news and the participants' language proficiency improvements received the second highest significance.

Similar to the intermediate level participants and unlike the low level participants, the upper-intermediate level participants improved their language proficiency significantly (RQ2). The results obtained from RQ2 for the upper-intermediate level group shed more light to a pool of previous qualitative and quantitative studies which underlined the pedagogical values of exposure to audiovisual news for language learning (Bahrani & Tam, 2011; Baker, 1996; Beach & Somerholter, 1997; Bell, 2003; Berber, 1997; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992; Wetzel et al, 1994; to name only a few).

The point should be highlighted that the previous quantitative studies were mostly conducted with the intermediate level language learners in classroom setting. However, the findings of the present research showed that the upper-intermediate language learners can also benefit from exposure to news broadcasts. Moreover, the findings indicated that if the upper-intermediate language learners are given the chance to be in charge of selecting their preferred type of audiovisual program in informal settings, they may not only base their selection on their interest but also consider the quality of the

language input. Indeed, the upper-intermediate level language learners may be able to recognize the type of language input which contributes to their SLA development.

Besides the significant language proficiency development, the upper-intermediate participants obtained the highest significant improvement in speaking skill compared to other skills. A previously conducted research by Bahrani and Tam (2011) also showed that greater exposure to audiovisual news broadcasts can enhance the intermediate level language learners' speaking proficiency.

According to Bahrani and Tam (2011), the intermediate participants showed their enthusiasm in creative use of various vocabularies, sentences, and structures in talking about the topics during the interviews (speaking test) in the post-test. Through this, they could reveal their ability through the choice of words to express their ideas and high fluency of speeches. Their automatic production of speeches and appropriate use and rate of pauses at specific junctures with correct use of supersegmental features (rhythm, intonation, and stress) similar to that of the audiovisual news was also significant. This reflected how exposure to audiovisual news items was impressive on the intermediate participants' language proficiency (Bahrani & Tam, 2011).

Similarly, the results of the fourth research question are indicative of the fact that the upper-intermediate level language learners can also significantly improve their speaking skill through greater exposure to news in informal settings. One of the reasons that the upper-intermediate participants' could significantly improve their language proficiency in general and their speaking skill in particular might be related to the quality of the language input embedded in the audiovisual news which they watched. The lexico-syntactic feature of audiovisual news is what makes this type of program a rich source

of vocabulary input for language learners. Indeed, a good pedagogical benefit implicitly exists in audiovisual news programs because the news often includes the same jargon and utterances. Moreover, the fluency of speeches which is considered as the use of appropriate pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, and rate of speaking along with the marked linguistics features are other characteristics of audiovisual news which make it a valuable authentic source of language input.

In addition to speaking skill, however, the upper-intermediate level participants also improved their listening skill significantly. This is also in line with the findings of the researches conducted by Baker (1996), Brinton and Gaskill (1987), Cauldwell (1996), and Poon (1992) which provided empirical evidence on the effect of exposure to news broadcast on enhancing listening skill. According to Poon (1992), among all types of authentic materials, audiovisual news broadcasts are preferred by ESL teachers to be utilized in developing language learners' listening skill because listening to audiovisual news broadcasts has become a daily activity and imminent parts of the modern life.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

One of the essential issues in SLA which has been emphasized by many theories of language learning in the last three decades is language input and its role in SLA. Having exposure to a type of language input whether in the form of comprehensible input, incomprehensible input, or comprehensible output for SLA development is not questioned. In fact, there is a general agreement among the researchers that SLA cannot occur without having exposure to a type of language input.

Considering the fact that some type of language input is required for SLA in both formal and informal settings, authentic language materials have the potential to be used as sources of language input which can indirectly involve the language learners in the language learning process. In this relation, while language learners in ESL contexts have the chance to make use of social interaction with native or non-native speakers in informal settings, the weel or the lack of social interaction in English in EFL contexts has made the situation much more difficult. In EFL contexts and even some ESL contexts, the few hours a week in English classes may be the only time for the language learners to be exposed to the English language.

Indeed, in these contexts, the challenge faced by language learners who want to acquire the language beyond the classroom setting is that they do not have access to social interaction similar to that of the native country. This is because they are based in countries where the English language is not used in social contexts beyond the classrooms. However, in the last two decades, this challenge has been solved to some

extent by the remarkable developments in audiovisual and computer-mediated communication programs which have provided easy access to various audiovisual programs for various audiences including language learners. These types of audiovisual programs have the potential to be utilized as sources of authentic language input. As a result, not being able to be located in a country where English is spoken in the society as the first or the second language has become much less of an obstacle to language learners.

In view of the above, the aim of this research was to investigate the effectiveness of exposure to audiovisual programs in informal settings and to provide more insights through substantial empirical evidence. To gather this empirical evidence, seventy five participants (twenty five low level, twenty five intermediate level, and twenty five upper-intermediate level as three differentiated proficiency levels) were selected out of the initial population of one hundred eighty two language learners majoring in TESL based on a language proficiency pre-test. During the study, all the participants were asked to tune to their favorite types of audiovisual programs in informal settings and keep a diary of the amounts and types of exposure. After four months, a post-test, a parallel language proficiency test, was administered to all the participants in the three differentiated proficiency levels to determine the relationship between greater exposure to various types of audiovisual programs in informal settings and language proficiency development.

5.2 Summary of the findings

The first research question attempted to find out the most preferred type of audiovisual program for all the participants as well as each differentiated language proficiency level. For this purpose, the data obtained from the self-report sheets were retrieved. The

results indicated that news obtained the highest amount for the total population combined. For the low level participants, cartoons were preferred compared to other audiovisual programs. On the other hand, the intermediate level participants preferred movies as their top audiovisual program, and the upper-intermediate level participants preferred news more than the other types of audiovisual programs.

Regarding the second research question, the results of the pre-post tests of all the participants and the participants in each differentiated language proficiency level were analyzed separately to determine the significant language proficiency improvement. It was found that as a whole the participants did significantly improve their language proficiency. However, when each proficiency level was separately examined, it was found that there was no significant language proficiency improvement for the low level participants. In contrast, the intermediate and the upper-intermediate levels significantly improved their language proficiency through exposure to the various types of audiovisual programs. Among the three proficiency levels, the upper-intermediate level participants seem to have gained the highest significant improvement.

Further analysis of the data from the self-report sheets and the pre-post tests results of all the participants provided answers to the third research question. The results of the correlation analysis indicated that the correlation between the amount of exposure to news as the participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement was high and significant. However, although the low level participants spent much of their time viewing cartoons as their most preferred type of audiovisual program, the correlation between the amount of exposure to cartoons and their language proficiency improvement was not significant. In contrast, the correlation between the amount of exposure to movies as the intermediate participants' most

preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement obtained the highest significance. This is while the amount of time spent by the intermediate level participants on watching their movies as their preferred type of audiovisual program was less than the amount of time spent by the low level participants on watching cartoons.

In relation to the upper-intermediate level group, the correlation between the amount of exposure to news as their most preferred type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency improvement obtained the second highest significance. Similar to the intermediate level group, the upper-intermediate level group's highest significant correlation was obtained for the amount of exposure to movies and their language proficiency improvement. Hence, movies seem to be very effective in enhancing the language proficiency of the language learners particularly for the intermediate and the upper-intermediate language learners.

Finally, the analysis of the pre-post tests results of all the participants and the participants in each language proficiency level were analyzed again to provide answers to the fourth research question that was to determine the language skill which obtained the highest improvement. It was found that the listening skill obtained the highest significant improvement for all the participants. This is not unpredictable as the source of language input is audiovisual hence the expected skill improvement is predictably listening.

As for the low level participants, the findings revealed that the improvement did not differ significantly across the four skills. In other words, for the participants in the low proficiency group the amount of improvement was almost equal in all the skills.

However, the examination of the means of the four skills showed that listening skill gained the highest improvement among all the skills although the improvement was not significant.

For the intermediate language proficiency level the results indicated that the listening skill gained the highest significant improvement among the other skills. Interestingly, for the upper-intermediate language proficiency level the results revealed that speaking skill gained the highest significant improvement among the other skills. The results also revealed, however, that audiovisual programs do not seem to lead to an improvement in the reading or writing skills. It can be inferred that greater exposure to various audiovisual programs is not effective in enhancing reading and writing skills.

5.3 Conclusions and implications

In this section the conclusion based on the findings is put forth. Then, the implication of the findings for SLA theory and pedagogy will be considered.

5.3.1 Conclusions

The findings of the present research seem to indicate that the language input embedded in the type of audiovisual programs which language learners are exposed to is more important than the amount of exposure. This is because although the low level participants' amount of exposure to their favorite type of audiovisual program (cartoons) was more than the intermediate and the upper-intermediate participants' amounts of exposure to their preferred types of programs (movies and news respectively), the results of the pre-post tests revealed that the low level participants' language proficiency improvement was neither the highest nor significant compared to that of the intermediate and the upper-intermediate learners' improvement.

The choice of cartoons needs to be further explored but there could be numerous hypotheses to provide an explanation. It can be hypothesized that the type of cartoons which the low level participants had self-selected most probably included language input which did not aid SLA. It is likely that the low level participants selected cartoons where the language input was at the level that they had already acquired or alternatively, there is insufficient exposure to the new aspects of the language. Another plausible reason would be that they might have failed to comprehend and internalize the language input to contribute to their SLA development. In fact, the low level participants might have just spent a lot of time watching different cartoons simply because they liked cartoons but not following the scripts/ stories.

In contrast to the low level participants, the intermediate level participants who had more exposure to movies and news and the upper-intermediate participants who had more exposure to news and movies improved their language proficiency scores significantly. More importantly, the correlation between the amount of exposure to movies and language proficiency improvement in both the intermediate and the upper-intermediate levels obtained the highest significance. The amount of exposure to news had the second highest significant correlation in both the language proficiency levels. This indicated that the type of language input embedded in movies or news most probably included those aspects of the language input which aided SLA. Besides, it can be hypothesized that the intermediate and the upper-intermediate participants could comprehend and internalize the language input which aided their SLA development.

More generally, it can be concluded that news, movies, series, and singing shows as various types of audiovisual programs have the potential to be utilized as sources of authentic language input for SLA development. Specifically, based on the empirical

evidence provided by the present research, the most appropriate types of audiovisual programs which have the potential to provide the necessary language input for the development of SLA for language learners at the intermediate and upper-intermediate levels are movies and news. Audiovisual news can also be utilized at the low level proficiency classes if some classroom activities are employed to reinforce the comprehension and the internalization of the language input (Mackenzie, 1997).

If given the freedom to select their preferred type of audiovisual program(s), the low level language learners may have great amount of exposure to their favorite audiovisual program but they may not select segments which are rich in terms of language input. In other words, they may select the type of audiovisual program which include minimal language input. Indeed, they may base their selection regardless of the amount of language input which is embedded in the program(s). In contrast, compared with the low level language learners, the intermediate and the upper-intermediate learners may have less amount of exposure to their favorite programs but they are better at selecting audiovisual programs with the appropriate language input that enable them to develop their SLA. Finally, for the amount of exposure to audiovisual programs which could have a positive impact on SLA development, findings revealed that a minimum weekly dose of 220 minutes exposure to news or 215 minutes to movies is sufficient amount in order for exposure to be translated to SLA.

5.3.2 Implication for SLA theory

An important component of the SLA theories is the role of language input. While there is an agreement that some type of language input is required for SLA development, researchers have long been considering various types of language input (Krashen, 1981; Long, 1996; White, 1987) that can best contribute to SLA. In place of social interaction

(in EFL contexts and some ESL contexts) various audiovisual programs have the potential to provide language learners with authentic sources of language learning for SLA development in informal settings.

The findings of the present research corroborated with the findings of the previous study conducted by Bahrani and Tam (2012) regarding the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs compared with exposure to social interaction in English in countries where English is spoken as a second language. Similar to that study, the findings of this study confirmed that there can be significant improvement in SLA based on audiovisual exposure.

With regard to the type and the amount of exposure to various audiovisual programs for SLA development, the findings of the present research revealed that audiovisual programs can aid SLA because of the language input available. The findings indicate that the language input embedded in the type of audiovisual programs which language learners are exposed to is more important than the amount of exposure.

More particularly, the findings showed that the low level participants do not benefit a lot from being in charge of selecting their preferred type of audiovisual programs. They might have a lot of exposure to their preferred type of audiovisual program without considering the quality of the language input. Indeed, having greater amount of exposure to a particular type of audiovisual may not guarantee SLA development if the quality of the language input is ignored.

As a result, the selection of the type of audiovisual programs for SLA development should be prioritized over the amount of exposure to a particular type of audiovisual program. Cartoons as one type of audiovisual program can be utilized for SLA development at the low language proficiency level if the quality of language input is given priority.

The results also indicated that both the intermediate and upper intermediate learners when given the freedom to select their preferred type of audiovisual program, they can select audiovisual programs (movies and news) which can contribute to their own SLA development.

In fact, the language input in news and movies for SLA is superior to other types of audiovisual programs. More importantly, audiovisual programs can replace social interaction particularly in EFL contexts for the development of listening and speaking skills.

Based on the findings, the present study contributes to SLA theories which highlight the role and the importance of language input by underscoring the point that the choice of authentic audiovisual language input seems to have a more significant impact on language development compared to the amount of exposure.

5.3.3 Implication for pedagogy

The present research showed the pedagogical value of various types of audiovisual programs as potential sources of authentic language input to enhance SLA. More importantly, this study showed that exposure to the various types of audiovisual

programs in informal settings help language learners with different proficiency levels improve their language proficiency.

Based on the findings of the present research, although audiovisual programs generally are a great source of authentic language input for teaching/learning purposes, more caution should be given to the selection of the type of audiovisual programs particularly for the low level proficiency learners.

Teachers are recommended to focus more on the quality of the language input rather than the amount of exposure. Besides, they are recommended to provide their language learners with more language input including the new aspects of the language. For example, they are recommended to provide their language learners at all differentiated levels particularly the intermediate and the upper-intermediate levels with news and movies as two types of potential sources of authentic language input. These two sources can also be utilized at the low proficiency level classes if some classroom activities are incorporated by the teachers to facilitate the comprehension and the integration of the appropriate type and level of language input.

To fully maximize the low level proficiency learners' preference for cartoons, the programs can be appropriately selected by the teachers to include those aspects of the language input which they have not yet acquired. Besides, teachers can incorporate some activities to assure the comprehension and the internalization of the language input.

In a nutshell, the results of the study may be important to language teachers, practitioners, and institutions for investment in audiovisual technologies for language learning by exposing the language learners more than before to the most effective types of authentic audiovisual materials.

5.4 Suggestions for further studies

The present research was conducted in informal settings where the participants in all the three differentiated proficiency levels were asked to have exposure to their preferred types of audiovisual programs without teachers' instruction or the researchers' monitoring. In fact, the participants themselves decided on the type and the amount of exposure to their favorite programs. Moreover, the study was conducted with no control and experimental groups in informal settings. As a result, many variables which could not be controlled might have influenced the results. Thus, different results might be obtained if the study is conducted in formal settings with control and experimental groups to find out the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs on language proficiency development.

The participants of the present research were not advanced level language learners. The study has addressed low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate levels language learners. Consequently, the findings of the study are limited to low, intermediate, and upper-intermediate language proficiency levels. The need to conduct the study with advance level language learners is warranted. Different results might be obtained if the study is conducted with advance level language learners.

The present research did not investigate how the participants in the low, the intermediate, and the upper-intermediate groups dealt with the comprehension and internalization of the type of language input which they had exposure to in informal settings. Indeed, the input processing was out of the scope of the present research. Consequently, there is a need for other researches to investigate how language learners with different proficiency levels deal with the comprehension and internalization of the language input embedded in various types of audiovisual programs. Further studies can be conducted to determine the amount of comprehensible or incomprehensible language input which can enhance SLA of language learners with differentiated proficiency levels.

Finally, further research can be carried out to gauge the effectiveness of exposure to various audiovisual programs on language proficiency development by controlling not only the amount of language input but also the quality of the language input.

Publications based on the theoretical justification of the present research

1. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2012). Informal Language Learning Setting: Technology or Social Interaction? *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology* 11 (2): 142-149. (ISI-cited)
2. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2012). The effect of exposure to various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input on second language acquisition. *Southern African linguistics and applied linguistics studies* 30 (3): (ISI-cited)
3. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2012). Audiovisual News, Cartoons, and Films as Authentic Language Input and Language proficiency Development. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology* 11 (4): 56-64 (ISI-cited)
4. Bahrani, T., & Tam, S, S. (2011). Technology and language learning: Exposure to TV and radio news and speaking proficiency. *Kritika Kultura* (17): 144-160. (ISI-cited)

Appendix B

Weekly self-report sheet

Week one

Date:

Name of the participant:

Participant's proficiency level: (researcher's input)

For each day, please write the amount of your exposure to each of the following programs in minutes if you have any.

Amount (in minutes) / Type of mass media	SAT	SUN	MON	TUE	WEN	THU	FRI	TOTAL
News								
Movies								
Documentary films								
Series								
Sports programs								
Singing shows								
Talk shows								
Cartoons								

Appendix C

Weekly self-report sheet (second version)

Week one

Date:

Name of the participant:

Participant's proficiency level: (researcher's input)

Amount (in minutes) / Type of mass media	SAT	SUN	MON	TUE	WEN	THU	FRI	TOTAL
News								
Movies								
Documentary films								
Series								
Sports programs								
Singing shows								
Talk shows								
Speeches								
Cartoons								
Game shows								

- For each day, please write the amount of your exposure to each of the programs in minutes if you have any.
- For each program, please also indicate, as much as possible, whether you watched the same (S) or different (D) segment in different days of the week.

Appendix D

Consent Form

Purpose and Procedures: This study is intended to investigate **the effect of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input in informal setting and second language acquisition.**

If you agree to take part in this research, you will be given an IELTS test as a pre-test. If you are selected to participant in the data collection procedure, you will be asked to have exposure to your favorite types of audiovisual programs in informal settings and report the type and the amounts of exposure during a period of 16 weeks. After 16 weeks, you will be asked to participate in an IELTS post-test. You will be given feedback regarding your performance on the post-test test.

Voluntariness: Your participation in this research is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of the benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision will not affect your grades or status at this university.

Confidentiality: Only the principal researcher will have access to research results associated with your identity. In the event of publication of this research, no personally identifying information will be disclosed.

Who to Contact with Questions: Questions about this research study should be directed to the primary investigator and person in charge, TAHER BAHRANI (taherbahrani@yahoo.com) or his supervisor, Tam Shu Sim (tamss@um.edu.my).

I certify that I have read this form and volunteer to participate in this research study.

(Print) Name

Signature

Date: _____

Appendix E
Low level learners' amount and the type of exposure to various audiovisual programs during the 16 weeks period of the research

Program/ subjects	News	Movies	Docu ment ary films	Series	sports progr ams	Talk show s	Game show s	Singin g show	cartoons	speech es	TOTAL
1	2530	4140	300	580	60	210	0	450	6805	160	15235
2	1750	4460	435	2810	0	0	0	630	6640	0	16725
3	1820	3230	655	3080	0	0	0	1000	6830	0	16615
4	1920	3040	940	920	90	130	0	1210	6240	120	14610
5	1600	3620	800	970	0	0	0	1300	5280	0	13570
6	2190	2610	0	1490	0	0	0	1270	6650	0	14210
7	1920	2040	0	1490	0	0	0	1660	5170	0	12280
8	1900	2100	450	750	0	0	0	360	5460	0	11020
9	2070	2610	0	2040	0	0	0	0	3290	0	10010
10	2165	3140	0	2620	0	0	0	910	5575	0	14410
11	2025	2320	0	1260	0	0	0	520	6505	0	12630
12	2080	2770	0	1550	0	0	0	1860	4150	0	12410
13	1990	1980	0	1970	0	80	0	1330	3995	0	11345
14	1750	2560	0	1590	0	0	0	780	3110	0	9790
15	1210	3110	0	1395	0	1380	0	0	4275	0	11370
16	2200	2530	0	2980	0	0	0	1210	3235	0	12155
17	1915	2920	0	1510	0	0	0	50	3550	50	9995
18	2250	1750	0	1960	0	0	0	310	3630	0	9900
19	1805	3020	0	2730	0	0	0	860	4790	0	13205
20	2010	5060	0	2900	0	0	0	0	6730	0	16700
21	1945	2675	570	910	0	0	0	0	6490	0	12590
22	2890	3275	0	1405	0	0	0	0	3330	0	10900
23	1900	2820	0	1650	0	0	0	0	5485	0	11855
24	2990	2190	0	475	0	0	0	0	6990	0	12645
25	2940	3965	0	1895	0	0	0	0	7050	0	15850
TOTAL	51765	73935	4150	42930	150	1800	0	15710	<u>131255</u>	330	322015

Appendix F
Intermediate level learners' amount and the type of exposure to various audiovisual programs
during the 16 weeks period of the research

Program/ subjects	News	Movies	Docu ment ary films	Series	sports progr ams	Talk show s	Game show s	Singin g show	cartoons	Speech es	TOTAL
1	3500	4920	0	2900	0	0	0	290	880	0	12490
2	3370	4470	310	2650	0	0	0	0	1330	0	12330
3	1770	5720	0	2230	0	0	0	0	2360	0	12080
4	3620	3200	0	2750	0	0	0	0	3870	0	13440
5	4260	3340	360	3320	0	0	0	0	1080	0	12360
6	3160	4480	0	2300	0	0	0	380	1100	0	10320
7	3380	4130	0	2300	0	0	0	0	1680	380	11870
8	3520	6700	250	2700	0	0	0	0	0	0	13470
9	3335	6420	0	3420	0	0	0	0	2825	630	16630
10	3850	6050	0	3370	0	0	0	2570	3260	0	19100
11	4580	5630	350	2260	0	0	0	0	2390	0	16080
12	3330	5035	110	2860	0	260	0	0	0	455	12350
13	3680	4910	0	3550	0	0	0	0	0	260	12400
14	4160	4820	330	0	0	0	0	0	4780	0	14110
15	3510	5725	0	2565	0	0	0	370	4070	0	16240
16	2450	3670	0	3600	0	280	0	0	2800	490	13290
17	4430	4685	50	1910	0	0	0	0	2185	0	13560
18	1200	6680	0	4915	0	0	0	0	3660	0	16455
19	3550	5910	0	3400	0	0	0	0	3710	0	16570
20	3730	4980	0	530	0	0	0	0	3640	0	12880
21	2825	4530	0	3115	0	0	0	0	3675	0	15240
22	2455	6700	0	3500	0	0	0	290	4485	200	17630
23	4195	6690	0	3260	0	0	0	0	4990	0	19135
24	4940	6490	0	3120	0	0	0	0	310	0	14860
25	4330	6240	0	2200	0	0	0	0	4680	0	17450
TOTAL	85930	<u>112325</u>	1750	68725	0	540	0	3900	63760	2415	362340

Appendix G
Upper-intermediate level learners' amount and the type of exposure to various audiovisual programs during the 16 weeks period of the research

Program/ subjects	News	Movies	Docu ment ary films	Series	Sport s progr ams	Talk show s	Game show s	Singin g show s	cartoons	Speech es	TOTAL
1	4050	3530	0	2490	0	0	0	1780	0	0	11850
2	5120	4150	0	2540	0	0	0	370	2830	0	15010
3	4600	2350	0	3110	0	0	0	490	2020	0	12570
4	6630	3040	0	2290	0	0	0	0	1500	420	13880
5	7080	3220	0	2770	0	0	0	210	290	0	13570
6	3000	4050	0	2360	0	0	0	0	2160	520	12090
7	7230	3040	620	2370	0	0	0	730	1650	0	15640
8	4320	2730	0	1760	0	0	0	2050	2670	0	13530
9	4350	3070	0	1930	0	0	0	0	1510	0	10860
10	4980	2340	0	2420	0	0	0	420	490	0	10650
11	6430	2490	490	1910	0	0	0	170	1960	0	13450
12	3540	2230	0	2770	0	0	0	0	600	0	9140
13	6610	3810	0	2040	0	0	0	290	1620	0	14370
14	6190	2710	0	2080	0	0	0	0	2180	0	13160
15	5850	2400	410	2390	0	170	0	0	1760	440	13420
16	4490	3020	0	2030	0	0	0	300	2210	0	12050
17	5210	2950	0	1820	0	0	0	0	2785	0	12765
18	4360	3050	0	2460	0	0	0	0	2030	0	11900
19	2070	2380	0	3760	0	0	0	0	1760	0	9970
20	4570	2670	0	2480	0	0	0	420	3370	0	13510
21	5890	2690	0	2390	0	0	0	0	1900	0	12870
22	4810	2210	0	1750	0	0	0	0	2750	0	11520
23	6360	2580	0	2395	0	0	0	1870	1680	0	14885
24	5490	3570	0	1610	0	270	0	760	2080	0	13780
25	4110	2450	0	2620	0	0	0	0	1690	420	11290
TOTAL	127340	72730	1520	58545	0	440	0	9860	45495	1800	317730

Bibliography

- Arcario, P. (1993). Criteria for selecting video materials. In *Video in second language teaching: Using, selecting, and producing video for the classroom*, ed. S. Stempleski and P. Arcario. Alexandria, VA: TESOL Inc., 109-122.
- Adams, E., Morrison, H., & Reddy, J. (1968). Conversation with a computer as a technique of language instruction. *Modern Language Journal*, 52, 3-16.
- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horowitz, Horowitz, & Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students in Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-168.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*: Oxford University press, London.
- Bacon, S. M., & Finnemann, M. D. (1990). 'A study of the attitudes, motives, and strategies of university foreign language students and their disposition to authentic oral and written input'. *Modern Language Journal*, 74 (4), 459-573.
- Bahrani, T., & Tam, S. S. (2012). Informal Language Learning Setting: Technology or Social Interaction? *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology* 11 (2): 142-149.
- Bahrani, T., & Tam, S. S. (2012). Audiovisual News, Cartoons, and Films as Authentic Language Input and Language proficiency Development. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology* 11 (4): 56-64.
- Bahrani, T., & Tam, S. S. (2011). Technology and language learning: Exposure to TV and radio news and speaking proficiency. *Kritika Kultura* 17, 144-160.
- Baker, N. (1996). Using the TV news in the EFL classroom. *Zielsprache*, 26(2), 30-33.
- Baker, T. L. (1994), *Doing Social Research* (2nd Edn.), New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Beach, S., & Somerholter, K. E. (1997). Deutsche Welle TV: Using video to introduce business German. *Unterrichtspraxis/Teaching-German*, 30(1), 30-35.

- Bedjou, A. (2006). Using radio programs in EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 44 (1),28-31. Available at: <http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/06-44-1-g.pdf>. Accessed July 12, 2007.
- Bell, S. (1996). *Learning with information systems: Learning cycles in information systems development*. New York: Routledge.
- Bell, D. M. (2003). TV news in the EFL/ESL Classroom: Criteria for Selection. *TEFL-EJ*, 7 (3), 1-17. Available at: <http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume7/ej27/ej27a2/>. Accessed, February 22, 2007.
- Berber, S. A. (1997). Proficiency and comprehension of television news in a foreign language. *Revista de Documentacao de Estudos em Linguistica Teorica e Aplicada (D.E.L.T.A.)*, 13(2), 177-190.
- Blatchford, C. (1973). Newspapers: vehicles for teaching ESOL with cultural focus. *TESOL Quarterly*, 7, 145-153.
- Bray, C. (2005). Watching the whale watchers: leisurely informal learning online. Available at: www.Orca-live.Net. Accessed, May 20, 2011.
- Brinton, D. (1991). *The use of media in language teaching*. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- Brinton, D., & Gaskill, W. (1987). Using news broadcasts in the ESL/EFL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 12(4), 403-413.
- Brosnan, D., Brown, K., & Hood, S. (1984). *Reading in Context*. Adelaide: National Curriculum Resource Center.
- Cauldwell, R. M. (1996). Direct encounters with fast speeches on CD-Audio to teach listening. *System*, 24(4), 521-528.
- Chapple. L., & Curtis. A. (2000). Content based instruction in Hong Kong: Students responses to films. *System*, 28, 419-433.

- Chinnery, G. M. (2005). Speaking and listening online: A survey of internet resources. *English Teaching Forum*, 43 (3), 10-17.
<http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/05-43-3-c.pdf>.
 Accessed July 12, 2007.
- Chiu, C. Y. (2006). Using situation comedy to enrich learners' vocabulary. *The internet TESL journal*, 12 (8). Available at: <http://iTESLj.org/Techniques/Chiu-Sitcom.html>. Accessed February 21, 2006.
- Clark, C. (2000). Innovative strategy: Concept cartoons. *Instructional and learning strategies*, 12, 34-45.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Coombs, P. H., & Ahmed, M. (1974). *Attacking rural poverty: How non-formal education can help*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Press.
- Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 161-170.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*, 2nd edition. Thousands Oak, CA: Sage.
- Decker, H. (1976). Computer-aided instruction in French syntax. *Modern Language Journal*, 60, 263-273.
- Doring, A. (2002). The use of cartoons as a teaching and learning strategy with adult learners. *New Zealand Journal of adult learning*, 30, 56-62.
- Doughty, C., & Long, M. H. (2003). *The handbook of second language acquisition*. Blackwell publishing.
- Egan, K. (1999). Speaking: A Critical Skill and a Challenge. *CALICO Journal*, 16 (3).
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition (second ed)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R., & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 285-301.
- Freed, B. (1995). *Second language acquisition in a study abroad context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 198–217.
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (1994). *Second language acquisition: an introductory course*. Hilldale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S., & Varonis, E. (1994). Input, Interaction, and Second Language Production. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 283–302.
- Gatti-Taylor, M. (1980). Singing shows as a linguistic and cultural resource in the Intermediate Italian class. *Foreign Language Annals*, 6, 465-469.
- Gebhard, J. G. (1996). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language: A Teacher Self-Development and Methodology Guide*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Gehardt, J. G. (2004). Using movie trailers in an ESL CALL class. *The internet TESL journal*, 10 (1). Available at: <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Gebhardt-MovieTrailers.html>. Retrieved February 23, 2006.
- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Lang. Teach*, 40, 97-118.
- Grady, W., Lee, S. O., & Lee, J. H. (2011). Practical and Theoretical Issues in the Study of Heritage Language Acquisition. *Heritage Language Journal*.

- Guildford, J. P. (1973). *Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education*, 5th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hart, B., & Risley, T. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.
- Hatch, E., & Farhady, H. (1981). *Research design and statistics for applied linguistics*. Los Angeles: University of California.
- Hayati, A., & Mohmedi, F. (2011). The effect of films with and without subtitled on listening comprehension of EFL learners. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 42 (1), 181-192.
- Heffernan, N. (2005). Watching movie trailers in the ESL class. *The internet TEFL journal*, 9 (3). Available at: <http://iteslj.org/Lessons/Heffernan-MovieTrailers.html>. Retrieved February 23, 2006.
- Huang, H., & Eskey, D. (2000). The effects of closed-captioned television on the listening comprehension of intermediate English as a second language students. *Educational Technology Systems*, 28, 75-96.
- Ishihara, N., & Chi, J. C. (2004). Authentic video in the beginning ESOL classroom: Using a full-length feature film for listening and speaking strategy practice. *English Teaching Forum*, 42 (1), 30-35. Available at: <http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/04-42-1-h.pdf>. Accessed May 13, 2007.
- Istanto, J. W. (2009). The Use of Films as an Innovative Way to Enhance Language Learning and Cultural Understanding. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6 (1), 278-290.
- Kaiser, M. (2011). New Approaches to Exploiting Film in the Foreign Language Classroom. *L2 Journal*, 3 (2), 232-249.

- Keller, J. M. (1987). Development and use of the ARCS model of instructional design. *Journal of instructional development*, 10 (3), 2-10.
- Kerridge, D. (1982). *The use of video films*. In Geddes, M., and Sturtridge, G. (ed). Video in language classroom, pp. 107-127. London: Heinemann.
- Knowles, M. S. (1950). *Informal adult education*. New York: Association Press.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis*. Torrance, CA: Laredo Publishing Company.
- Kusumarasdyati. (2004). *Listening, Viewing and Imagination: Movies in EFL Classes*. Paper presented at the 2nd International Conference on Imagination and Education Vancouver, Canada.
- Leith, W. D. (1979). Advanced French conversation through popular music. *The French Review*, 52, 537-551.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2001). *How Languages are Learned*, Second edition, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Long, M. (1982). *Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in the second language classroom*. In M. Long & C. Richards (Eds.), *Methodology in TESOL: A book of readings* (pp. 339-354). New York: Newbury House.
- Long, M. (1996). *The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition*. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York: Academic Press.
- Lowe, A. S. (1998). L'enseignement de la musique et de la langue seconde: pistes d'intégration et conséquences sur les apprentissages (The teaching of music and second

- languages: Text integration and consequences for learning). *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54 (2), 219-238.
- Mackenzie, A. S. (1997). Using CNN News Video in the EFL Classroom. *The Internet TEFL Journal*, 3 (2). Available at: <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Mackenzie-CNN.html>. Accessed February 8, 2006.
- Markham, P. (1999). Captioned videotapes and second language listening word recognition. *Foreign Language Annals*, 32, 321-328.
- Markham, P., & Peter, L. (2003). The influence of English language and Spanish language captions on foreign language listening/ reading comprehension. *J. Educational Technology Systems*, 31 (3), 331-341.
- Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. (1990). *Informal and Incidental Learning in the Workplace*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Martinez, A. (2002). *Authentic Materials: An Overview*.
- Mayya, S. (2007). Integrating new technology to commerce curriculum: how to overcome teachers' resistance? *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 6 (1), 8-14.
- McIntyre, L. J. (1999). *The practical skeptic: Core concepts in sociology*. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing.
- McLaughlin, B. (1987). The monitor model: some methodological considerations. *Language learning*, 28, 309-332.
- Melvin, B. S., & Stout, D. S. (1987). *Motivating language learners through authentic materials*. In W. Rivers (ed.) *Interactive Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 44-56.
- Miché, M. (2002). *Weaving Music into Young Minds*. Albany, NY: Delmar.
- Milton, J. (2002). Literature Review in Languages, Technology and Learning. *Nesta FutureLab Series: Report1*.

- Nassaji, H., & Fotos, S. (2010). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms: Integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context*. New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- Patten, V. B., & Benati, A. G. (2010). *Key terms in second language acquisition*. Continuum international publishing group. London.
- Pemberton, L., Fallahkhair, S., & Masthoff, G. (2004). Toward a theoretical framework for informal language learning via interactive television. *CELDA Journal*. 2004.
- Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21, 737-759.
- Pinsonneault, A., & Kraemer, K. L. (1993). Survey research methodology in management information systems: An assessment. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 10, 75-105.
- Polit, D. F., Beck, C. T., & Hungler, B. P. (2001), *Essentials of Nursing Research: Methods, Appraisal and Utilization*. 5th Ed., Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Poon, A. (1992). Action research: A study on using TV news to improve listening proficiency. *Research Report*, 14, 1-70.
- Porter, D., & Roberts, J. (1981). Authentic listening activities. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 36 (1), 37-47.
- Rogers, A. (2004). Looking again at non-formal and informal education - towards a new paradigm, *the encyclopedia of informal education*, www.infed.org/biblio/non_formal_paradigm.html. Last updated: June 04, 2004.
- Romeo, K. (2000). *Krashen and Terrell's "Natural Approach"*. Available at: <http://www.stanford.edu/~kenro/LAU/ICLangLit/NaturalApproach.htm>. Retrieved December 12, 2006.

- Rule, A. C., & Auge, J. (2005). Using humorous cartoons to teach mineral and rock concepts in sixth grade science class. *Journal of geosciences education*, 53 (3), 548-558.
- Ryan, S. (1998). Using films to develop learner motivation. *The internet TEFL journal*, 13(11). Available at: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Ryan-Films.html>. Accessed: February 3, 2006.
- Salaberry, M. R. (2001). The use of technology for second language learning and teaching: A retrospective. *Modern Language Journal*, 85 (1), 39-56.
- Salant, P., & Dillman, D. A. (1994). *How to conduct your own survey*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Schoepp, K. (2001). Reasons for using singing shows in EFL/ESL classrooms. *The internet TEFL Journal*, 7 (2). Available at: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Schoepp-Songs.html>. Accessed: February 3, 2006.
- Stempleski, S. (1992). Teaching Communication Skills with Authentic Video. In S. Stempleski & P. Arcario (Eds.), *Video in Second Language Teaching: Using, Selecting, and Producing Video for the Classroom* (pp. 7-24). Alexandria: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.
- Swain, M. (1985). *Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development*. Input in Second Language Acquisition., eds S. Gass & C. Madden, Newbury House, Rowley, Mass.
- Sweet, H. (1899). *The practical study of languages*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Taylor, D. (1994). Inauthentic authenticity or authentic inauthenticity? Teaching *English as a Second or Foreign Language* 1, 1-10.
- Trapp, E. A. (1991). Break down inhibitions and build up understanding with music, music, music. *Hispania*, 74, 437-438.
- VanPatten, W., & Williams, J. (2007). *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: New York.

- Wetzel, C. D., Radtke, P. H., & Stern, H. W. (1994). *Instructional effectiveness of video media*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The Input Hypothesis and the development of L2 competence. *Applied linguistics*, 8, 95-110.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1996). Comment: authenticity and autonomy in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 50 (1), 67–68.
- Williams, C., Ritchie., & Taj, K, B. (1999). *Handbook of child language acquisition*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Ying, H. (1994). What sort of input is needed for intake? *SLAT student association working papers*, 2 (1), 28-40.
- Youksel, D. (2008). Effects of watching captioned movie clip on vocabulary development of EFL learners. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 8 (2), 48-54.