The impact of audio-visual media on acquisition and learning:

a longitudinal study of Chinese learners of L2 English

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Abstract

This is a longitudinal study, investigating the impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning in the Chinese context. In China, there are several issues in L2 English language education. The quantity and the quality of English language input are less than ideal. Furthermore, L2 English learner motivation is undependable. Since language input and motivation is important in L2 acquisition and learning, it is relevant to find an alternative input which contains authentic native English to facilitate and motivate Chinese-speaking learners' English acquisition and learning. Audio-visual media has the potential of becoming the alternative source of input on account of being a provider of rich authentic English language input and motivation stimuli.

The impact of audio-visual media was tested in two distinct aspects, namely acquisition and learning. English genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping were employed as test properties to examine to what extent audio-visual media can influence acquisition and learning respectively. A total of 52 Chinese university students participated in this one-year-long intervention experiment. The television series stimuli *Doctor Who* was only given to the experimental group during the input period. Motivation was a variable to allocate students in flexible groups for analysis after the immediate post-test. By conducting statistical tests, the results revealed that audio-visual media had a weak impact on English acquisition of genericity. The motivation variable was not influential in acquisition. In L2 English learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping, audio-visual media had a strong and long-lasting impact in the self-learning setting. The motivation variable was positively influential in learning. When the vocabulary was applied to new contexts, the effect of audio-visual media and the motivation variable was not sustained. Based on these results, the Motivational Input

Carrier Hypothesis is proposed to contribute to L2 research.

Key words

Audio-visual media, language input, acquisition, learning, motivation

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List of abbreviations

AJT: acceptability judgment task

CET 4: College English Test, level 4

CET 6: College English Test, level 6

Def.Gen.CL: definite generic classifier

EFL: English as a foreign language

EMI: English as a medium of instruction

Exist.Q: existential quantifier

Ind.CL: indefinite classifier

Ind.Kind.CL: indefinite kind classifier

L1: first language

L2: second language

NP: noun phrase

TEM 4: Test for English Majors, level 4

TEM 8: Test for English Majors, level 8

Chapter One: Introduction

This is a longitudinal study focusing on investigating the impact of audio-visual media on "acquisition" and "learning" by adult Chinese-speaking learners of English as a second language (henceforth L2). This study is also of an interdisciplinary nature, bridging the psycholinguistic property *motivation* with L2 acquisition research. An intervention experiment, which consisted of a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test was conducted, to test the impact of audio-visual media in the Chinese context. This introductory chapter first presents an overview in Section 1.1, introducing the essential components in the current research. Following this overview, Section 1.2 illustrates the research background of the current study, including the research motivation and significance. Section 1.3 presents the research aim and questions. A brief introduction to the current study is presented in Section 1.4. This chapter concludes with the presentation of the structure of this thesis in Section 1.5.

1.1 Overview

The aim of the current study is to test the impact of audio-visual media on "acquisition" and "learning" in L2 English. Overall, this study tests the impact of the type of language input, namely audio-visual media. Audio-visual media refers to the media type which has a simultaneous sound track with moving visual images. There are many forms of realisation of audio-visual media: films, TV series, TV news, animations and video clips are all included in audio-visual media. Due to the nature of audio-visual media, which has both content and plots, audio-visual media can potentially provide motivation factors to L2 learners. Therefore, the psycholinguistic property of motivation is taken into account.

The impact of audio-visual media in this study is tested from two distinct aspects, namely "acquisition" and "learning" according to Krashen's terminologies (Krashen, 1982, 1985). Acquisition is an unconscious process in which underlying tacit knowledge, including the linguistic items which are subject to poverty of stimulus, is attained. In contrast, learning is a conscious process in which metalinguistic knowledge and memorised knowledge of the target language is attained. No "learnt knowledge" is subject to poverty of stimulus. The distinction between acquisition and learning is necessary and relevant to the current study, because the impact of audio-visual media may differ in the above two processes. English genericity, and English vocabulary meaning and form mapping are employed as test properties to examine to what extent audio-visual media can influence acquisition and learning respectively.

The impact of audio-visual media is tested in a self-learning context in the current study, due to the nature of this study and the practical reason that the provided audio-visual media should be the only source of language input (See Section 3.2.1).

In this longitudinal study, testing long-term effects is of great importance, due to the intervention nature of the experiment. In intervention studies, there is a need for testing the sustainability of the effects, and this requires views from a longitudinal perspective (Dörnyei, 2007; Ortega and Iberri-Shea, 2005). The necessity of testing the long-term effects in L2 acquisition and learning is also mentioned by Gil et al. (Gil et al., 2013a). It is possible that L2 learners make progress in L2 acquisition and learning continuously over time. Only if the impact of audio-visual media is long-lasting in both the genericity test and the vocabulary test, can audio-visual media be seen as influential in L2 acquisition and learning. For the purpose of testing the long-term effects, a delayed post-test was

conducted in the experiment. The test results obtained from these two aspects (i.e. acquisition and learning) in the three test stages (i.e. pre-test stage, immediate post-test stage and delayed post-test stage) may provide evidence for comprehensive evaluation of the impact of audio-visual media, both in terms of the power and sustainability of the effects respectively.

1.2 Research background and motivation

This research project is motivated by the importance of language input, especially the importance of authentic language input in L2 research, and the current situation of English language input in the Chinese context. Authentic L2 input is the unmodified language of speech, produced by native speakers of the target language, which contributes to the positive evidence that L2 learners can receive in the acquisition and learning processes. Language input is a necessary component in L2 acquisition and learning, authentic language input is particularly significant, because it is the only type of language which can be processed in the language module in the human mind (see Section 3.1). However, when the current approach to English language teaching in the Chinese situation is considered, the quantity and the quality of English language input is less than ideal. Generally speaking, the quantity of the authentic input (i.e. positive evidence of natural speech without modification[1]) from native English speakers is far from sufficient.

Chinese-speaking L2 English learners are not particularly motivated toward English acquisition and learning, due to the exam-driven nature of English teaching in China. In language input processing, motivation is an important element in L2 acquisition and learning (see Section 3.1.3). Without dependable and diverse language learning motivation factors, the language

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[1] See Section 3.1.2 for further information

input processing may be hindered. Considering all these issues, it is desirable to find an alternative input to better facilitate the Chinese-speaking learner's L2 English acquisition and learning. Since audio-visual media contains ample authentic language input, and content and plots which can potentially provide motivation factors to L2 learners, this mode was chosen as the type of English language input to be tested in this current research.

The impact of audio-visual media has gained increasing attention in the past few years. However, it is still a new research area which needs to be comprehensively investigated. Firstly, previous studies which focus on the impact of audio-visual media have mostly been conducted on language comprehension (such as Anh, 2010; Dehghani and Jowkar, 2012) and vocabulary learning (such as Karakas and Saricoban, 2012; Neuman and Koskinen, 1992; Yuksel and Tanriverdi, 2009). A few studies focus on testing the impact of audio-visual media on L2 grammar (such as Alipanahi and Jafari, 2014; Van Lommel et al., 2006). However, no studies have been conducted to test the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition and learning respectively.

Secondly, though the previous studies showed short-term positive effects of audio-visual media on vocabulary learning (i.e. effects manifested in immediate post-tests but not sustained in delayed post-tests), they did not attempt to test the sustainability of the positive effects. Without showing the durable effects in the long term, the short-term effects alone cannot be treated as evidence that audio-visual media is positively influential in L2 learning of vocabulary. An examination testing the long-term effects is required.

Thirdly, the above listed studies focused solely on the language input that audio-visual media can provide. They did not consider the possibility that

the content and plots of audio-visual media can also indirectly contribute to acquisition and learning. Content and plots can be potentially influential to language input processing, by influencing L2 learners' psycholinguistic status, such as their language learning motivation. This thesis attempts to fill the above-mentioned research gap and provide alternative suggestions for the issues identified in the L2 English language education in China.

What the current study attempts to investigate is not commonly attempted in the field, in the sense that this study tries to examine the impact of audio-visual media on acquisition and learning respectively. As is stated above, several studies focused on testing the impact of audio-visual media on vocabulary learning. However, none of them tried to associate vocabulary meaning with L2 learning, let alone to specify the different contribution of audio-visual media on learning and acquisition. Therefore, the current study differentiates acquisition and learning, and is conducted to investigate to what extent audio-visual media can influence L2 acquisition and learning. In this study, vocabulary meaning and form mapping is associated with the learning process and is adopted as a test property to examine the impact of audio-visual media on learning. To fill the gap that there is no quantitative longitudinal study conducted in testing the long-term effect of audio-visual media, this study is highlighted with a three-fold longitudinal experimental design, to investigate the nature of the impact of audio-visual media at a deeper level. This study also examines the influence of motivation factors from audio-visual media, to comprehensively understand the impact of audio-visual media input.

1.3 Research aim and questions

This research aims to obtain empirical evidence and attempts to test the impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning by adult

Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English, and seeks to address the following questions:

1. To what extent does audio-visual media have an impact on L2 acquisition?
2. To what extent does audio-visual media have an impact on L2 learning?
3. Do the motivational factors provided by audio-visual media affect the results of L2 acquisition and learning respectively?

1.4 Brief introduction of the current experiment

To achieve the research aim and answer the above research questions, a one-year longitudinal experiment, which included a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test, was conducted. The current study was conducted in a self-learning setting, to ensure that audio-visual media was the only input that the participants receive in the experiment. Before the formal experiment, a pilot study was conducted to test the feasibility of the task design. A total of 82 Chinese-speaking university students were initially recruited for the formal experiment, and of these 52 students completed the experiment. The subjects had a similar English language proficiency level (intermediate) and a similar language background, and none of the participants received any English instruction during the experiment.

In the pre-test stage, all the participants were asked to complete a vocabulary test and an acceptability judgment task (henceforth AJT) of genericity. After the pre-test, the participants were randomly allocated to either the experimental group or the control group. Over a period of five months, only the experimental group received the audio-visual media input from *Doctor Who Series One* (13 episodes) three times. The control group, on the other hand, did not receive any audio-visual media input or any other

L2 English language input, such as classroom instruction. The participants from the experimental group were asked to fill in the motivation rating questionnaire each time they watched an episode of the given TV series. The participants in the experimental group were further divided into a high motivation group (n=15) and a low motivation group (n=19), according to the mean rating of the completed motivation questionnaires.

In the immediate post-test stage, all the participants were required to take a repeat AJT and vocabulary test. Meanwhile, the participants from the experimental group were also asked to recall the storyline of the given TV series, to confirm that they actually watched the given audio-visual media input. After the immediate post-test, there was a cooling-down period for five months when no input was given to any of the participants.

At the end of the experiment, the 52 participants were asked to complete the same AJT and vocabulary test again, to examine the sustainable impact of the audio-visual media input.

The collected data were quantitatively analysed using statistical methods. In the examination of the L2 acquisition of English genericity, it is shown that audio-visual media had a weak impact on the acquisition of English genericity. The motivation variable was not effective in the acquisition process. In the examination of the L2 learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping, audio-visual media was positively influential in the long term in the translation task. The motivation variable also had a long-term positive impact on vocabulary translation. However, audio-visual media and the motivation variable were not significantly influential in a vocabulary choice task. Based on the experimental results in which the high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation group, in both the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test in the

vocabulary translation task, I propose the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis, to make a theoretical contribution to L2 acquisition research.

1.5 The outline of the thesis

Following this chapter of introduction, Chapter Two presents the study context regarding the main issues identified in L2 English language learning and teaching in China. Based on the issues identified, the present study in the Chinese context is motivated. Chapter Three reviews the literature in language input and the acquisition and learning distinction, including the test target properties in terms of acquisition and learning respectively. This chapter also presents the research hypotheses and predictions. Chapter Four illustrates the methodology adopted in this current study. It begins with an overview of the methodological approach. The following section provides a detailed illustration of data collection including: the research participants and sampling, the research tools and materials, the research stages and procedures, the research validity and reliability of the current study, and the research time schedule. The methods for data analysis are presented in Section 4.3. Chapter Five sets out an analysis of the data obtained from the one-year experiment, and the results are reported and interpreted. Section 5.1 presents the data analysis and the results from the AJT which was designed for testing the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity. Section 5.2 presents the results from the vocabulary test which was designed to test the impact of audio-visual media on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping. Chapter Six discusses the results in depth. In Section 6.1 and Section 6.2, the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition and L2 learning are discussed respectively. Section 6.3 presents the proposal of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis. Section 6.4 provides thoughts and suggestions to adopt audio-visual media in the English language teaching and learning in China

and the implications of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis in the Chinese context. The last chapter is the conclusion of the thesis. It summarizes the methodology and the main research findings. It also discusses the main contributions of the current study and the limitations of the current study respectively. This chapter is concluded by offering suggestions for future research and policy making.

Chapter Two: Study context and the main issues of English language education in China

There is seemingly a strong desire among the Chinese public to acquire a foreign language proficiently, for the purpose of worldwide political, economic and cultural communication. Government policies encourage the public to learn a foreign language. English, as a very important communication tool in the world, has great significance attached to it. With respect to government policies on English language education, English is taught to elementary students from the first year of their 9-year compulsory education (The ministry of Education of P. R. China, 2011).

English is also one of the three core subjects which are examined in the national university entrance exam at present. Although the new governmental policy states that English will not be tested in the national university entrance exam from June 2016, it is still examined during the high school stage of education (Chen and Chen, 2014). Prestigious Chinese universities may set a higher admission requirement for the English language, which emphasizes the significance of English language learning. In Chinese university education, English is still a very important subject to all students, irrespective of majors. All these facts demonstrate the unshakable status of English language education and the demand for English language education in the current Chinese context. When graduates from Chinese universities find employments, employers require a high standard of English language proficiency. Therefore, to fulfil the requirements, employees actively find opportunities to improve their English proficiency in order to get a good position in companies and academia. Nowadays, individuals are encouraged by government policies, and there is an upsurge of enthusiasm towards English language learning. Indeed, the fact that there is a realization of the importance of English

language education is likely to be helpful in social and economic development. However, admittedly, there are still several issues in current situation of English teaching and learning.

In this chapter, the current situation of English language education in China is described, by analysing the issues found in Chinese school and university education, supplementary lessons offered by private language institutions and other forms of language education such as group study. Generally speaking, the issues are manifested from the perspectives of the quantity of English language input, the quality of English language input and the L2 English language learning motivation of the Chinese-speaking L2 learner. Sections 2.1-2.3 illustrate the above issues in detail and discuss how the issues of English language education in the Chinese context connect to and motivate the current study. This chapter also presents the importance and the need for carrying out research on the impact of audio-visual media.

2.1 Quantity of English language input

The first main issue found in the English language education in China is that the quantity of English language input that Chinese-speaking L2 English learners can receive, including the English input given by Chinese teachers whose first language (henceforth L1) is Chinese and native English speakers, is not sufficient. In China, this issue exists in school and university education, and in supplementary lessons offered by private language institutions.

In terms of the English language input provided by L1 Chinese teachers, it is available in schools and universities, and also in private English language institutions.

In schools and universities, Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English receive limited exposure to English language input from L1 Chinese teachers in either EFL (English as a foreign language) classrooms or EMI (English as a medium of instruction) classrooms, due to the syllabus and the curriculum setting (Shao Y, 2008; Zhang and Li, 2002). For L2 English learners in China, the biggest chunk of English language input comes from EFL classrooms (Song and Shi, 2014; Yang and Ren, 2009). According to Li and Wang (2006), more than 80% of English language input that the learners receive comes from the EFL classroom. Liu (2010) obtained a similar result on the percentage of classroom input contribution (78%) in the overall L2 English language input in China. However, the total numbers of contact hours[2] that students may have in the EFL classroom is quite small. It is common for students to have only 4 to 6 contact hours each week in English classes during the autumn and spring semesters (Liu Y, 2009; Zhong, 2004). Moreover, due to the limitations of teaching methodology and the proficiency levels of English learners, some L1 Chinese teachers of English use Chinese when giving instructions in EFL classrooms (Heng, 2004; Mo and Liang, 2004; Xu and Guo, 2009) and spend 40-50% of classroom time writing notes on the blackboard (Deng, 2004; Zhang X, 2009). This further reduces the accessible amount of English language input. Thus, the overall quantity of English language input that school and university students actually receive from L1 Chinese teachers is not sufficient.

With regard to EMI classes, these are rarely offered in primary and high schools in China. Universities are encouraged to offer EMI classes by the Chinese government (The Ministry of Education, 2001). However, the popularisation of EMI courses in Chinese universities is still in its early phase. The universities which can offer EMI academic courses are distributed in the developed coastal areas in China, and the number of these

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[2] In China, one contact hour equals 45 minutes.

universities is very small (Wu, 2013). These institutions are generally the members of the prestigious "985 project[3]" universities with very strict and high requirements for student admission. In other words, the majority of university students in China do not have access to EMI academic courses. Even so, for the students who do follow EMI academic courses, the total number of contact hours is very small (Shang, 2013; Su and Liu, 2008).

In supplementary lessons offered by private English language schools, the amount of English language input is also limited. Supplementary lessons, by definition, are the lessons that language learners attend apart from English language classes in schools and universities, and mostly these are offered by private English language institutions. In these lessons, although the amount of input provided by L1 Chinese teachers is higher, compared to school and university education, it is still considerably limited. This is possibly due to the high tuition fees of supplementary lessons, which may impose a restriction on some learners from joining the class and receiving English language input.

As regards the English language input provided by native English speakers, this is still not commonly available in the current context in China. It is rarely offered in schools and universities, although some private language institutions may offer English language input by native English speakers. However, considering the small number of native English teachers and the large number of L2 English learners, it is quite hard for learners to have the opportunity to have access to native English speakers. Taking into account the considerable number of English learners in China, the input from native English speakers is still limited.

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[3] "985 project" refers to the promoting and developing of key universities in China. There are altogether 39 members of top-ranked universities in this project. Among the 39 "985 project" universities, 25 universities are located in the eastern coastal area of China.

To sum up, the overall quantity of English language input in the current English language education system in China is not sufficient. Since language input is important in L2 acquisition and learning, the limited amount of input would not be able to facilitate L2 acquisition and learning, and would hinder the developmental process. Therefore, other alternative ways to increase the input quantity are needed.

It is worth noting that the problem regarding the quantity of language input is not unique in the Chinese EFL context. This is also a problem which is commonly seen in other foreign language contexts in the world. In the situation where children learning English as a foreign language in secondary schools, it is very common that the children can only get the exposure of English once a week, because of the restrictions of the timetable schedules (Selivan, 2010; Collins and Munoz, 2016). For instance, in Norway, the Norwegian-speaking children only have the English exposure for less than one hour per week (Sivertzen, 2013). In UK, modern foreign language learners (i.e. learners of French, German or Spanish) have one to two hours per week under the national curriculum (Sherrington, 2013; Tinsley and Board, 2015). The quantity of language input is a widespread issue which needs attention.

2.2 Quality of English language input

The quality of the available English language input in current English language education in China is less than ideal. In China, the majority of Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English receive English language input from L1 Chinese teachers and their peers in EMI and EFL classrooms (in both schools and universities, and private language institutions), and from communication in group learning activities such as "English corner". A small amount of L2 English learners may get exposure to the input from

native English speakers in supplementary lessons offered by private language institutions. The quality issues of these main types of English language input in China are discussed as follows.

English language input from L1 Chinese teachers

English language input from L1 Chinese teachers is the most commonly seen type of input in EFL and EMI classrooms in China. It has several characteristics regarding the issue of quality.

Firstly, English language input given by L1 Chinese teachers is characterized by its modification and adjustment. At all language levels, there are adjustments in pronunciation, vocabulary and sentence structure and so on. Researchers found that the language input from non-native teachers is syntactically simpler, and adjustments often occur in their pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar (Gaies, 1979; Henzl, 1979). These observations have been reaffirmed and reiterated by Tsui (2001), Strobelberger (2012) and Tomlinson (2013) in most EFL contexts in the world. According to these studies, non-native teachers tend to use common vocabularies, less complicated sentence structures and slower speeches, etc. There are also interactional adjustments in the input, such as repetition, prompting and information checking. All these modifications and adjustments are found to be prevalent in EFL classrooms in China. At the phonological level, L1 Chinese teachers usually slow down the rate of speech and use more pauses to give some reaction time for students. Their intonation, articulation and word stress are often exaggerated to accommodate the learner's need of understanding (Deng, 2004; Li H, 2007; Wang and Lang, 2009; Zhang M, 2002). At the level of vocabulary, L1 Chinese teachers tend to use simple and concrete words (Li and Quan, 2004; Lu, 2006; Song and Shi, 2014; Yang M, 2014; Zhang X, 2009). At the level

of grammar, short sentences and simple grammatical structures are often adopted. Complex tenses and clauses are usually avoided (Chai and Lu, 2009; Wang X, 2013; Weng and Yu, 2007). Furthermore, there are a lot of repetitions in the English input given by L1 Chinese teachers in EFL classrooms (Fan, 2004; Huang, 2014).

The characteristic of modification and adjustment makes English language input from L1 Chinese teachers different from *authentic English input*. By definition, authentic input refers to the input which is produced in real language contexts, and not specially designed and adjusted for the purpose of language teaching and learning in classrooms (Taylor, 1994; van Lier, 1996; Nunan, 1999; Gilmore, 2007). It is the real discourse produced by native language speakers (Little et al., 1989; Widdowson, 1996). Authentic language input is very beneficial for L2 learners, since it comprises primary linguistic data which can enter the language module to facilitate L2 acquisition and learning (See Section 3.1.2). Although modifications and adjustments can help learners understand the target language, the English input given by L1 Chinese teachers in EFL classrooms cannot compete with authentic English input. This is because the modified and simplified language input might give rise to the loss of important evidence in acquisition and learning. In the current Chinese situation, authentic input is not widely available in EFL classroom due to the teaching syllabus and curriculum arrangement (Jia and Tian, 2011). With modified and simplified English input by L1 Chinese teachers in most circumstances, L2 English learners in China cannot enjoy the maximized benefit from the language input.

Secondly, the English input provided by L1 Chinese teachers is also characterized by the involvement of interlanguage. In China, most L1 Chinese teachers of English are excellent in their English competence.

However, because the English teacher qualification system in China is not perfect (Huang and Xu, 2010), some teachers who have the certificate of English teaching are not fully competent. The teachers themselves admit that their teaching ability using English is not ideally strong (Gao and Liu, 2006; Huang and Zhang, 2004). The speech of some teachers carries the interlanguage characteristics of Chinese phonology and individual dialectal accents (Yang and Ren, 2009). The pronunciation of English tends not to be standard and native-like. Since English is an alphabetical language and there is a close relationship between phonemics and graphemics (James and Klein, 1994), the non native-like phonological English language input can potentially influence English learners' spelling system.

Chinglish, which is an interlanguage form of English influenced by Chinese, is also commonly seen in the English input provided by L1 Chinese teachers (Bai, 2015; Jiang X, 2013; Ma, 2015; Qiao, 2002; Wan, 2005; Qiu, 2011; Shao, 2008; Su, 2013; Wang J, 2012; Xia, 2009). The Chinglish expressions result from blindly copying the grammar rules from Chinese. The appearance of Chinglish in EFL classrooms in Chinese schools and universities is seen to be not very beneficial. Chinglish is not correctly formatted. Therefore, input involving Chinglish might not be helpful for English learners to acquire and learn the correct target language. According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), L2 learners can possibly acquire and learn a substandard target language only, if the input is not totally correctly formatted.

Thirdly, the English input provided by L1 Chinese teachers is restricted by teaching approach in EFL classrooms. Due to the fact that the scale of English teacher training in China is small (Xu et al., 2012; Fu, 2012), L1 Chinese teachers of English may not receive the most pertinent training in English teaching. Therefore, the input provided by teachers who do not have

rich experience in English language teaching may be restricted by their teaching approach. When teaching vocabulary, some teachers explain meanings and spellings only. The formality of vocabularies and the contexts where vocabularies can be used are rarely addressed (Chen L, 2005; Gao X, 2009; Kang, 2014; Qiu, 2011; Zhang and Li, 2002). The pragmatic rules of vocabulary items are rarely mentioned in EFL classrooms either (Li H, 2011; Zhang and Li, 2002). Researchers also found that when some Chinese-speaking teachers teaching English vocabularies, they often match the English vocabularies with the Chinese translations (Gao X, 2009; Zhang H, 2011; Zhang and Li, 2002). However, since there is a big difference between English and Chinese words regarding connotations and denotations, and other cultural factors, the matching of vocabularies between languages can possibly lead to misunderstanding of the vocabularies in the target language. When teaching grammar, some teachers tend to just monotonously repeat what the textbooks say (Chen Y, 2014; Si and Sun, 2012; Tan L, 2012). Chinese EFL classrooms are generally exam-driven (Gao X, 2009; Shao Y, 2008; Yang and Ren, 2009). Therefore, some teachers highlight more on what is incorrect in English, to cope with various English exams. However, in comparison, they only explain what is correct and allowed in English tangentially.

As explained above, the quality of English language input from L1 Chinese-speaking teachers in EFL classrooms is less than ideal. Since the talk delivered by Chinese teachers in EFL classrooms can take up to 90% of the class time (Mo and Liang, 2004), the overall amount of high-quality English language input that English learners can receive is further reduced, and this is not beneficial for English acquisition and learning.

Apart from the English language input in Chinese EFL classrooms, the input in a few EMI classes is another source where L2 English learners can get

exposure to the target language. However, the English language input in EMI course in Chinese universities is not problem-free (Chen and Qian, 2014). Compared to the teacher in the EFL classroom, teachers in the EMI classroom do not have an English teaching background. Their ability to use English as a medium of instruction is not ideally strong (Ling et al., 2014). When the teachers of EMI courses deliver academic knowledge, Chinglish is commonly seen (Ling et al., 2014; Pu and Que, 2008).

English language input from native English speakers

As mentioned earlier, English language input from native English speakers is not widely accessible in China. The native English input provided by private English institutions is more authentic, as compared to the English language input from L1 Chinese-speaking teachers in EFL and EMI classrooms. However, the English input from native speakers also has the characteristic of modification and adjustment, for the convenience of mutual understanding between the L1 English teachers and L2 English learners. It has the characteristics of lower talking speed, exaggerated pronunciation, shorter utterances and simplified syntactic structures, etc (Brulhart, 1986; Ellis R, 1994a). As discussed above, modification and adjustment can be beneficial for easy understanding and fluent communication in classes, but they can also weaken the power of L2 input.

English language input from peers in the classroom

In current Chinese university education, the opportunity for L2 English learners to talk in English is rare and the quality of their English speech is of concern in both EFL classrooms and EMI academic courses. With regard to the opportunity, as mentioned earlier, classrooms in China are teacher-centred. Teacher's speech dominates the majority of the class time

(up to 90%). As a result, English language input from peers can only have a proportion of approximately 10% of the class time at most. Also, students have anxieties when talking in EFL and EMI classes in China. They are afraid to speak, for fear of making errors and receiving negative evaluations (Jiang H, 2013). Thus, Chinese learners of L2 English tend to remain silent in class to avoid making errors in their language production. This would further reduce the amount of student talking time in EFL and EMI classes. In terms of the quality, owing to the fact that students in EFL and EMI classes are still learners of English, their language production is still in the interlanguage phase, thus is reckoned to be not very beneficial.

Group communications in "English corner"

Group study is another method that can help L2 learners in English acquisition and learning. In China, a common form of group study is English corner. Gao XS (2009) defines English corner as "a regular meeting which is voluntarily organised by some English learners in a public place, for the purpose of practicing oral English" (Gao XS, 2009: 60). In English corners, language learners get together frequently and talk to each other in English to achieve the goal of practising and progressing in English. It has the characteristics of effective communication and sharing the learning experience with each other. English learners get more chance to speak and these practice sessions equip them with the ability to organise the target language in an intelligible way. However, the quality of the English language input involved in the group communications is of concern. Chinese-speaking English teachers and native English speakers rarely attend the regular meetings of English corner (Fan H, 2012; Guo et al., 2015; Liu and Pei, 2010). Conversations among each small group might involve ungrammatical input. As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) argued, such conversations are common among non-native speakers, including the

conversations in the Chinese context, and are likely to result in obvious and frequent communication breakdown (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991).

Throughout the above analysis about the English language input from L1 Chinese-speaking teachers, native English speakers and peers in the classroom, and the English language input in group communications in China, it can be seen that the quality of English language input in the current Chinese context is not ideal, and it is considered to be one of the major issues in English language education in China which needs to be addressed.

Similar to the issue of language input quantity which has been discussed in Section 2.1, the quality issue of language input does not only exists in Chinese EFL contexts, but also commonly seen in other FL contexts in the world (Munoz, 2008). For instance, in the modern foreign language contexts in UK, teachers admit that they are able to be involved in basic communication using the language, but find it hard to be fluent. One fourth of the teachers of French only have GCSE level of proficiency. Therefore, the input that the teachers can provide is restricted due to their personal language competence (Driscoll et al., 2004). The quality of English input is also suggested to be improved in Vietnam (Le, 2002) and in Sámi schools in Norway (Sallabank, 2010), just to name a few.

2.3 Chinese-speaking learners' English learning motivation

In China, English learners seem to have relatively strong motivation towards English learning. However, several studies found that the English learning motivation generally comes from school requirements and is therefore exam-driven. This motivation is not dependable in the long term and may be anxiety provoking.

Li D (2012) conducted a study to investigate the English learning motivation among Chinese university students. In her research, she recruited 153 second-year university students who had different education backgrounds in high school and different entry scores in the English subject of the national college entrance examination. The results from her research showed that only 35 students expressed that they learn English because they are interested in it. Nearly half of the participants (69 students) indicated that their English learning motivation was just to pass English language exams to fulfil the requirements for pursuing their degree. Ma M (2011) also implemented studies to investigate the influential factors on English learning motivation among Chinese university students, and found similar results. Ma M (2011) recruited 125 participants and required them to complete questionnaires which had a 5-point (1=lowest; 5=highest) likert scale, to examine their English learning motivation. The results revealed that the motivation factor of passing exams had a mean rating of 3.66. In other word, the majority of the participants were motivated to learn English just for the sake of passing exams.

In some supplementary lessons in private language institutions, the teachers focus more on teaching the skills for answering exam questions, rather than cultivating the language ability of learners (Hao and Hao, 2009). The English learners' objective is also placed on passing or achieving high scores in standard English tests, such as IELTS (International English Language Testing System), TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), TEM 4 (Test for English Majors, level 4), TEM 8 (Test for English Majors, level 8), CET 4 (College English Test, level 4), CET 6 (College English Test, level 6), and so on. Admittedly, the motivation of passing exams can help students actively learn English. However, this motivation is considered to be undependable in the sense that it is not long-lasting. Due to the exam-driven nature of English lessons in universities and English training in private

language institutions, English learners are well motivated to learn exam skills in class. However, when there are no longer any exams to be taken, passing exams becomes therefore insignificant and its resultant motivation of English learning may be diminished.

Language learning motivation plays an important role in second language acquisition and learning. Lacking motivation towards language acquisition and learning would affect the input processing. According to the noticing hypothesis proposed by Schmidt (2001, 2010) and the extended research by Tomlin and Villa (1994), motivation is an important part in the noticing system and can affect the conversion from language input to language intake in the process of second language learning. There is also a possibility that motivation would play a role in second language acquisition process, according to the Affective Filter Hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1982, 1985) and the updated discussion of this hypothesis within the MOGUL framework by Sharwood Smith (2014). Not only restricted to language input processing, motivation can also influence the status of language learning autonomy, self-efficacy and the willingness to communicate, which are essential in self-learning contexts especially. Based on the importance of motivation in second language acquisition and learning, it is appropriate that we offer stimuli to motivate students and prompt them to stabilize their language learning motivation for the long term. Relevant literature will be reviewed in Chapter 3 in detail.

2.4 Summary of the chapter

After reviewing the current situation of English language education in China regarding school and university education, supplementary lessons and other forms of English language education, such as group study in English corners, the main issues seem to be easily observed. In summary, there are three

main issues in the current English language input adopted in China. The quantity of English language input is not sufficient in most forms of English language education in China. The quality of the input provided is also of concern. In addition, students' English learning motivation is not long-lasting, and is thus undependable. Their motivation is exam-driven, whether in university education or in private English language institutions. Once the objective of passing exams is lost, their English learning motivation is correspondingly lost.

Considering the above issues of English language input, it is beneficial to find an alternative input which contains a large amount of high-quality and authentic English language input to facilitate Chinese-speaking learners' English acquisition and learning, and simultaneously find a way to comprehensively motivate the learner of English. With the development of the internet and the opening-up of media policy in China, audio-visual media in English is now widely accessible to Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English, and it is considered to be an appropriate and ideal alternative input for L2 English learners (Bahrani and Tam, 2012; Bahrani, 2013). Audio-visual media contains a large amount of high-quality authentic English language input. Also, due to the nature of audio-visual media having plots, it can potentially motivate L2 learners in China. If audio-visual media can be positively influential in L2 acquisition and learning, it can be widely applied in the Chinese context and be adopted to offer alternative solutions of the issues found. However, evidence demonstrating the impact of audio-visual media in the Chinese context is still to be seen. Therefore, it is necessary and important to test the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition as well as learning, and to provide pedagogical implications of the current English language education in China.

In order to know the impact of audio-visual media as language input, and to

measure to what extent audio-visual media can contribute to L2 acquisition and learning, English genericity, and English vocabulary meaning and form mapping are adopted as the test properties for acquisition and learning respectively. The next chapter reviews the literature and previous studies of all the background components of the current study, including language input, the nature of audio-visual media as language input, the acquisition-learning distinction, and the two test properties (i.e. genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping), to provide comprehensive insight and understanding of this present study.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

In this chapter, literature relevant to the current study is presented and reviewed. As shown in the previous chapter, high-quality authentic language input is scarce in the Chinese context. The reason why this scarcity is a major issue in China has its origins in the important role of language input, especially the importance of authentic language input in L2 acquisition and learning. Therefore, this chapter firstly reviews the necessity of language input as a whole and authentic language input specifically in L2 acquisition and learning. The current chapter also reviews language learning motivation as an important variable in facilitating language input processing. By reviewing this, it is reasonable to see the unreliability of motivation in the Chinese context. For the purpose of offering alternative suggestions to the input and motivation issues in the Chinese context, audio-visual media is considered as an alternative source of language input and the appropriate motivation provider, due to the fact that it contains authentic target language input, and simultaneously contains plots and content which can potentially motivate L2 learners (Bahrani and Tam, 2012; Bahrani, 2013). To gain insight into audio-visual media as both language input and a provider of motivation, the characteristics of audio-visual media and previous studies of the impact of audio-visual are presented and reviewed in Section 3.2.

The current study aims to test the impact of audio-visual media not only on conscious learning, but also on the unconscious acquisition of underlying tacit knowledge, including the linguistic properties which are subject to "poverty of stimulus". Therefore, the current chapter also reviews the acquisition-learning distinction, for which English genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping are chosen as the test properties respectively. Detailed explanations of genericity and vocabulary meaning and form mapping in English and Chinese are presented in the third section

of this chapter, and the learnability problem for Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English is discussed. This is followed by the presentation of the research hypotheses and predictions in this study.

3.1 Language input and input processing

The current research focuses centrally on the impact of audio-visual media which is regarded as language input. Therefore, it is necessary and important to gain insight into the details of language input and how audio-visual media can act as language input. Language input is of great importance in L2 acquisition and learning. There are two types of language input, namely "positive evidence" and "negative evidence". Authentic target language input represents to positive evidence, on account that it is not modified and contains the linguistic knowledge of what is possible in the target language. Based on the argument that positive evidence can access the language module in the mind and trigger the development of underlying grammar, the importance of positive evidence outweighs the importance of negative evidence. The evaluation of the two types of input helps identify the significance of authentic target language input, and thus justify the rationale of the current research. When processing target language input, motivation is facilitative. The important status of motivation offers the momentum to provide solutions for the issue of motivation unreliability in the Chinese context.

3.1.1 Language input and its necessity in L2 acquisition and learning

A wealth of literature about language input can be found in the last few decades of L2 research (Carroll, 2007; Ellis N, 2009; Ellis R, 1985, 1994a; Gass, 1997; Krashen, 1982, 1985; Piske and Young-Scholten, 2009; Rast, 2008; Schwartz, 1993; VanPatten, 2004 and so on). It is one of the core

topics of L2 research and continues to attract increasing attention in the field. Language input, by definition, is the available target language data that L2 learners are exposed to (Ellis, 1985; Sharwood Smith, 1993). This definition has been widely accepted by L2 researchers. Based on this undisputed definition, researchers investigate the role of language input by proposing various input theories. Though the role of language input is arguable in the light of different input theories, the necessity of language input has been commonly demonstrated and acknowledged. As Gass (1997) argues, exposure to language input is essential in L2 acquisition and learning. Learners cannot attain the target language in a vacuum.

In theories which argue for a very important role for language input in L2 acquisition and learning, the necessity of language input is greatly emphasized. Krashen (1982, 1985) proposes the Input Hypothesis which makes strong claims for language input, arguing that comprehensible input is the necessary condition for L2 acquisition and learning, and only by providing the right amount of comprehensible input will L2 learners attain the target linguistic knowledge. Comprehensible input, in his proposal, contains linguistic knowledge which is slightly more than the linguistic knowledge that L2 learners grasp in the current stage. If the current stage is "i", the comprehensible input involves linguistic knowledge of the stage "i+1". By receiving comprehensible input, L2 learners can naturally acquire the target language and move onto the next stage of acquisition and learning. Since the knowledge of stage i+1 is automatically provided by comprehensible input, no deliberate instruction is necessary for L2 learners. As long as enough comprehensible input is provided, L2 acquisition and learning can take place. Although the Input Hypothesis is flawed in respect to the vagueness of defining the slight amount of exceeded linguistic knowledge which is represented by +1 and the overall right amount of comprehensible input, no criticism centres on the necessity for language

input required by this model (Gass and Selinker, 2008).

VanPatten's proposal of Input Processing Theory (VanPatten, 2004, 2007) also treats language input as a necessary component in L2 acquisition and learning, and its necessity is explicitly acknowledged (VanPatten, 2007). Input Processing Theory takes the gathering and processing of the initial linguistic data into account and makes a claim for two basic steps when L2 learners process the initial data of the target language. L2 learners take the first step in establishing the form-meaning connection, followed by analysing the syntactic structures and connecting the projection relationship between the language input and the syntax. Two groups of principles, the primacy of meaning principle and the first noun principle are raised in terms of the two steps mentioned above, and works when L2 learners process the initial data of the target language. VanPatten regards the processing of initial language input as the first procedure of L2 acquisition and learning. Only once the language input is successfully processed following the above two steps, can L2 acquisition and learning take place. VanPatten especially attaches great importance of language input to his Input Processing Theory. Without language input, language processing cannot occur, let alone the occurrence of L2 acquisition and learning.

In contrast to the above theories, there are theories which argue for a less important role for language input in L2 acquisition. Though the theories do not attach much significance to language input, they do not deny the necessity of language input in the attainment of the L2. In Chomsky's proposal of Universal Grammar (Chomsky, 1965), the innate language faculty is regarded as predominant because of the *poverty of stimulus*, which is the logical issue of L2 acquisition. Poverty of stimulus refers to the argument that natural language grammar cannot be fully attained with input only in language acquisition; therefore some kind of innate language

capacity to help language acquisition must exist. Language input acts merely as a trigger in the framework of Universal Grammar. The function of language input is just to stimulate the innate language faculty and set parameters of the target language. Although the importance of the innate language faculty is highlighted much more than language input, the necessity of language input is acknowledged. It is an indispensable part of L2 acquisition. Without language input, the innate language faculty cannot be triggered, thus L2 acquisition cannot occur. Researchers who have engaged in developing the framework of Universal Grammar agree that language input is also necessary (Schwartz, 1993; Carroll, 2007).

In conclusion, though the role of language input is controversial in different linguistic theories, there is a consensus on the necessity of language input. This consensus justifies the research focus of language input in the current research. On account of the necessity of language input in L2 acquisition and learning, it is worth conducting a study focusing on and investigating language input.

3.1.2 The necessity of authentic language input

In the preceding subsection, the importance of language input was reviewed from the perspectives of different acquisition theories. Based on this, the current subsection discusses why authentic target language input is especially needed in L2 acquisition and learning. By understanding the importance of authentic target language input in L2 acquisition and learning, the main issue of L2 input in China can be explicated, and thus justify the rationale of the current research.

Authentic target language input is the primary linguistic data which acts as positive evidence in L2 research (Young-Scholten, 1995). There are two

main types of language input in L2 acquisition and learning, which are positive evidence and negative evidence. As White (1989) states, positive evidence is concerned with the grammaticality and the possibility of attaining the target language grammar, whereas negative evidence involves information and explanations of ungrammaticality and what is not possible in the target language. Regarding negative evidence, there is a distinction between direct negative evidence and indirect negative evidence (Gass, 1997). To be specific in the sense of actual inputs that L2 learners receive, positive evidence involves authentic talks from the native language speakers, non-reciprocal discourse in the target language (Ellis, 1994; VanPatten, 1996) and the grammatical language taught in classroom instruction. Direct negative evidence involves the explanations of ungrammaticality and corrective feedback of errors. Indirect negative evidence involves confirmation checks and recasts which indirectly gives the hint that an L2 learner's utterance is problematic (Gass, 1997). L2 learners can benefit from positive evidence, direct negative evidence and indirect negative evidence, and master a L2 gradually. However, the degree of the benefits varies, because the evidences do not play equal roles in L2 acquisition and learning. Positive evidence and indirect negative evidence are considered to be more important, because they can contribute to the development of the L2 learner's linguistic competence and the developing underlying grammatical constructions (Chomsky, 1981; Schwartz, 1993).

In terms of negative evidence, direct negative evidence and indirect negative evidence differ in the degree of contribution to L2 acquisition and learning. Though evidence from empirical studies has demonstrated that direct negative evidence is effective in attaining a L2, the effect does not last long. Direct negative evidence cannot make a great contribution to L2 acquisition and learning. Izumi and Lakshmanan (1998) conducted a small-scale study which demonstrated the short-term impact of direct negative evidence. They

focused on the acquisition of English passives by Japanese-speaking learners. As for the language background, Japanese allows both direct and indirect passives, whereas English only allows the direct passive. Direct passives have corresponding active counterparts in translation, whereas indirect passives do not. The indirect passive is impossible in English. In the test design, the experimental group was given explicit instruction which served as direct negative evidence about the impossibility of constructing the indirect passive in English, while the control group was not given any instruction. After comparing the pre-test and post-test results of the translation test, picture-cued production task and grammaticality judgment task, the experimental group outperformed the control group. The short-term impact of the direct negative evidence was manifested.

However, according to Jabbari and Niroomizadeh (2008), direct negative evidence does not have a long-term effect. Their study focused on the acquisition of English modifier placement by Persian-speaking learners. Persian allows a "Noun + Modifier" order whereas English does not. The experimental group received direct negative evidence which contained instruction about the impossibility of Noun + Modifier order in English, whereas the control group did not. By comparing the results of the pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test, the researchers discovered that direct negative evidence can be effective in the short-term, but not over time. Since direct negative evidence cannot have a long-lasting effect, it has limited contributory effects in L2 acquisition and learning. In contrast, indirect negative evidence, according to Chomsky (1981), can contribute to language acquisition by helping learners identify where the issues occur in their utterances and to allow them to amend their utterance according to the underlying grammar.

Unlike direct negative evidence, positive evidence is regarded to have a

much more important role in the sense that it can affect the construction of the underlying grammar of a target language. Schwartz (1993) makes this claim by adopting Fodor's theory of "modularity of mind" (Fodor, 1983). Before information is processed in the central processing system in the human mind, there are a limited number of modules dealing with different kinds of input, including a module called the language module. The language module only processes primary linguistic data. Information other than primary linguistic data is processed in the central processing systems. These modules process information mandatorily and independently.

There is a close relationship between the Universal Grammar theory and the modularity of mind. The innate language faculty (i.e. Language Acquisition Device) is hardwired in the language module. Therefore, only language input which is processed in the language module can facilitate language acquisition. Since positive evidence contains pure linguistic information of primary linguistic data, it is the type of language input which can be processed in the language module and facilitate language acquisition. However, considering the fact that negative evidence contains information other than language, such as the explanation of ungrammaticality and error correction, it is processed in the central processing system instead of the language module. Therefore, it does not engage with the innate language faculty and contribute to the acquisition of underlying grammar of the target language. According to Schwartz's claim (1993), only positive evidence can engage with the innate language faculty in the human brain and facilitate the language acquisition process. Therefore, authentic language input, which can serve as positive evidence is of great importance.

Considering English teaching and learning in the Chinese context, direct and indirect negative evidence are commonly seen. However, positive evidence is far from sufficient. On account of the importance of positive evidence in

L2 acquisition and learning, it is desirable now to find an alternative as positive evidence in the context of L2 English language education in China.

3.1.3 Language input processing: a motivational perspective

Motivation is an important concept in psycholinguistic studies. However, it is rarely discussed in association with issues regarding language input. This subsection attempts to offer an overview of how motivation can be associated with L2 input, including the specific potential motivational factors. By understanding the important role motivation factors play in language input processing, the undependable motivation among L2 learners in the Chinese context is identified and justified as an issue in L2 acquisition and learning.

Motivation factors can be beneficial in the input processing in both the learning and acquisition process [4]. In the conscious learning process, motivational factors can be influential through helping L2 learners to notice the positive language input and thus to process and transform language input into language intake. These motivational factors have been investigated from the L2 learners' perspective (i.e. the motivation factors that learners have). However, less attention has been attached to the motivation factors that certain language inputs can supply. Regarding language input, though it is essential for L2 learners, not all language input can necessarily be processed and assimilated and become the "intake", which, by definition, is the language that is successfully absorbed from the available language input. Language intake is a subset of language input and it is the one which can contribute to the construction of the target language (Corder, 1967). Considering the importance of transforming input to intake, it is necessary to gain insight into the issue of how input can be processed and transformed

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[4] The distinction between acquisition and learning is presented in Section 3.3.1

in L2 learning.

Schmidt (2001, 2010) proposes the Noticing Hypothesis regarding the transformation process from input to intake in L2 learning. He argues that "input does not become intake unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered" (Schmidt, 2010:721). Due to its conscious nature, "noticing" is beneficial only in the conscious learning process. Noticing is a very important factor which can affect the assimilation of language input. According to Tomlin and Villa (1994), there are three subsystems of noticing, one of which is "alertness". Alertness involves learner motivation and interest in the target language (Tomlin and Villa, 1994). Motivation factors can play an important role in noticing the input and thus in promoting L2 learning.

There is a possibility that motivation can also play a role in the input processing in L2 acquisition. The most commonly documented theory regarding the role of motivation in L2 acquisition is the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). Krashen argued that the affective filter is a "mental block" which prevents the language input from reaching the innate "language acquisition device" in the language module in the human mind (Krashen, 1985). Negative emotional and psychological states, such as language learning anxiety, weak language learning motivation and self-confidence, can bring the affective filter to a higher level. If L2 learners are highly motivated, it is possible that the affective filter can be lowered and thus the input can more readily reach the language acquisition device. Therefore, according to this hypothesis, high motivation is potentially beneficial in the input processing (i.e. to help the positive evidence reach the language acquisition device) in L2 acquisition.

However, the Affective Filter Hypothesis is quite controversial and received

many criticisms in the past few decades, for not being falsifiable and for lacking concrete supporting evidence. Among the criticisms, Larsen-freeman and Long (1991) argued that the construct of affective filter is a metaphor and cannot be tested and demonstrated. Zafar (2009) was sceptical of the mechanism of the affect filter and queried about how the affective filter can decide which parts of language input need to be filtered out. Sharwood Smith (2014) also suggested that the Affective Filter Hypothesis is very general in nature and needs elaboration. Considering the effect of 'affect' and its relationship with cognitive development, Sharwood Smith (2014) updated the Affective Filter Hypothesis, based on the MOGUL framework. MOGUL framework is the short form for the framework of 'The Modular Online Growth and Use of Language'. This framework seeks to relate several linguistic research fields, such as cognitive development, L1 and L2 acquisition, psycholinguistics and theoretical linguistics, together, and is designed to be applicable to the above research areas (Sharwood Smith, 2004; Sharwood Smith and Truscott, 2005; Truscott and Sharwood Smith, 2004, 2011; Truscott, 2006, 2014 and 2015). The MOGUL framework claims that human's mind is inherently modular. Among the modules in the mind, the phonological module and the syntax module is linguistic related and governed by the UG. These two modules are separate from the extra-linguistic modules involving conceptual knowledge. Modules in the mind are connected by interfaces. There is an interface between phonology module and the syntax module. The conceptual structure has an interface with the syntax module. The outside auditory-acoustic system and the articulatory system feed into the phonology module. The interfaces allow the representative chains of a language to be formed. Based on the MOGUL framework, Sharwood Smith (2014) proposed a query regarding the Affective Filter Hypothesis that it remains unclear of where the affective filter is located and whether the linguistic related modules (i.e. the phonological and the syntactic modules) are immune from the affect of

emotional variables. Thus, the Affective Filter Hypothesis is refined into two possible scenarios by Sharwood Smith (2014). One scenario is that the UG governed phonological and syntactic modules are immune from the affects of emotion, so there is no interface between the affective system and the linguistic related modules. Even if learners have positive emotions and motivations towards language learning, their phonological and syntactic acquisition may not be influenced. The other scenario is just on the contrary. It is possible that the linguistic related modules are open to the affect of emotion. Thus, the interface exists between the affective system and the linguistic related modules. If learners have positive emotions and motivations, their development on L2 phonology and syntax may be enhanced. Up to present, there is no concrete evidence to support the updated scenarios and Sharwood Smith (2014) also called for further studies regarding this issue. The current study includes the variable of motivation in L2 acquisition and will provide concrete empirical evidence to verify the updated Affective Filter Hypothesis.

Since it is possible that motivation factors can potentially influence input processing in L2 acquisition and learning, it is worth investigating what the specific factors of motivation are, so that a clearer picture of transformation from input to intake can be offered. In the past few decades, researchers have focused on motivational factors which L2 learners are subjected to. The motivational factors stated are shown in Table 3.1 below. They are not presented in the manner of a theoretical paradigm, but in the manner of similarity and inclusive relationships.

Table 3.1. Motivational factors

Motivational factors		
Integrativeness (Gardner, 1985): Attitudes to culture (Schmidt et al., 1996)		
Intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985)	Enjoyment (Gardner, 1985; Schmidt et al., 1996)	
	Sense of achievement (Vallerand, 1997)	
	Self-determination (Schmidt et al., 1996)	
Extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985)	Instrumentality (Gardner, 1985)	
	e.g. foreign residence (Schmidt et al., 1996)	
	Requirement motivation cluster (Ely, 1986)	
	The media orientation (Clement et al., 1994)	

The first is the motivational factor of **integrativeness** (Gardner, 1985; Gardner and Lambert 1972). According to Gardner, integrativeness "reflects a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972:132). L2 learners, who have the motivation of integrativeness, tend to have a positive inclination to interact with the people of the target language community and have the desire to integrate into the community of the target language. In Gardner's claim, integrativeness has primacy in association with the language learning outcome. Though critics are sceptical about the primary position of integrativeness, its importance is not denied. Schmidt et al. (1996) conduct a factor analysis of L2 learner motivation. The results from their study show that positive attitudes to the culture of the target language, which is integrativeness, can indeed motivate L2 learners.

The second factor is **intrinsic motivation** (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation has a close relationship to enjoyment, sense of achievement and self-determination in attaining a language. In terms of enjoyment, if the learning activity is enjoyable and satisfying, it is likely that L2 learners can have intrinsic motivation and thus stimulate their L2 acquisition and

learning. Gardner (1985) and Schmidt et al. (1996) both support this argument. Regarding the sense of achievement, it is initiated from the intrinsic pleasant feeling that challenges in language learning can be conquered. The pleasant feelings can potentially provide momentum for language learners to be prepared to actively meet the next challenge. Vallerand (1997) specified the sense of achievement and accomplishment as an integral part of intrinsic motivation and categorised it as a main type of intrinsic motivation in his taxonomy. With respect to the self-determination, as Schmidt et al. (1996) proposed, it refers to the kind of motivation that comes from learners making up their minds to learn a foreign language, and the sincere hope and high expectancy of making a success of learning another language. Self-determination is usually triggered from the readiness and willingness on the part of the learner.

The third factor is **extrinsic motivation** (Deci and Ryan, 1985). According to Noels et al. (2003), extrinsic motivation involves instrumental goals. In terms of instrumentality, it refers to "conditions where the language is being studied for practical or utilitarian purposes" (Gardner, 2006: 249). Learners might be motivated to learn a L2 from the needs of living in a foreign language speaking country, obtaining a better job offer, and for salary raising and promotion. All these reasons are oriented from the perspectives of practical demands in real life. Extrinsic motivation also involves external requirement motivation. This is due to the fact that external requirements are generated from external factors, rather than internal willingness of the L2 learners. Regarding requirement motivation, Ely (1986) specified this type of motivation towards language learning motivation through an investigation of Spanish learning among first-year university students in northern California. In the research, Ely asked the students to fill in questionnaires about all the possible reasons for their Spanish learning. By analysing the responses from the questionnaire, he found that apart from the

motivation of integrativeness and instrumentality, students also learnt Spanish for the purpose of fulfilling the requirements from the university. The requirements might involve passing exams or completing relevant courses in order to graduate and obtain the degree. This is a commonly observed motivation for English learning in China, as illustrated in Section 2.3. With respect to the media orientation (Clement et al., 1994), it also has the nature of being extrinsic. Learners who have this motivation factor learn English for the purpose of watching TV or listening to music in the target language, to better understand the content and plots. It is worth noting that extrinsic motivation might be undependable. This is because this orientation of motivation is driven and supported by external factors, which are not under control. When there is no more need for instrumentality, fulfilling requirements and understanding media, the extrinsic motivation can become diminished and even disappear.

As shown above, the common motivational factors in literature, which include attitude to culture, enjoyment, sense of achievement, self-determination, instrumentality, requirement motivation cluster and the media orientation, have been illustrated from the perspective of integrativeness, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation respectively. Since all these factors have the potential to raise learner motivation to a higher level, every individual factor listed above can be very beneficial to help learners identify the language input that they are exposed to and assimilate the noticed input into intake in the input processing.

Based on what has been reviewed so far about how motivation can relate to language input and attribute to input processing, and what the various motivation factors are, it is obvious that learner motivation towards the learning of the target language is of great significance and worthy of attention. As is stated in Section 2.3, most Chinese-speaking learners have

non-persistent motivation which is driven by exams. English learners in China are generally motivated by the extrinsic factor of requirement motivation cluster. Admittedly, requirement can make a contribution to enhance the language learning motivation among L2 English learners in China. However, when there are no more requirements regarding language learning, due to the fact that their language learning lacks the diversity of motivation factors, there would be no more motivation factors to stimulate the learner. And this is considered to be problematic, especially in consideration of language input processing. Having noticed this issue in terms of the undependable motivation in the Chinese context, it is now necessary to find a source for the Chinese-speaking learners, where they can be provided with a diversity of motivation factors. Under the influence of various motivation factors in terms of integrativeness, intrinsic orientation and extrinsic orientation, learner motivation should be enhanced, and processing of target language input can be promoted.

3.1.4 Brief summary

As is reviewed in Section 3.1.1, the need for language input is accentuated in the field of L2 research. Despite the differences in various input theories and frameworks, researchers acknowledge the necessity of language input. There are two types of language input: positive evidence and negative evidence. Positive evidence is more important in L2 acquisition and learning, because it is the type of language input which not only can get access to the central processing system, but also can be processed in the language module in mind, and which triggers the development of innate grammar and enhances learner linguistic competence in the target language. Authentic L2 input can be categorized into positive evidence, due to the fact that it contains the information of what is possible in the target language. In consideration of the importance of authentic L2 input and also the situation

of language input in the Chinese context, that high-quality authentic language (English) input is insufficient, it is desirable to increase the amount of positive evidence and find an alternative which contains rich primary linguistic data. Meanwhile, the literature supports the viewpoint that various motivation factors, such as integrativeness, intrinsic motivation factors and extrinsic motivation factors, can be facilitative in language input processing. Given the current situation of motivation in the Chinese context that it is exam-driven, it is also necessary to find a source where L2 learners can obtain a steady flow of diverse motivation factors. Considering the theoretical support, the issues in the Chinese context which are illustrated in Chapter Two are justified. To offer a solution of these issues, audio-visual media is regarded as an appropriate alternative, and will be introduced in the following section.

3.2 The alternative input: audio-visual media

Audio-visual media is tested as an alternative language input in the Chinese context. According to the nature of audio-visual media, it can carry authentic L2 input and motivation factors simultaneously, which can in theory facilitate the processing of the language input provided by the audio-visual media (see Section 3.2.1). For the purpose of identifying the research gap in the field and providing implications for the current research, Section 3.2.2 reviews findings from previous studies regarding the impact of audio-visual media.

3.2.1 Audio-visual media as L2 input and the source of motivation factors

In Section 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 above, the need for language input in L2 acquisition and learning and especially the necessity of authentic language

input, which serves as positive evidence, were discussed. Considering the current status of L2 input in the Chinese context, where the quantity of authentic English is insufficient, it is appropriate to find an alternative which involves rich primary linguistic data. In addition, Section 3.1.3 discussed the importance of diverse motivation factors in language input processing. The issue of motivation as found in the Chinese context, calls for a source which can offer a diversity of motivation factors to stimulate the learners in L2 learning. To meet the needs for sources of English language input and language learning motivation factors in the Chinese context, English audio-visual media are tested as an alternative, because they can provide positive evidence of the target language as well as diverse motivation factors simultaneously.

On the one hand, audio-visual media contains rich primary linguistic data spoken by native speakers of English. The quantity of audio-visual media is abundant and is available to the majority of L2 English learners in China. The primary linguistic data from audio-visual media is positive evidence which can be directly processed in the language module and facilitate the acquisition of underlying grammar. In addition, audio-visual media combines captions, moving visual images and sound-tracks. This combination makes the language input much easier for the learners to comprehend and process (Plass and Jones, 2005). Words and phrases presented in the captions and heard on the sound-tracks can be annotated from the visual images and thus meanings and words are paired. With the aid of this combination, L2 learners can notice and process the meaning of the vocabulary. Apart from linguistic information, audio-visual media also involves non-linguistic information, such as background information, plots, visual clues, including gestures and facial expressions of actors, and verbal clues of sounds. Learners can also benefit from these pieces of non-linguistic information.

On the other hand, audio-visual media can also be a provider of diverse motivational factors which can help with processing the language input. Although not all motivational factors can be provided, the majority can be covered. Since obtaining the L2 through audio-visual media is not examination-oriented, students do not need to fulfil a requirement, as they do in classroom instruction. Therefore, the requirement motivation cluster (Ely, 1986) can hardly be conveyed through the use of audio-visual media for L2 learners. Apart from this factor, other motivational factors can be provided by audio-visual media.

Chan and Chi (2011) studied the relationship between popular media and language learning motivation. According to their research, the Korean popular media is a significant factor which contributes to the Korean learner's motivation. An observation focusing on the ratings of influential factors to language learning motivation suggests that there is a positive correlation amongst popular media, integrative motivation, intrinsic motivation and instrumental motivation. Their research sheds light on the potentials of audio-visual media in motivating second language learners. Given the nature of audio-visual media, where cultural elements of the target language (e.g. the Korean popular culture) can be presented from the storylines and visual images presented, stimuli of integrativeness can be provided to language learners, so that the learners are given the opportunity to understand the culture of the target language community and express interest. Lamb (2004) also mentioned and acknowledged the influence of media on the integrativeness of motivation.

With regard to the intrinsic orientation, learners can have the feeling of enjoyment of learning the target language while watching the audio-visual media (Horwitz and Young, 1991). Audio-visual media can offer an

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interesting way for learners to access the target language. When L2 learners are interested in the theme, they find it enjoyable to learn a L2 in an audio-visual environment. In addition, L2 learners can also have a sense of achievement when remembering chunks or words in the lines or captions by receiving audio-visual media input. Thus promote their intrinsic motivation (Berardo, 2006).

Furthermore, audio-visual media can help stimulate L2 learner determination in L2 learning (Demirbilek and Mutlu, 2010). As is explained, the learners can have a sense of achievement by receiving audio-visual media input. The expectancy of success and determination towards L2 learning can be enhanced based on this sense of achievement.

As for the extrinsic orientation, instrumentality can be triggered by audio-visual media input. In Chan and Chi's study (2011), the ratings towards the attitude of popular Korean media and the ratings of the instrumental orientations including career development, academic exchange are all positively related. Students are fascinated by the media input, including language and plots, and are willing to work and pursue their further studies in the countries where the target language is spoken.

Audio-visual media can also provide media orientation to learners. If the learners are engaged by audio-visual media, they will be motivated to learn the language in order to understand and appreciate the content through the audio-visual media (Clement et al., 1994).

The above illustrated motivational factors can all make a contribution in helping L2 learners process the language input in a more effective manner. An issue which needs to be given attention is the content and plots that different audio-visual media have. The audio-visual media materials should

be provided in consideration of individual interests (Vines, 1997). If the learners are interested in the content and plots from audio-visual media input, they can be positively motivated and this can help them to notice the input. However, if the content of the audio-visual media cannot accommodate the interests of the learners, they might not be motivated or may even be negatively motivated. In this case, choosing the right audio-visual media input which can positively motivate learners is highly important.

The motivation factors provided by the audio-visual media input cannot only make a contribution to language input processing, but can also enhance the L2 learner's language learning autonomy, self-efficacy and willingness to communicate.

Language learning autonomy is a key concept in second language acquisition research. According to Holec (1981: 3), language autonomy is defined as "the ability to take charge of one's learning". This definition has been widely accepted and adopted in past literature (Dickinson, 1995; Benson and Voller, 1997; Spratt et al., 2002; Oxbrow and Juárez, 2010; Najeeb, 2013). Holec's definition of autonomy (1981) accentuated more on the capacity of management of language behaviours (e.g. selecting appropriate learning techniques). Little (1991) developed this definition and broadened the dimensions of autonomy. He argued that apart from the management capacity of language behaviours, the capacity of cognitive and psychological control in language learning (e.g. critical thinking, decision-making) is also an integral part. Benson (2010, 2011) agreed with the behavioural dimension and the psychological dimension of language autonomy, and proposed that the capacity of language content control (e.g. looking for appropriate resources) should also be taken into consideration when defining autonomy in language learning. Past studies have found that

there is a positive correlation between language learning motivation and autonomy. Motivation can enhance learner's autonomy by promoting their capacity of managing behaviours, psychological control and language content control. As Spratt et al. (2002) claimed, motivation is a necessary condition which can give rise to language learning autonomy. Without motivation, learner's autonomy can hardly be enhanced. This argument was further demonstrated by Liu's study (2015), in which motivation and autonomy is highly and positively correlated. Oxbrow and Juárez (2010) also suggested that intrinsic motivation is significant in enhancing language learning autonomy. The relationship between motivation and autonomy is not mono-directional. Language learning autonomy can also lead to and reinforce motivation (Dickinson, 1995; Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998; Spratt et al., 2002), especially the intrinsic motivation of interest and enjoyment (Black and Deci, 2000).

In terms of self-efficacy, researchers have found that motivation and self-efficacy is positively correlated. By definition, *self-efficacy* refers to learner's belief and judgment of being capable in completing specific tasks (Bandura and Schunk, 1981; Bandura, 1997; Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Ersanli, 2015). Motivation has an influential status in the establishment of self-efficacy in language learning. As suggested by Wang and Pape (2007), the intrinsic interests and the attitude towards the target language culture which represents the integrativeness have an effect on learner's self-efficacy. In the meantime, self-efficacy can also be a contributor to language learning motivation (Zimmerman, 2000; Genc et al., 2016). Furthermore, by building up learner's self-efficacy, motivation can indirectly promote the use of good language learning strategies. According to the classification proposed in Oxford's work (1990), language learning strategies consist of the memory strategy (e.g. establishing mental pictures), cognitive strategy (e.g. imitating, analyzing),

compensation strategy (e.g. referring to L1 and contextual clues), meta-cognitive strategy (e.g. being aware and monitoring learning progress), affective strategy (e.g. lowering down anxiety) and social strategy (e.g. communicate with others). It is well documented in the literature that L2 learners who have self-efficacy beliefs use varieties of language learning strategies frequently (Zimmerman, 1990; Wong, 2005; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Gahungu, 2007, 2009; Adnan and Mohamad, 2011; Nosratinia et al., 2014; Jee, 2015). It is predictable that learners who are motivated to learn the L2 may have strong self-efficacy beliefs and thus use good language learning strategies to promote their L2 acquisition and learning.

Language learning motivation is also closely connected with *willingness to communicate* (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002; Clément et al., 2003; Peng, 2012). Willingness to communicate refers to the intention to be involved in communications (MacIntyre et al., 2001). Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) regard willingness to communicate as an extended construct to language learning motivation. MacIntyre and his colleagues established a pyramid model of willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1998), which illustrated the influential variables and the interrelationships between the influential variables and willingness to communicate. They argued that there are six layers of variables in the pyramid model. The layers consist of social and individual context, affective-cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, behavioural intention (i.e. willingness to communication) and communication behaviour (i.e. using L2 to communicate), from the bottom to the top respectively. Motivation factors including integrativeness, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation are involved in the affective-cognitive context and the motivational propensities. These two layers are the stable base which can lead to willingness to communicate. Many studies had been conducted to investigate the relationship between language learning motivation and willingness to

communicate. The results of these studies demonstrated the pyramid model proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998), and suggested that there is a positive correlation between motivation and willingness to communicate (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2003; Fallah, 2014; Afsaneh et al., 2015). Highly motivated learners may have stronger willingness to communicate in L2 acquisition and learning (MacIntyre and Clément, 1996; Peng, 2007). It is worth noting that, according to Yashima (2002), the layers of behavioural intention and communication behaviour in the pyramid model is highly situation dependent. This implies that the realization of willingness to communicate is subject to the availability of interaction and output opportunities. Even if L2 learners' willingness to communicate is highly promoted, without the availability of interaction and output opportunities, the willingness cannot be realized.

In summary, audio-visual media can be a potential alternative in the Chinese context to provide both authentic English language input and diverse motivation factors to L2 learners simultaneously. The various potential motivations can in turn facilitate the processing of language input from the audio-visual media, and enhance learner's language learning autonomy, self-efficacy and willingness to communication.

The impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning is conducted in a self-learning setting in the current study. The choice of self-learning setting is mainly due to the nature of this study and the practical reason when implementing the experiment. The current study aims to test the impact of audio-visual media as language input. Therefore, the given audio-visual media stimuli in the experiment should be the only source of language input. If a classroom-setting is chosen, apart from the given audio-visual media input, the talk from teachers can also be a part of language input that learners can receive. Thus, even if there is an impact

from audio-visual media input, it is impossible to draw the conclusion, due to the interference of the talk from teachers. Admittedly, in self-learning setting, L2 learners can hardly benefit from interactions and output opportunities which are also essential in L2 acquisition and learning, and their learning outcomes might be influenced by the lack of interaction and output opportunities. However, considering the practical reason to avoid any interference on the given audio-visual media input, it is only appropriate to conduct this study in a self-learning setting.

3.2.2 Former studies of audio-visual media on L2 development

In general, the former studies on audio-visual media were conducted for pedagogical purposes. They provided evidence of the positive impact of audio-visual media on vocabulary learning and general comprehension of the L2 (such as in reading comprehension, writing proficiency, translation proficiency, listening comprehension and general language proficiency). The impact of audio-visual media input on L2 grammar has been rarely investigated or conclusively linked. None of the former studies tested the impact of audio-visual media on obtaining the acquired underlying tacit knowledge (acquisition process) and the learnt knowledge (learning process) respectively. The impact of audio-visual media found in the former studies was not specified in terms of acquisition and learning. Furthermore, there is a gap regarding the impact of audio-visual media in the self-learning context by adult learners that has not been comprehensively investigated. Researchers suggested that audio-visual media can potentially enhance learner motivation towards the target language learning, however, little concrete evidence was elicited from the formal experiments. The following sections review former studies and outline the limitations above.

3.2.2.1 Former studies of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition of

grammar

Among earlier studies, only a few attempted to investigate the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition of grammar, and the conclusions were inconsistent on the impact of this mode of input. Representative studies were conducted by Snyder and Colon (1988), Van Lommel et al. (2006), Alipanahi and Jafari (2014) and Bylund and Athanasopoulos (2015). Overall, Snyder and Colon (1988), Van Lommel et al. (2006), and Alipanahi and Jafari (2014) conducted intervention studies in classroom settings, targeting L2 child learners as the research population. In comparison, Bylund and Athanasopoulos (2015) implemented a correlation study to investigate the impact of audio-visual media on L2 adult learners. In these studies, there is no empirical evidence to show the impact of audio-visual media targeting grammar acquisition and L2 adult learners in a self-learning setting. In addition, none of these studies associated grammar with underlying tacit knowledge and tested the long-term effect of the impact. In view of this, the current study aims to test the long-term impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition among adult learners to fill in the research gap.

Snyder and Colon (1988) examined the validity of audio-visual aids in the acquisition of L2 grammar structure in the ESL classroom setting, by conducting a quasi-experiment. A group of 107 high school students who were native speakers of English and who learnt Spanish as their L2 were recruited for this study. They were divided into two groups: the experimental group and the control group respectively. Over a period of seven weeks, the experimental group received instruction of the Spanish teaching material (*Spanish Two*) with audio-visual aids while the control group received traditional classroom teaching according to the teaching syllabus. To compare the between-group performance in the post-test, the researchers adopted the standardized unit test which was specified in the

syllabus, and no significant difference in the acquisition of grammar structure was detected in the between-group comparison from the test results. The researchers suggested that this might be due to the short period of audio-visual exposure.

However, apart from the short exposure period, there are several methodological shortcomings in this study. Firstly, the experiment did not include a pre-test to check the baseline of the participants' grammatical knowledge using a similar test to the post-test. Instead, the researchers did a regression analysis from the participants' IQ, their previous test scores in *Spanish One* and the post-test result in the experiment. Though the regression analysis can explain the dependency relationship among the variables, the effect of audio-visual aids was not straightforwardly presented. Secondly, due to the nature of classroom teaching, the experimental group inevitably received a small amount of traditional instruction. Thus, the main independent variable of audio-visual aids was not able to be fully controlled. Finally, in terms of the grammar structures, the researchers did not indicate the specific structures that had been tested in the experiment. The grammar knowledge was only tested through the standardized unit test which was designed by the publisher of the teaching materials. Without understanding the tested grammar structures, it is hard to know to what extent audio-visual aids can contribute to the development of knowledge in the L2.

In the same vein, Van Lommel et al.'s study (2006) found television programmes on foreign grammar acquisition to be ineffective. In their experiment, 62 Dutch speaking primary school students and 47 secondary school students were involved. There are five grammar rules of Esperanto, concentrating on morpho-syntactic endings (e.g. nouns in Esperanto have the ending -o) were chosen as the target test properties. The two different age groups were tested independently. For every age group, participants

were randomly allocated either one of the two conditions: instruction of the grammar rules combined with cartoon viewing or cartoon viewing alone. A 25-minute cartoon *(The Bounty Hunter)* was given to both the conditions as treatment stimuli. After the stimuli had been given, all participants were required to take a grammar test. The results showed that the participants who viewed the cartoon alone did not perform better than the participants who viewed it with instruction. It was claimed that watching TV programmes is ineffective in L2 acquisition of grammar.

However, this study suffered from some methodological drawbacks. Firstly, the experiment did not have a pre-test to justify the similarity between the groups. Though, as mentioned above, Snyder and Colon's study (1998) did not include a pre-test either, they involved a regression analysis, to at least understand the individual differences among the participants. Without a pre-test, there was no standard baseline to compare with after the intervention. Therefore, the comparison from the post-test alone cannot provide a comprehensive evaluation of the impact of the TV programme. Secondly, the stimuli period was rather short. As was admitted by Snyder and Colon (1988), the seven-week exposure period was considered to be short and might be one of the reasons that the impact from audio-visual aids was ineffective. Compared to the period of seven weeks, 25 minutes was arguably far too short to influence the participants' acquisition outcome. Thirdly, the subtitles in the target language had been slightly modified, by cutting out a few of the words. Though the deletion of some words and phrases would not influence the understanding of the content, grammatical structures in the target language could be fragmented by the deletions. Thus, the effect of authentic language input in terms of audio-visual media was weakened.

Similarly, Alipanahi and Jafari (2014) tested the impact of video clips and

computer assisted audio-visual materials in English grammar acquisition in the setting of language classrooms, where interaction and output opportunities were available. They selected 60 first grade high school students as the participants. The participants were randomly allocated to two groups: the experimental group (taught by using audio-visual materials) and the control group (taught by using traditional grammar-teaching materials from textbooks). In the period of 16 teaching sessions (over eight weeks), the experimental group and the control group received the corresponding treatments as stated above. By conducting a pre-test and a post-test of grammar fluency using *Nelson Test*, the results revealed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group. Audio-visual materials were demonstrated to be effective when they were incorporated as supplementary materials in classroom language teaching. Whilst this study is pedagogically significant, owing to the fact that they verified the potential of audio-visual materials in language teaching, one point which needs attention, however, is that apart from audio-visual aids, the participants in the experimental group also received teacher instruction. Therefore, it is hard to conclude that the detected impact was solely attributed the audio-visual aids alone.

Unlike the previous three studies, Bylund and Athanasopoulos (2015) did a correlation research, examining the impact of audio-visual media exposure on English acquisition of motion patterns by Swedish-speaking learners. As background information, the endpoint of the motion trajectory is accentuated when describing motion events in Swedish, because Swedish does not have the imperfective aspect in grammar. However, in contrast, the endpoint is not attached with any great importance when describing motion events in English. Instead, English native speakers tend to focus on describing the status of "ongoingness". The researchers, therefore, designed a study to investigate whether there is a correlation between the preference

of describing motion events (endpoint vs. ongoingness) and the received amount of audio-visual media among Swedish learners of English. A group of 82 Swedish university students were recruited in this study and 17 English monolingual speakers from the UK were recruited as standard controls. The participants were required to match a given target clip, which did not specify the goal orientation, to one of two clips which had a [+endpoint] feature and a [-endpoint] feature respectively. By conducting correlation analysis, it was found that there was a positive correlation between the amount of audio-visual media exposure and the preference of the ongoing description as in English, suggesting that the audio-visual media had the potential to reshape the cognition and understanding of motion events. This study is informative in the sense that L2 learners come to be more sensitive to the linguistic aspectual distinction (perfective vs. imperfective) of the target language under the influence of audio-visual media.

To summarise, the above three intervention studies and one correlation study did not reach a consistent conclusion about the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition of grammar. Due to the fact that there are several methodological shortcomings in the above studies, the current intervention study aims to provide reliable empirical evidence of the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition of grammar, by 1) combining audio tracks and visual images together as a whole, including a homogeneity test regarding the participants' grammar knowledge, 2) fully controlling the independent variable of audio-visual media and excluding the potential effects from other sources such as instructions and other audio-visual materials, 3) specifying a test property of genericity to see if the attainment of the knowledge in the test property can be facilitated under the influence of audio-visual media, 4) substantially extending the exposure period of the input of audio-visual media, and 5) including unmodified subtitles in the

target language which are consistent with the language in the sound track.

It is worth noting that the three intervention studies (Alipanahi and Jafari, 2014; Snyder and Colon, 1988; Van Lommel et al., 2006) which have been reviewed test L2 children. No former evidence in the reviewed studies had been elicited from the L2 adult population. In addition, the longitudinal effect on L2 grammar acquisition has not been measured. Therefore, the current study includes L2 adults as the research population and adopts a three-fold (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test) test design.

3.2.2.2 Former studies of audio-visual media on L2 vocabulary learning

Many studies of the impact of audio-visual media on L2 vocabulary learning have been conducted, such as these by Snyder and Colon (1988), Danan (1992), Neuman and Koskinen (1992), Milton (2008), Yuksel and Tanriverdi (2009), Karakas and Saricoban (2012), Bisson et al. (2012) and Garnier (2014). Among these studies, apart from Milton (2008) and Garnier (2014), who conducted a longitudinal case study, the other six studies were intervention studies. All the above mentioned studies focused on the impact of audio-visual media on the learning of L2 vocabulary meaning, which can be categorized as learning. However, none of the studies made the association between vocabulary meaning and the learning process. The most obvious gap among these studies is that there is no empirical evidence elicited from the quantitative longitudinal intervention experiments. Though there are two qualitative longitudinal case studies, due to the fact that there was just one subject in each of the two studies, generalizable conclusions cannot be drawn.

Among the intervention studies, Snyder and Colon's study (1988) was the first one to investigate the impact of audio-visual media on vocabulary

learning. In the same paper, the researchers also examined the impact of audio-visual media on grammar acquisition (see Section 3.2.2.1). By adopting the same methodology as in the investigation of grammar acquisition, the results revealed that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the learning of vocabulary meaning during the post-test. As the researchers argued in the paper, audio-visual aids were very effective in L2 vocabulary learning.

In the 1990s, there were two studies (Danan, 1992; Neuman and Koskinen, 1992) that investigated the impact of audio-visual media on L2 vocabulary learning. Danan (1992) examined the effect of audio-visual programmes with subtitles in language learning, especially from the aspect of vocabulary learning. A total of 57 English learners of L2 French who were university freshmen participated. They had a variety of backgrounds of L2 French learning. In the experiment, the participants were randomly allocated into three groups: the audio group (French in the sound track only), the reverse subtitles group (French in the subtitle and English in the sound track) and the bimodal group (French in both the subtitle and the sound track). After watching the five-minute educational movie clip *French in action*, all the participants were invited to take part in a vocabulary test. The findings showed that the participants could learn vocabulary effectively with the help of audio-visual programmes with reverse subtitles and bimodal subtitles. Danan (1992) also made a hypothesis that learners can identify and adopt the vocabulary that they had learnt in new contexts. This hypothesis calls for further empirical research. This study was originally aimed to test the effect of different subtitles in vocabulary learning, the results were illuminating in that the participants who received audio-visual input performed significantly better than the participants who only received audio input. However, it is worth noting that the researcher did not administer a placement test to control the proficiency level and a pre-test to establish a standard of

comparison.

Neuman and Koskinen (1992) investigated the effect of television programmes with captions as input on incidental word learning, and showed that television can be an effective tool in L2 incidental word learning. In their study, to test the effect of language input from television, they employed a pre-/post-test experimental design. In the experiment, 129 bilingual 7th and 8th grade students were separated into four groups, namely captioned TV group, TV group, reading along and listening to text group, and textbook only group (control group) (Neuman and Koskinen, 1992: 94). The three experimental groups received 12 weeks' exposure to TV stimuli of "*3-2-1 Contact*", whilst the control group did not receive any. By conducting pre-tests and post-tests on word knowledge, the captioned TV group were reported to outperform the other groups. The results provided support for the view that the audio-visual stimuli from television were effective in incidental word learning. The researchers also argued that the visual component in the television programme can be facilitative when learning vocabulary meaning. Compared to Danan's study (1992), Neuman and Koshinen's study (1992) developed the research methodology on the grounds that they included the proficiency placement test and also the pre-test.

More recently, three intervention studies have been implemented to test the impact of audio-visual media on L2 vocabulary learning. Yuksel and Tanriverdi (2009) investigated the effects of movie clips on L2 incidental vocabulary learning. Their results support the argument that movie clips are beneficial to L2 incidental vocabulary development. In their pre-/post-test experimental design, 120 college students were randomly allocated to Group A (movie clip with captions) and Group B (movie clip without captions). Before the movie clip was viewed, both groups completed a

pre-test on the vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) (Wesche and Paribakht, 1996) to record baselines. After the viewing, a post-test was conducted, repeating the VKS. A t-test analysis indicates that both Group A (movie clip with captions) and Group B (movie clip without captions) did well in the post-test and showed significant development in vocabulary knowledge. This study, acknowledging the effect of movie clips, gives positive results for incidental vocabulary learning.

Karakas and Saricoban (2012) examined the impact of subtitled animated cartoons on incidental vocabulary learning. The experimental results demonstrated the positive impact of animated cartoons on incidental vocabulary learning. A total of 42 first-year university students participated in a pre-/post-test designed research experiment and were randomly allocated to two groups: a subtitle group and a non-subtitle group. The input stimuli were two episodes from "*Family Guy*". By comparing the test results from pre-tests and post-tests, it became apparent that both groups improved significantly. The researchers claimed that the non-linguistic contextual clues, such as gestures and facial expressions, in animated cartoons can benefit incidental vocabulary learning.

Bisson et al. (2012) explored the incidental vocabulary learning in Dutch by English native speakers in the context of animated films. In a phase of 25 minutes, the experimental group received film input (*SpongeBob Square Pants*), whereas the control group did not. By setting up a statistical comparison between the control group (n=11) and the experimental group (n=43), no significant impact on L2 vocabulary learning was detected. The researchers indicated that these results might be due to the limited exposure that the participants received, calling for further research with significant more exposure to film.

Apart from the above six intervention studies, there were two longitudinal case studies focusing on testing the impact of audio-visual media on L2 learning of vocabulary. Milton (2008) reported a case study, examining the impact of films in intentional vocabulary learning of Greek by one native English speaker. The subject was required to take a pre-test first to obtain an overview about learner knowledge of the vocabulary in the film. He then received two and half hours of film input once a week for four weeks. After the input period, his knowledge of vocabulary, which had appeared in the films, was again measured. The results showed that on average the subject grasped approximately 16 vocabulary items per hour. Despite the good results, the research also raised concerns. Milton (2008) found that the subject chosen in the research was a particularly excellent language learner, with high motivation. If the participant were not very competent and not well-motivated, the results could be very different. Therefore, he suggested that less competent language learners should be involved in further research. Indeed, I also argue that due to the fact that qualitative results are not generalizable, a similar quantitative study needs to be conducted.

Garnier (2014) also did a longitudinal study, investigating the impact of films on intentional vocabulary learning. The subject was a native English speaker, learning French as an L2. In the study, the subject was required to watch the same film repeatedly once a week for a total of eight weeks. The results revealed that the subject was able to learn new words in each viewing and remember the vocabulary items over a relatively longer period of time. This result is inspiring. However, as mentioned regarding Milton (2008), the case study did not present the whole picture of impact of the film on L2 vocabulary learning, and quantitative data are needed to provide support for the argument.

To summarize, the studies elaborated upon above, although they provided

evidence of the positive effects of audio-visual media on L2 vocabulary learning, none of the intervention studies attempted to test the long-term effects. In addition, the vocabulary knowledge that all these studies investigated concentrated on the learning of vocabulary meaning. However, none of the studies tried to associate this with learning. The current research examines the long-term effect of audio-visual media on L2 learning of vocabulary, by offering sufficient audio-visual exposure and conducting a homogeneity test and pre-test, to provide evidence of the impact of audio-visual media on L2 learning.

3.2.2.3 Former studies of audio-visual media on L2 comprehension

Though the current study does not aim to test the general comprehension of the target language, it is worth reviewing the former studies of the impact of audio-visual media on L2 comprehension, to shed light on the current study. The former studies concentrated on investigating the impact of audio-visual media on writing comprehension, translation proficiency, listening comprehension and general language proficiency. Overall, the researchers found a positive impact or correlation of audio-visual media on these aspects of general comprehension, and the results from their studies offer important implications on the impact of audio-visual media on learning and acquisition.

In terms of writing comprehension, Ghaedsharafi et al. (2012) argued that audio-visual media materials can be beneficial in EFL contexts, especially compared to audio-only materials and text-only materials. A group of 45 Iranian English learners were invited to participate in this study. They were divided into three groups: the audio-visual group (n=15), the audio-only group (n=15) and the text-only group (n=15). Before the treatment period, all the participants were required to write an article on three given topics.

The audio-visual group then received audio-visual documentary input, whereas the audio-only group and the text-only group received the audio from the documentaries or a reading text from the documentaries respectively. The treatment lasted for three weeks. The stimuli were given one at a time in one week. At the end of every week, the participants were required to write another article on the three given topics again. The writings produced before and after the treatment period were rated according to the IELTS writing standard, and this was done by two experienced raters. The statistical outcome of cross-group comparison showed that the audio-visual group significantly outperformed the other two groups, thus demonstrating the strength of audio-visual media on ESL writing comprehension.

With respect to language translation, Anh's study (2010) yielded empirical evidence showing that there was a positive correlation between watching audio-visual media and translation proficiency. This study was carried out in the Dutch speaking area in Belgium. Altogether 374 pupils were recruited in this research. They were required to report their use of English language media, and their test scores of Dutch-English and English-Dutch translation tests were included to calculate the correlation with their reports. It was found that the pupils who constantly viewed audio-visual media got high scores in the two translation tests. This positive correlation further affirms the impact of audio-visual media in translation proficiency.

Regarding the L2 listening comprehension, Dehghani and Jowkar (2012) investigated the validity of audio-visual materials. A group of 56 Iranian undergraduates participated in this study and they were randomly allocated to either the experimental or control group. At the beginning of the semester, all the students participated in the pre-test. In the treatment period, the experimental group was taught by using computers and videos to instruct L2

listening, whilst the control group was taught by traditional methods (i.e. dictation practice). The post-tests were conducted at the end of the semester. The between-group comparison indicated that the experimental group did much better than the control group in the listening comprehension task. Poon (1992), Baker (1996) and Cabaj and Nocolic (2000) all claimed that the greater the exposure to TV that the L2 learners received, the more they improved in listening comprehension.

As regards general language achievement, Asadi and Berimani (2015) implemented a research project, focusing on the impact of audio-visual materials in EFL classrooms. They selected 60 Iranian high school students and allocated them to the experimental group (n=30) and the control group (n=30). Over three months, the experimental group received language instruction with audio-visual materials, whereas the control group received traditional instruction without audio-visual materials. Participants were invited to take the pre-test and the post-test, both based on the contents in the high school English textbook. The statistical comparison revealed that the experimental group performed better than the control group in the textbook based exams. Thus it was suggested that audio-visual media could have a positive impact.

All four studies above elicited positive results towards the impact of audio-visual media on L2 comprehension. It is worth noting that, to improve and achieve better learning outcomes in L2 comprehension, learners need to have comprehensive metalinguistic knowledge as well as underlying tacit knowledge. For instance, in order to promote writing comprehension and translation proficiency, L2 learners need to acquire grammar rules and syntactic constructions (Fernandez, 2013). If their writing proficiency can be improved by viewing controlled films, it is reasonable to hypothesize that films might facilitate L2 acquisition of grammar and syntax of the target

language. Similarly, for the purposes of improving reading and listening comprehension, learners need to understand the vocabulary meaning and other relevant metalinguistic knowledge. Thus according to the promising results from the previous studies, it is speculated that audio-visual media can be effective in L2 learning.

3.2.2.4 Former studies of audio-visual media on L2 learning motivation

The studies reviewed in the last three subsections (Section 3.2.2.1 to Section 3.2.2.3) mainly focused on testing the impact of language input and non-linguistic clues in the visual component from audio-visual media on L2 acquisition and learning. There has been very little research that has tested the effect of the content and the plot from audio-visual media on L2 learning motivation and how the motivation can contribute to the improvement of acquisition and learning of the target language. Ryan (1998) illustrated a typical example of using film as a tool to stimulate L2 learners in the Japanese context of classroom instruction. He also drew a general picture of how film can be used in classrooms, including choosing and manipulating films. Hemei (1997) stated that the use of media can motivate students in L2 acquisition and learning, and stimulate them to positively engage in language learning activities. This proposal has also been supported by Brinton (2001), Gebhardt (2004), Heffernan (2005) and Cakir (2006). These studies were positive towards the potential of audio-visual media on motivating L2 learners. However, no conclusive experimental results have showed how, or to what extent, students can be motivated by audio-visual media.

Currently, there is only one study which has tried to examine the effect of audio-visual media on L2 learning motivation. In the study conducted by Asadi and Berimani (2015) mentioned in Section 3.2.2.3, apart from the

overall language achievement, the researchers also investigated whether audio-visual stimuli could improve students motivation. The participants in the experimental group were asked to complete a motivation questionnaire in the pre-test and post-test stage. The statistical within-group comparison indicated that the motivation of the participants who received the treatment containing audio-visual stimuli significantly improved from pre-test to post-test. However, it remains unclear how the enhanced motivation could influence the learner's L2 acquisition and learning. In addition, potential motivation factors were not investigated in this piece of research.

3.2.3 Brief summary

Audio-visual media can be regarded as an alternative input in the Chinese context, to provide authentic language input as well as motivation factors for L2 learners simultaneously and potentially enhance learners' autonomy, self-efficacy and willingness to communicate. Former studies, which have focused on the impact of audio-visual media on L2 development, help reveal some research gaps and methodological shortcomings in this under-developed research area. It is found that there has not been any longitudinal intervention study conducted in the area of grammar acquisition and vocabulary learning among adult learners. In addition, the researchers who investigated the impact of audio-visual media on L2 learning of vocabulary did not associate vocabulary meaning with learning. Therefore, the current study attempts to fill some of the research gaps and provide evidence to contribute to the literature on the use of audio-visual media as authentic L2 input.

3.3 Acquisition versus learning

This section discusses the two aspects in which the effect of audio-visual

media is tested: L2 acquisition and L2 learning. The reason why the impact of audio-visual media needs to be tested in these two aspects lies in the complex nature of audio-visual media as language input and the distinctive mechanisms between L2 acquisition and L2 learning. To elicit empirical evidence of the impact of audio-visual media on the two aspects, two test properties: genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping were adopted in the experiment. This section also provides the linguistic explanations of the two test properties and identifies Chinese-speaking learners' learnability regarding these properties.

3.3.1 Distinction between acquisition and learning

The notions of acquisition and learning were first proposed and defined by Krashen (1981, 1982 and 1985). He argued that acquisition is a process in which L2 learners unconsciously attain underlying tacit knowledge. In contrast, learning is a process in which L2 learners access the metalinguistic and memorised knowledge of the target language through conscious effort. It is worth noting that this distinction is widely accepted in L2 research (Gil et al., 2013b).

There are five main differences between the two notions. The first and the most obvious difference is that acquisition is an unconscious process whereas learning is a conscious process.

Secondly, these two notions also differ in the types of knowledge that they can access. The underlying tacit knowledge is accessed in the process of acquisition whereas metalinguistic knowledge and memorised knowledge of the target language is accessed in the process of learning. According to Gil et al. (2013b), underlying tacit knowledge is deeply embedded in the innate processing rules of the target language. Metalinguistic knowledge and

memorised knowledge of the target language, however, does not involve tacit knowledge of the innate processing rules. As Gil et al. (2013b) exemplify, metalinguistic knowledge can involve the rules about tense and aspect and memorised knowledge can involve the lists of irregular word forms, for instance.

Thirdly, acquisition and learning differ in the modules of the mind in which they can take place. Due to the fact that underlying tacit knowledge has a close connection with innate grammar, the acquisition of underlying tacit knowledge takes place in the "language module" which was proposed by Fodor (1983). In contrast, the learnt knowledge, such as instructed grammar rules and vocabulary meaning, is processed in the central processing system in the mind. Therefore, learning takes place in the central processing system.

The fourth difference lies in the linguistic competence of the target language that the two types of knowledge accessed in acquisition and learning can contribute. The "learnt knowledge" might play a role in developing L2 learner linguistic performance, but not in promoting L2 linguistic competence. This is based on the argument from Chomsky (1965) that "linguistic competence" is innate knowledge of language processing in the target language, whereas linguistic performance is "the actual use of language in concrete situations" (Chomsky, 1965: 4). From the definitions, it is assumed that the crucial discrepancy between "competence" and "performance" is whether language learners attain the underlying tacit knowledge of the target language or not. Therefore, to achieve linguistic competence of the target language, the acquisition of underlying tacit knowledge is the key.

Finally, the logical issue of poverty of stimulus mentioned in Section 3.1.1 is only associated with acquisition but not learning. This is because the

poverty of stimulus effect is closely related to innate grammar, which is hardwired in the language module. Since the language module is the place in which only acquisition can take place, the poverty of stimulus effect is only related to the acquisition process. The attainment of the underlying tacit knowledge which is subject to poverty of stimulus is an important criterion to provide support for L2 acquisition.

The acquisition-learning distinction is also supported by the MOGUL framework (Sharwood Smith, 2004; Sharwood Smith and Truscott, 2005; Truscott and Sharwood Smith, 2004, 2011; Truscott, 2006, 2014 and 2015) and the Autonomous Induction Theory (Carroll, 2001, 2002 and 2007). Both of them agree on the unconsciousness in the acquisition process and accept the view that acquisition only occurs in the UG-controlled module of language.

There is another pair of dichotomy which echoes the acquisition-learning distinction in the field of cognitive psychology from a non-nativist point of view (Hulstijn, 2002; Dekeyser, 2003). It is the distinction between implicit language learning and explicit language learning. Reber (1967) was the first to define implicit learning and argued that implicit learning is process in which learners acquire complex knowledge without conscious awareness. In a similar vein, Ellis N (1994) defined implicit learning as "the acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations" and explicit learning as "a more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structures" (Ellis N, 1994: 1). Ellis R (1994b, 2004, 2005, 2006 and 2009) and Hulstijn (2002, 2005 and 2015) also proposed similar definitions regarding implicit learning and explicit learning, and these definitions have been accepted by Bowles (2011), Lee et al. (2012), Gutiérrez (2012), Rebuschat and Williams

(2012), Lichtman (2013), Eteski (2014), Andringa and Rebuschat (2015), Rebuschat (2015), etc.

By reviewing the definitions of the implicit-explicit dichotomy in the literature, there are several characteristics of the definitions in common. Firstly, implicit learning is different from explicit learning due to its unconscious nature. Implicit learning is independent of conscious awareness and is an autonomous process. However in contrast, explicit learning is under conscious control and needs deliberate efforts (Ellis N, 1994; Paradis, 1994; Hulstijn, 2002, 2005 and 2015; Ellis R, 2006). Secondly, the linguistic knowledge involved in the implicit learning and the explicit learning is different. Underlying tacit knowledge is involved in the implicit learning process, whereas metalinguistic and memorised knowledge is involved in the explicit learning process (Reber, 1989; Ellis R, 1994b). In comparison, metalinguistic and memorised knowledge can be verbalised, but underlying tacit knowledge cannot (Ellis R, 2004, 2005; Esteki, 2014). Thirdly, implicit learning can contribute to linguistic competence, whereas explicit learning cannot (Paradis, 1994).

Comparing the acquisition-learning dichotomy with the implicit-explicit dichotomy, it is not hard to find that they are similar to each other in the sense that acquisition/implicit learning is an unconscious process which involves underlying tacit knowledge and can contribute to linguistic competence. Though there are similarities between the two dichotomies, key discrepancies also exist. The acquisition-learning dichotomy lies in the generative approach. It claims that acquisition is a domain-specific process (i.e. only occur in the language module) and is associated with the poverty of stimulus effect. However, the implicit-explicit learning dichotomy is set in a non-generative approach, and according to Winter and Reber (1994), implicit learning is domain-free, so that the poverty of stimulus effect is not

related.

Given that this study aims to investigate to what extent audio-visual media can facilitate the L2 development comprehensively, it is essential to test the impact of audio-visual media on the knowledge which is subject to the poverty of stimulus effect and the knowledge which is free from the poverty of stimulus effect. Therefore, the acquisition-learning dichotomy is more appropriate to be adopted in the current study.

In the introduction chapter and Section 3.2, it is mentioned that audio-visual media is a complex entity. It can provide authentic L2 input, which is positive evidence (primary linguistic data), to trigger acquisition in the language module and facilitate the learning process, and meanwhile provide non-linguistic clues to raise the learner's awareness. In other words, audio-visual media can potentially influence both the acquisition and learning processes. However, due to the distinctive mechanisms between the acquisition process and the learning process, the degree that audio-visual media can contribute to L2 acquisition and L2 learning might be different. Thus, the impact of audio-visual media needs to be examined in terms of acquisition and learning separately.

3.3.2 Test properties of acquisition and learning in the current study

This section illustrates the two test properties of acquisition and learning, which in the current study are genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping respectively. The illustration will show how genericity is related to acquisition and how vocabulary meaning and form mapping, on the other hand, represents learning. Furthermore, the explanations of these two properties will elucidate cross-linguistic differences between English and Chinese, and will therefore help to predict the learnability tasks that

Chinese-speaking learners of English face in genericity and vocabulary.

3.3.2.1 Test property of acquisition – genericity

In recent years, there has been a large number of studies investigating genericity, including ontological explanations (Cohen, 2004; Iwabe, 2002; Ojeda, 1991), cross-linguistic comparisons (Behrens, 2005; Farkas and Swart, 2007) and its application in language acquisition (Ionin et al., 2011; Pappas and Gelman, 1998; Prasada, 2000; Slabakova and Montrul, 2003; Snape et al., 2009; Tardif et al., 2012). As is broadly defined, genericity refers to expressions which are applicable to an entire class or group. For instance,

(1) a. "The lion is dangerous." (Ionin et al., 2011: 244)

    b. "Lions are dangerous." (Ionin et al., 2011: 244)

As in example (1), the underlined noun phrases (henceforth NPs) do not refer to a specific "lion", but the whole genus of lion (*Panthera leo*). These NPs are all geneic expressions.

Genericity is a linguistic property which involves underlying syntactic and semantic representation. The generic NP is one of the syntactic categories in sentence structure. In addition, it involves a covert generic operator GEN which binds a variable (x) within the NP together to express generic meaning at the sentence-level below semantic operations (see explanations in Section 3.3.2.1.1 below). All these syntactic and semantic operations in the expression of genericity demonstrate that genericity is a part of the inherent linguistic system and thus represents the underlying tacit knowledge of a language speaker. In addition, genericity is not routinely included in English teaching curriculums and classroom instruction in China

and genericity is expressed differently in English and Chinese. Thus, Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English cannot attain the knowledge from either the L1 or classroom instruction. Furthermore, even if audio-visual media input is provided, there are still linguistic items of genericity which are subject to the poverty of stimulus effect. If Chinese-speaking learners can demonstrate knowledge about genericity in English, especially the linguistic items of genericity that are subject to poverty of stimulus after receiving exposure to audio-visual media, it provides support for audio-visual media being facilitative in acquisition.

English genericity

Krifka et al. (1995) proposes that there are two varieties of genericity which are NP-level genericity and sentence-level genericity.

NP-level genericity generates the generic meaning from the NPs. The NPs involved refer to a biological genus. Therefore, this is called a "kind-referring NP" or "generic NP" (Krifka et al., 1995: 2). As is shown in example (1a) and (1b), the underlined "the lion" and "lions" do not refer to a particular individual lion or a group of specific lions. They refer to a genus of animal called "lion". The genericity of (1a) and (1b) arises from the NP-level.

Different from NP-level genericity above, sentence-level genericity is expressed from generic sentences which report "a regularity which summarizes groups of particular episodes or facts", rather than from particular sentences which report "specific episodes or isolated facts" (Krifka et al., 1995: 2). Particular sentences cannot convey the meaning of genericity. Example (2a) and (2b) below exemplify interpretations of generic sentence and a particular sentence respectively.

(2) a. A cat runs.

   b. A cat runs by.

Example (2a) does not report a specific event. Rather, it describes a general feature of habit that cats share. Therefore (2a) is a generic sentence which can express genericity at the sentence-level. It conveys the implication of regularity and generalisation (Krifka et al., 1995: 3). In contrast, example (2b) reports a specific and episodic event which cannot be generalised as a feature of the whole kind. Therefore, (2b) is not a generic sentence, but a particular sentence, and it does not generate sentence-level genericity.

To express sentence-level genericity, a generic operator GEN is needed in generic sentences. It is a generic quantifier which binds the variables that appear in the generic sentences (Papafragou, 1996). Take (3a) and (3b) for examples where the working principle of GEN is illustrated in the logical forms as follows:

(3) a. "A dog barks." (Ionin et al., 2011: 248)

   GEN (x) [is a dog (x), barks (x)] (Koslicki, 1999: 26)

   b. "A dog is a faithful pet." (Ionin et al., 2011: 257)

   GEN(x) [is a dog (x), is a faithful pet (x)] (Koslicki, 1999: 26)

As is shown above in example (3), GEN acts as a universal quantifier and has a meaning of "for every situation of the relevant type in which x exists" (Ionin et al., 2011: 248). Therefore, the example (3a) can be interpreted as "for every situation of the relevant type in which x exists, such that x is a dog, x barks" (Ionin et al., 2011: 248) and the example (3b) can be interpreted as "for every situation of the relevant type in which x exists, such that x is a dog, x is a faithful pet" (Ionin et al., 2011: 248).

GEN is a covert operator which is embedded in generic sentences (McConnell-Ginet, 2012). According to Leslie (2008), GEN cannot be explicitly articulated. "It is thought of as a default variable-binding operator, arising only when the sentence does not contain an explicit quantificational operator" (Leslie, 2008: 5).

To express NP-level and sentence-level genericity in English, different forms of NPs are used. Both of the two types of genericity allow definite singular NPs and bare plural NPs in English. When an indefinite singular NP is used to deliver generic meanings, the indefinite singular NP cannot generate genericity from the NP itself, the generic meaning must come from the sentence-level (Ionin and Montrul, 2009). The covert generic operator GEN binds a variable in the generic sentence, including the indefinite singular NP, to express sentence-level genericity. It is worth noting that bare singular NPs and definite plural NPs in English are not allowed in any kind of genericity. Bare singular NPs are ungrammatical in English sentences. Definite plural NPs can be used in specific anaphoric contexts only.

In English genericity, there are two restrictions. Firstly, indefinite singular NPs are not compatible with *kind predicates*. By definition, kind predicates refer to "predicates which favour a kind-referring interpretation of NPs" (Krifka et al., 1995: 10). Kind predicates such as *die out, extinct, invent, exterminate, widespread* are often applied to generic NPs to generate genericity. Based on the fact that indefinite singular NPs in English are not kind-referring NPs, they cannot be followed by kind predicates. For instance,

(4) *A dinosaur is extinct.

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Example (4) above is ungrammatical because "a dinosaur" is an indefinite singular NP. It is not compatible with the kind predicate "extinct".

Secondly, only when the definite article *the* plus well-defined or well-established kinds, can the generic meaning be generated. Consider example (5) below.

(5) a. "The Coke bottle has a narrow neck." (Krifka et al., 1995: 11)

    b. "The green bottle has a narrow neck." (Krifka et al., 1995: 11)

As in (5a), "Coke bottle" is a well-defined/well-established kind, but in (5b), "green bottle" is not a well-defined/well-established kind. Therefore, sentence (5b) cannot have a generic interpretation. The definite article "the" + "not well defined kind" combination can only be used in anaphoric contexts.

Table 3.2 below summarizes what has been discussed so far about English genericity. The usage of different types of NPs at both levels of genericity and the restrictions in English genericity are also presented.

Table 3.2. Different types of English NPs expressing genericity

	Definite singular NPs	Indefinite singular NPs	Bare singular NPs	Definite plural NPs	Bare plural NPs
NP-level genericity	√	×	×	×	√
Sentence-level genericity	√	√	×	×	√
Compatible with kind predicate	√	×	×	×	√
Compatible with "non-well-defined" kind	×	√	×	×	√

Chinese genericity

Chinese is a language which does not have an article system, and so genericity in Chinese is not expressed using articles. There are no obvious obligatory morpho-syntactic cues to identify genericity in Chinese (Gelman, 2004; Gelman and Tardif, 1998). Generally speaking, indefinite generic classifier phrases, definite generic classifier phrases, bare (singular) NPs[5] and indefinite classifier NPs are the adopted forms to express generic meaning in Chinese. Generic sentences which contain definite generic classifier phrases, bare (singular) NPs and the combination of existential quantifier (you) + indefinite generic classifier phrases can yield both NP-level and sentence-level generic interpretations. Only when the quantification adverb is added in the sentence, can indefinite classifier NPs be bound by GEN to convey sentence-level genericity. Example (6) below presents typical generic sentences containing the definite generic classifier (Def.Gen.CL) phrases and bare (singular) NPs respectively in Chinese.

(6) a.   zhe zhong/zhe lei   xiong   chi   feng mi.

这种/这类　　熊　吃　蜂蜜。

Def. Gen.CL　　bear　eat　honey

"This kind of bear eats honey."

　b.   xiong mao   chi   zhu zi.

熊猫　吃　竹子。

Panda　eat　bamboo

"The panda eats bamboo."

Or "Pandas eat bamboo."

---

[5] Chinese does not have morphological marking for plurals.

c. zhe zhong/zhe lei   kong long   jue ji   le.

　　这种/这类　　　　恐龙　　　　绝迹　　了。

　　Def. Gen.CL   dinosaur   extinct   completion marker

"This kind of dinosaur is extinct."

d. jian long   jue ji   le.

　　剑龙　　　　　绝迹　了。

　Stegosaurus   extinct   completion marker

"The stegosaurus is extinct." Or "Stegosauruses are extinct."

e. zhe zhong/zhe lei   hong se de   qi che   yin ren zhu mu.

　这种/这类　　　　　红色的　　　汽车　　　引人注目。

　　Def. Gen.CL   red   car   attention attracting

"This kind of red cars attracts attention."

f. hong se de   qi che   yin ren zhu mu.

　红色的　　　汽车　　　引人注目。

　Red   car   attention attracting

"Red cars attract attention." Or "A red car attracts attention."

In example (6a), "zhe zhong/ zhe lei" acts as the definite generic classifier, and "zhe zhong/ zhe lei xiong" is a definite generic classifier phrase. It can generate NP-level generic meaning. In (6b), "xiong mao" is a bare (singular) NP which can convey NP-level generic meaning as well. Since examples (6a) and (6b) describe habitual common characteristics among a kind of animal, they denote sentence-level genericity as well. Definite generic classifier phrase and bare (singular) NPs are both compatible with kind predicates (e.g. extinct) and "not well defined kind", as is shown in example (6c) - (6f).

The use of indefinite classifier (Ind.CL) phrases is quite different from definite generic classifier phrases and bare (singular) NPs in generic sentences. If sentences which involve indefinite classifier phrases can express genericity, there are several conditions that need to be met. The first condition is that the classifier in the phrase should be a kind classifier (yi zhong/ yi lei), and the whole phrase should be modified by existential quantifier (Exist.Q: you) (Li X, 2009).

(7) a. * yi zhi   gou   wang wang   jiao.
     一只   狗   汪汪   叫。
     (Ind.CL)   dog   woof-woof   bark.
     "A dog barks."   (Li, X, 2009: 1)

   b. you   yi zhi   gou   wang wang   jiao.
     有   一只   狗   汪汪   叫。
     (Exist.Q)   (Ind. CL)   dog   woof-woof   bark.
     "There is a dog which barks." (Li, X, 2009: 1)

   c. you   yi zhong/ yi lei   gou   wang wang   jiao.
     有   一种/一类   狗   汪汪   叫。
     (Exist.Q)   (Ind.Kind.CL)   dog   woof-woof   bark.
     "There is a kind of dog which barks." (Li, X, 2009: 1)

   d. you   yi zhong/ yi lei   kong long   jue ji   le.
     有   一种/一类   恐龙   绝迹   了。
     (Exist.Q)   (Ind.Kind.CL)   dinosaur   extinct   (completion marker)
     "There is a kind of dinosaur which is extinct."

In Chinese, indefinite phrases cannot be in the sentence-initial position and be the topic in sentences where neither definite meaning nor generic

meaning is expressed (Li and Thompson, 1981: 91). Therefore, example (7a) is an ungrammatical Chinese sentence. Only when the existential quantifier "you" is added before the indefinite classifier phrase, are the sentences grammatical, as shown in (7b) and (7c). The difference between (7b) and (7c) lies in the classifiers adopted in the sentences. Example (7b) has an indefinite individual classifier, thus this sentence focuses on describing one specific entity. No generic meaning is available. In contrast, example (7c) has an indefinite kind classifier. With both the existential quantifier and the indefinite kind classifier involved, sentence (7c) can denote NP-level generic meaning from the combination of "existential quantifier (you) + indefinite kind classifier phrases". It is worth noting that this combination is compatible with kind predicates (e.g. extinct), as is presented in example (7d).

The second condition is that a quantificational adverb needs to be added in the sentence which involves the indefinite classifier to denote sentence-level genericity, so that the generic operator GEN can be triggered by the quantificational adverb (Li X., 2009: 2). For instance,

(8)　　tong chang,　　yi ge　　hao　　ren　　you　　　ze ren gan.
　　　　通常，　　　　一个　　好　　人　　有　　　　责任感。
　　　　Generally　（Ind. CL)　good　person　have　　sense of duty.
　　　　"Generally, a good person has a sense of duty."
　　　　GEN$_{\text{-tong chang}}$ (x) [is a good person (x), has a sense of duty (x)].

In (8), "tong chang" (generally) is a quantificational adverb. Without "tong chang", this sentence is ungrammatical as is explained in example (7a). After "tong chang" is added, the generic operator GEN is triggered to bind the variables in the sentence. Therefore, Chinese indefinite classifier NPs can be involved in the sentence with "tong chang", which can denote

sentence-level generic meaning. Furthermore, indefinite classifier NPs in Chinese can be compatible with "not-well-defined" kind, as shown in example (8) above.

Table 3.3 below summarizes the forms used in Chinese genericity. Definite generic classifier phrases and bare (singular) NPs can denote NP-level genericity, and are compatible with kind predicates and "not-well-defined" kind. They can also be involved in generic sentences to express sentence-level genericity. Indefinite classifier phrases cannot express NP-level genericity. They can be involved in sentence-level genericity triggered by "tong chang". They are not compatible with kind predicates, but they are compatible with "not-well-defined" kind.

Table 3.3. Relevant forms in Chinese genericity

	Definite generic classifier phrases	Indefinite classifier phrases	Bare (singular) NPs
NP-level genericity	√	×	√
Sentence-level genericity	√	√	√
Compatible with kind predicates	√	×	√
Compatible with "non-well-defined" kind	√	√	√

Chinese-speaking learners' learnability regarding English genericity

Based on what has been discussed in the previous two subsections (Section 3.3.2.1.1 and 3.3.2.1.2), it can be seen that there are several cross-linguistic similarities and differences between English and Chinese.

In terms of the similarities, indefinite classifier phrases in Chinese and indefinite singular NPs in English are both not compatible with kind predicates and both can be bound by GEN to denote sentence-level generic meaning. Therefore, it is predicted that Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English do not have difficulties in acquiring the infelicity of indefinite singular NPs in English NP-level genericity and the grammaticality of indefinite singular NPs in English sentence-level genericity.

With regard to the differences, English adopts articles to denote generic meanings. In contrast, Chinese does not have the article system, and does not use articles to express generic meaning. Rather in Chinese, generic classifier phrases can be used to convey generic meaning. Furthermore, Chinese does not have morphological marking for plural NPs. Therefore, it is predicted that Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English have difficulties in the acquisition of all the NP forms in English genericity, except indefinite singular NPs at NP-level and sentence-level genericity.

Particularly, among the NP forms, the acquisition regarding the ungrammaticality of bare singular NPs, at both English NP-level and sentence-level genericity, may suffer from the L1 transfer effect. In Chinese, bare singular NPs are grammatical to express genericity at both levels. Thus, it is possible that the L1 Chinese learners would wrongly accept bare singular NPs to express genericity in English.

With regard to the Chinese-speaking learners' learnability of English genericity, the acquisition of indefinite singular NPs at NP-level and sentence-level genericity does not lead to the learnability problem, because the counterpart indefinite classifier phrases in L1 Chinese have similarities to indefinite singular NPs in English to express genericity.

However, the acquisition of definite singular NPs, bare singular NPs, definite plural NPs and bare plural NPs at English NP-level and sentence-level genericity may lead to learnability problems, because L1 Chinese does not have the same forms for generic expressions. Since English genericity is not taught in classroom instruction in China, learners cannot get evidence from previous classroom instruction. Audio-visual media contains the positive evidence of what is possible but not what is impossible in English genericity. Therefore, the ungrammaticality of bare singular NPs and the infelicity of definite plural NPs at NP-level and sentence-level genericity, and also the incompatibility of definite singular NPs with "not well defined" kind, are not available from the audio-visual media input and thus are subject to poverty of stimulus effect. Despite the lack of direct evidence, if the learner can demonstrate knowledge of the NP forms at English NP-level and sentence-level genericity, which are subject to poverty of stimulus, this would provide support to the argument that audio-visual media is facilitative in acquisition.

If audio-visual media is positively influential in acquisition in the current study, the L1 Chinese learners may perform better in accepting definite singular NPs and bare plural NPs at NP-level genericity and indefinite singular NPs and bare plural NPs at sentence-level genericity. They may also perform better in rejecting indefinite singular NPs at NP-level genericity, and especially rejecting the NPs which are subject to poverty of stimulus, including bare singular NPs and definite plural NPs at NP-level genericity and sentence-level genericity, and definite singular NPs when associated with a "not well defined" kind.

In the intervention experiment of investigating the impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition of genericity, if, and only if, the experimental group can perform better than the control group in acquiring English

genericity, especially the NPs which are subject to poverty of stimulus and this is in a long-term sense, can it be concluded that audio-visual media can positively influence L1 Chinese-speaking learners' acquisition of English genericity. Since this study also treats motivation factors provided by audio-visual media as a variable, if, and only if, the high motivation group can perform better than both the low motivation group and the control group in acquiring English genericity, it can be concluded that the motivation factors offered by audio-visual media are effective in promoting L2 English acquisition of genericity.

3.3.2.2 Test property of learning – vocabulary meaning and form mapping

Vocabulary knowledge is a crucial part of a language, and it is of great importance when learners are learning languages. As Wilkins (1972:111) states, "Without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed." Vocabulary knowledge is always treated as a central topic in L2 research. Researchers have a consensus on the dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. They agree that the breadth and the depth of vocabulary knowledge are the consisting components (Anderson and Freebody, 1981; Qian, 2002; Read, 2004; Schmitt, 2014; Shen Z, 2008). By definition, the breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the number of words that the learners know and the depth of vocabulary knowledge centres on how well the learner know the word and to what extent the various aspects of the given word are known (Shen Z, 2008; Schmitt, 2014).

To know a word in depth, there are several aspects of vocabulary knowledge needed to be grasped. Vocabulary knowledge, according to Nation (2001), consists of nine different aspects which can comprehensively be used to illustrate vocabulary knowledge. They are: spoken form, written form, concepts and referents, meaning and form connections, word associations,

constraints on use, word parts, collocation and grammar. These nine aspects are essential when analyzing vocabulary, especially in language learning contexts. According to Nation's explanation of all aspects of vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2001), if we classify the nine aspects on the basis of whether they cover syntactic operations according to the above explanations, they can be classified into two groups, as is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. The classification of the nine facets of vocabulary knowledge

Classification	Aspects of vocabulary knowledge
Aspects which do not cover syntactic operations	Spoken form
	Written form
	Concepts and referents
	Meaning and form connection
	Word associations
	Constraints on use
Aspects which cover syntactic operations	Word parts
	Collocation
	Grammar

The nine aspects of: spoken form, written form, concepts and referents, meaning and form connection, word associations and constraints on use, are the aspects which do not cover syntactic properties, and therefore do not associate with underlying tacit knowledge and free from the poverty of stimulus effect. In contrast, the vocabulary knowledge of word parts, collocation and grammar need syntactic processing in depth, and thus these aspects are associated with underlying tacit knowledge. When learners are exposed to a new word, the aspects of vocabulary knowledge which do not involve syntactic operations are considered as superficial, compared to the aspects of vocabulary knowledge which cover syntactic operations.

In this study, vocabulary meaning and its connection with form (i.e. knowing the definition of word in the form of L2) is chosen as the test property of learning. Considering the nature of learning that it does not involve underlying tacit knowledge and does not subject to poverty of stimulus effect, the vocabulary knowledge examined in the current study should be within the superficial level and not reach the deeper level which covers syntactic operations. From the classification of the nine aspects, it is apparent that vocabulary meaning and meaning mapping with forms do not reach the deeper level of vocabulary knowledge and only requires conscious memorization. When learning vocabulary, learners connect to the meaning of the vocabulary in the native language and map the meaning of a vocabulary item with the forms in the target language. Understanding the meaning of vocabulary in the target language is the core task in L2 learning. Thus, vocabulary meaning and form mapping is chosen as the test property of learning in the current study.

Differences between English and Chinese vocabulary meanings

Chinese is a language from the Sino-Tibetan family and has Chinese characters in its written form. In comparison, English is a Germanic language and adopts alphabets in its written form. The two languages belong to very different language families and have marked discrepancy. Meaning of vocabulary also conceptually and culturally varies between English and Chinese. Though there are many words share similar meanings in the two languages, it is not the case that word meanings can always be completely equated. It is commonly seen that words in English do not have their counterparts in Chinese and vice versa (Lin et al., 2013). For instance, there is a word called "waddle" in English, meaning "to walk with short steps, swinging from one side to another" (Hornby, 2008: 2255). However, in Chinese there is not a correspondent of "waddle". A description needs to be

added to illustrate the manner of "walk" which is "摇摇摆摆地 (yao yao bai bai de)".

English vocabulary meaning is conceptually different from Chinese vocabulary meaning. The conceptual difference exists in the vocabulary denotation and connotation. Vocabulary denotation refers to the literal meaning and the explicit definition of a word in the dictionary, whereas vocabulary connotation refers to the positive or negative feeling or emotion, the manner and all the other intrinsic characteristics that a word conveys (Kang, 2015; Lin et al., 2013). In terms of vocabulary denotation, English and Chinese differ in the sense of broadness and concreteness. For instance, the verb 打(da) in Chinese has a broad denotation and has several similar correspondents in English. 打 can be translated as fight, smash, beat, collect, play, negotiate, build, make, pack, knit, draw, hold, send and buy etc in English, including both concrete verbs and abstract verbs. Similarly, the English verb 'promote' can be interpreted as 升职 (shengzhi: to be assigned to a higher position), 推销 (tuixiao: advertise to sell a product), 促进 (cujin: contribute to the progress), etc in Chinese and has a wider denotation than each of its Chinese correspondents. With respect to vocabulary connotation, Chinese and English words also show differences. For example, 残疾(canji) is a Chinese word which has a neutral connotation and its correspondents in English can be 'disabled', 'crippled', 'handicapped' and 'retarded'. However, apart from 'disabled', though the other three English translations have the same neutral correspondent in Chinese (i.e. canji), their connotation is very negative and considered to be very offensive in English.

English and Chinese vocabularies also have cultural discrepancy in connotation (Shen C, 2004; Wang X, 2011; Wang J, 2002; Lin N, 2002; Qu and Chang, 2004; Ma H, 2006). Cultural traditions, historical background

and customs etc. are manifested in the vocabularies of a language. For instance, the English word 'dragon' refers to "the imaginary animal which has wings and a long tail, can breathe out fire" (Hornby, 2008: 605). Its correspondent in Chinese is 龙(long). Though the definitions of dragon share similarity in English and Chinese, the cultural implications are distinct from each other. In English and western culture, dragon is a symbol of evil and a synonym of Satan. However in contrast, 龙 (long) represents auspicious power and luck in the Chinese culture. Emperors in the ancient dynasties adopted 龙 (long) as their symbol of imperial strength and power. The Chinese culture worships 龙(long) and compares 龙(long) to excellent and outstanding people.

Apart from cultural traditions, historical background, etc, vocabulary bears the connotations from myths and legends (Shen, 2004). The English word 'narcissist' is a typical example to illustrate this viewpoint. 'Narcissist' is originated from the Greek myth. A handsome man named Narcissus was very self-conceited and rejected the pursuit from the nymph Echo. Echo was very sad and died of a broken heart. Because of this, Narcissus was punished by the gods and fell in love with his own reflection in the water and dwelled on with it. Finally, he consumed away with grief and changed into a flower. Now, the word 'narcissist' represents people who admiring themselves too much (Hornby, 2008: 1329). The meaning of narcissist in English is based on the whole story of an ancient Greek myth. However, there is no independent counterpart of narcissist in Chinese which conveys the same cultural meaning.

Chinese-speaking learners' learnability regarding English vocabulary meaning and form mapping

When L1 Chinese speakers learn a word in English, they need to grasp the

meaning of the word and connect the meaning with its English written form. The conceptual and cultural differences in the word denotations and connotations of Chinese and English may lead to learnability problems. This is because the L1 Chinese does not have vocabulary counterparts in the same conceptual and cultural sense. In addition, the difference between the written forms of the two languages also leads to learnability problems when learners connect the vocabulary meaning with its form in English. Though there are words share similar meanings in the two languages, L1 Chinese learners always need to establish new connections between words and forms when they come across novel words in the L2 English. These learnability problems are also the reason why vocabulary meaning and its form mapping is chosen as the test property in the current study. The tasks in the experiment focus on the direct translation of vocabularies and do not relate to L1 transfer effect.

The former studies of the impact of audio-visual media on vocabulary learning reviewed in Section 3.2.2.2 shed light on the current study. Though there is a research gap where no longitudinal study has been conducted, audio-visual media has the potential to positively influence the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping in the L2 (Danan, 1992; Neuman and Koskinen, 1992; Milton, 2008; Garnier, 2014). If audio-visual media can be facilitative in the learning of vocabulary meaning, learners would perform accurately in English word meaning learning and form mapping, despite the conceptual and cultural differences of denotation and connotation in English. In the current intervention experiment, if, and only if, the experimental group can perform better than the control group in the learning of word meaning and form mapping can audio-visual media be demonstrated to have a positive influence on L2 learning. On account of the motivation variable in the experiment, if, and only if, the high motivation group can outperform the low motivation group and the control group, can it

support that the motivation factors provided by audio-visual media are effective in promoting English learning of vocabulary meaning.

3.3.3 Brief summary

Section 3.3 discussed the distinction between acquisition and learning and justified the rationale of testing the impact of audio-visual media on acquisition and learning respectively in the current study. The two processes of acquisition and learning differ in their mechanisms. Acquisition is an unconscious process where underlying tacit knowledge can be accessed. In contrast, learning is a conscious process where metalinguistic and memorized knowledge can be accessed. Acquisition happens in the language module in the human mind and is associated with the poverty of stimulus effect, whereas learning happens in the central processing system and is not associated with poverty of stimulus. In comparison, it is the acquisition process that can contribute to linguistic competence. Since audio-visual media can provide primary linguistic data (linguistic information) and non-linguistic information, it can potentially affect both the acquisition and the learning processes. And because of the different mechanisms between acquisition and learning, audio-visual media may vary in the extent of contribution in terms of acquisition and learning. To achieve the purpose of investigating the extent to which audio-visual media can have an impact on acquisition and learning, the two test properties: genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping were involved in the experiment.

With regard to genericity, by introducing and comparing genericity in English and Chinese expression, Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English might have learnability problems of acquiring all the NP forms in English genericity, except the form of indefinite singular NPs at NP-level and

sentence-level genericity. If the experimental group would outperform the control group in using articles to express English genericity in a long-term sense, audio-visual media can be seen to have a positive influence on acquisition. In terms of vocabulary meaning and form mapping, the differences between English and Chinese were illustrated using examples. Denotation and the connotation vary in English and Chinese, and L1 Chinese learners always need to establish new connections between vocabulary meaning and form. If the experimental group would perform more accurately than the control group in learning English vocabulary meaning and form mapping in the long term, audio-visual media can have a positive impact on learning. Taking the variable of motivation into consideration, if, and only if, the high motivation group can perform better than the low motivation group and the control group, can it be confirmed that the motivation factors from audio-visual media are effective in promoting the acquisition of English genericity and vocabulary meaning and form mapping respectively.

3.4 Research hypotheses and predictions

Given the elaboration of audio-visual media as L2 input and the illustration of English and Chinese genericity and vocabulary, the research hypotheses of the current study are presented as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Audio-visual media has a positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English. There is a possibility that motivation is positively influential in the acquisition process.

• Discussion of hypothesis 1:

Chinese learners of L2 English might have the learnability problem of

acquisition. However, based on the fact that audio-visual media contains primary linguistic data of the target language, which can make a contribution to the development of innate linguistic competence, audio-visual media might facilitate Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English in the acquisition of English genericity.

In terms of the motivational factors provided by audio-visual media in acquisition, and according to the updated Affective Filter Hypothesis by Sharwood Smith (2014) that the linguistic related modules may be open to the affective system, there is a possibility that motivation may be positively influential in the acquisition process.

- Predictions for hypothesis 1:

Prediction 1a: Participants who receive the given stimuli of audio-visual media will outperform the participants who do not receive the given stimuli in the test (AJT) of English genericity in both the immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

Prediction 1b: There is a possibility that the participants who are motivated by the given stimuli will outperform the participants who are not motivated by the given stimuli on the acquisition results of genericity.

Hypothesis 2: Audio-visual media has a positive impact on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English. The motivational factors provided by the given audio-visual media and L2 learning process go hand in hand.

- Discussion of hypothesis 2:

Given that audio-visual media has the combination of moving visual images, sound track and captions, the knowledge of English vocabulary meaning can be conveyed through this combination. As is stated in Section 3.2.1, audio-visual media can provide annotation to L2 learners, thus the meaning and the form of the vocabulary can be matched. Therefore, it is likely that audio-visual media might have a positive impact on the learning of English vocabulary by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English.

In terms of the motivational factors provided by audio-visual media in learning, these might influence the learning results of English vocabulary. This is because motivation factors can make a contribution to the conscious noticing of language input and transform the input into intake, and thus promote conscious learning.

- Predictions for hypothesis 2:

Prediction 2a: Participants who receive the given stimuli of audio-visual media will outperform the participants who do not receive the given stimuli in the English vocabulary test in both the immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

Prediction 2b: Among the participants who receive the stimuli, the participants who are motivated by the given stimuli of audio-visual media will outperform the participants who are not motivated by the given stimuli in both the immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

3.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter reviewed some of the relevant literature which justified the motivation and the rationale for testing the impact of audio-visual media on

acquisition and learning by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English, on account of the issues found in English language education in the Chinese context (See Chapter Two). Language input is of great necessity in L2 acquisition and learning. Especially, the authentic L2 input, which serves as positive evidence, is beneficial in acquisition and learning. It is the type of language input which can be processed in the language module and contribute to the acquisition of underlying tacit knowledge. Considering the issues in the Chinese context that the amount of authentic L2 input is not sufficient, it is desirable to find an alternative authentic language input. Furthermore, motivation, which is a psycholinguistic property, plays an important role in language input processing. Diverse motivation factors, including integrativeness, intrinsic and extrinsic orientation, can make a contribution to the processing of language input. In consideration of the issues of motivation in the Chinese context and that learner motivation is the sole factor and undependable (i.e. easily diminished), the English learners in China would benefit from a rich source which can provide a steady flow of diverse motivation factors.

Taking all the demands into consideration, audio-visual media is proposed to be an appropriate alternative input to offer solutions to the issues in the Chinese context. Audio-visual media can: 1) provide authentic L2 input which can serve as positive evidence in L2 acquisition and learning, 2) provide a rich source where L2 learners can obtain diverse motivation factors and enhance learner's autonomy, self-efficacy and willingness to communicate. To understand what has been investigated in terms of the impact of audio-visual media in L2 research, and to highlight the research gaps, previous studies were reviewed in this chapter. Former studies have not focused on testing the longitudinal effect of audio-visual media in L2 acquisition and learning by conducting an intervention experiment. This is the gap that the current study aims to fill.

This chapter also reviewed the distinction between the processes of acquisition and learning, which validates the rationale of the current research. Acquisition and learning are two different processes, because acquisition is an unconscious process, in which the underlying tacit knowledge is accessed, whereas learning is a conscious process, in which the metalinguistic and memorised knowledge is accessed. Acquisition, which can make a contribution to linguistic competence, is engaged with the language module and associated with the poverty of stimulus effect. However, in comparison, the conscious process of learning happens in the central processing system in the mind and is not associated with poverty of stimulus. Considering the differences between these two processes, it is essential to test the impact of audio-visual media on acquisition and learning and its potential degree of contribution therein. Two test properties were involved in the experiment to test the impact of audio-visual media on acquisition and learning. They were genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping respectively. If, in the experiment, the experimental group outperforms the control group in the acquisition of English genericity and the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping, it would provides support to the argument that audio-visual media can have a positive impact on acquisition and learning. Also, in view of the motivation variable, if, and only if, the high motivation group outperforms the low motivation group and the control group, it provides support to the claim that the motivation factors offered by audio-visual media are effective in enhancing the acquisition of English genericity, and vocabulary meaning and form mapping.

Based on the literature review, two hypotheses were made in this chapter. It is predicted that audio-visual media can have a positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity and the learning of vocabulary meaning

and form mapping. The motivation factors provided by audio-visual media can possibly be effective in both the acquisition process and the learning process.

To respond to the issues found in the Chinese context and to fill the research gaps illustrated in this chapter, a one-year longitudinal experiment with intervention was designed and conducted. The next chapter will explain the research methodology in detail.

Chapter Four: Methodology

Given the research hypotheses and the predictions which were presented in Section 3.4, a longitudinal experiment, which adopted the quantitative approach, was designed to test the specific hypotheses. The current experiment consisted of a pre-test, an immediate post-test, and a delayed post-test. The participants were third and fourth year Chinese university students. In order to test the long-term effects of audio-visual media, an acceptability judgment task (AJT) was designed to test the English acquisition of genericity whilst the vocabulary test was designed to test the English learning of vocabulary. The data collected from the three stages (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test) of these two tasks with the intention of providing evidence of whether audio-visual media can have an impact on Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English acquisition of genericity and learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. In order to evaluate the effect of motivation in the experiment, the participants who received the audio-visual media stimuli were further allocated to high motivation and low motivation groups according to their self-rating on a motivation questionnaire administered after the exposure period [6]. A comparison based on the test results obtained was made, to investigate whether motivation factors influence Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English in the acquisition of genericity and learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. The experimental data came from the test results from the AJT and vocabulary test, from three experimental stages. Table 4.1 below illustrates the research stages and the methodologies adopted in the current study. The experiment lasted for a year. The timescale of testing will be presented in Section 4.2.5.

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[6] See Section 4.2.1.3

Table 4.1. Research stages and methodologies

Research stages	Methodologies
Pilot study stage	• Check the feasibility of the test questions
Pre-test stage	• Background questionnaire survey • Baseline test of the proficiency level • Test: AJT and vocabulary test
Input-given period	• *Doctor Who Series One* (13 episodes)×three times • Motivation rating questionnaire
Immediate post-test stage	• Content recalling task • Test: AJT and vocabulary test
Cooling-down period	No input and no test
Delayed post-test stage	• Test: AJT and vocabulary test

This methodology chapter contains discussions and justification of the methodological approach employed in this study. In the first section of this chapter, an overview of the methodological approach is presented. Data were collected through rigorously designed research procedures, using different research materials and tools. The validity and reliability is discussed in light of the data collection procedures. Every choice that was made during the data collection process is justified according to theoretical and practical considerations. The methods of data analysis are also presented.

4.1 An overview of the methodological approach in this study

This longitudinal study was conducted by adopting the quantitative approach. In this overview section, two main methodological features of this study, namely the quantitative approach and the longitudinal design, are

illustrated and justified in consideration of the available approaches in the field of L2 research and the nature of the variables in this study.

4.1.1 The quantitative approach

The first notable feature of this study is the application of the quantitative approach in investigating the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition and learning. Quantitative approaches allow researchers to gain insight into the research questions by collecting numerical data and analyzing it statistically (Dörnyei, 2007). The selection of the methodological approach depends on the nature and the practical circumstances of the study, and the type of data required to be analyzed. Considering the research questions and the nature of the variables in this study, the quantitative approach was adopted. Before the justification is presented, a clear illustration of the main variables of this study can be of great help, and are described below.

There were three variables in this study, two independent variables and one dependent variable. The independent variables were the language input from the audio-visual media, and the language learning motivation. The results of L2 acquisition and learning might be affected by the two independent variables. The main consideration of the language input was that it is a variable which needs strict control in terms of type, amount, frequency and treatment duration, so that the impact of language input can be generalizable. The data produced by using a quantitative approach are valid for generalisation. This is the most distinctive advantage of the quantitative approach (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, for the purpose of generalizing the effects from regarding the independent variable of language input, a quantitative approach is appropriate. In terms of the motivation variable, L2 learner motivation may be influenced by audio-visual media and affect the

result of L2 acquisition and learning. In the current study, motivation was a variable which changed over time during the input-given period. How participant motivation was influenced was very different amongst individual subjects. In order to investigate the individual change of motivational status between the research stages and to fit the motivation status into the experiment, the participants were required to rate in a few statements in a motivation questionnaire. Thus, motivation regarding different motivational factors from the audio-visual media was quantified, and appropriate for the analysis in cross-group comparisons.

The dependent variable was the test results from the acceptability judgement task and the vocabulary task in the experiment. This variable can be influenced by the independent variables of audio-visual media input and motivation.

Therefore, considering the nature of the variables in this current study, it is appropriate to design this study by adopting the quantitative approach. The research question can be examined by the elicited data, thus the results were legitimate and valid (Dörnyei, 2007). Details about the data collection will be presented and elaborated in Section 4.2.

A mixed-method approach which combines the quantitative approach and the qualitative approach had been taken into consideration of the research design before the experiment was conducted. The purpose of including the qualitative approach was to elicit more in-depth and recalled data on an individual basis, given that individual opinions and psychological variability on their language learning motivation is very important in the current study. Interviews were conducted at the end of the experiment. However, because at the time when the interviews were conducted, the majority of the participants were focusing on job applications and graduation, only a small

number of participants agreed to be interviewed. The small collection of short interviews did not provide much information on their opinions regarding their learning experience through audio-visual media and how their motivation changed in the process. Since the collected qualitative interview data is not very comprehensive and did not draw the whole picture of how audio-visual media influenced the participants individually, it is not authoritative, reliable and valid to be reported in this thesis. Therefore, only the quantitative data is reported in this thesis. A follow up study which involves trustworthy qualitative data is considered to be conducted in the future.

4.1.2 Longitudinal design

A longitudinal design was regarded as the second prominent feature of this study. By definition, a longitudinal approach refers to the method by which data are collected at a series of time points. Its counterpart is a cross-sectional approach, which refers to the method by which data are collected at a specific time point (Dörnyei, 2007). Studies in L2 research can employ both longitudinal design and cross-sectional design, but for most of the studies, a cross-sectional design is adopted due to its relatively short experimental duration and lower costs (Dörnyei, 2007). Unlike the studies which employ a cross-sectional design, the characteristics of the current study required a longitudinal design, because it takes time to measure the long-term impact of the audio-visual media. Time is the basic difference between a longitudinal and cross-sectional design. Although, the longitudinal design has the disadvantage of being time-consuming, costly and faces the threat of participant attrition, it is the only design which can measure the impact of the independent variables in the current study. In order to minimize participant attrition, a greater number of participants were recruited.

For this longitudinal experiment, I included three stages in the main study. Before the study formally began, a pilot study was conducted. The three main stages in the design were the pre-test stage, the immediate post-test stage and the delayed post-test stage. This pre-/post- test design allows the researcher to make comparisons between the results which are obtained before and after the input stimuli, so the impact of the input stimuli can be discerned. Regarding the delayed post-test, Han et al. (2008), Everaert et al. (2010) and Mackey and Gass (2005) all indicate that it is necessary to include a delayed post-test if a long-term effect is being tested. Since the research question of this study involves testing the long-term effect of the independent variables, a delayed post-test is mandatory. Details of the research stages will be presented in Section 4.2.3.

4.1.3 Brief summary

In this section, two features of the methodological approach adopted in this current research were presented. Firstly, this study employed the quantitative approach. Secondly, this study adopted a longitudinal design which had three research stages. This is a compulsory choice because the long-term effects take time to measure. With the methodological approach in mind, the data collection process will be presented and justified in the next section.

4.2 Data collection

In this section, five aspects of data collection are presented and justified with methodological theories and practical considerations. The aspects of data collection are the research participants and sampling, research materials and tools, research stages and procedures, research validity and reliability,

and research time schedule. The illustration of these five aspects can provide a comprehensive picture of how the data were obtained.

4.2.1 Research participants and sampling

In this subsection, research participants are identified by their characteristics and through the chosen criteria. The sampling method of this study was chosen in comparison with other alternative options. By utilizing the adopted sampling method, the sampling of the current study is introduced with consideration of research ethics. The details of research participants and sampling are presented as follows.

4.2.1.1 Research participants

The research participants in this current study were third and fourth year non-English-major Chinese university students. They had four characteristics in common. Firstly, they were adult L2 learners. Secondly, they had learnt English within the Chinese context and had not had immersion experience in an English speaking country. Thirdly, they did not know a third language, and only speak English and Chinese. This factor would also enable the results of the experiment to be valid, in the sense that they were not influenced by a third language. Finally, they did not have classroom instruction of L2 English during the experiment. This enabled the impact of the given stimuli of audio-visual media in the experiment to be maximized and ensure that the final results would not be affected by any factors other than audio-visual media.

4.2.1.2 Sampling method – Convenience sampling

In terms of the sampling method, I employed a non-probability sampling method called "convenience sampling". Convenience sampling, as the name implies, is a sampling type which can be conducted at the researcher's convenience, but is usually based on selected criteria (Dörnyei, 2007). In the sampling of the current study, participants were required to satisfy three criteria to be recruited in the experiment. Firstly, they needed to be university students who had received English language education in China and had not had an immersion experience in an English speaking country. Secondly, they should be in the third or fourth year of a non-English-major subject. This is because according to the current syllabus of universities in China, students receive classroom instruction of English in the first two years, whilst third and fourth year students do not have English classroom instruction. Thirdly, they should not have a third or other language in their background.

Other than convenience sampling, there are other non-probability sampling methods, including quota sampling, snowball sampling and probability sampling, which include random sampling, stratified random sampling and systematic sampling (Dörnyei, 2007). However, considering the nature of the current study, adopting probability sampling methods or the other two available options of non-probability sampling methods was not realistic. In respect of probability sampling, samples are selected on the basis of the whole population of the research subjects. Concerning the large population in China, it is unachievable to include every third and fourth year university student in this experiment and to then randomly select samples. As Dörnyei (2007) states, probability sampling methods are very complicated and costly, and they are not appropriate sampling methods in applied linguistics and L2 research. The other two non-probability sampling methods cannot be applied to the current study either. Quota sampling can only be adopted when there is a need to distinguish research subjects according to their

background. In this current research, all participants are from the same or very similar backgrounds. Therefore, quota sampling is not an appropriate method with regards to the current study. Snowball sampling can be employed when the research subjects are hard to identify. Researchers identify a sample of subjects who are suitable for the research and ask the identified subjects to include more people in the research. This sampling method is not necessary for the current study, since the targeted research subjects are easy to identify.

To summarize, compared to other available sampling methods and taking into account of practical considerations of recruiting participants who were willing to participate in the experiment and satisfy the criteria, convenience sampling was the most feasible sampling type to adopt in the current research.

4.2.1.3 Sampling in the current study

By adopting convenience sampling, 82 research participants were recruited in the experiment from four universities in China which are *Tianjin University of Finance and Economics* in Tianjin, *Tianjin Normal University* in Tianjin, *Nanfang College of Sun Yet-sen University* in Guangdong Province and *Sichuan University* in Sichuan Province. After taking the English placement test and a background information survey, 21 participants were excluded, based on three elements. Table 4.2 below shows the details of participants' exclusion.

Table 4.2. Details of excluded participants

Reasons of exclusion	Number of excluded participants
Inappropriate language proficiency	14

A third language background	2
A third language background & Immersion experience in English speaking countries	1
Inappropriate language proficiency & Immersion experience in English speaking countries	4

The overall results of the English language placement test suggested that the majority of the participants were at the intermediate level of English proficiency. Participants who were not at the intermediate level (either just below the intermediate level or just above the intermediate level) in English proficiency were excluded. 14 participants were excluded based on this single reason. Two of the participants had a third language background, and so were excluded based on this single reason. Altogether five participants were excluded based on multiple reasons. Among the five participants, one participant was excluded because of the third language background and the immersion experience in English speaking countries and four participants were excluded because of inappropriate language proficiency and the immersion experience in English speaking countries.

Apart from excluding 21 participants, one participant withdrew from the experiment before it officially started. The remaining 60 participants were randomly allocated to two groups, with 20 participants in the control group and 40 participants in the experimental group. Concerning the influence of the variable of language learning motivation in the experiment, more participants were allocated to the experimental group for the convenience of dividing the experimental group into two smaller groups, according to the participants' self-rating of motivation after the immediate post-test. Comparisons were made between the control group and the experimental group, and between the two small groups, which were divided from the experimental group after the immediate post-test according to participants'

rating of their motivation (see Section 4.2.2.5 and 4.3). The size of the sample in each of the groups in the current study was acceptable, based on Dörnyei's baseline in deciding sample size (Dörnyei: 2007: 99), which suggests that, for an experimental design, at least 15 people are needed in each group. The size of both groups in this research design exceeded 20, and therefore, the size of the groups of the current experimental design was appropriate. Figure 4.1 below summarizes the details of participant allocation.

Figure 4.1. The details of participant allocation

	After pre-test	After immediate post-test
Research participants	Experimental group Control group	High motivation group Low motivation group
	(randomly allocated)	(allocated according to ratings in motivation questionnaire)

In the pre-test stage, 60 university students participated. In the immediate-post test, seven students withdrew. In the delayed post-test, one student withdrew from the experiment. The total number of participant attrition was eight. This was unavoidable given the longitudinal nature of the project. Overall, the available data for statistical analysis were from a total of 52 participants (34 participants in the experimental group and 18 participants in the control group).

4.2.1.4 Research ethics

This study had been approved by the committee of research ethics at the University of Sheffield. Any research procedures in this research strictly complied with the guidelines of the research ethics. Before the participants were formally recruited in the experiment, I obtained their signed consent to voluntarily participate in the current research. They were aware of the commitments and tasks in engaging in this study for one year, and they had been informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time during the year. They also understood that their answers to the research tasks would be used as data in the current and future analysis only. After recruitment, every participant was assigned with a number to anonymize their personal information. All the collected data and participants' personal information were kept completely confidential.

4.2.2 Research tools and materials

In this study, a variety of research materials and tools were needed to obtain the quantitative data necessary to examine the research question. Most were especially designed for this current study. To be specific, the materials and tools employed in this quantitative experiment were: the Oxford placement test, a background information questionnaire, an AJT, a vocabulary test, the audio-visual input stimuli –*Doctor Who Series One*, and a motivation rating questionnaire. In this section, the adopted materials and tools are illustrated in individual categories, and the feasibility and justification of these tools and materials are also discussed.

4.2.2.1 Oxford placement test

The Oxford placement test was the first test given after the participants had been recruited in the current study, for the purpose of screening out inappropriate participants according to their English language proficiency.

The Oxford placement test (Allan, 1992), which is designed and published by the University of Oxford, is a quick, valid and reliable standard placement test. It is widely adopted in measuring English language learners' English proficiency. Apart from the Oxford placement test, there are other placement tests which can be employed in L2 research, such as IELTS, TOEFL, the Cambridge placement test, and so on. However, in consideration of this study's situation, it is not practical for participants to take IELTS or TOEFL, since the tests are costly and time-consuming. Admittedly, the Cambridge placement test is a good alternative which could have been applied in this study, but in comparison to the Oxford placement test, there are a larger number of questions in the Cambridge placement test. Therefore, the Oxford placement test was chosen to measure participants' English proficiency level for this study.

4.2.2.2 Background information questionnaire

For the same purpose of screening out inappropriate participants, a background information questionnaire was designed, with all of the recruiting criteria listed in Section 4.2.1.2 incorporated into the questions. The whole questionnaire is attached in Appendix One.

4.2.2.3 AJT and vocabulary test

The AJT and vocabulary test were designed in accordance with the research aims and questions. The AJT was designed to examine the impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition of genericity whereas the vocabulary test was designed to examine the impact on English learning of vocabulary.

In terms of the AJT, according to Ionin (2012), L2 learners' acceptability towards the grammaticality of the target language can provide information about their language competence. Therefore, an AJT was an ideal tool to test L2 learners' acquisition of the target property. Some questions about English genericity in the AJT employed in this research were adapted from Ionin et al.'s (2011) research material. Both NP-level genericity and sentence-level genericity are involved in the task. This is because some NP forms are only allowed in one of the two levels (i.e. indefinite singular NPs are only allowed in sentence-level genericity). If the task only involves one of the levels, the acquisition of the NP forms by the Chinese-speaking learners cannot be comprehensively examined.

The AJT used in the current study involved 18 questions related to the test properties of English genericity and 12 distractors. Among the 18 questions about the test properties, six questions tested NP-level genericity, six questions tested sentence-level genericity and six control questions tested non-generic meanings. The test items and distractors in the AJT are shown Appendix Two. These questions were answered based on a given scale, illustrated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Scale of acceptability

1	2	3	4
Totally unacceptable	Slightly unacceptable	Slightly acceptable	Totally acceptable

As for testing NP-level genericity, an example is presented below in example 1, where context is given first. In this context, no individual of the animal "stegosaurus" is mentioned, thus the "stegosaurus" can only have the interpretation of genericity. Since the sentence contains a kind predicate "extinct", this restricts the sentence to NP-generic only. As is illustrated in example 1 below, only bare plural NPs and definite singular NPs can

generate NP-level genericity. Therefore, the expected answers are choice C and E.

- Example 1: **NP-level genericity**:

Not all animals can live for centuries, some of them disappeared for good and some of them are rare. For instance, ……………… If you want to see the appearance, you will have to go to the museum and have a look at the model.

A. stegosaurus is extinct.	1	2	3	4
B. the stegosauruses are extinct.	1	2	3	4
C. the stegosaurus is extinct.	1	2	3	4
D. a stegosaurus is extinct.	1	2	3	4
E. stegosauruses are extinct.	1	2	3	4

Example 2 is given below to illustrate sentence-level genericity. The context provided is generic, because no individual "red purse" is mentioned. Since "red purse" is not a well-defined kind of purse, it cannot generate NP-level genericity but only be involved in sentence-level genericity. As is illustrated in Example 2, only bare plural NPs and indefinite singular NPs can be compatible with non-well defined kinds. Therefore, the expected answers are choice B and D.

- Example 2: **Sentence-level genericity**:

When you buy accessories, you need to consider the colour. Some colours are quite attractive; therefore your accessory is in danger of stealing. For instance, ……………… If you choose dark colours, it is safer.

A. red purse can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
B. a red purse can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4

C. the red purse can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
D. red purses can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
E. the red purses can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4

The reason for including the control questions in singular and plural anaphoric contexts was to help check the participants' knowledge about English genericity in the pre-test. To correctly express English genericity, the distinction between singular NPs and plural NPs and the use of articles are essential. By comparing the performances of the participants in singular anaphoric contexts and plural anaphoric contexts, whether the participants were aware of the singular-plural distinction, can be discerned. Regarding the use of articles, in English, articles are adopted to express both genericity and definiteness (in anaphoric contexts). If the participants show good performance in using articles in the anaphoric context, then the participants know the use of articles. If the participants use articles randomly in the anaphoric context, it is possible that the participants would use articles randomly in the test generic context as well. Based on the answers of the participants from the anaphoric context, we can understand whether the pre-test results in English genericity really reflect the participants' knowledge of English genericity.

With regard to the control questions in English anaphoric contexts in the AJT, an example (Example 3) is shown below. The "cat" and the "squirrels" are mentioned in a context, so they are specific to that context. In example 3, only the definite singular NP "the cat" in the singular anaphoric context and the definite plural NP "the squirrels" in the plural anaphoric context can express specific meaning grammatically. Thus, the expected answers are choice A and D respectively.

- Example 3: **Control questions in anaphoric contexts**:

Tom's room is a total mess. Papers and books are thrown everywhere. And there are even pets including a cat and two squirrels. The pets are quite weird. For example………..

(Singular anaphoric context)

A. the cat eats grass.	1	2	3	4
B. a cat eats grass.	1	2	3	4
C. cat eats grass.	1	2	3	4
D. the cats eat grass.	1	2	3	4
E. cats eat grass.	1	2	3	4

(Plural anaphoric context)

A. a squirrel does not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
B. the squirrel does not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
C. squirrels do not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
D. the squirrels do not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
E. squirrel does not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4

In terms of the 12 distractors, questions about English tense and aspect were included and adapted from online modal tests of TEM 4 or CET 4. The grammaticality and feasibility of the distractors had been checked by a group of native speakers in the pilot study.

Regarding the vocabulary test[7], all the test items came from the input stimuli, and the distractors did not appear in the given stimuli. This test was designed by the researcher and its feasibility had also been tested by the same group of native speakers. There were two tasks in the vocabulary test: a choice task and a translation task. The choice task examined the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping in an implicit way (i.e. the

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[7] A sample of the vocabulary test is included in Appendix Three.

participants did not have to spell out the vocabulary meaning in their L1, but only had to choose a suitable word in meaning in the given context), and the translation task, which examined the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping in an explicit way (i.e. the participants need to spell out the vocabulary meaning in their L1). The contexts in the choice task were adapted from online examples.

In the choice task, there were altogether a total of 30 questions, among which there were 20 test items and 10 distractors. In the translation task, there were 25 items, of which there were 15 test items and 10 distractors. The test items in both the tasks were chosen from the audio-visual media input. In order to select the words which were new to the participants (i.e. not included in either the teaching syllabus or the CET 4 and the CET 6 examination syllabus), and to keep the consistency of the chosen word frequency in the audio-visual media input, a small corpus using the software *Wordsmith* was built. Based on the result from the corpus, it was found that most words which appeared twice in the audio-visual media were new according to the participants' existing knowledge, by comparing the appearance of the words in the audio-visual media and the syllabi. From these words, 35 words for both the choice task and the translation task were selected in total. Since the participants in the experiment were required to watch the given audio-visual media three times[8] in the intervention period, they had the opportunity to encounter each of the 35 words for six times.

In terms of the translation task, the participants were given the English words, and were required to give the translated meaning in Chinese. No contexts were included. As for the choice task in the vocabulary test, a sample question (Example 4) is presented below. In this question, a context was introduced. The participants were asked to choose a suitable word to

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[8] See Section 4.2.3.2

put in the blank in the given context from a selection of four words. In the example below, the context implied that "she" lost her memory because of her trauma. According to the meaning, insomnia, cafeteria and bacteria were not appropriate in this context. Therefore the correct answer is B.

- Example 4: **Question in the vocabulary choice task**

Her trauma was so severe that she suffered _____ and didn't recognize her husband, whom she had married just two months earlier. (Adapted from the example in www. jukuu.com)

A. insomnia   **B. amnesia**   C. cafeteria   D. bacteria

Both the test items in the AJT and the vocabulary test were used in the pre-test, the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test. The distractors in the two tasks were changed at each of the research stages, to avoid the situation that the participants were familiar with all the questions and answered in a mechanical way. The distractors were adapted from samples of CET 4, so that the difficulty level of the two tests remained the same throughout the experiment.

4.2.2.4 Stimuli of audio-visual media –*Doctor Who*

Doctor Who was the English language input stimuli of the audio-visual media in this current study. It is a classic British television science-fiction series, produced by the BBC. Up to the present, it has produced nine series since 2005. Considering the time scale of this study, only the first complete series was selected. The first series contains 13 episodes. Each episode lasts for 45 minutes. This input of audio-visual media was selected through two steps. For the first step, an English TV series was selected. As stated in the introduction chapter, the most common type of English audio-visual media that students in mainland China can receive are English films, English TV

series, English TV news and English animation. Among these types, an English TV series was chosen because it has the advantage of involving several episodes which are consistent in the content and so is more suitable for the longitudinal design of the study. Also, this English TV series is suitable for adult English learners. Admittedly, English films, TV news and English animations would also be good choices. However, English films and TV news are comparatively short, thus they are not suitable in longitudinal design, and English animation is arguably more suitable for young learners rather than adult learners. Therefore, English animation was also excluded from this study.

For the second step, in order to select the appropriate stimuli of English TV series for the current study, a pilot questionnaire survey[9] about interesting types of TV series was conducted among Chinese university students. This questionnaire consisted of three questions. The first was designed to obtain the general preference for the type of English TV series among Chinese university students, defined according to the content of the series. The definition of each type was made clear at the very beginning of the questionnaire, to ensure that respondents understood the types. The second question was designed to ask the students to give some examples. The third question was designed to find out possible reasons of personal interests in a TV series. Conducting this pilot questionnaire was necessary as is stated in Section 4.2.1.3, the experimental group would need to be divided into two smaller groups, according to motivational differences after the immediate post-test (also see Section 4.2.2.5 and 4.3). The selected stimuli of audio-visual media should be neutral in participant preferences, so that the number of the two small groups within the experimental group can be balanced. Though the respondents were not the subjects who participated in the experiment, since the subjects were also Chinese university students

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[9] See Appendix Four for more information.

who had similar backgrounds, this questionnaire survey was quite representative. The results from this questionnaire can provide preliminary guidance in choosing the input stimuli, and 54 valid questionnaires were obtained. The analysis of the results is shown in Figure 4.2 below.

Figure 4.2. The analysis of the questionnaires for TV series selection
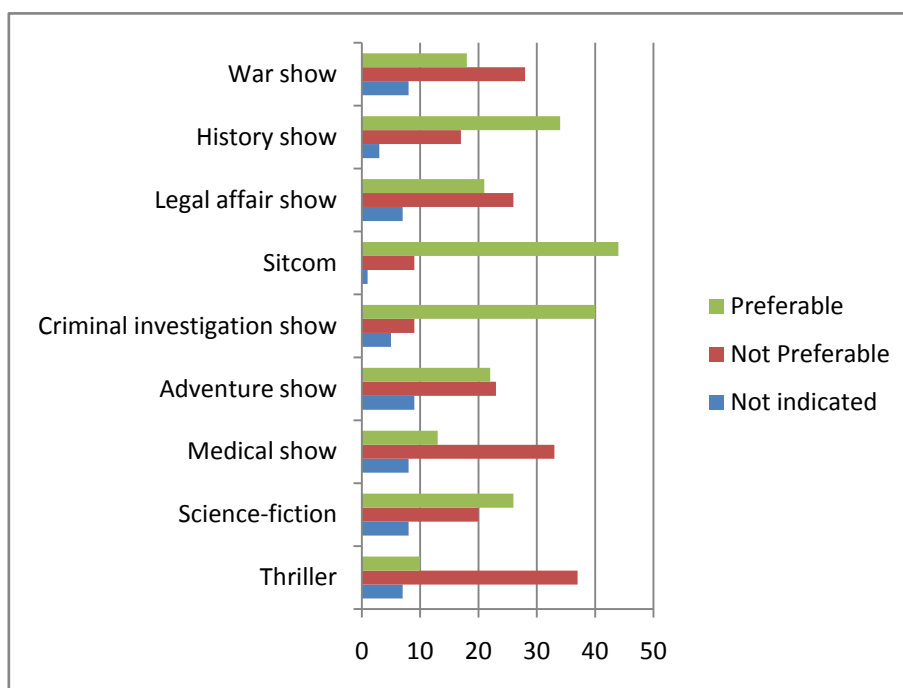
As Figure 4.2 indicates, adventure shows, science-fiction and legal affair shows received a relatively neutral preference. Based on this result and collected answers from the second and third question, *Doctor Who* was chosen as the English TV series to serve as the stimuli of English language input.

The TV series *Doctor Who* was also chosen for the generic expressions involved in this series. English generic expressions are frequently seen in the first complete series of *Doctor Who*. Plenty of generic expressions in *Doctor Who (Series One)* validated the adoption of this TV series in the current research. By counting the generic expressions in each episode, the mean frequency of the appearance of generic expressions in the first series

(13 episodes) was 103. Since TV series, including *Doctor Who,* are protected by copyright, it is essential to comply with regulations in this area when conducting this research. In this study, all the authorized DVDs of *Doctor Who* were purchased from Amazon.co.uk by the researcher and were sent by mail to the participants in China who had been randomly allocated to the experimental group.

When the participants watched the given audio-visual stimuli of Doctor Who, they were required to turn on the subtitle provided in the DVD. This is because, the subtitle can be a facilitative tool to help the participants visualize the lexical information and recognise the given input in its written form. It is well documented that subtitles are beneficial in second language acquisition and learning and lead to greater depth of input processing (Sherwood et al., 1987; Hummel, 1995; Al-Seghayer, 2001; Danan, 2004). Subtitles can facilitate L2 learners to process the auditory input they receive in the audio-visual media. Thought the visual system and the auditory system operate independently, the two systems are interrelated. By referring to the redundancy hypothesis (Sherwood et. al., 1987), the researchers suggested that audio-visual media with subtitles allows the learners to get exposure of the same piece of information twice. The dual-modal redundancy of information allows learners to recall more information and thus their depth of processing is strongly promoted (Al-Seghayer, 2001; Danan, 2004).

Subtitle is especially helpful in L2 vocabulary learning. Many studies have demonstrated the impact of subtitles in L2 vocabulary learning. Harji et al. (2010) conducted research aiming to test the subtitle effect on Iranian students' English vocabulary learning. The researchers recruited 92 Iranian university students and divided them into two groups: the experimental group and the control group. Before entering the treatment period, all the

participants were invited to take the pre-test to control for their language proficiency. During the treatment period, the experimental group received instructional video episodes with subtitles, whereas the control group received the same videos without subtitles. After the treatment, the participants in the two groups were invited to take a vocabulary test. The t-test analysis of the two groups' performances revealed that the experimental group, who received the video with subtitles, significantly outperformed the control group. This result provided empirical support for the impact of subtitles in L2 vocabulary learning through audio-visual media. Similar studies have been replicated and conducted by several researchers (BavaHarji, et al., 2014; Hashemi et al., 2015; Hsu et al., 2013; Marzban and Zamanian, 2015; Sydorenko, 2010). All of these studies further confirmed and demonstrated the efficacy of subtitles in vocabulary learning.

Given that subtitles are theoretically and practically beneficial in L2 acquisition and learning, the participants were required to turn on the subtitles when they watched the provided audio-visual stimuli.

4.2.2.5 Motivation rating questionnaire

The last tool used in the quantitative experimental design was the motivation rating questionnaire. The reason for including this questionnaire was to provide evidence when dividing the experimental cohort into groups. The related motivation factors, discussed in Section 3.1.3, were involved in this questionnaire. There were six questions included in this motivation rating questionnaire. The questions were designed to investigate the participants' motivation regarding their attitude to culture (Question 1), determination (Question 2), enjoyment (Question 3), achievement

orientation (Question 4), instrumentality (Question 5) and the English media orientation (Question 6). The questions are listed below in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. The motivation rating questionnaire

1. After watching this episode of the TV series, I start to purely love and enjoy learning English, because I am motivated to understand the culture of English-speaking countries, to communicate with the local people and to integrate to the society of English-speaking countries.
2. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because it (this episode) stimulates my determination of learning English.
3. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because learning English through watching a TV series is enjoyable and entertaining.
4. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because it (this episode) brought me a sense of achievement in English learning.
5. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, to have further education in English-speaking countries, to find an English related job, or to reside in English-speaking countries.
6. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because I want to understand and enjoy watching this episode and other English TV series (or understand English songs).

Participants in the experimental group were asked to fill in this motivation rating questionnaire every time they watched an episode of *Doctor Who* (the participants needed to fill in the motivation rating questionnaire 39 times: 13 episodes× three times of watching). They graded the episodes that they watched from one star to five stars (weak to strong), to show to what extent they were motivated by the given audio-visual media.

4.2.3 Research stages and procedures

Following the experimental procedures, research tests and tasks were incorporated into different research stages to elicit the quantitative data. It is worth noting that in this current research, all the data were obtained via communications over the internet, due to the fact that all the participants lived in China whilst the researcher was based in the UK. It was impossible, and impractical, to do the experiment face-to-face. By collecting the data over the internet, the participants could be accessed from a long distance, and the costs of the experiment were minimized. In particular, the administration of the tests was convenient. In particular, the time for answering specific questions could be controlled.[10]

In this section, the research stages and the corresponding tasks at each stage are further elaborated.

4.2.3.1 Pilot study

Before the formal experiment was conducted, a pilot study was implemented to check the feasibility of the research materials and test the experimental procedures. By conducting the pilot study, the risk of the current experiment being flawed can be minimized.

In the pilot study of the current research, I tested the materials and the experimental procedures in two stages. In the first stage, I checked the feasibility of all the research materials with a group of English native speakers (n=8). The research materials were revised and finalized according to their answers. Ungrammatical items and inappropriate expressions, and

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[10] These advantages are all identified by Dörnyei (2007: 121).

contexts were reformulated. In the second stage, the feasibility of the research procedures was checked via the internet with a group of Chinese-speaking learners of English (n=6). All the technical operations and research procedures were checked in terms of feasibility. After the pilot study was completed, the research materials were finalized, and the process of recruiting participants according to the criteria began.

4.2.3.2 Pre-test and the stimuli input period

In the pre-test stage, there were four tasks which needed to be completed. These were: a placement test, a background information questionnaire, an AJT, and a vocabulary test aimed at recording the initial baseline of the participants before the input period. The first was the proficiency test, designed to ensure every subject was at the same proficiency level. The background questionnaire survey was also conducted for the purpose of ensuring that the participants had a similar background in their past English language education. Participants who had different backgrounds compared to the majority were excluded. The AJT and the vocabulary test were chosen to examine the subjects' language acquisition and learning respectively. These two early stage tests recorded the baseline for each group.

After the pre-test, the English language input stimuli from the audio-visual media *Doctor Who (Series One)*, was given to the experimental group. In the period in which the stimuli were given, participants in the control group did not receive any stimuli from English audio-visual media and were required to not watch other English audio-visual media. They did nothing related to English language learning. This was confirmed through the content recalling task every month during the input period and a self-report after the input-given period. Participants who did not comply with this requirement would be excluded.

Five months were spent in the input-given period after the pre-test. This length of treatment was decided on practical considerations. Regarding the length of the treatment period, there is no consensus on this issue in the field of L2 research. In the studies which relate to audio-visual input, the treatment time was generally very short and in an instant manner. Van Lommel et al.'s study (2006) was especially criticized for the short time of treatment as referred to Section 3.2.2. Other studies in L2 research and applied linguistics have suggested that the length of treatment usually ranges from one week (Gass, 1994) to a few weeks (seven weeks in Gil, et al., 2013a and 12 weeks in Neuman and Koskinen, 1992). It is necessary to ensure that the treatment period is long enough to show the impact if it exists. Considering the academic duration of the current PhD study, five months was the longest time that could be spent in giving input stimuli to the participants. If we analogize the number of contact hours that the participants can receive in their first and second year of English instruction, to the amount in the current study, over five months, the participants can watch two episodes every week and the *Doctor Who (Series One)* three times. This amount in hours and frequency per week is considered to be appropriate and acceptable for the participants who were busy with their undergraduate studies at the same time. Within the input-given period, participants in the experimental group were required to fill in the motivation rating questionnaire every time they watched an episode of *Doctor Who*. After 5 months, the immediate post-test was conducted.

4.2.3.3 Immediate post-test

In the immediate post-test, two parts of the tasks were carried out. One essential part was the test tasks. Apart from the repeated AJT and the vocabulary test, a content recalling task was exclusively added at this stage.

In this task, the participants in the experimental group were asked to summarize the main ideas of each episode in the given audio-visual stimuli and retell the content in a diary. This task was implemented for the purpose of examining whether the subjects really watched all the given stimuli. This was checked throughout the five-month exposure to *Doctor Who*. If the participants did not watch all the TV series, they would be screened out. The content recalling task was conducted on a monthly basis. At this stage, seven participants withdrew from the experiment. The remaining 53 participants then moved into a five-month cooling down period.

4.2.3.4 Cooling down period and the delayed post-test

The delayed post-test stage was included for the purpose of examining the long-term effect of the audio-visual media input and was conducted five months after the immediate post-test. Within the cooling down period of five months, both the control group and the experimental group received no TV stimuli. This was checked by the participant self-reports. If they watched English language TV stimuli in the cooling down period, they would be excluded. Regarding the duration choice of the cooling down period, Mackey and Gass (2005) indicate that this duration can range from one week to two or three months. In order to maximize the long-term effects, if these long-term effects do exist, due to the practical situation of the current study and with reference to the previous studies, five months was chosen for the duration of the cooling down period.

Similar to the previous two stages, an AJT and a vocabulary test were repeated. The questions in the tests were rearranged and the distractors were also changed. At this stage, one participant withdrew from the experiment. The final number of participants in this experiment was a total of 52.

4.2.4 Research validity and reliability

This research was designed and conducted strictly in compliance with research validity and reliability. By definition, research validity has the meaning that every aspect of the experimental design is valid. Research reliability refers to consistency, especially in adopted instruments, materials and scales (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

In terms of research validity, Mackey and Gass (2005) indicate that there are many types of validity, such as content validity, criterion-related validity, internal validity and external validity. This research design was valid in consideration of the above types. As for content validity, the AJT and vocabulary test covered target test items. The selected input stimuli also contained sufficient examples of English generic expressions and test vocabulary items. Regarding criterion-related validity, participants were recruited in the current study based on their results in the Oxford placement test. This English proficiency test is a well-established instruments used for measuring participants. Recruiting conditions were sound and valid. Thus validity is demonstrated. In respect of internal validity which refers to the extent of the impact from the independent variable (Mackey and Gass, 2005), this research was carefully designed in recruiting participants and preparing research materials to rule out any possible uncontrolled variables which might affect the final results. Participants were selected based on both the proficiency test and the background information questionnaire. These two tasks ensured that every participant was on the same level of proficiency and had a similar language background and English language education experience. Uncontrolled variables which came from the participants' language level were, to the largest extent, eliminated. The degree of difficulty in the research tasks, especially the AJT and the vocabulary test, remained the same in each of the stages in order to avoid

unexpected results. With regard to external validity which refers to the generalisability that the research can achieve (Mackey and Gass, 2005), the design was constructed so as to be externally valid in this current study. The external validity is mainly reflected in the procedure of sampling. Students were recruited from 4 universities located in different cities and provinces of China. This method of recruitment reduced any possible influence due to geographical influences. Also, participants in the experiment were randomly allocated to either the control group or the experimental group. This would strengthen the validity of generalisability in this research.

With respect to research reliability which refers to research consistency (Mackey and Gass, 2005), this study had materials and tools designed to achieve consistency. All the test items, in terms of the AJT and the vocabulary test, remained the same in each of the research stages except for the distractors. They were designed to be consistent throughout the whole study.

4.2.5 Time schedule

This was a longitudinal study. The span of the research was one year. The time schedule is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Time schedule

Research stages	Schedule
Pilot study	June 2013 – November 2013
Pre-test	December 2013
Input-given period	February 2014 – June 2014
Immediate post-test	Early July 2014
Cooling down period	July 2014 – November 2014
Delayed post-test	Late November 2014

4.3 The methods for data analysis

In this research, the quantitative data were obtained from different tasks. Data obtained from the proficiency test were graded according to the well-established scale of the Oxford placement test.

Data obtained from the motivation rating questionnaire were rated according to the rating scale (see Figure 4.3 below). The definitions of the degree from one star to five stars were clearly given to avoid conceptual misunderstanding. Participants needed to rate 39 times (13 episodes×3) regarding the six motivation factors involved in the questionnaire. The overall mean rating was calculated first and the mean rating for each of the motivation factors were also calculated. If the participants had a mean rating above three stars, they were regarded as participants with high motivation (in the overall motivation or in the individual motivation factor). If they had a mean rating below three stars, they were regarded as participants with low motivation (in the overall motivation or in the individual motivation factor). If they happened to have a mean rating of exactly three stars in either the overall motivation or in the individual motivation factor, they were temporarily excluded. According to this grouping method, the participants in the experimental group were further divided into two flexible smaller groups based on their overall motivation meaning rating and individual motivation mean rating after the immediate post-test.

Figure 4.3. Motivation rating scale – average rating scale

Unmotivated		Neutral	Motivated	
★	★★	★★★	★★★★	★★★★★

Based on the calculation of the mean rating regarding the overall motivation, there were 15 participants in the experimental group with high motivation

and 19 participants in the experimental group with low motivation, as is seen in Table 4.6 below. No participants had a meaning rating of three stars. Therefore none of them were excluded.

Table 4.6. Group allocation after immediate post-test

	Number of Participants		Number of Participants
Experimental group (Group 0)	34	Experimental group with high motivation (Group 1)	15
		Experimental group with low motivation (Group 2)	19
Control group (Group 3)	18	Control group (Group 3)	18

Table 4.7 below presents the number of participants in the high motivation group and the low motivation group, according to the mean ratings in each of the motivation factors. In the categories of attitude to culture, enjoyment, instrumentality and the English media orientation, no participants were excluded, because none of them had a meaning rating of three stars. In the categories of determination and achievement orientation, there were participants who had a meaning rating of three stars. Thus, these participants were temporarily excluded just in the examination of determination and achievement orientation.

Table 4.7. Number of participants with high motivation and low motivation
in individual motivation factors

	High motivation	Low motivation
Attitude to culture	17	17
Determination	16	16
Enjoyment	17	17

Achievement orientation	15	18
Instrumentality	13	21
The English media orientation	23	11

The accuracy of the AJT was judged based on the raw data conversion method illustrated below. According to the design of the AJT, a 1-4 scale of acceptability was adopted in the test sheet. For the convenience of data interpretation and presentation, the raw data were converted into either accurate (one point added) or inaccurate (no point added), as shown in Table 4.8. In each of the contexts in the AJT, there were five sentences for the participants to judge acceptability. Among the five sentences, there was at least one sentence which was grammatical. If the participants chose to accept the grammatical sentence in the context, their choices were considered as accurate. Otherwise, their choices were treated as inaccurate. After all the data were converted to accuracy rates, the mean accuracy rates were calculated. The statistical analysis for the AJT was based on the mean accuracy rates.

Table 4.8. Raw data conversion

Raw data conversion		
Consistent with grammaticality of the sentence in the context		
	1 or 2	3 or 4
Point for each question	**+0**	**+1**
Inconsistent with grammaticality of the sentence in the context		
	1 or 2	3 or 4
Point for each question	**+1**	**+0**

In terms of the translation task, the accuracy of the participants' answers was judged by comparing their translations with the translations provided in the *Oxford Advanced learner's English-Chinese dictionary* (Hornby, 2008).

If the answers were consistent with the translations in the dictionary, the answers were regarded as accurate. When the participants got one word accurate, they were given one point. If they got all the test items accurate, the highest mark they could achieve was 15. Regarding the choice task, the accuracy of the participants' choice was judged according to the piloted answers by a cohort of native English speakers. If the participants' choice was consistent with the native speakers' choice, their choice was marked as accurate and the participants were given one point. The highest score that the participants could have on the test items in the choice task was 20. Statistical analysis was conducted based on the scores that the participants obtained.

The data, which were obtained from the AJT and the vocabulary test, were statistically analyzed by using repeated measures of t-tests and one-way ANOVA in SPSS, if the data were in a normal distribution (Larson-Hall, 2010). The reason for choosing t-tests and the repeated measures of one-way ANOVA was on the grounds that they best fitted the research design of this study.

4.4 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the methodological approaches adopted in the current research. The data collection process and the plan of data analysis are discussed in detail. Overall, this study employed the quantitative approach and a one-year longitudinal design. A three-fold longitudinal experimental design with intervention, which included a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test, was adopted. There were two independent variables (audio-visual media input and motivation) and one dependent variable (test results) in the experiment. All the materials used in the experiment had been piloted before the formal experiment. Under the

guidance of this methodological approach, data collection was implemented. By adopting the method of convenience sampling, 82 non-English major Chinese university students who were in their third or fourth year were initially recruited as participants. A total of 21 participants were excluded because of their inappropriate English proficiency, their third language background or their previous immersion experience in an English speaking country. Before the experiment officially started, one participant withdrew. The remaining 60 participants were tested in the AJT (testing English genericity) and the vocabulary test (testing the knowledge of vocabulary meaning and form mapping) in the pre-test stage and they were randomly allocated to either the experimental group (n=40) and the control group (n=20). After the pre-test, over a period of five months, the participants in the experimental group received the input stimuli of audio-visual media, *Doctor Who (Series One)* for three times, whereas the control group did not receive any stimuli. When the participants in the experimental group watched the given TV series, they were asked to fill in the motivation rating questionnaire for a total of 39 times. After the TV stimuli input period, all the 60 participants were invited to take the immediate post-test which involved the AJT and the vocabulary test. At this stage, seven participants withdrew from the experiment. The participants who received the audio-visual media stimuli were asked to recall the content of *Doctor Who*, to ensure that they had really watched the given stimuli. Then, the remaining 53 participants began the cooling down period. During this period of five months, no stimuli and no tests were given. After the cooling down period, all the 53 participants were invited to again take the delayed post-test, the AJT and the vocabulary test. At this delayed-post test stage, one participant withdrew. Finally, the data collected for further analysis came from 52 participants. According to the ratings in the motivation questionnaire, the experimental group were flexibly allocated into the high motivation group and the low motivation group, for the purpose of examining the impact of

the motivation variable in the experiment. The next chapter will present the analysis of the collected data and the experimental results based on the analysis methods shown in Section 4.3.

Chapter Five: Data analysis and results

This chapter reports the results and the analysis from the data obtained in the intervention experiment, and is divided in to two sections to report the results from the AJT and the vocabulary test respectively. To roughly preview the results, it was found in the AJT that:

> 1) The participants did not know English genericity in the pre-test.
>
> 2) Generally speaking, audio-visual media had a weak positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity.
>
> 3) The motivation factors from audio-visual media did not positively influence participant acquisition of English genericity.

The results in the vocabulary test revealed that:

> 1) Audio-visual media was positively influential in the results shown in the translation task in the long term. However, it was not influential in the results shown in the choice task.
>
> 2) The motivation factors from audio-visual media (both the overall motivation and the six individual motivation factors) were positively influential in the translation task in the long term, but they were not influential in the choice task.

Section 5.1 and Section 5.2 present and elucidate the results from the AJT and the vocabulary test in detail. Accompanied with the statistical facts in each section, the interpretations of the results are presented.

5.1 Results from the AJT

The AJT was designed to investigate whether audio-visual media and the motivation factors from audio-visual media can have an impact on the acquisition of English genericity (see Section 4.2.2.3). In this task, the NP-level genericity and the sentence-level genericity in English were tested respectively. To understand the participants' knowledge of English genericity in the pre-test, an anaphoric context was introduced. This section reports on the results regarding participant acquisition of English genericity at the NP-level and sentence-level in relation to audio-visual media and the motivation factors from audio-visual media respectively. Analysis in this section cover the illustration of the data and results attained from the AJT in three different stages (Time ①: Pre-test; Time ②: Immediate post-test; Time ③: Delayed post-test).

5.1.1 Participant knowledge about English genericity in the pre-test

As is stated in Section 4.2.2.3, it is necessary to check to what extent the participants know English genericity in the pre-test, before the stimuli of audio-visual media is provided. This is checked by analysing the pre-test results from the controlled anaphoric contexts in the AJT. There are two parts of knowledge which need to be examined in the anaphoric contexts. They are the singular-plural distinction and the participants' knowledge about the use of articles. In terms of the examination of the singular-plural distinction, Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 below presents the mean accuracy rates of different NP forms in the singular and the plural anaphoric contexts respectively.

Table 5.1. Mean accuracy rates of different NPs in singular anaphoric context[11]

	√ Definite singular NPs	# Indefinite singular NPs	* Bare singular NPs	* Definite plural NPs	* Bare plural NPs
Experimental group	0.7157	0.4902	0.5196	0.6176	0.598
Control group	0.7407	0.4444	0.4074	0.6852	0.6111
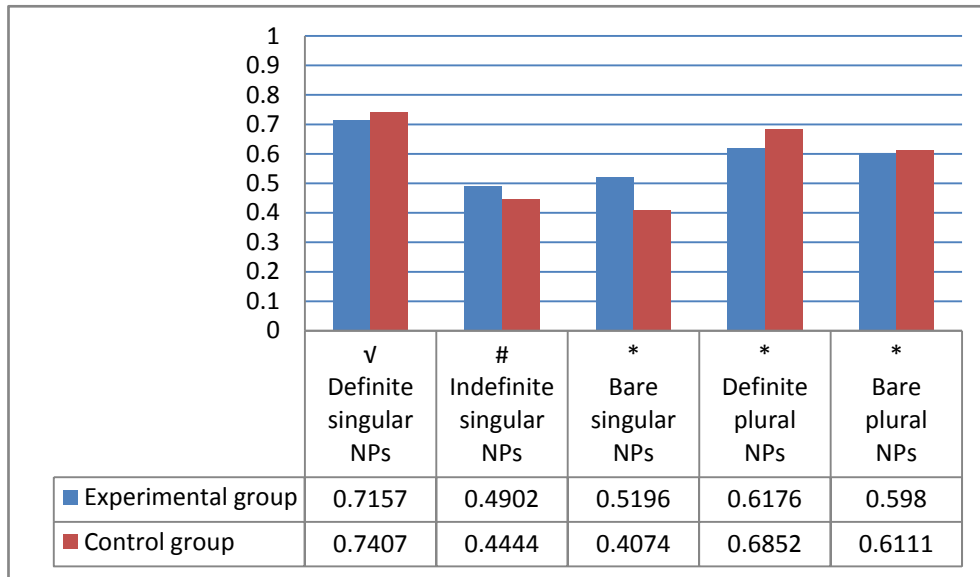
Table 5.2. Mean accuracy rates of different NPs in plural anaphoric context

	* Definite singular NPs	* Indefinite singular NPs	* Bare singular NPs	√ Definite plural NPs	# Bare plural NPs
Experimental group	0.402	0.3431	0.6078	0.5784	0.402
Control group	0.5	0.3889	0.6667	0.7963	0.3333
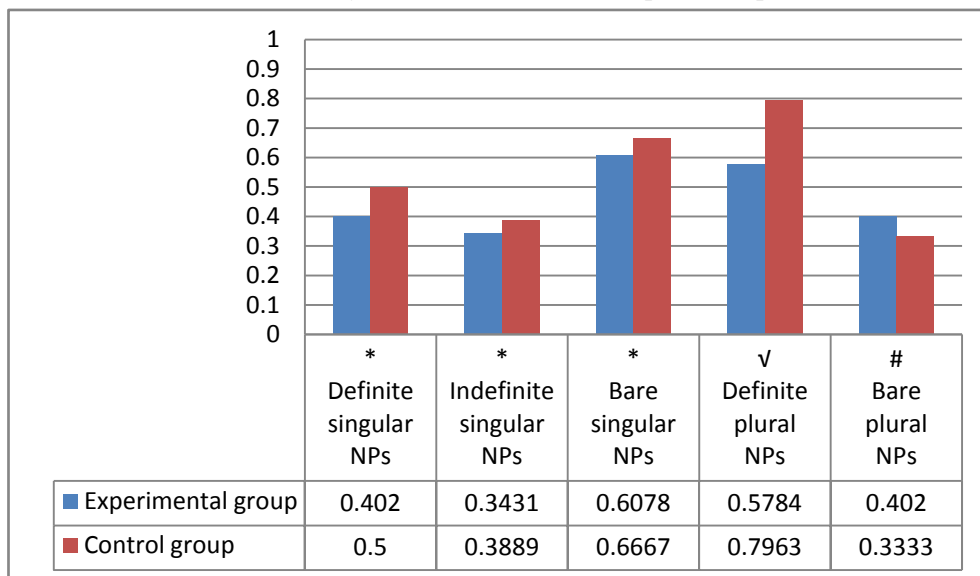
As is shown in the two tables above, the participants in both the groups correctly rejected definite plural NPs and bare plural NPs in the singular anaphoric context. This provides evidence that the participants were aware of the singular-plural distinction in English. However, the participants in both the two groups over accepted definite singular NPs in the plural anaphoric context, which undermined the evidence that they discern the

---

[11] # marks the infelicity (i.e. unnatural in the context, yet grammatical)

* marks the ungrammaticality

difference between singular and plural marking. Therefore, overall, the participants were not fully aware of the singular-plural distinction in English.

Regarding the examination of the participants' knowledge about the use of articles in anaphoric context, it is seen from Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 that the participants accepted both definite singular NPs and bare singular NPs in the singular anaphoric context. They also accepted both definite plural NPs and bare singular NPs in the plural anaphoric context. This result revealed that the participants cannot distinguish definite singular NPs and bare singular NPs, and they had problems in using the article "the".

After the examination of the participants' knowledge of the singular-plural distinction and the use of articles in the controlled anaphoric context, I shall now examine to what extent the participants know English genericity. Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 below show the mean accuracy rates of different NP forms at NP-level and sentence-level genericity in the pre-test stage.

Table 5.3. Mean accuracy rates of different NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	√ Definite singular NPs	# Indefinite singular NPs	* Bare singular NPs	# Definite plural NPs	√ Bare plural NPs
Experimental group	0.598	0.6029	0.4902	0.4265	0.7794
Control group	0.6944	0.5278	0.3426	0.3426	0.8241
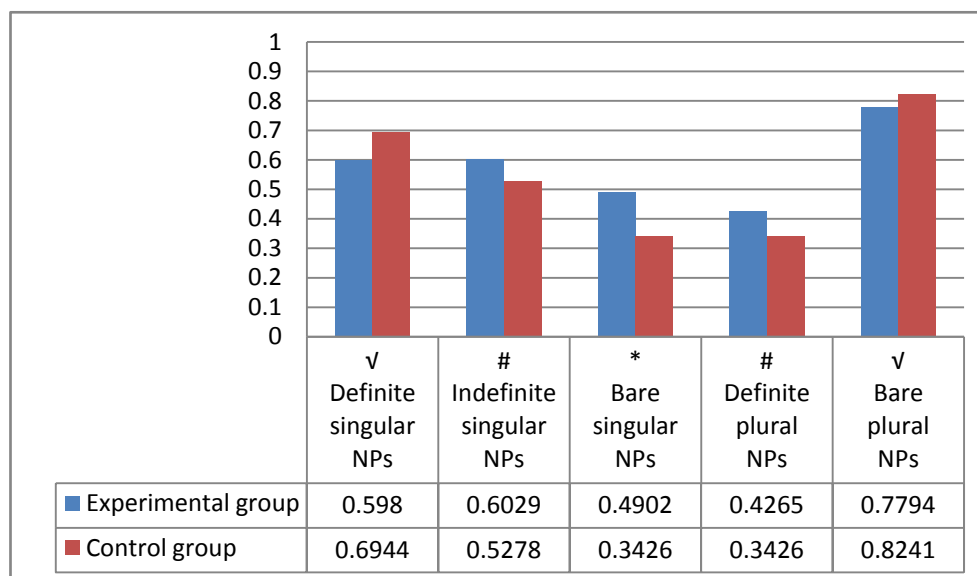
Table 5.4. Mean accuracy rates of different NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	# Definite singular NPs	√ Indefinite singular NPs	* Bare singular NPs	# Definite plural NPs	√ Bare plural NPs
Experimental group	0.2843	0.652	0.3971	0.4853	0.6324
Control group	0.287	0.75	0.4352	0.4815	0.75
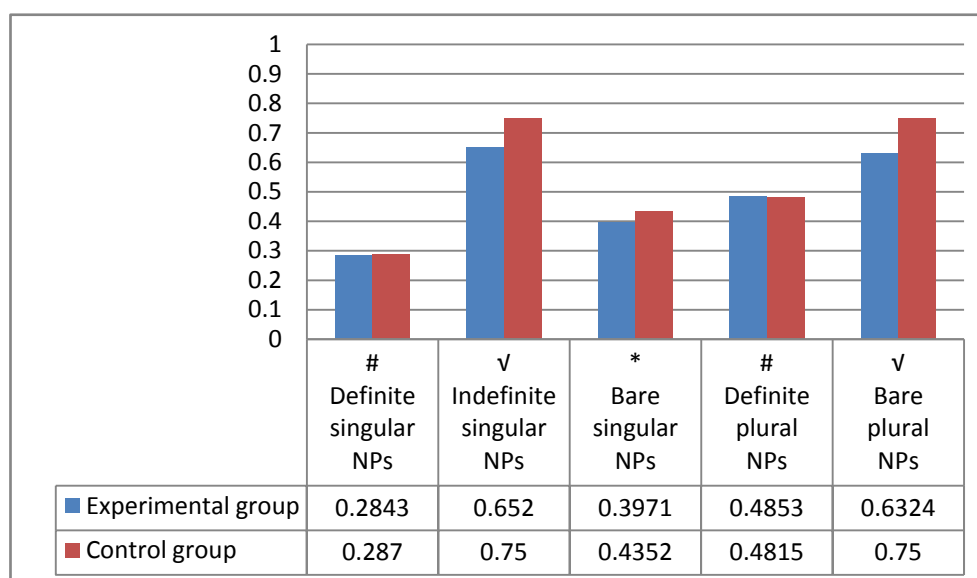
As was predicted in Section 3.3.2.1.3, the participants may not have difficulties in acquiring indefinite singular NPs at both the two levels of English genericity, because in Chinese there is a similar form (indefinite classifier phrases) which has the same function as indefinite singular NPs in English genericity. As is shown in Table 5.3 and 5.4, the mean accuracy rates of indefinite singular NPs at both NP-level and sentence-level genericity is quite high (above 0.5), which illustrated this prediction.

It was also predicted that the Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English may have difficulties and learnability problems in acquiring definite singular NPs, bare singular NPs, definite plural NPs and bare plural NPs at NP-level and sentence-level English genericity, because there is no article system and plural marking in Chinese. The acquisition of bare singular NPs may suffer from the transfer from the L1. As is presented in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4, the mean accuracy rates of bare singular NPs at both the two levels are below 0.5, which means that the participants over accepted bare singular NPs in English genericity. This demonstrated that the participants were influenced by their L1 Chinese in expressing English genericity.

It is seen from the two tables above that they had high mean accuracy rates of bare plural NPs in English genericity at both the two levels. However, I argue that the high mean accuracy rates do not reflect the fact that the participants knew the grammaticality of bare plural NPs in English genericity. This is because the participants cannot distinguish singular NPs and plural NPs in English. Therefore, the participants treat bare plural NPs the same as bare singular NPs in English. Based on the fact that in Chinese, bare (singular) NPs are acceptable in expressing generic meaning, the participants accepted bare plural NPs in English genericity as well.

Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 also show that the participants had high accuracy rates in accepting definite singular NPs at NP-level genericity and low accuracy rates in rejecting definite singular NPs at sentence-level genericity and definite plural NPs at both NP-level and sentence-level genericity. In other words, the participants accepted definite singular NPs and definite plural NPs in English genericity at both levels. I argue that the participants' performance of definite singular NPs and definite plural NPs in the generic context in the pre-test do not reflect their knowledge of English genericity. This is because the participants were not aware of the use of "the" and

plural marking in English. Thus, they cannot distinguish bare singular NPs from definite singular NPs and definite plural NPs. Due to the fact that bare singular NPs are compatible with kind predicates and 'not-well-defined' kind in Chinese, the participants accepted definite singular NPs and definite plural NPs at both the NP-level and sentence-level English genericity according to the transfer from bare singular NPs in Chinese.

To summarise, the participants' performance in English genericity at the pre-test stage did not reflect their knowledge about English genericity. Even though the participants had high mean accuracy rates in some of the NP forms at NP-level and sentence-level genericity, it did not necessarily mean that the participants had the generic knowledge in English. Thus, it can be concluded that the participants did not know much about English genericity at the pre-test stage. This finding is also in the prediction made in Section 3.3.2.1.3, in that Chinese-speaking learners had difficulties and learnability problems in all the NPs forms in expressing English genericity, except for indefinite singular NPs. Since the participants did not know about English genericity at the pre-test stage, it is worth examining whether audio-visual media would facilitate their acquisition of the NP forms to express English genericity over time.

5.1.2 The impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity

This subsection examines the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity by comparing the performances between the experimental group and the control group in the acceptability judgement task. Group 0 represents the experimental group as a whole and Group 3 represents the control group in the data report in this section. Group 0 were further divided into Group 1 (high motivation group) and Group 2 (low

motivation group), as is seen in Section 5.1.3. Group 3 (the control group) remained the same in Section 5.1.3 and the following data presentation.

The participants' acceptability of English genericity regarding the five NPs is analysed on the NP-level and the sentence-level respectively. The figures in the statistical analysis are presented in Section 5.1.2.1 and 5.1.2.2. The observations of the results are presented in Section 5.1.2.3.

5.1.2.1 NP-level genericity

With respect to the between-group homogeneity in the pre-test, Table 5.5 below reveals that all the p-values are above 0.05. The participants were homogeneous as was shown in the pre-test. Therefore, the changes of performances between the two groups are comparable.

Table 5.5. Two-group pre-test homogeneity (NP-level genericity)

	Definite singular NPs	Indefinite singular NPs	Bare singular NPs	Definite plural NPs	Bare plural NPs
P-value between-group comparison (0 vs. 3)	p=0.218	p=0.324	p=0.068	p=0.355	p=0.422

Turning now to the evidence of the comparisons of changes between the time periods in the experimental group and the control group, the following presentations involve the statistical data analysis and results of the five NPs: definite singular NPs, indefinite singular NPs, bare singular NPs, definite plural NPs and bare plural NPs respectively. In each of the statistical analysis, t-tests are adopted to compare the between-group changes. All the five sets of data show a normal distribution by double checking the data beforehand and checking the residuals after the statistical tests.

1) Definite singular NPs

Table 5.6 and the accompanying Figures 5.1 and 5.2 below present the statistical values of the two–group comparison in the definite singular option in the NP-level generic context. In Table 5.6, the values, including the mean value, the standard deviation (SD), the t value, the p-value and the Cohen's d [12] which represent the effect size, are presented in each between-group comparison of the changes across the different test times. Figure 5.1 presents the general trend of the participants' performance across test-times (experimental group: blue line; control group: green line) and Figure 5.2 presents the between-group comparisons of the changes in the three stages. Wherever there is a ＊marked, the changes made by the two groups are significantly different from each other.

From the table and the figures, it can be seen that the between-group change comparison from Time ① to Time ② is not significant (t=0.361, p=0.720). However, from Time ② to Time ③, the change of the experimental group is significantly different from, and higher than, the control group (t=2.236, p=0.030). The overall change comparison between the two groups from Time ① to Time ③ is significant (t=2.114, p=0.040). The experimental group continuously improved from the pre-test to the delayed post-test and the group improved much more than the control group in the acquisition of definite singular NPs in the NP-level English genericity.

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[12] Cohen's d is one of the measurement indexes of effect size in statistical analysis. Effect size, by definition, refers to "the magnitude of the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable" (Kline, 2004: 97). Among the indexes of effect size, Cohen's d was chosen because it can be used when the sample sizes in the groups are different.
Rule of thumb: d=0.2 (small effect size), d=0.5 (medium effect size) d=0.8 (large effect size) (Larsen-Hall, 2010: 118).
According to Larsen-Hall (2010: 115), it should be examined together with the p-value to draw the conclusion of the significant difference. When the p-value is above 0.05, but the effect size is large, it can be concluded that though the results are not significantly different, it is still promising if the sample size can be increased. On the contrary, if the p-value is below 0.05, but the effect size is small, the results are statistically significant, but may be unimportant in practice (Larsen-Hall, 2010).

The experimental group retained the improvement until the last stage.

Table 5.6. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change	0	0.064	0.326	0.361	0.720	0.103
Time ②-①	3	0.028	0.372			
Change	0	0.054	0.238	2.236	* **0.030**	0.635
Time ③-②	3	-0.111	0.280			
Change	0	0.118	0.324	2.114	* **0.040**	0.615
Time ③-①	3	-0.083	0.330			

Figure 5.1. Two-group comparison across test-times
Definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
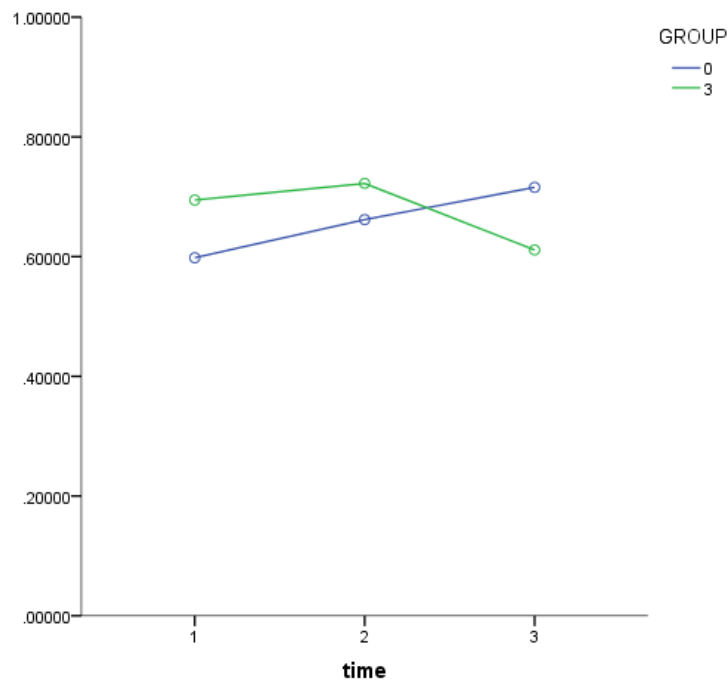
Figure 5.2. Two-group comparisons of change
Definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

* p<0.05
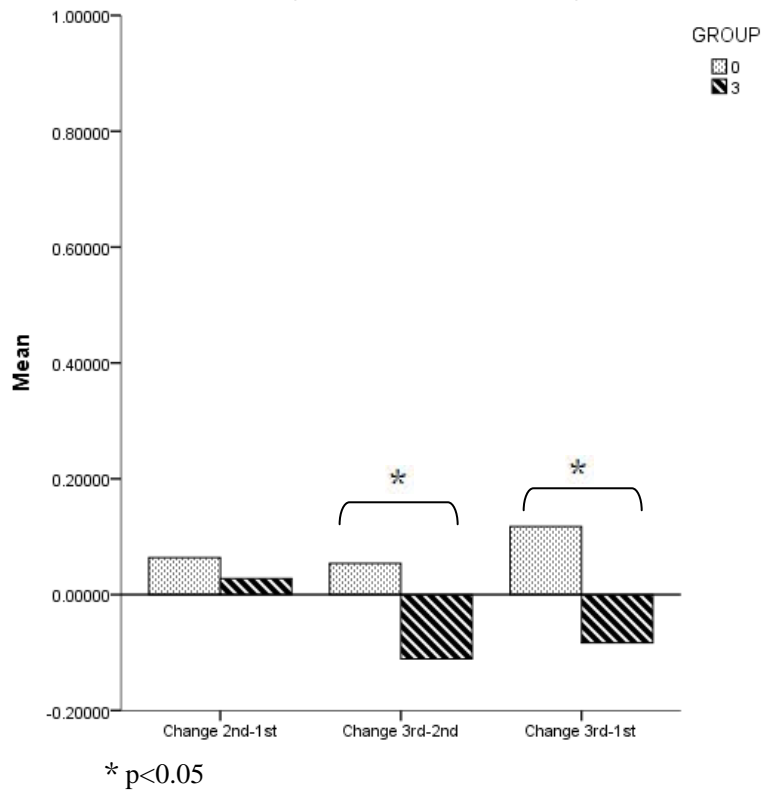
2) Indefinite singular NPs

T-test analysis show that in indefinite singular NPs, the between-group change from Time ② to Time ③ (t=1.027, p=0.309) and the overall change between the two groups (t=-1.382, p=0.173) are not significantly different (See Table 5.7 and Figures 5.3 and 5.4). In contrast, from Time ① to Time ②, there is a significant difference between the changes of the two groups (t=-2.457, p=0.018). However, the experimental group did not outperform the control group in the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test.

Table 5.7. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Indefinite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	-0.010	0.272	-2.457	* **0.018**	-0.701
	3	0.194	0.309			
Change Time ③-②	0	0.054	0.289	1.027	0.309	0.310
	3	-0.028	0.237			
Change Time ③-①	0	0.044	0.319	-1.382	0.173	-0.414
	3	0.167	0.274			

Figure 5.3. Two-group comparison across test-times
Indefinite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
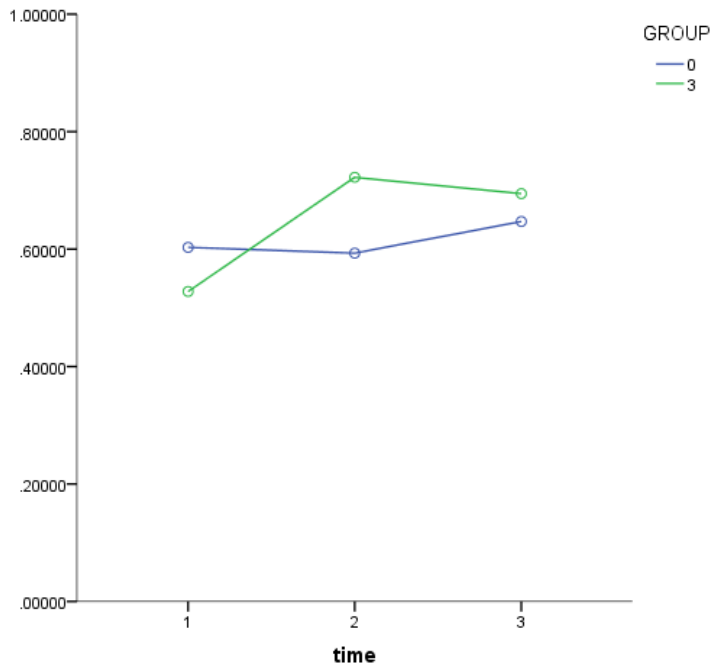
Figure 5.4. Two-group comparisons of change
Indefinite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

* p<0.05
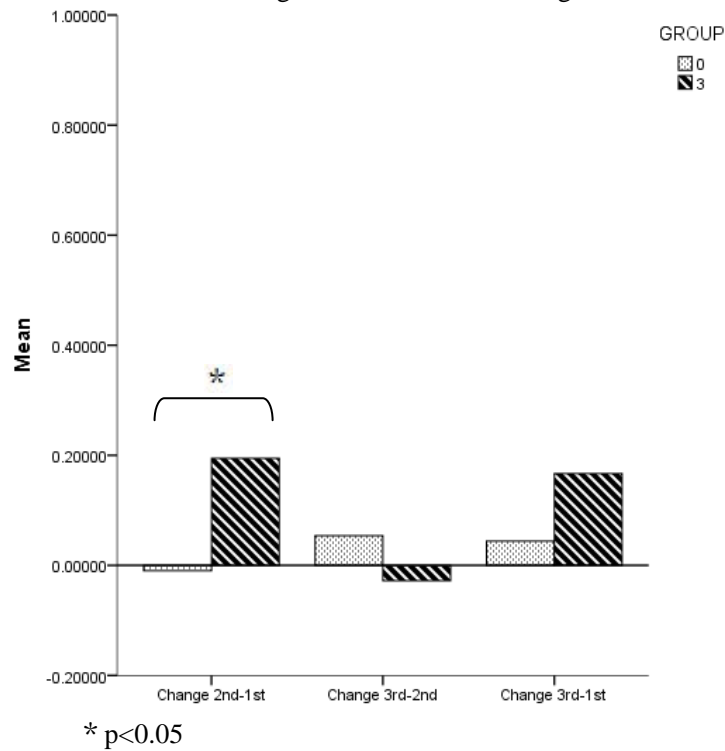
3) Bare singular NPs

In the case of bare singular NPs, as shown in Table 5.8 and Figures 5.5 and
5.6 below, there is no significant difference between the two groups in all
the comparisons of change.

Table 5.8. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Bare singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	-0.026	0.316	-1.262	0.213	-0.360
	3	0.102	0.392			
Change Time ③-②	0	0.034	0.292	0.701	0.486	0.201
	3	-0.028	0.325			
Change Time ③-①	0	0.010	0.301	-0.685	0.496	-0.194
	3	0.074	0.358			

Figure 5.5. Two-group comparison across test-times
Bare singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
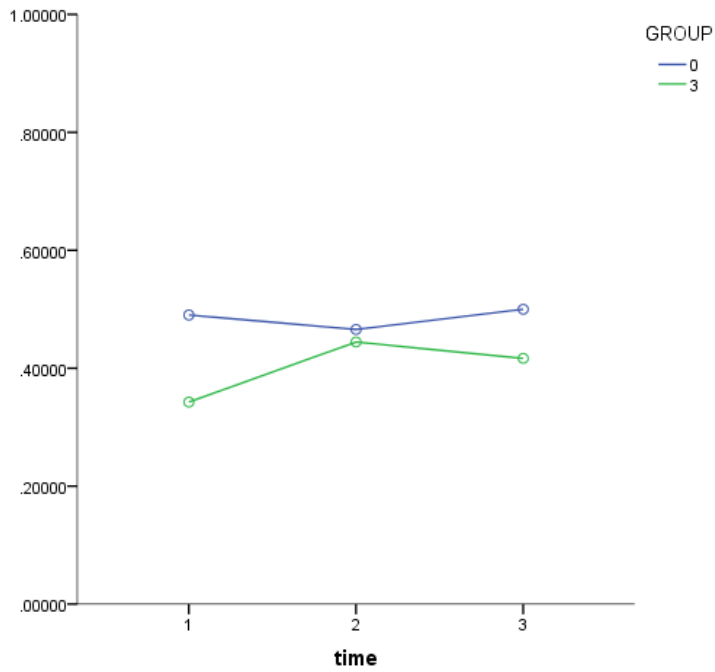
Figure 5.6. Two-group comparisons of change
Bare singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
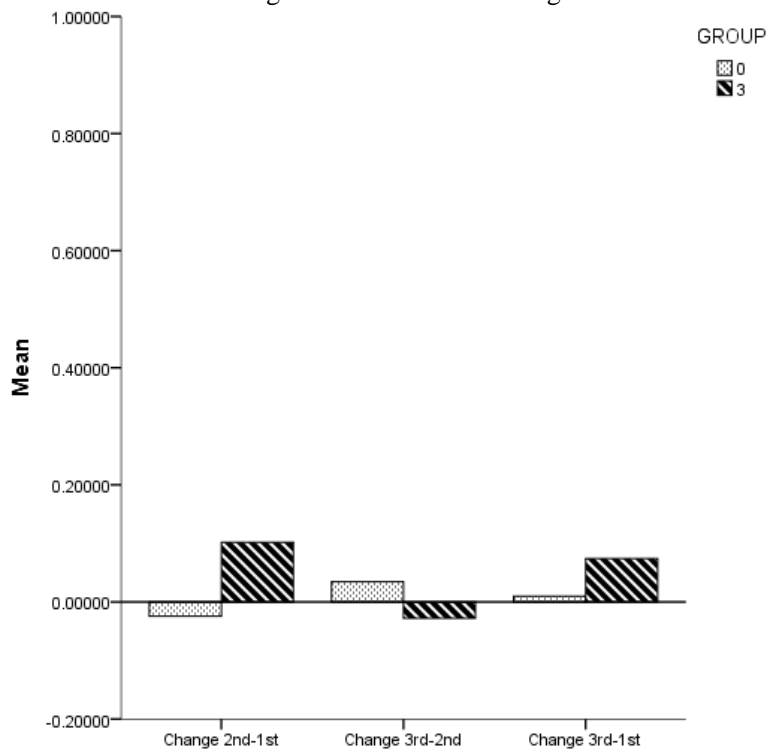
4) Definite plural NPs

Table 5.9 and Figures 5.7 and 5.8 below provide an overview of the statistical values of definite plural NPs. It is apparent that there is no significant difference found in all the three comparisons of change across test-times. However, it is worth noting that from Time ① to Time ②, the experimental group improved more than the control group. Although in Time ③, the experimental group regressed a little, its performance was still better than the control group.

Table 5.9. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Definite plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	0.098	0.367	0.560	0.578	0.162
	3	0.037	0.386			
Change Time ③-②	0	-0.029	0.289	-0.981	0.331	-0.282
	3	0.056	0.313			
Change Time ③-①	0	0.069	0.374	0.540	0.832	-0.061
	3	0.093	0.409			

Figure 5.7. Two-group comparison across test-times
Definite plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
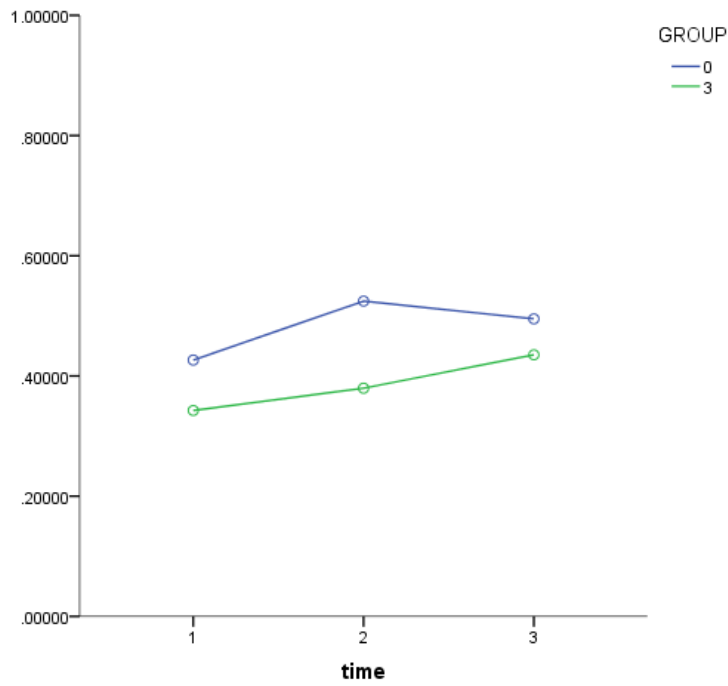
Figure 5.8. Two-group comparisons of change
Definite plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
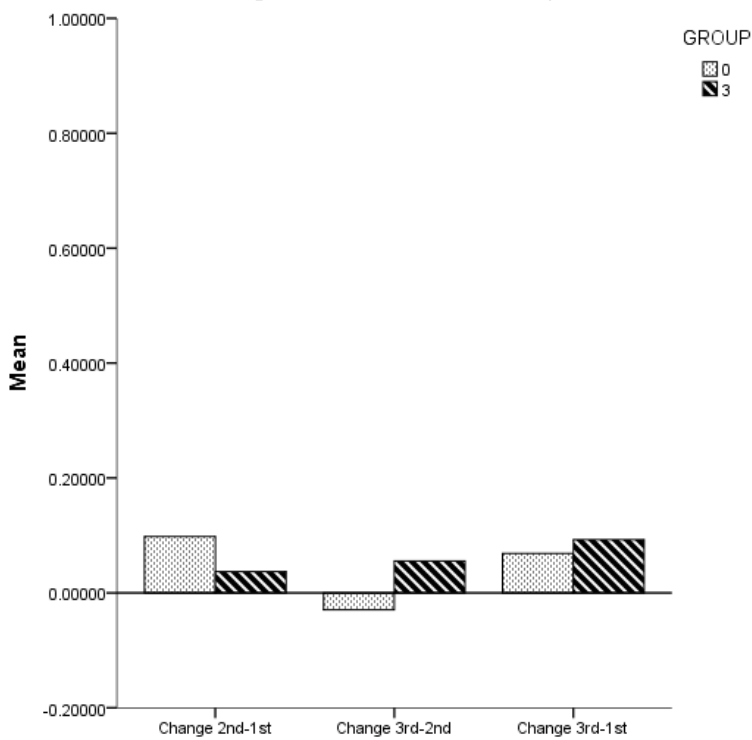
5) Bare plural NPs

As can be seen from Table 5.10 and Figures 5.9 and 5.10, all the p-values in the three change comparisons are above 0.05. This result indicates that the changes of the two groups are not significantly different across test-times. The experimental group did not outperform the control group.

Table 5.10. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Bare plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	-0.064	0.284	-1.059	0.295	-0.322
	3	0.019	0.228			
Change Time ③-②	0	-0.069	0.229	0.332	0.742	0.094
	3	-0.093	0.281			
Change Time ③-①	0	-0.132	0.322	-0.600	0.551	-0.172
	3	-0.074	0.353			

Figure 5.9. Two-group comparison across test-times
Bare plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
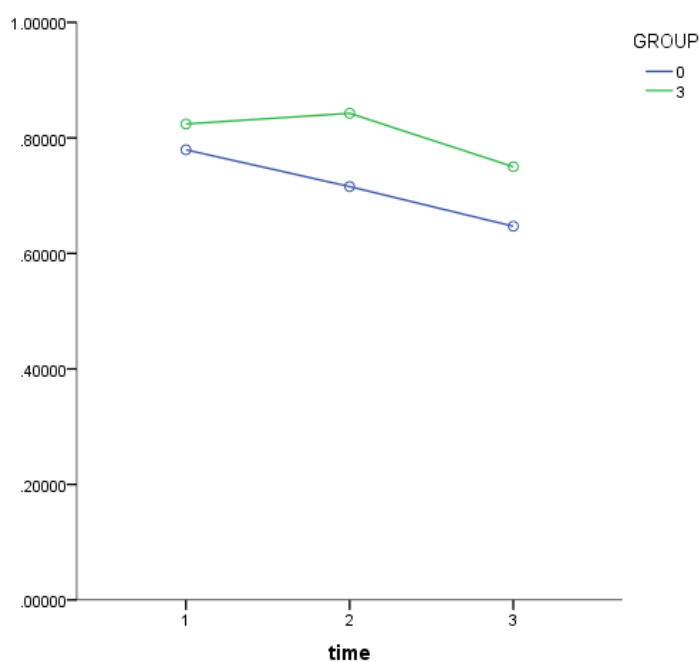
Figure 5.10. Two-group comparisons of change
Bare plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
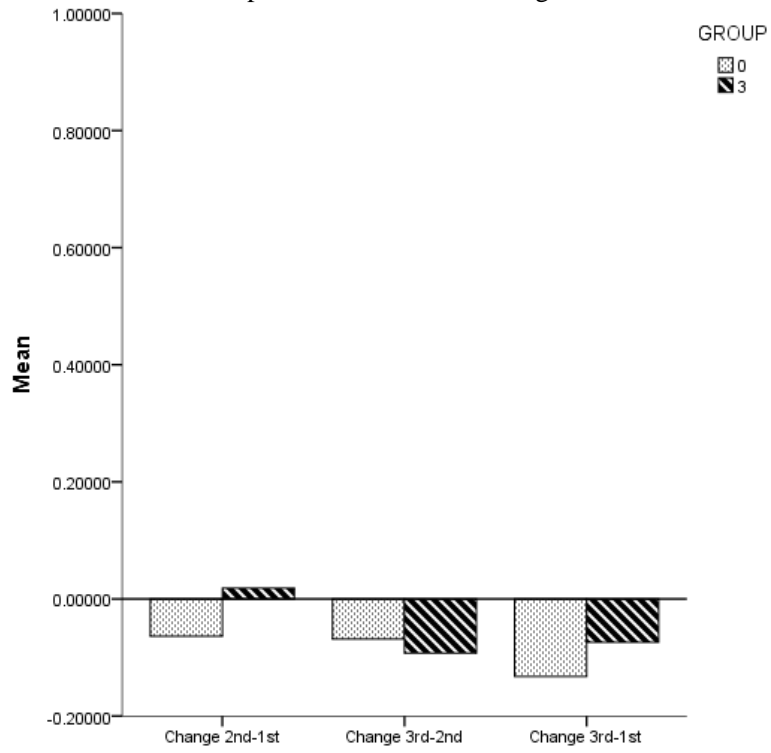
5.1.2.2 Sentence-level genericity

With regard to the homogeneity in the pre-test, as Table 5.11 shows, all the p-values are above 0.05 which suggests that both of the two groups were at a similar level in the pre-test and therefore appropriate to compare improvement.

Table 5.11. Two-group pre-test homogeneity (sentence-level genericity)

	Definite singular NPs	Indefinite singular NPs	Bare singular NPs	Definite plural NPs	Bare plural NPs
Between-group comparison (0 vs. 3)	p=0.969	p=0.150	p=0.644	p=0.963	p=0.099

This set of data is normally distributed and appropriate for parametric testing. Descriptive statistics and statistical values are obtained from three separate independent-sample t-tests. They are shown together with analysis in each of the cases.

1) Definite singular NPs

Table 5.12 below shows the statistical values of the two-group comparison in the case of definite singular NPs. The p-values in change (Time ②-①), change (Time ③-②) and the overall change (Time ③-①) are all above 0.05. As is shown in the p-values and the accompanying Figures 5.11 and 5.12, there is no significant difference found in the between-group comparisons of change.

Table 5.12. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Definite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	-0.064	0.296	-1.193	0.239	-0.352
	3	0.037	0.277			
Change Time ③-②	0	0.044	0.276	1.386	0.172	0.409
	3	-0.065	0.257			
Change Time ③-①	0	-0.020	0.322	0.086	0.932	0.025
	3	-0.028	0.330			

Figure 5.11. Two-group comparison across test-times
Definite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
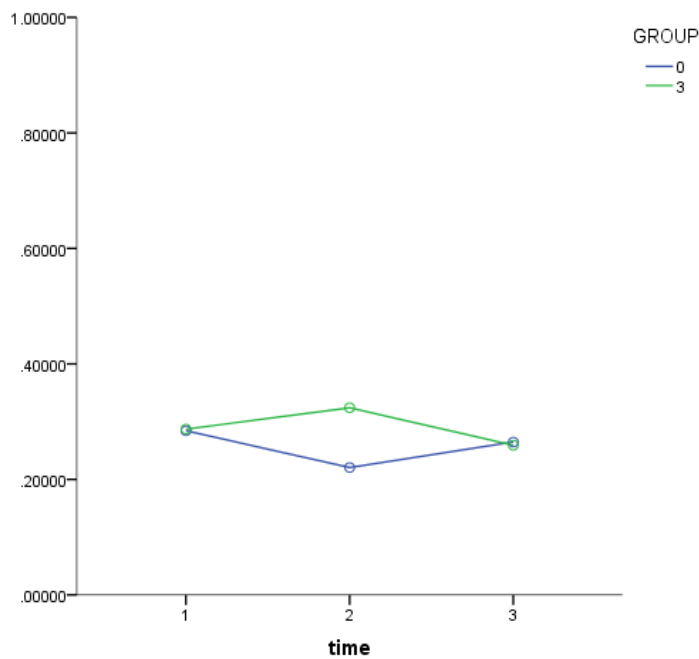
Figure 5.12. Two-group comparisons of change
Definite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
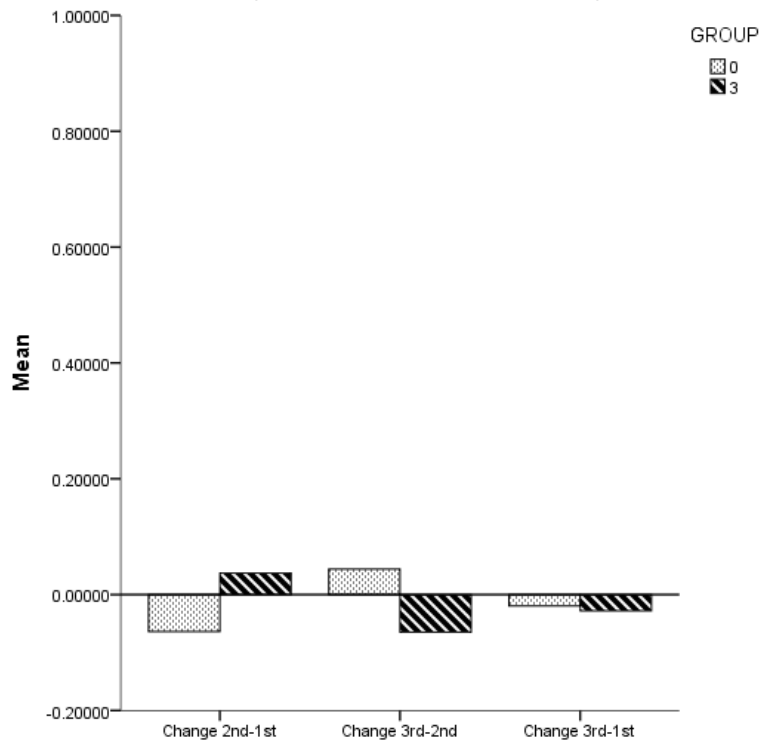
2) Indefinite singular NPs

In indefinite singular NPs, p-values obtained from statistical analysis are listed in Table 5.13. The values are 0.696 in change (Time ②-①), 0.402 in change (Time ③-②) and 0.726 in the overall change (Time ③-①) respectively. All the p-values are above 0.05, which means no significant difference was found in the between-group comparisons of change over times (also see Figures 5.13 and 5.14). The experimental group did not perform better than the control group.

Table 5.13. Statistical values of the two-group comparison

Indefinite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	-0.044	0.358	0.393	0.696	0.117
	3	-0.083	0.309			
Change Time ③-②	0	-0.034	0.312	0.846	0.402	-0.255
	3	0.037	0.240			
Change Time ③-①	0	-0.078	0.354	-0.352	0.726	-0.110
	3	-0.046	0.212			

Figure 5.13. Two-group comparison across test-times

Indefinite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
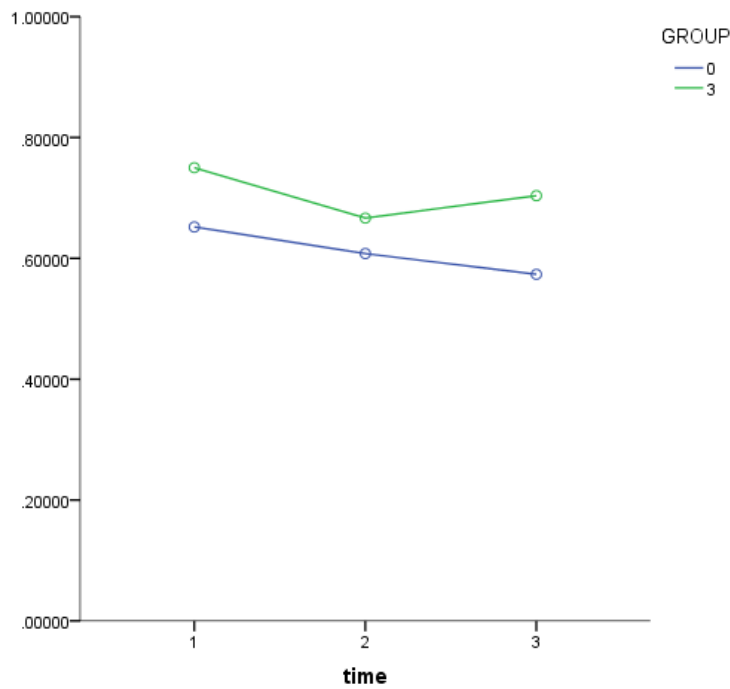
Figure 5.14. Two-group comparisons of change
Indefinite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
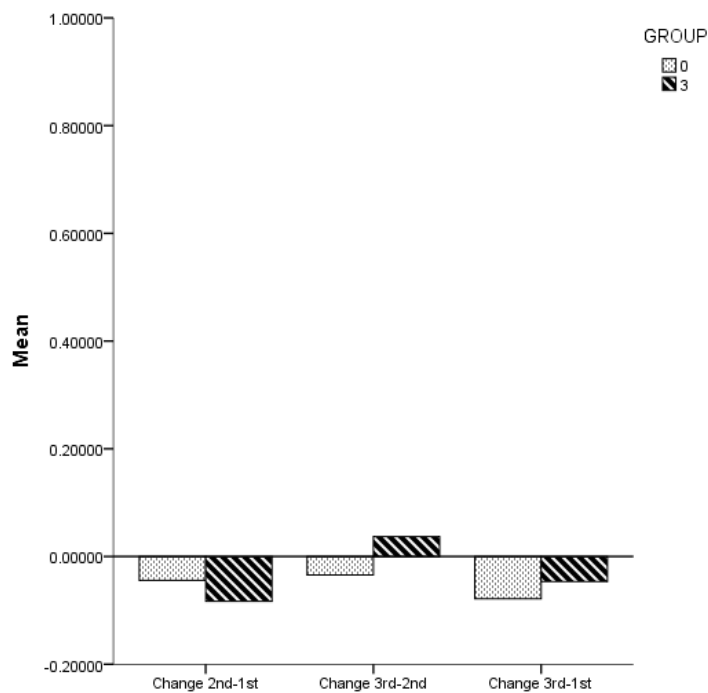
3) Bare singular NPs

For bare singular NPs, p-values obtained from statistical analysis are all above 0.05. They are shown in Table 5.14. The values indicate that there is no significant between-group discrepancy in the comparisons of change (also see Figures 5.15 and 5.16). However, it revealed that the experimental group performed better than the control group at Time ② and at Time ③. From Time ① to Time ②, the experimental group progressed whereas the control group regressed. From Time ② to Time ③, the experimental group continuously progressed. Though the control group also progressed in this period, it did not reach the level that the experimental group achieved. The overall change of the experimental group is more than the overall change of the control group.

Table 5.14. Statistical values of the two-group comparison

Bare singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	0.078	0.377	1.924	0.060	0.576
	3	-0.120	0.307			
Change Time ③-②	0	0.064	0.296	-1.025	0.310	-0.289
	3	0.157	0.345			
Change Time ③-①	0	0.142	0.279	1.176	0.245	0.329
	3	0.037	0.355			

Figure 5.15. Two-group comparison across test-times

Bare singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
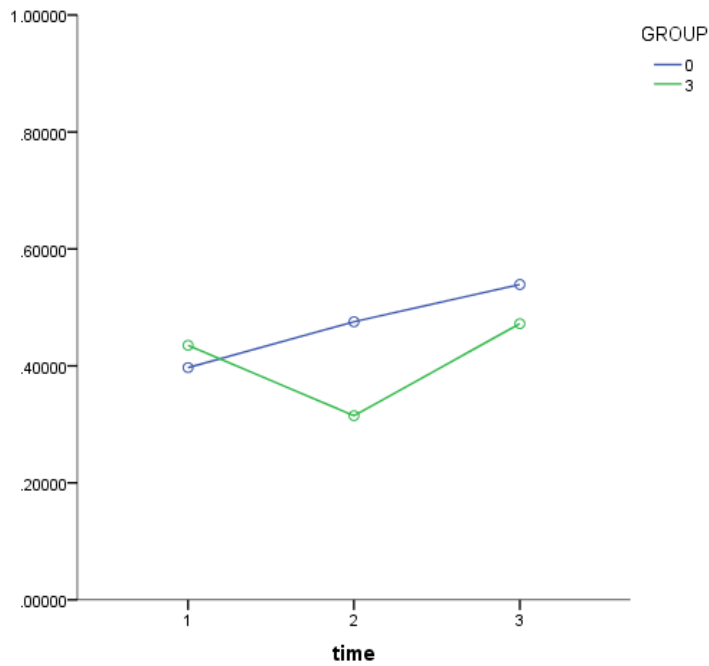
Figure 5.16. Two-group comparisons of change
Bare singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
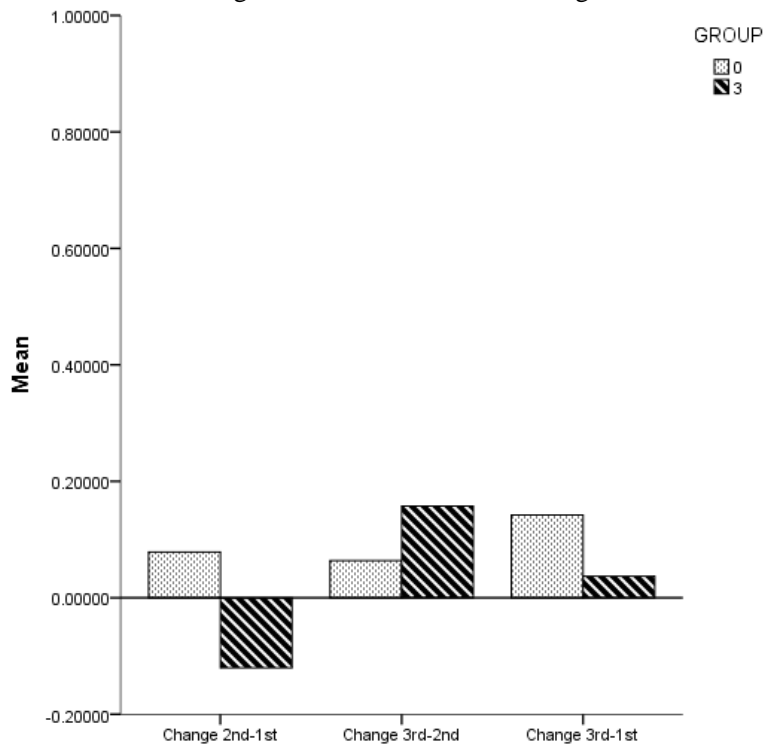
4) Definite plural NPs

In definite plural NPs, there is no significant difference found in all the change comparisons. As can be seen from Table 5.15, all the p-values are above 0.05. This indicates that the between-group changes are similar in the sense of statistics (also see Figures 5.17 and 5.18). However, the trend presented in Figure 5.17 shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group in Time ② and in Time ③. From Time ① to Time ②, the experimental group improved more than the control group. Though from Time ② to Time ③, the experimental group regressed a little, it still outperformed the control group at the final stage. The overall change that the experimental group made is more than the overall change of the control group.

Table 5.15. Statistical values of the two-group comparison

Definite plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	0.181	0.334	1.457	0.151	0.421
	3	0.037	0.350			
Change Time ③-②	0	-0.039	0.278	-0.903	0.371	-0.277
	3	0.028	0.200			
Change Time ③-①	0	0.142	0.344	0.741	0.462	0.211
	3	0.065	0.384			

Figure 5.17. Two-group comparison across test-times

Definite plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
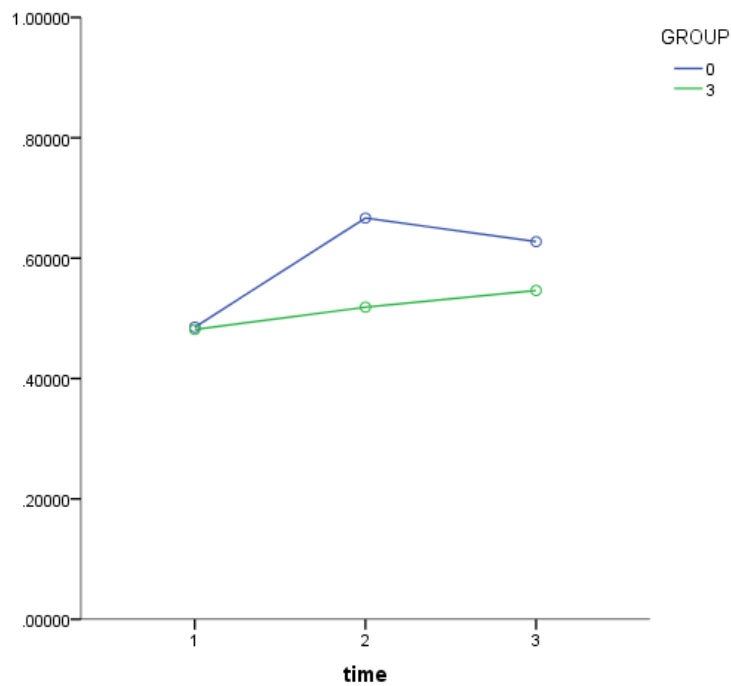
Figure 5.18. Two-group comparisons of change
Definite plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
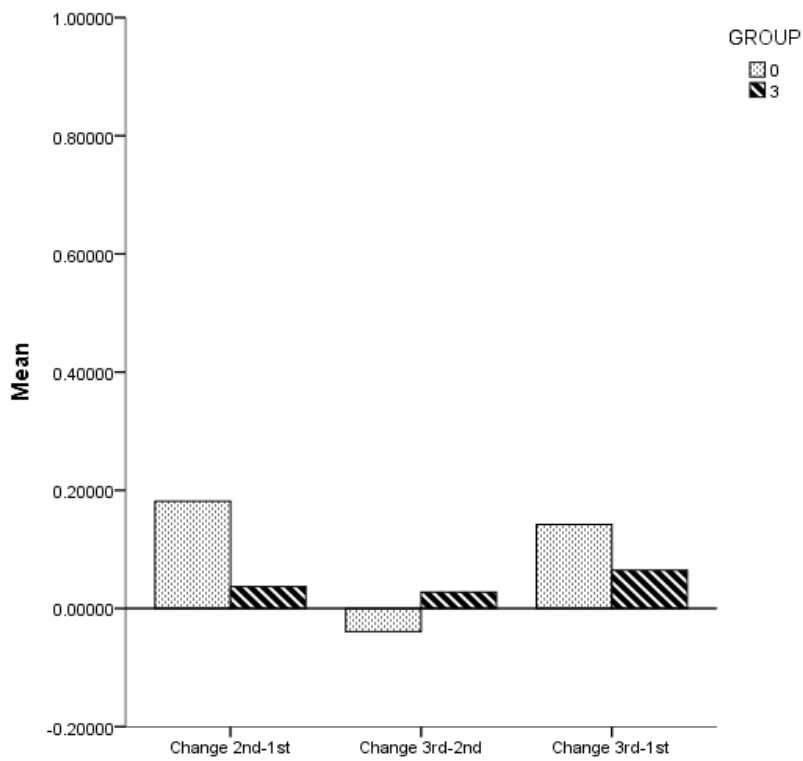
5) Bare plural NPs

There is also no significant difference found in the change comparisons for bare plural NPs. Table 5.16 and the accompanying Figures 5.19 and 5.20 suggest that the between-group changes are statistically similar. The experimental group did not outperform the control group.

Table 5.16. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Bare plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change Time ②-①	0	-0.059	0.318	0.065	0.948	0.019
	3	-0.065	0.309			
Change Time ③-②	0	0.015	0.276	0.576	0.567	0.178
	3	-0.028	0.200			
Change Time ③-①	0	-0.044	0.294	0.539	0.592	0.156
	3	-0.093	0.334			

Figure 5.19. Two-group comparison across test-times
Bare plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
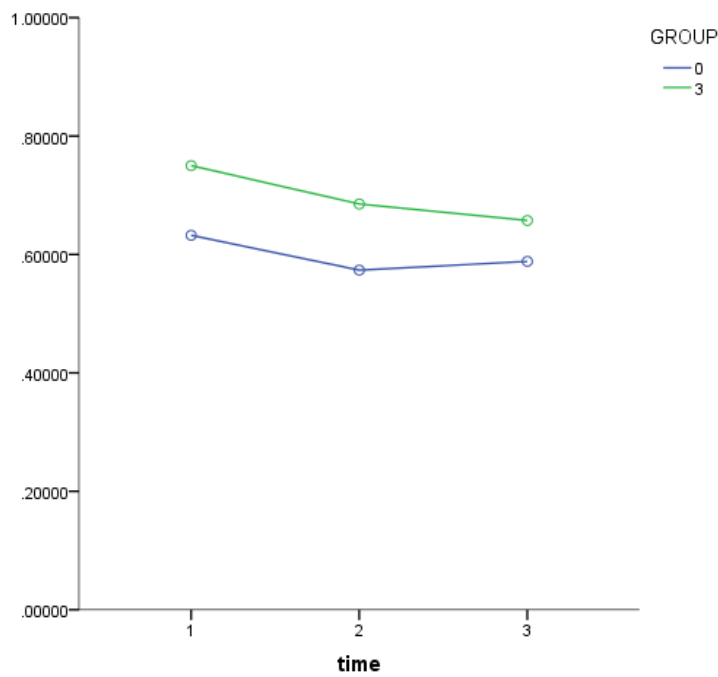
Figure 5.20. Two-group comparisons of change
Bare plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
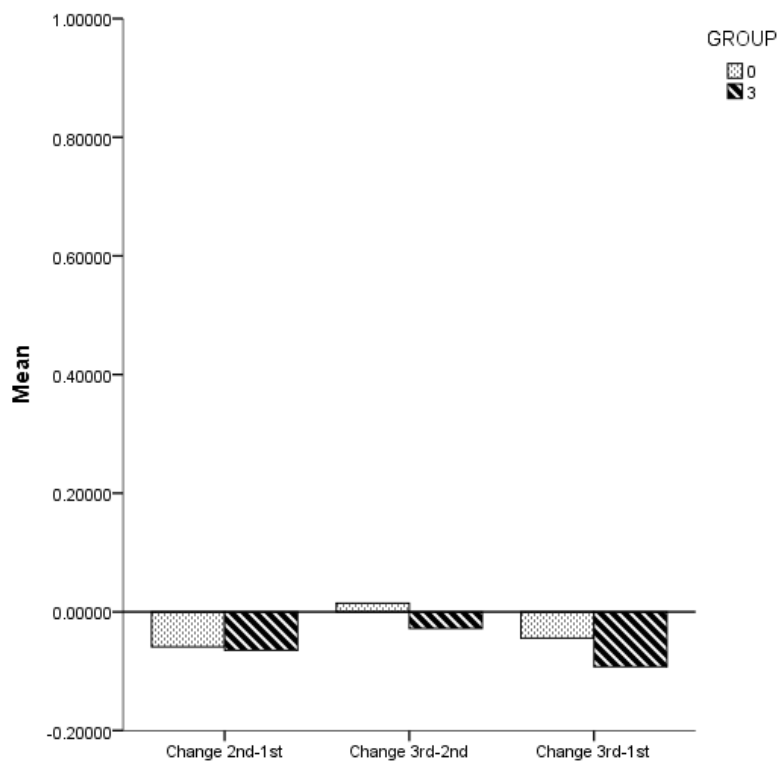
5.1.2.3 Observations of the results

The statistical facts of the between-group comparisons of change across test-times at both NP-level genericity and sentence-level genericity have been presented in Section 5.1.2.1 and Section 5.1.2.2. The main observations include:

1) In the acquisition of definite singular NPs at NP-level English genericity, the experimental group continuously improved across test-times and performed significantly better than the control group in the change (Time ③-②) and the overall change (Time ③-①). The experimental group's improvement was sustained until Time ③.

2) In the acquisition of definite plural NPs at NP-level English genericity, the experimental group outperformed the control group from Time ① to Time ②, though the difference of change is not significantly different between the two groups.

3) In the acquisition of bare singular NPs and definite plural NPs at sentence-level English genericity, the experimental group outperformed the control group in Time ② and Time ③. In addition, the experimental group performed better than the control group in the change (Time ②-①) and the overall change (Time ③-①). The experimental group's improvement was sustained until Time ③.

4) In the acquisition of all other NP forms in English genericity, the experimental group did not perform better than the control group.

In summary, audio-visual media positively influenced the acquisition of definite singular NPs in English NP-level genericity in the long term. In addition, audio-visual media had a positive long-term impact on the acquisition of bare singular NPs and definite plural NPs at sentence-level English genericity, which are subject to poverty of stimulus. Therefore, it is

concluded that audio-visual media had a weak positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity. This finding is consistent with the first hypothesis that audio-visual media had a positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity.

5.1.3 The impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity

This subsection reports the results of the impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity, by comparing the performances of the high motivation group (Group 1), the low motivation group (Group 2) and the control group (Group 3) in the AJT. The statistical facts and figures are presented in Section 5.1.3.1 and 5.1.3.2. The observations of the results are presented in Section 5.1.3.3.

5.1.3.1 NP-level genericity

In terms of the homogeneity test, the p-values in Table 5.17 reveal that all the three groups are homogeneous in the pre-test stage. Therefore, their improvements are valid to compare.

Table 5.17. Three-group pre-test homogeneity (NP-level genericity)

	Definite singular NPs	Indefinite singular NPs	Bare singular NPs	Definite plural NPs	Bare plural NPs
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	p=1.000	p=0.407	p=1.000	p=0.512	p=0.734
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	p=0.586	p=1.000	p=0.321	p=0.437	p=0.634
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	p=1.000	p=0.298	p=0.383	p=1.000	p=1.000

The whole data set is normally distributed and ready for conducting parametric tests. For the purpose of comparing the changes across the three groups, three sets of separate one-way ANOVAs in all the five NP forms were implemented. Statistical values were obtained and they are presented below.

1) Definite singular NPs

It is seen from the p-values shown in Table 5.18 and Figure 5.21 (high motivation group: blue line; low motivation group: green line; control group: yellow line) and Figure 5.22, that the three sets of across-group comparisons of change are not significantly different. Post-hoc tests were conducted to examine the differences within each of the pairs of group comparisons. All the p-values are above 0.05. There is no significant difference found.

Table 5.18. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.111	0.354	0.320	0.728
	2	0.026	0.306		
	3	0.028	0.372		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.756		0.257
	2 vs. 3		1.000		-0.006
	1 vs. 3		0.768		0.229
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-②	1	0.011	0.240	2.869	0.066
	2	0.088	0.238		
	3	-0.111	0.280		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.659		-0.322
	2 vs. 3		0.054		0.766
	1 vs. 3		0.361		0.468
Change	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value

Time ③-①	1	0.122	0.263		
	2	0.114	0.373	2.192	0.123
	3	-0.083	0.330		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.997		0.025
	2 vs. 3		0.173		0.560
	1 vs. 3		0.185		0.687

Figure 5.21. Three-group comparison across test-times

Definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

Figure 5.22. Three-group comparisons of change
Definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
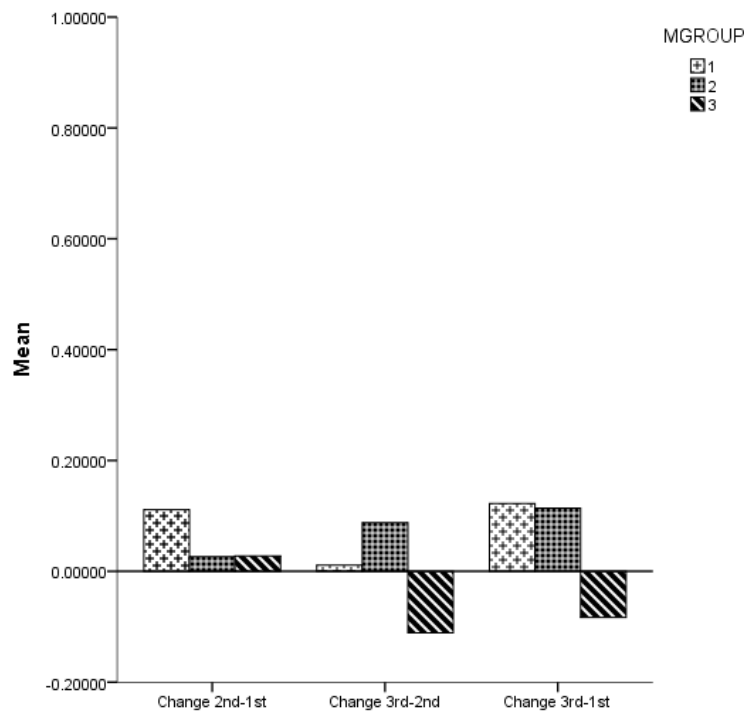
2) Indefinite singular NPs

Regarding indefinite singular NPs, from Time ① to Time ②, there is a significant change from the statistical analysis across the groups (F=6.034, p=0.005) as shown in Table 5.19. A further analysis in the post-hoc tests reveals that the changes are significantly different between the high motivation group and the control group from Time ① to Time ②. However, in the comparison (Group 1 vs. Group 3 in Time ②-①), the control group performed better than the experimental group. It is worth noting that in the comparison between the high motivation group and the low motivation group in the change (Time ②-①), the effect size is quite large (the absolute value is above 0.8). This means that if the sample size can be enlarged in these two groups, there is a possibility that significant differences can be found. However, because of the negative value of effect size, there would not be a possibility that the high motivation group performed significantly better than the low motivation group. The rest of the

cross-group comparisons of change do not show any significant discrepancies across the three groups (also see Figures 5.23 and 5.24).

Table 5.19. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Indefinite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	-0.133	0.229	6.034	* **0.005**
	2	0.088	0.269		
	3	0.194	0.309		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.059		**-0.885**
	2 vs. 3		0.466		-0.366
	1 vs. 3		* **0.003**		**-1.202**
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-②	1	0.089	0.308	0.740	0.482
	2	0.026	0.279		
	3	-0.028	0.237		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.787		0.214
	2 vs. 3		0.821		0.209
	1 vs. 3		0.449		0.426
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-①	1	-0.044	0.285	2.148	0.128
	2	0.114	0.334		
	3	0.167	0.274		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.287		-0.509

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	2 vs. 3	0.856	-0.173
	1 vs. 3	0.120	-0.755

Figure 5.23. Three-group comparison across test-times
Indefinite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

Figure 5.24. Three-group comparisons of change
Indefinite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

* p<0.05

3) Bare singular NPs

For bare singular NPs, the p-values in the three cross-group comparisons of change are all above 0.05 (see Table 5.20). P-values in post-hoc tests are all above 0.05 as well. It is shown in Figures 5.25 and 5.26 that there is no significant difference across groups in the cross-group comparisons of change in the performance of bare singular NPs.

Table 5.20. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Bare singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.033	0.303		
	2	-0.018	0.333	0.789	0.460
	3	0.102	0.392		
Change Time ②-①	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.990		-0.047
	2 vs. 3		0.552		-0.330
	1 vs. 3		0.510		-0.385
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.011	0.292		
	2	0.053	0.299	0.319	0.729
	3	-0.028	0.325		
Change Time ③-②	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.919		-0.142
	2 vs. 3		0.706		0.259
	1 vs. 3		0.930		0.126
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.022	0.301	0.362	0.698

	2	0.035	0.307		
	3	0.074	0.358		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups	p-value		Cohen's d	
	1 vs. 2	0.866		-0.187	
	2 vs. 3	0.929		-0.117	
	1 vs. 3	0.674		-0.290	

Figure 5.25. Three-group comparison across test-times
Bare singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

Figure 5.26. Three-group comparisons of change
Bare singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
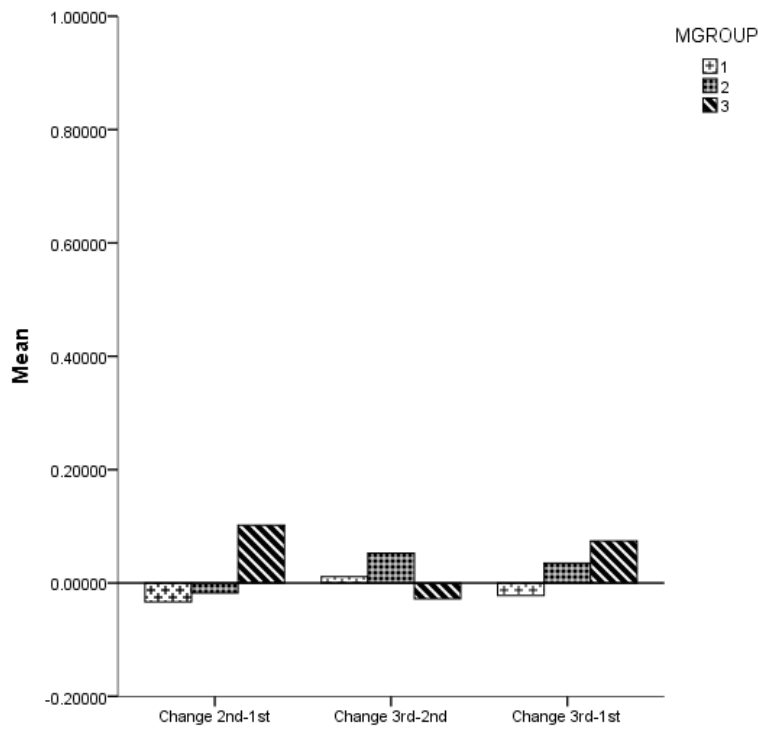
4) Definite plural NPs

In the case of definite plural NPs, there is no significant difference found in either the change comparisons or the post-hoc tests. All the p-values listed in Table 5.21 are above 0.05 which indicates the performances across groups are very similar at the three test stages (also see Figures 5.27 and 5.28).

Table 5.21. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Definite plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.189	0.398	0.962	0.389
	2	0.026	0.335		
	3	0.037	0.386		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.420		0.443

	2 vs. 3		0.996		-0.030
	1 vs. 3		0.477		0.388
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.089	0.320		
	2	0.018	0.260	1.020	0.368
	3	0.056	0.313		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.557		-0.367
	2 vs. 3		0.920		-0.132
	1 vs. 3		0.353		-0.458
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.100	0.366		
	2	0.044	0.388	0.09	0.897
	3	0.093	0.409		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.909		0.148
	2 vs. 3		0.923		-0.123
	1 vs. 3		0.998		0.018

Figure 5.27. Three-group comparison across test-times
Definite plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

Figure 5.28. Three-group comparisons of change
Definite plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
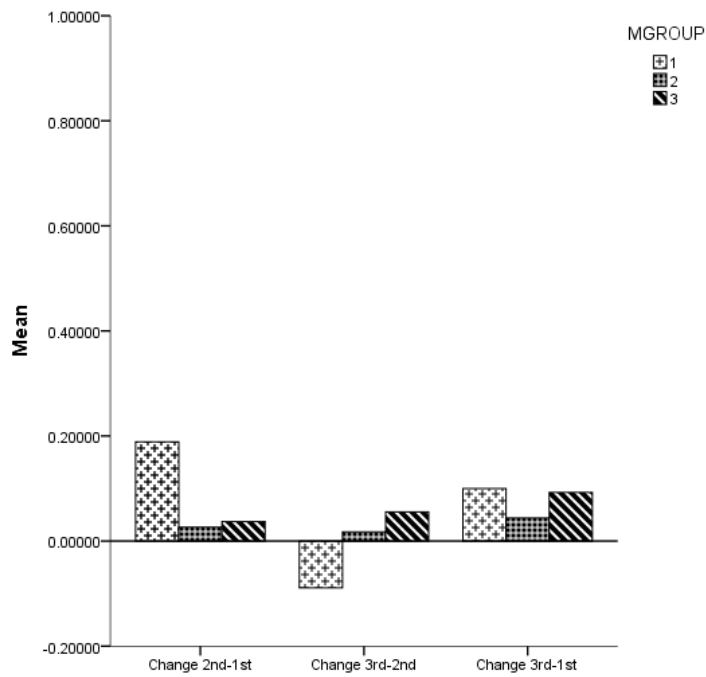
5) Bare plural NPs

An observation of the p-values provided in Table 5.22 reveals that there is no significant difference across the three groups in the comparisons of change (p-values are above 0.05). No significant difference was found in post-hoc tests either (p-values are above 0.05). This is also shown in Figures 5.29 and 5.30.

Table 5.22. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Bare plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	-0.122	0.183		
	2	-0.018	0.342	1.215	0.306
	3	0.019	0.228		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.494		-0.379
	2 vs. 3		0.91		-0.127
	1 vs. 3		0.293		-0.682
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.056	0.279		
	2	-0.079	0.187	0.091	0.914
	3	-0.093	0.281		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.960		0.097
	2 vs. 3		0.985		0.059
	1 vs. 3		0.906		0.132
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.178	0.278	0.425	0.656

	2	-0.097	0.357		
	3	-0.074	0.353		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.763		-0.253
	2 vs. 3		0.977		-0.065
	1 vs. 3		0.652		-0.327

Figure 5.29. Three-group comparison across test-times
Bare plural NPs at NP-level generic
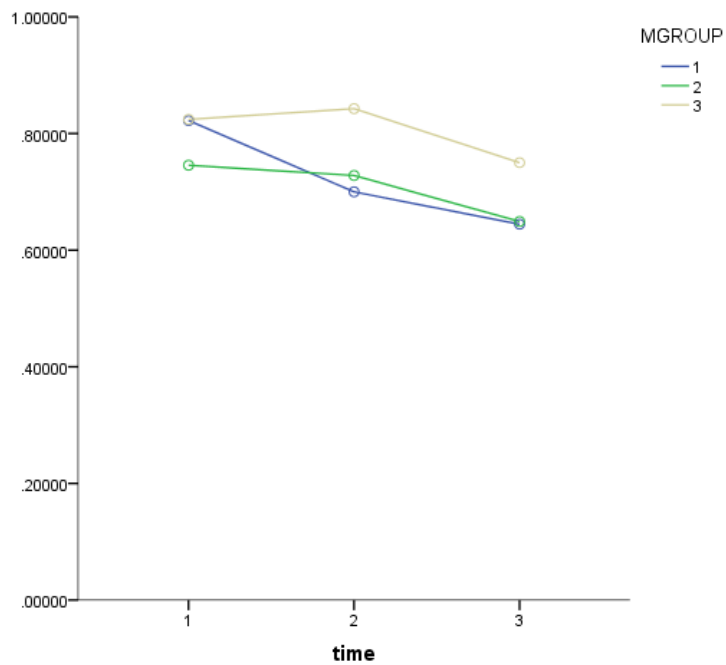
Figure 5.30. Three-group comparisons of change
Bare plural NPs at NP-level in generic contexts
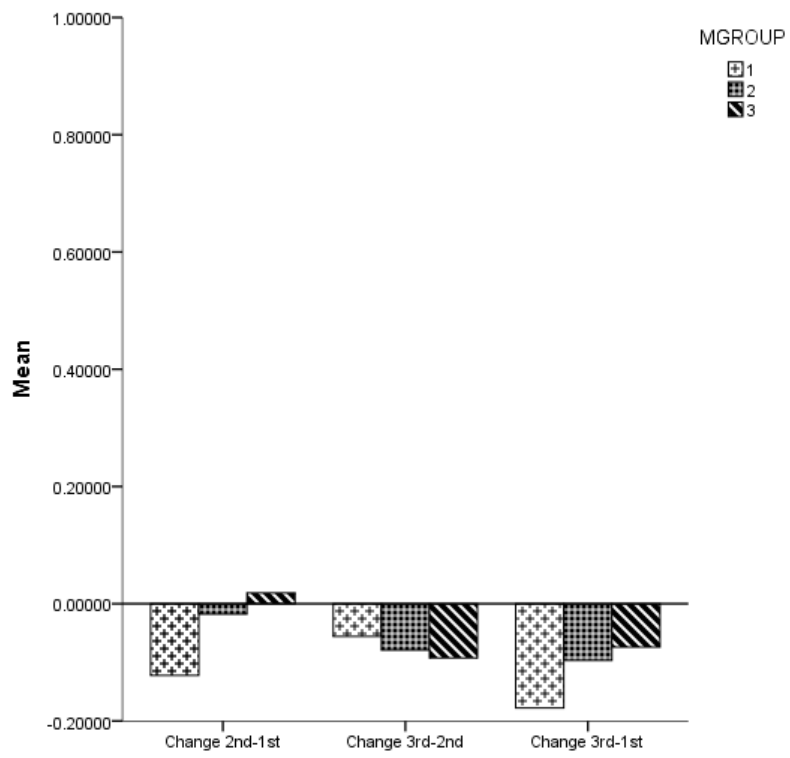
5.1.3.2 Sentence-level genericity

With respect to the homogeneity in the pre-test, p-values listed in Table 5.23 are all above 0.05, and all the groups are valid to compare for changes.

Table 5.23. Three-group pre-test homogeneity (sentence-level genericity)

	Definite singular NPs	Indefinite singular NPs	Bare singular NPs	Definite plural NPs	Bare plural NPs
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	p=1.000	p=1.000	p=1.000	p=0.233	p=0.440
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	p=1.000	p=0.379	p=1.000	p=1.000	p=0.100
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	p=1.000	p=1.000	p=1.000	p=1.000	p=1.000

This set of data is normally distributed and ready for statistical testing. Descriptive statistics and statistical values are obtained from three separate one-way ANOVAs. They are shown in the further analysis in the five NPs respectively.

1) Definite singular NPs

Based on the p-values provided in Table 5.24 and the group comparisons in Figures 5.31 and 5.32, it can be seen that there is no significant difference found in all the comparisons. P-values in the post-hoc tests are all above 0.05.

Table 5.24. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Definite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	-0.067	0.326		
	2	-0.061	0.279	0.699	0.502
	3	0.037	0.277		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.999		-0.020
	2 vs. 3		0.566		-0.353
	1 vs. 3		0.572		-0.344
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.111	0.233		
	2	-0.009	0.302	1.813	0.174
	3	-0.065	0.257		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.404		0.445
	2 vs. 3		0.801		0.200
	1 vs. 3		0.156		0.718
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.044	0.353		
	2	-0.070	0.296	0.526	0.594
	3	-0.078	0.330		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.567		0.350
	2 vs. 3		0.917		0.026
	1 vs. 3		0.801		0.357

Figure 5.31. Three-group comparison across test-times

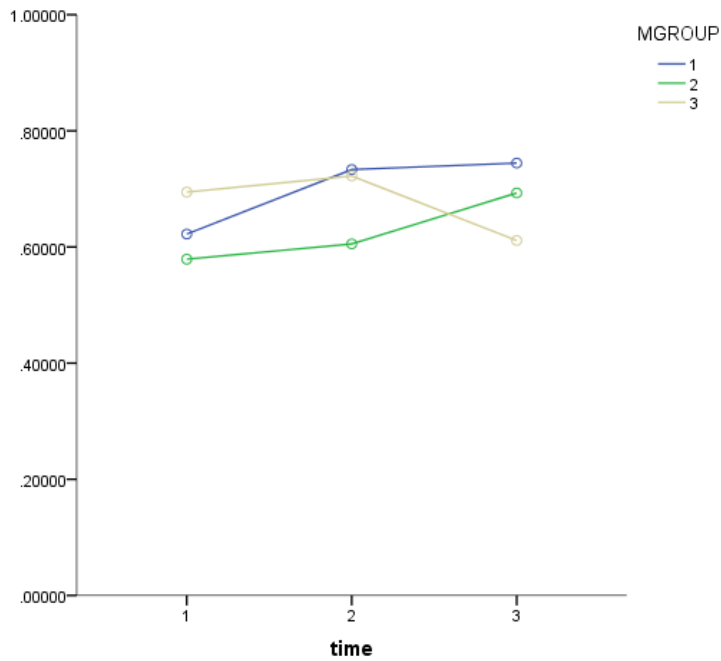Definite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
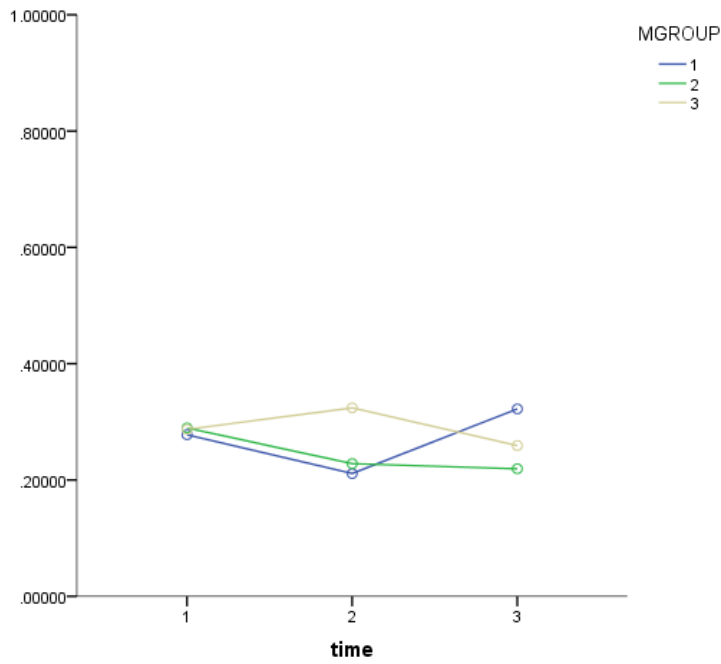
Figure 5.32. Three-group comparisons of change

Definite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
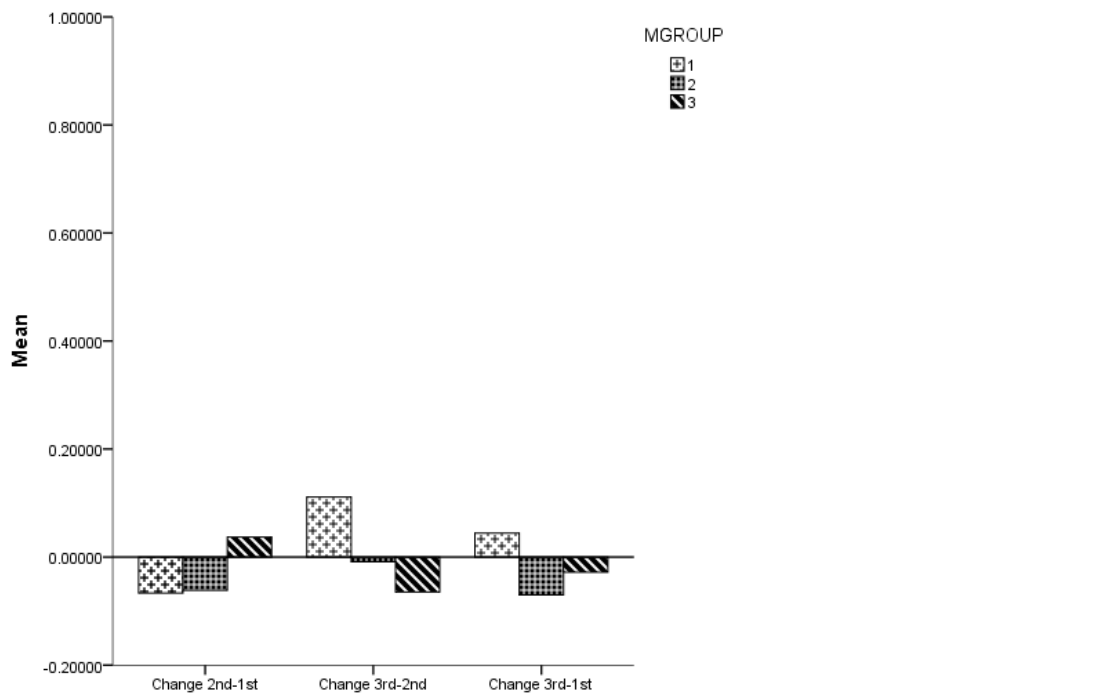
2) Indefinite singular NPs

In the case of indefinite singular NPs, all the p-values presented in Table 5.25 are above 0.05. Based on these values, therefore, no significant difference is discovered (also see Figures 5.33 and 5.34).

Table 5.25. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Indefinite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	-0.089	0.367		
	2	-0.009	0.358	0.303	0.700
	3	-0.083	0.309		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.780		-0.221
	2 vs. 3		0.789		0.221
	1 vs. 3		0.999		-0.018
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-②	1	0.067	0.280		
	2	-0.114	0.319	2.090	0.135
	3	0.037	0.240		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.164		0.603
	2 vs. 3		0.245		-0.535
	1 vs. 3		0.952		0.115
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-①	1	-0.022	0.301		
	2	-0.123	0.392	0.494	0.613
	3	-0.046	0.212		

	Post-hoc tests		
	Groups	p-value	Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2	0.624	0.289
	2 vs. 3	0.739	-0.244
	1 vs. 3	0.974	0.092

Figure 5.33. Three-group comparison across test-times
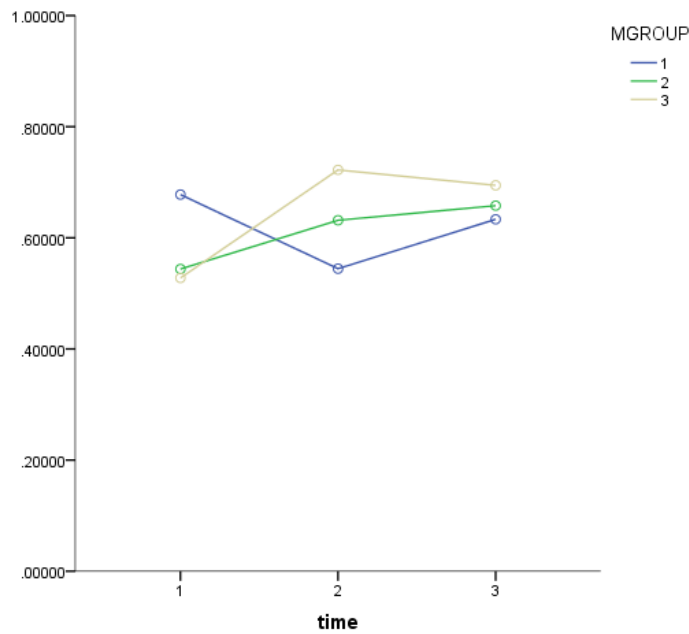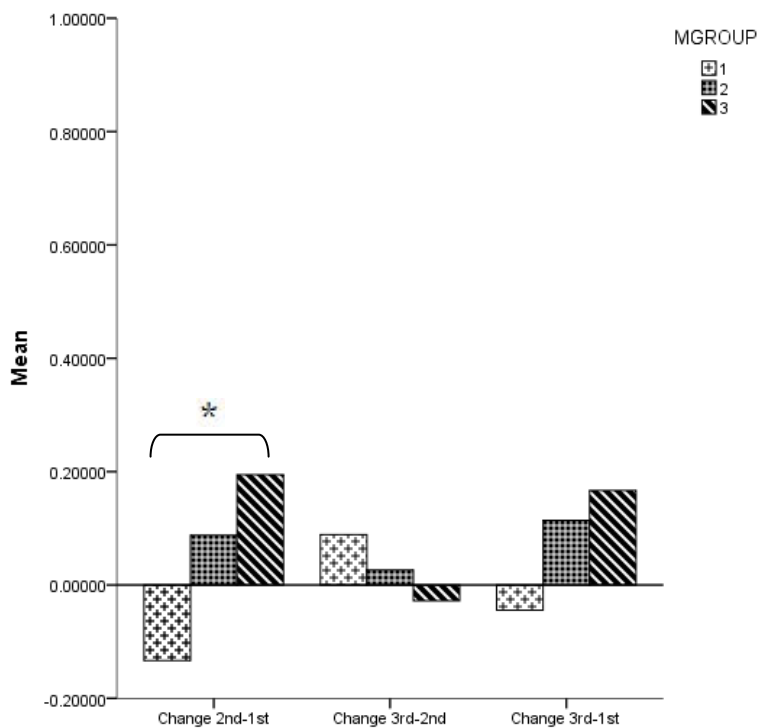Indefinite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
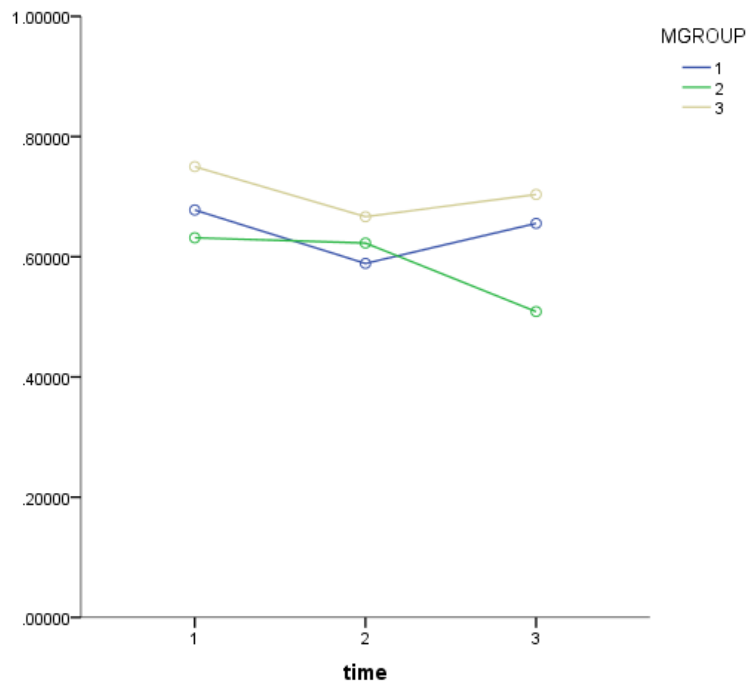
Figure 5.34. Three-group comparisons of change
Indefinite singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
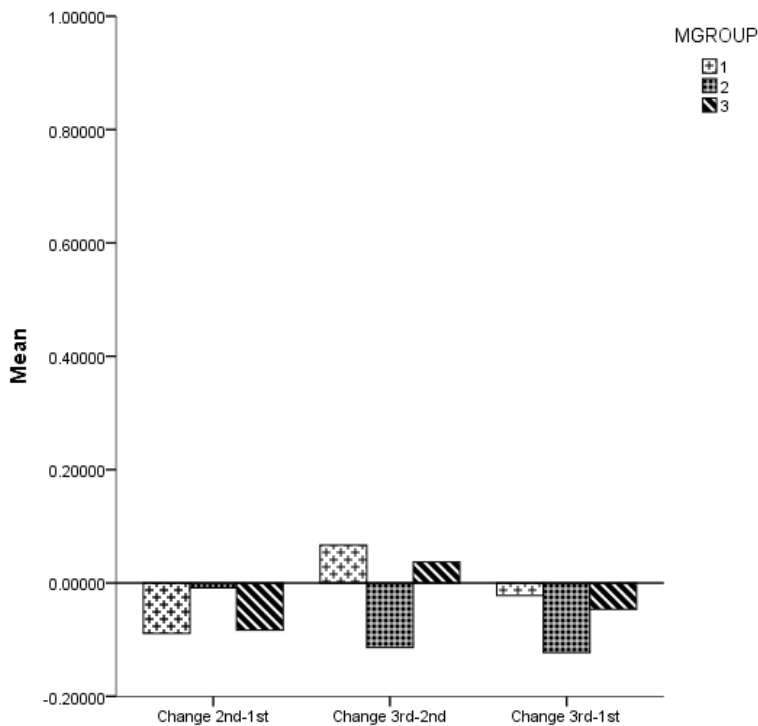
3) Bare singular NPs

For bare singular NPs, p-values are provided in the cross-group comparisons of changes as well as in the post-hoc tests. From Table 5.26 and Figures 5.35 and 5.36, it is apparent that none of the differences are statistically significant.

Table 5.26. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Bare singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.033	0.283	2.045	0.140
	2	0.114	0.441		
	3	-0.120	0.307		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.790		-0.219

	2 vs. 3		0.123		0.616
	1 vs. 3		0.439		0.518
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.011	0.285	0.899	0.414
	2	0.105	0.305		
	3	0.157	0.345		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.663		-0.318
	2 vs. 3		0.870		-0.160
	1 vs. 3		0.385		-0.461
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.044	0.263	2.128	0.130
	2	0.219	0.272		
	3	0.037	0.355		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.223		-0.654
	2 vs. 3		0.168		0.576
	1 vs. 3		0.997		0.022

Figure 5.35. Three-group comparison across test-times
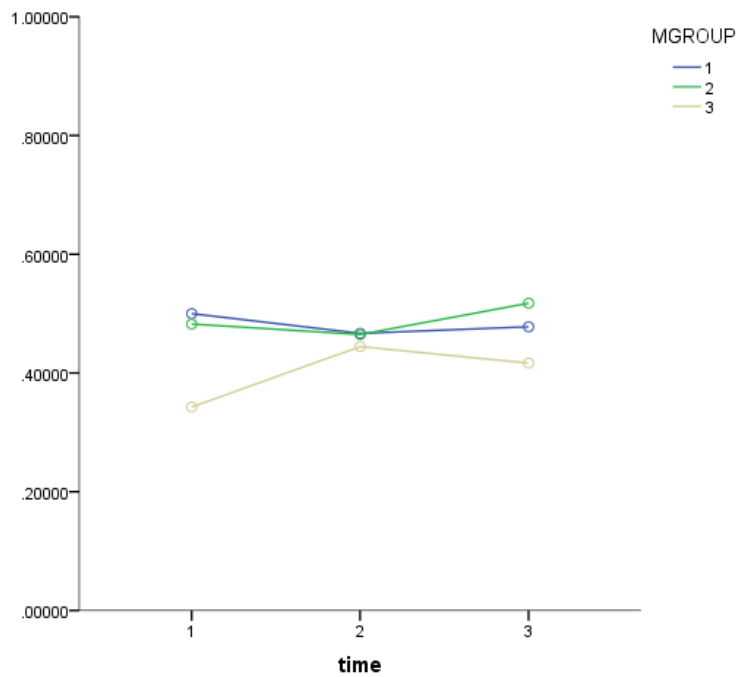Bare singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
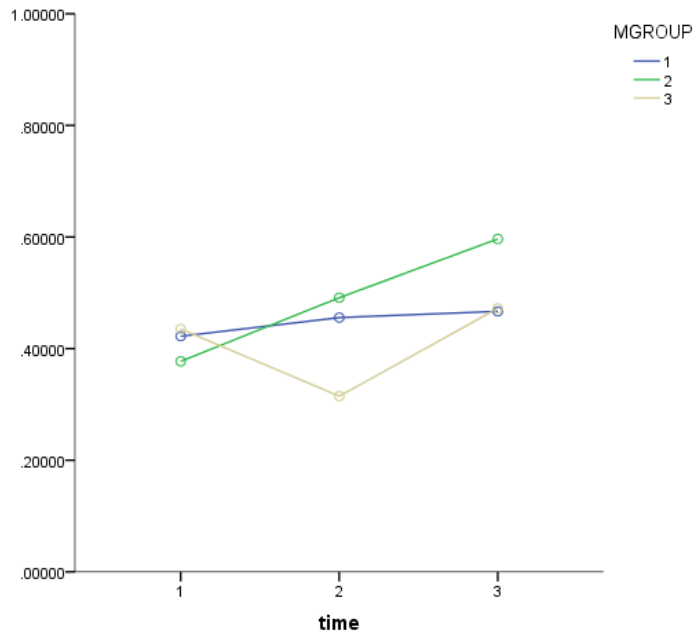
Figure 5.36. Three-group comparisons of change
Bare singular NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
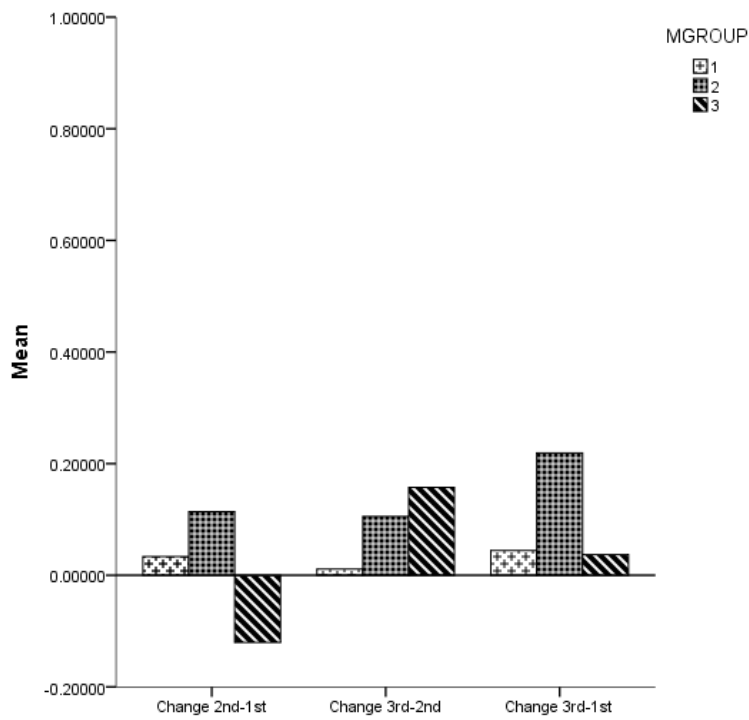
4) Definite plural NPs

With reference to the statistical values in Table 5.27, it is clear to see that all the p-values in the change comparisons and post-hoc tests are above 0.05. None of the differences are statistically significant (also see Figures 5.37 and 5.38).

Table 5.27. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Definite plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

Change Time ②-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.244	0.281		
	2	0.132	0.371	1.522	0.228
	3	0.037	0.350		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.605		0.340
	2 vs. 3		0.677		0.263
	1 vs. 3		0.199		0.652
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.078	0.338		
	2	-0.009	0.225	0.710	0.497
	3	0.028	0.200		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.716		-0.240
	2 vs. 3		0.901		-0.174
	1 vs. 3		0.470		-0.382
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.167	0.339	0.332	0.719
	2	0.123	0.355		

	3	0.065	0.384		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups	p-value		Cohen's d	
	1 vs. 2	0.934		0.127	
	2 vs. 3	0.877		0.157	
	1 vs. 3	0.701		0.282	

Figure 5.37. Three-group comparison across test-times
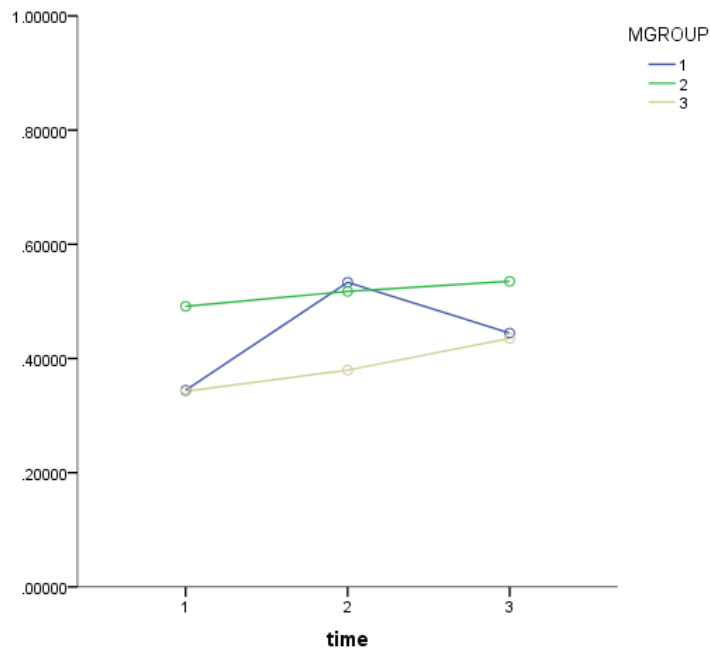Definite plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
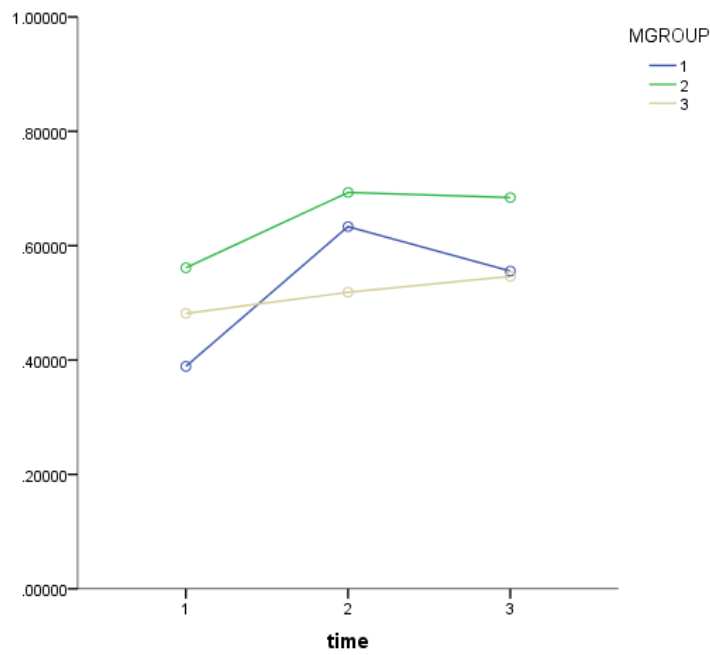
Figure 5.38. Three-group comparisons of change
Definite plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
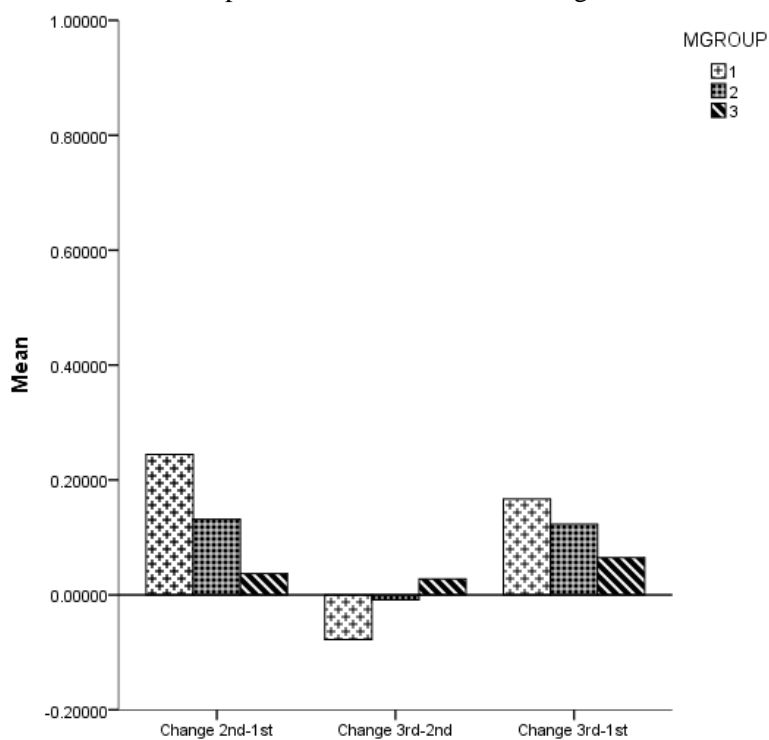
5) Bare plural NPs

In this case, none of the p-values shown in Table 5.28 is above 0.05. This indicates that there is no significant difference across groups in the comparisons of change as well as in the post-hoc tests. Figure 5.29 and Figure 5.30 describe the cross-group comparisons across test-times and the cross-group comparisons of change respectively.

Table 5.28. Statistical values of the three-group comparison
Bare plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	-0.100	0.372	0.230	0.796
	2	-0.026	0.274		
	3	-0.065	0.309		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d

	1 vs. 2		0.779		-0.227
	2 vs. 3		0.927		0.134
	1 vs. 3		0.946		-0.102

Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.022	0.281		
	2	0.009	0.280	0.174	0.841
	3	-0.028	0.200		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.987		0.046
	2 vs. 3		0.901		0.152
	1 vs. 3		0.842		0.205

Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.078	0.301		
	2	-0.018	0.293	0.301	0.741
	3	-0.093	0.334		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.841		-0.202
	2 vs. 3		0.744		0.239
	1 vs. 3		0.990		0.047

Figure 5.39. Three-group comparison across test-times
Bare plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
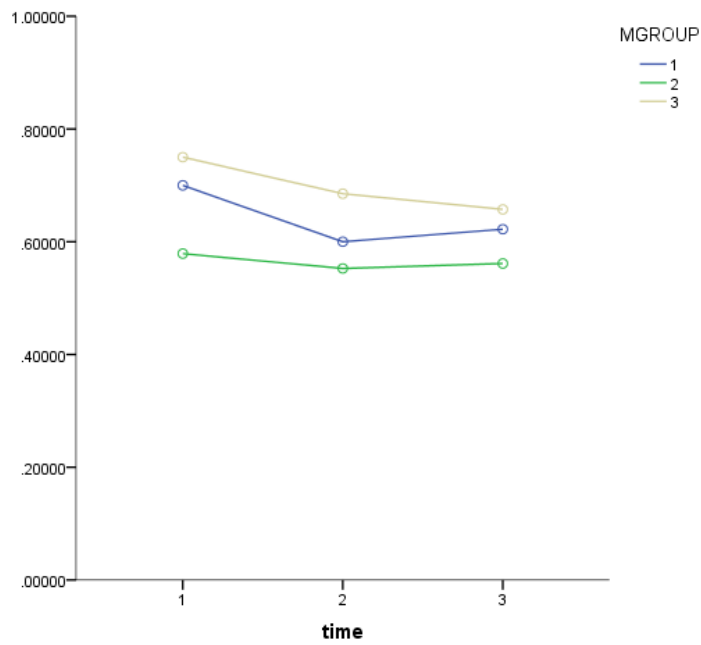
Figure 5.40. Three-group comparisons of change
Bare plural NPs at sentence-level in generic contexts
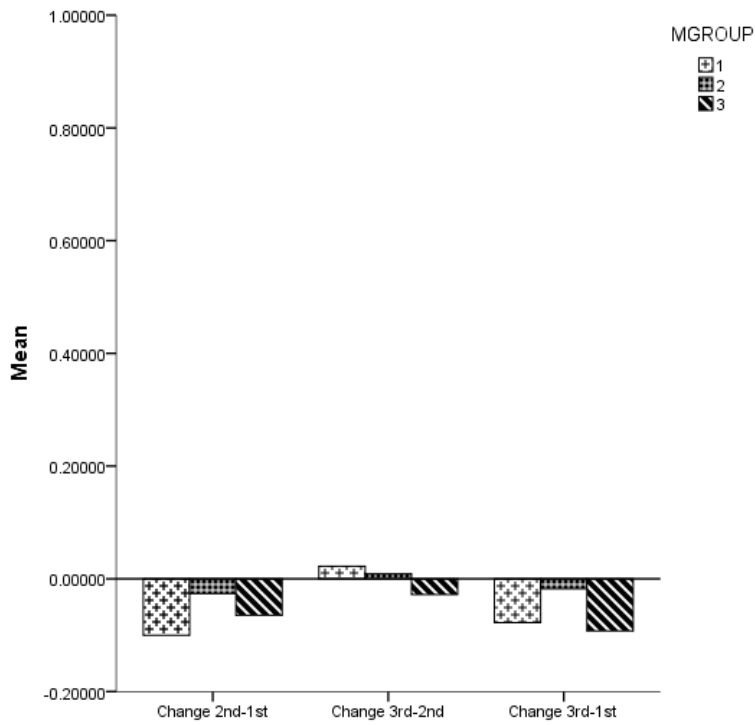
5.1.3.3 Observations of the results

In the examination of the impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity, the high motivation group did not perform better than the low motivation group or the control group in all of the five NP forms at both NP-level genericity and sentence-level genericity. This suggests that the motivation variable is not found to be influential in the acquisition of English genericity by L1 Chinese learners. This finding is not consistent with the first hypothesis that there is a possibility that the motivation variable is influential in the acquisition of English genericity.

5.1.4 Brief summary

Section 5.1 presented the results obtained from the AJT in the three test stages. To understand the participants' knowledge about English genericity at the pre-test stage, an anaphoric context was involved in the AJT. By comparing the overall mean accuracy rates of the participants in the anaphoric context, it is concluded that the participants were not fully aware of the singular-plural distinction and did not know the use of article "the". Therefore the participants' responses to English genericity did not reflect their knowledge of English genericity, even though they had high mean accuracy rates of some NP forms in expressing English genericity. In brief, the participants did not know about English genericity at the pre-test stage.

In the examination of the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity, it was found that it positively influenced the acquisition of definite singular NPs at NP-level in generic contexts in the long term. Furthermore, it had a positive impact on the acquisition of bare singular NPs and definite plural NPs at sentence-level genericity which are subject to

poverty of stimulus. Thus, it is concluded that audio-visual media had a weak positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity.

In the examination of the impact of the motivation factors from audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity, there was no evidence to support the prediction that the high motivation group performed the best amongst the three groups. The motivation factors were not influential in the acquisition of English genericity.

The findings are partially consistent with the Hypothesis 1. Audio-visual media had a weak positive impact on the acquisition of genericity. However, the motivation variable was not influential in the acquisition of genericity.

5.2 Results from the vocabulary test

This section presents the results from the vocabulary test which was designed to test the impact of audio-visual media and motivation factors on the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping respectively. There are two tasks involved in this test: the translation task and the choice task. Section 5.2.1 and Section 5.2.2 presents the examination of the impact of audio-visual media and the impact of the motivation factors on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping. Analysis in this section covers the illustration of the data and results from the vocabulary test at three different stages (Time ①: Pre-test; Time ②: Immediate post-test; Time ③: Delayed post-test).

5.2.1 The impact of audio-visual media on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping

The impact of audio-visual media on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping is examined by comparing the performances of the experimental group (Group 0) and the control group (Group 3) across the three stages in the translation task and the choice task. In the presentation of the results in each task, the pre-test homogeneity, the description of general trends between the two groups and the statistics regarding the changes that the two groups made across test-times are provided. The observations of the results are presented in Section 5.2.1.3.

5.2.1.1 Translation task

Regarding the pre-test homogeneity, the between-group p-value is 0.055 which is above 0.05. The two groups were at a similar level at the beginning of the experiment and appropriate for the comparison in improvement. The

data in the translation task are in normal distribution and available for conducting t-test.

Figure 5.41 presents the general trend of mean accuracy rate comparison in the vocabulary translation task across test-times between the experimental group (Group 0 in blue line) and the control group (Group 3 in green line). It is clear that at Time ① the two groups were homogeneous. At Time ②, there is a remarkable rise in the experimental group's performance. The control group also progressed, but its amount of improvement is lower than the amount of the experimental group. By Time ③, the experimental group's improvement is maintained. The control group continuously progress, but its mean accuracy rate is still lower than the rate of the experimental group.

Figure 5.41. Two-group comparisons across times
Vocabulary translation task
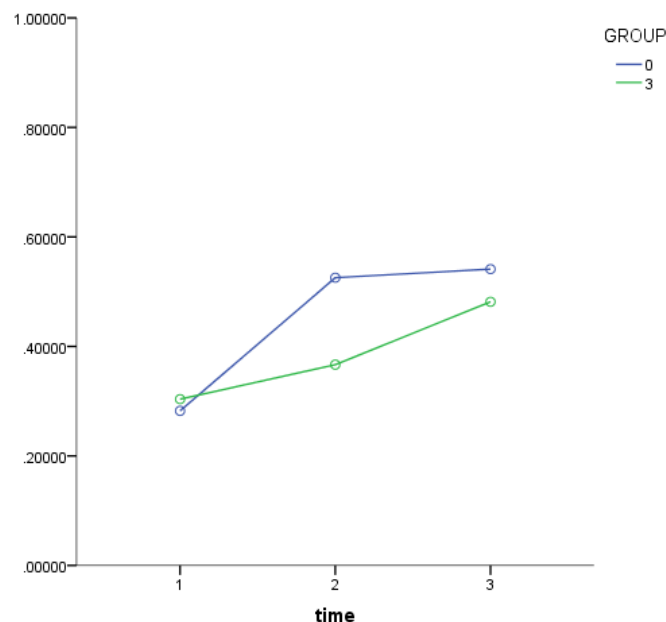
Statistics generated from three separate independent-sample t-tests show that in the change (Time ③-②) and the change (Time ③-①), there is no significant difference found in between-group comparison. However, it is

very clear from Table 5.29 that the comparison in the change (Time ②-①) is statistically significant (t=3.573, p=0.001). The experimental group improved much more than the control group in the input-given period and remained at the higher level in the third stage (See Figure 5.42).

Table 5.29. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change	0	0.243	0.220	3.573	* **0.001**	0.972
Time ②-①	3	0.063	0.142			
Change	0	0.016	0.210	-1.728	0.090	-0.519
Time ③-②	3	0.115	0.169			
Change	0	0.259	0.229	1.208	0.233	0.351
Time ③-①	3	0.178	0.232			

Figure 5.42. Two-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task
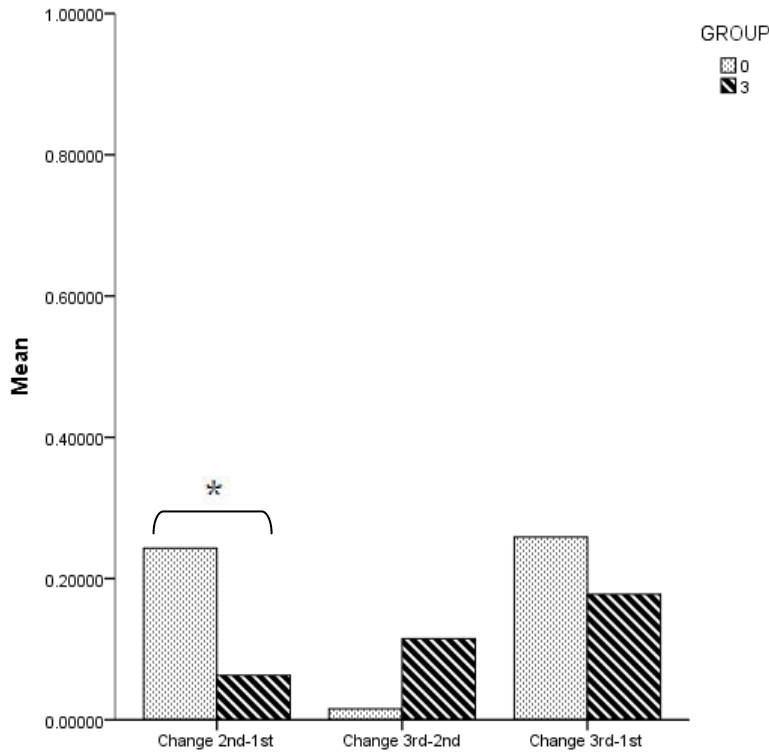
* p<0.05

5.2.1.2 Choice task

The p-value for the homogeneity comparison in the pre-test is 0.375 which is above 0.05. Thus, the two groups are comparable in the experiment. This data set is verified to be normally distributed and ready for further parametric testing.

Figure 5.43 below show the between-group trend of mean accuracy rate across test-times. In Time ①, the control group (Group 3 in green line) has got a higher rate than the experimental group (Group 0 in blue line). However, the difference is very subtle. In Time ②, the experimental group progressed whereas the control group regressed. The experimental group performed better than the control group, though the between-group difference is still very small. In contrast with Time ②, in Time ③, the control group improved whereas the experimental group regressed. The control group exceeded the experimental group at the final stage. Overall, the performances of the two groups fluctuated across test-times.

Figure 5.43. Two-group comparisons across times
Vocabulary choice task
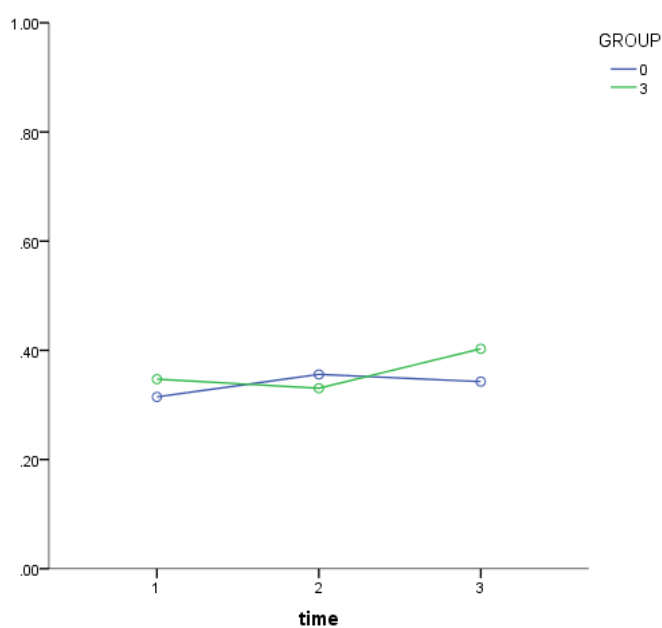
Statistics obtained from three separate independent-sample t-tests are provided in Table 5.30. All the p-values presented in this table are all above 0.05. This fact indicates that none of the two-group change comparisons is significantly different in the vocabulary choice task (also see Figure 5.44). It is worth noting that in the change (Time ③-②), there is a large effect size detected (absolute Cohen's d=4.441). This indicates that in the change from the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test, if the sample size can be enlarged, there is possibility that a significant difference can be found between the two groups. However, because of the negative Cohen's d value, even though the two groups can possibly be significantly different from each other when the sample size is enlarged, it is impossible that the experimental group could outperform the control group in the change (Time ③-②).

Table 5.30. Statistical values of the two-group comparison
Vocabulary choice task

	Group	Mean	SD	t	p-value	Cohen's d
Change	0	0.041	0.163	1.216	0.230	0.355
Time ②-①	3	-0.017	0.164			
Change	0	-0.013	0.163	-1.779	0.081	**-4.441**
Time ③-②	3	0.722	0.168			
Change	0	0.028	0.151	-0.544	0.589	-0.153
Time ③-①	3	0.056	0.211			

Figure 5.44. Two-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary choice task
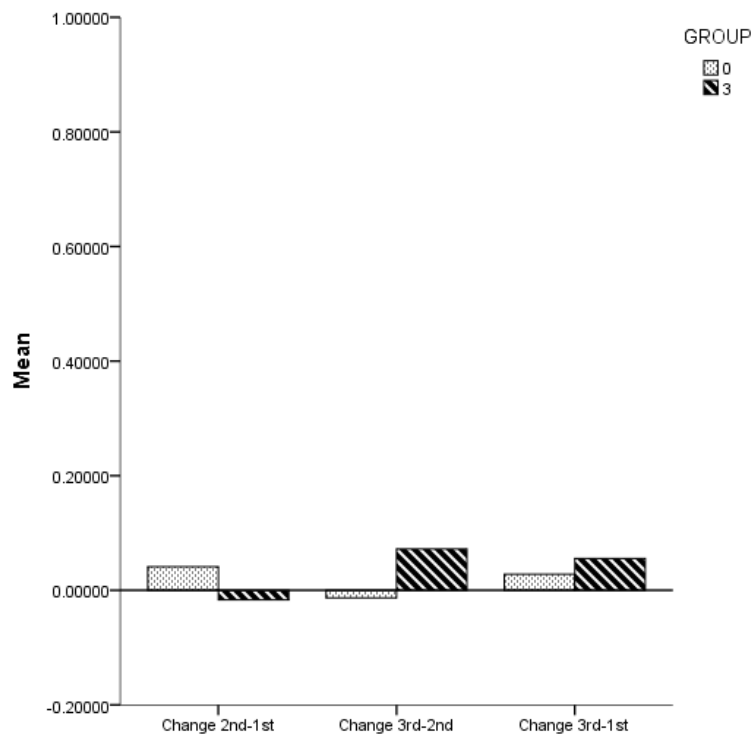
5.2.1.3 Observations of the results

Based on the statistical facts and figures presented in Section 5.2.1.1 and Section 5.2.1.2, it was found that in the translation task, there is a significant change difference found between the two groups from the pre-test to the immediate post-test. It is shown that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group. Participants in the experimental group also successfully maintained the improvement until the delayed post-test. However, in the choice task, no significant difference between the experimental and control group across test-times was found. As is seen in the data analysis, the participants generally fluctuated across the three stages in the choice task.

Thus, it can be concluded that audio-visual media as a whole had a positive and long-term influence on the learning aspect (of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping), based on the results shown in the translation

task. Audio-visual media may positively influence the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping in the long term. And this is consistent with the second hypothesis of this study that audio-visual media is positively influential in the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. However, audio-visual media may not be influential when learners apply the learnt vocabulary meaning in new contexts as seen in the results from the vocabulary choice task.

5.2.2 The impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping

The impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping is examined by comparing the performances of the high motivation group (Group 1), the low motivation group (Group 2) and the control group (Group 3) across test-times in the translation task and the choice task. Section 5.2.2.1 and Section 5.2.2.2 presents the cross-group comparisons. When the overall motivation has an influence on the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping, the impact of the six individual motivation factors (i.e. attitude to culture, determination, enjoyment, achievement orientation, instrumentality and the English media orientation) are further examined and analysed. The observations of the results of the translation task and the choice task are presented in Section 5.2.2.3.

5.2.2.1 Translation task

Examination of overall motivation

All the p-values in the cross-group comparisons in the pre-test are above 0.05 which suggests that all the groups are comparable in the experiment (See Table 5.31 below). This set of data is verified to be normally distributed and available for further parametric tests.

Table 5.31. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (overall motivation)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	p=0.929
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	p=1.000
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	p=1.000

As can be seen from Figure 5.45, at Time ②, the high motivation experimental group showed the greatest improvement, in comparison with the other two groups. The control group had the lowest mean accuracy rate in this comparison. At Time ③, the high motivation group and the low motivation group steadily maintain the mean accuracy rate at a relatively high level, even though the high motivation group still ranked the highest. The low motivation group's mean accuracy rate was still higher than the rate of the control group. The overall pattern of the improvement was very similar between the high motivation group and the low motivation group. This figure also indicates that the high motivation group retained the improvement made from the pre-test to immediate post-test to the delayed-post test.

Figure 5.45. Three-group comparisons across times
Vocabulary translation task (overall motivation)
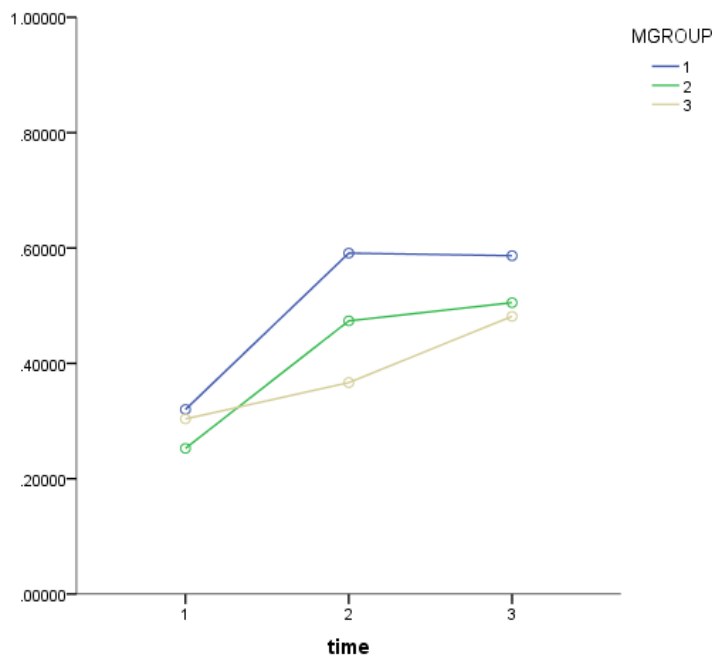
Statistics yielded from three separate one-way ANOVAs are provided in Table 5.32. Significant value (p=0.009) was found in the cross-group

comparison in change (Time ②-①). The post-hoc tests demonstrated that the experimental group with high motivation performed significantly better than the control group (p=0.011). The experimental group with low motivation performed significantly better than the control group as well (p=0.049). Although the comparison between the two experimental groups is not significant, the fact that the high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation group cannot be neglected (see Figures 5.45 and 5.46). From the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test, the changes in both of the experimental groups slowed down, which suggests that the progress they made was maintained until the third stage.

Table 5.32. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (overall motivation)

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.271	0.232		
	2	0.221	0.214	5.144	* **0.009**
	3	0.063	0.142		
Change	Post-hoc tests				
Time ②-①	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.746		0.224
	2 vs. 3		* **0.049**		0.870
	1 vs. 3		* **0.011**		1.081
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.004	0.293		
Change	2	0.032	0.114	1.610	0.210
Time ③-②	3	0.115	0.169		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d

	1 vs. 2		0.859		-0.162
	2 vs. 3		0.208		-0.576
	1 vs. 3		0.415		-0.498
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.267	0.243	0.731	0.486
	2	0.253	0.224		
	3	0.231	0.232		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.903		0.060
	2 vs. 3		0.593		0.096
	1 vs. 3		0.522		0.152

Figure 5.46. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (overall motivation)
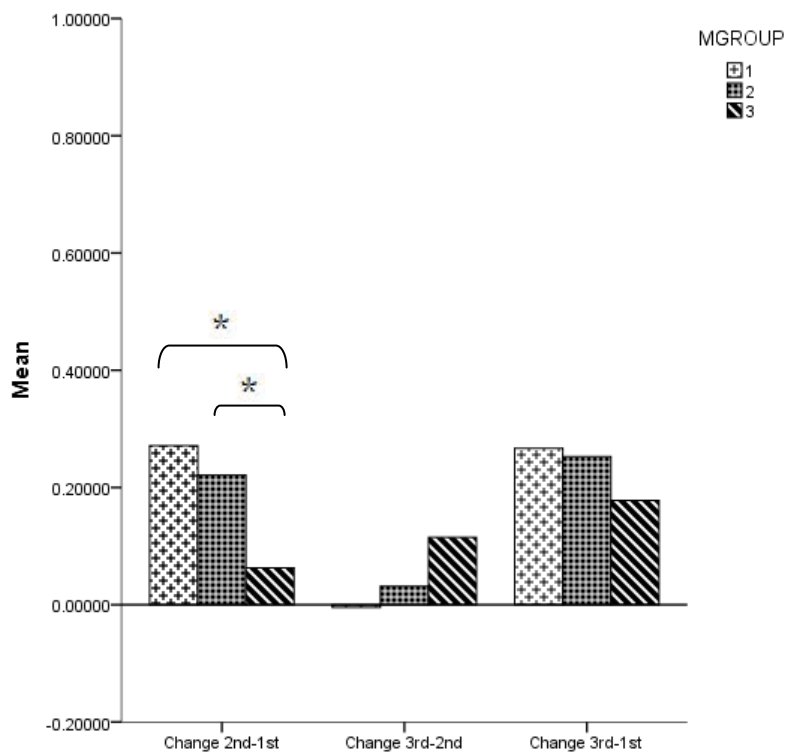
* p<0.05

Examination of individual motivation factors

Since the overall motivation is positively influential in the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping, it is worth investigating how each of the motivation factors influences the vocabulary meaning and form mapping learning. This subsection examines the influence of the individual motivation factors in terms of attitude to culture, determination, enjoyment, achievement orientation, instrumentality and the English media orientation respectively.

1) Attitude to culture

With regard to the homogeneity in the pre-test, as is shown in Table 5.33, there was no significant difference found in the three comparisons. Therefore, the three groups are comparable in the experiment.

Table 5.33. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (attitude to culture)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	0.454
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	0.614
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	0.958

Figure 5.47 presents the general trend of the three groups (Group 1: high motivation group in blue; Group 2: low motivation group in green; Group 3: control group in yellow) at the three stages of the experiment. It can be seen that in Time ② and Time ③, the high motivation group performed better then the low motivation group and the control group. Though in Time ③, the high motivation group's performance was lower than its performance in Time ②, the mean accuracy rate of the high motivation group was still higher than the rates of the low motivation group and the control group, and

a large amount of the improvement of the high motivation group was retained to the last stage. In all three stages, the high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation group.

Figure 5.47. Three-group comparisons across times
Vocabulary translation task (attitude to culture)
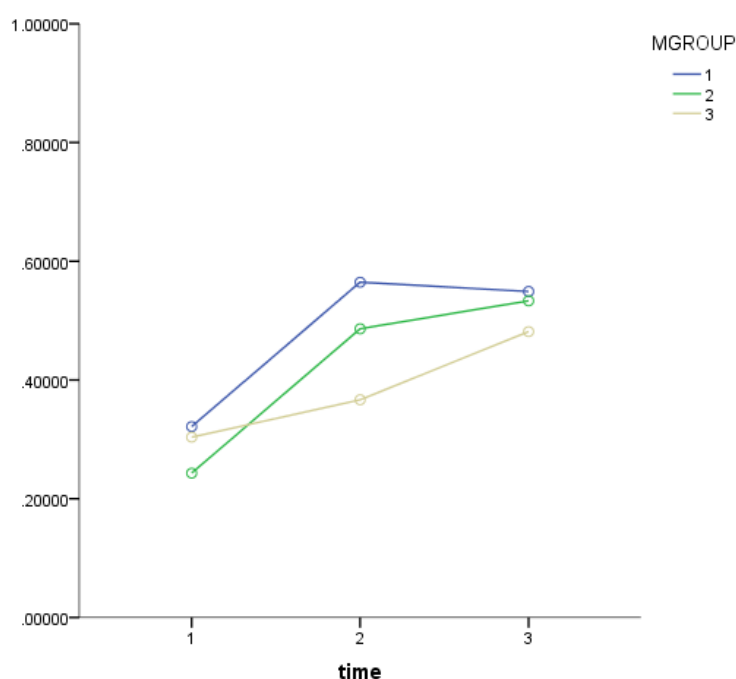
Apart from the trend presented in Figure 5.47, Table 5.34 presents the statistics in the cross-group comparisons of changes across test-times. It is obvious that in the change (Time ②-①), the overall p-value (0.012) is lower than 0.05. The post-hoc tests suggest that from Time ① to Time ②, the high motivation group significantly outperformed the control group, and the low motivation group significantly outperformed the control group as well (also see Figure 5.48).

Table 5.34. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (attitude to culture)

Change	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Time ②-①	1	0.243	0.224	4.823	*0.012

	2	0.243	0.224		
	3	0.063	0.142		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		1.000		0
	2 vs. 3		* **0.027**		0.960
	1 vs. 3		* **0.027**		0.960
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.017	0.280	1.920	0.158
	2	0.047	0.102		
	3	0.115	0.169		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.625		-0.304
	2 vs. 3		0.570		-0.487
	1 vs. 3		0.134		-0.571
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.227	0.243	1.038	0.362
	2	0.290	0.217		
	3	0.178	0.232		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.710		-0.273
	2 vs. 3		0.329		0.499
	1 vs. 3		0.801		0.206

Figure 5.48. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (attitude to culture)

* p<0.05
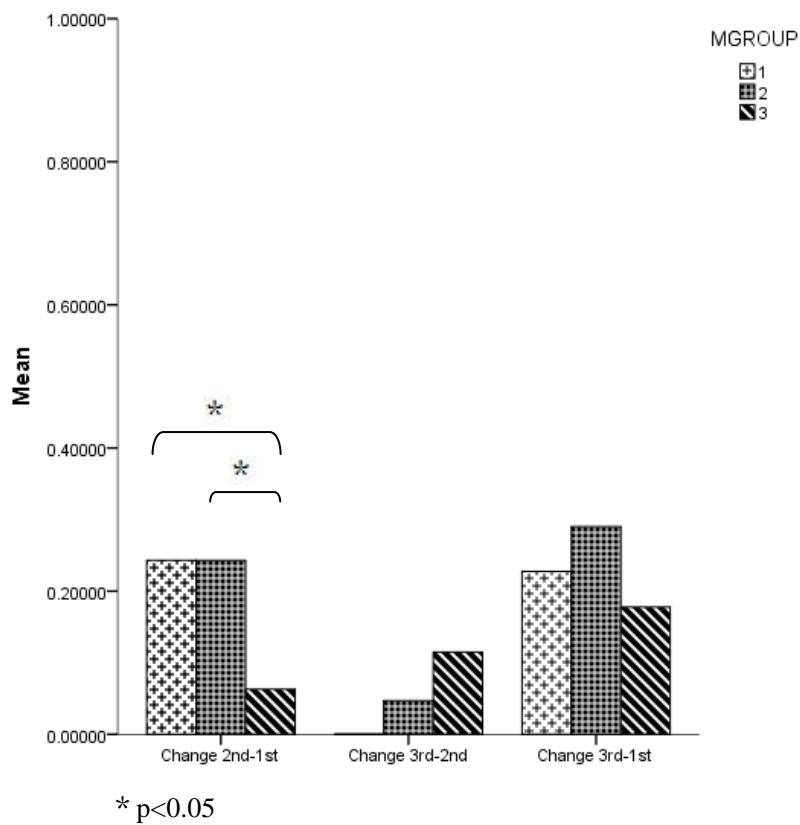
2) Determination

In the examination of the motivation factor of determination, the homogeneity across groups in the pre-test is first tested. The p-values are shown in Table 5.35 below. None of the p-values are below 0.05, which indicates that the three groups are homogeneous in the pre-test and appropriate for comparison in the experiment.

Table 5.35. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (determination)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	0.558
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	0.700
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	0.964

The trend of the performances of the three groups is presented in Figure 5.49. The pattern of improvement is very similar to the pattern found in Figure 5.45, and the statistics shown in Table 5.36 suggest that in terms of change (Time ②-①), the overall p-value is 0.012 which is below 0.05, indicating that a significant difference lies in the cross-group comparison. By conducting the post-hoc test, it is clear that the significant difference comes from the comparison between the high motivation group and the control group. From Time ① to Time ②, the high motivation group performed better than the low motivation group and significantly better than the control group (also see Figure 5.50) and in Time ③, the high motivation group retained the improvement made from the pre-test to the immediate-post test.

Figure 5.49. Three-group comparison across times
Vocabulary translation task (determination)
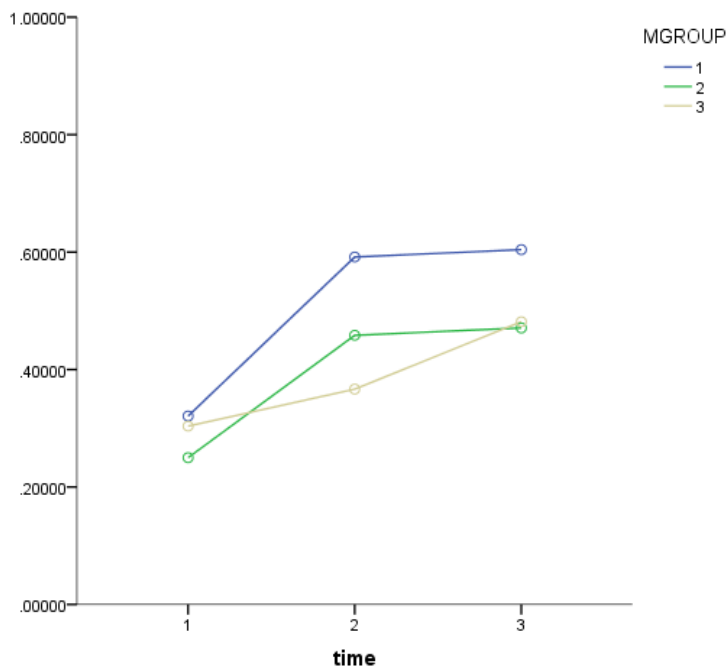
Table 5.36. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (determination)

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.271	0.224	4.830	* **0.012**
	2	0.208	0.232		
	3	0.063	0.142		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.656		0.276
	2 vs. 3		0.100		0.754
	1 vs. 3		* **0.012**		1.109
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-②	1	0.013	0.291	1.468	0.241
	2	0.013	0.106		
	3	0.115	0.169		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		1.000		0
	2 vs. 3		0.315		-0.723
	1 vs. 3		0.315		-0.429
	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ③-①	1	0.283	0.244	0.861	0.429
	2	0.221	0.228		
	3	0.178	0.232		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.733		0.263
	2 vs. 3		0.855		0.187
	1 vs. 3		0.397		0.441

Figure 5.50. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (determination)

* p<0.05
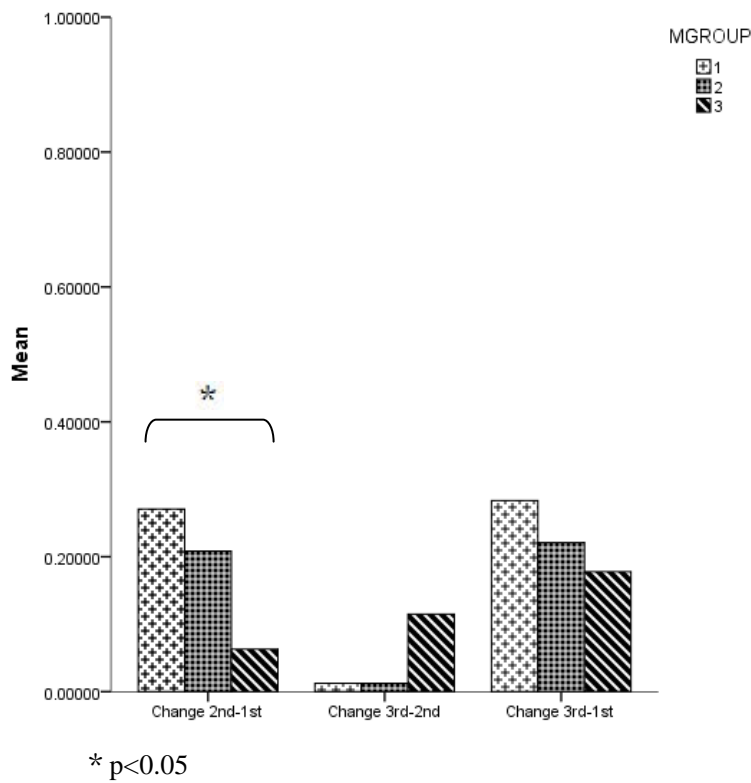
3) Enjoyment

In terms of the motivation factor of enjoyment, before the cross-group comparison is conducted, the homogeneity is first checked according to the pre-test results. It is shown in Table 5.37 that all the p-values are above 0.05 which suggests that the three groups are homogeneous at the pre-test stage. Therefore, the performances of the three groups in the experiment are comparable.

Table 5.37. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (enjoyment)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	0.604
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	0.693
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	0.987

Similar to the pattern found in Figure 5.45 and Figure 5.49, in Figure 5.51 below, the high motivation group performed consistently better than the low motivation group and the control group in Time ② and Time ③, and it retained the improvement in the change (Time ②-①) until the end. The statistics in Table 5.38 and Figure 5.52 indicate that in the change (Time ②-①), the cross-group comparison is significant (p=0.008). The post-hoc test statistics suggest that the cross-group significant difference lies in the comparison between the high motivation group and the control group (p=0.007). The value of Cohen's d (d=0.792) shown in the comparison between the low motivation group and the control group is approaching the value which indicates a large effect size (d=0.8). This means, if the sample size of the low motivation group and the control group can be enlarged, there is a chance that the low motivation group would significantly outperform the control group.

Figure 5.51. Three-group comparison across times
Vocabulary translation task (enjoyment)
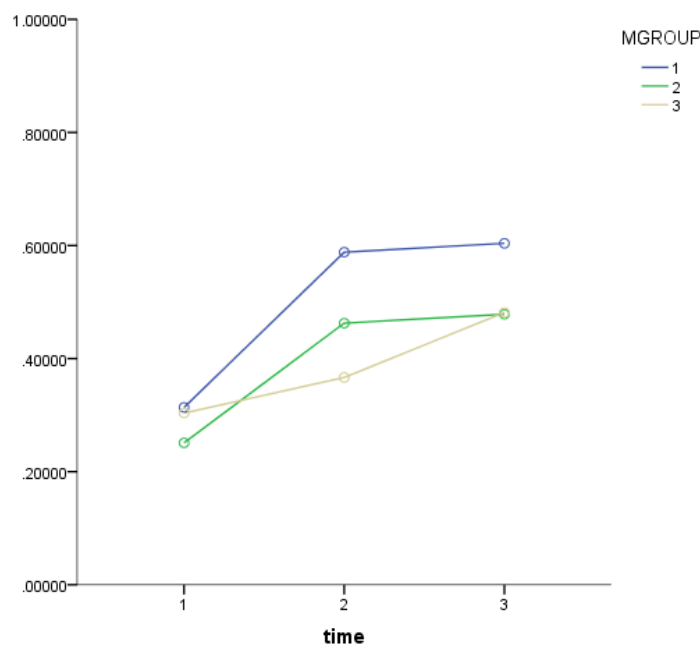
Table 5.38. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (enjoyment)

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.275	0.271	5.337	* **0.008**
	2	0.212	0.225		
	3	0.063	0.142		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.626		0.253
	2 vs. 3		0.076		**0.792**
	1 vs. 3		* **0.007**		0.980
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.016	0.282	1.463	0.241
	2	0.016	0.104		
	3	0.115	0.169		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		1.000		0
	2 vs. 3		0.312		-0.706
	1 vs. 3		0.312		-0.426
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.290	0.238	1.038	0.362
	2	0.227	0.222		
	3	0.178	0.232		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.710		0.274
	2 vs. 3		0.801		0.216
	1 vs. 3		0.329		0.477

Figure 5.52. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (enjoyment)

* p<0.05
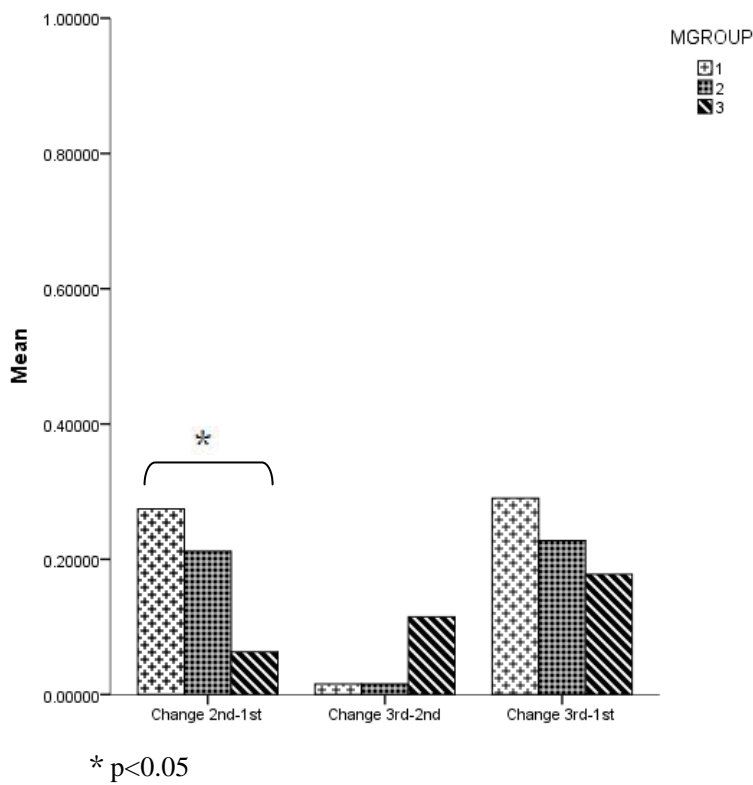
4) Achievement orientation

With regard to the homogeneity shown in the pre-test of the motivation factor of achievement orientation, all the p-values are above 0.05 (see Table 5.39) There is no significant difference found in cross-group comparisons. All the three groups are homogeneous in the pre-test.

Table 5.39. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (achievement orientation)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	0.460
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	0.582
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	0.967

The pattern of trends in Figure 5.53 below resembles the trends shown in Figures 5.45, 5.49 and 5.51. The high motivation group consistently

outperformed the low motivation group and the control group. The statistics shown in Table 5.40 and Figure 5.54 suggest that in the change (Time ②-①), there is a significant difference (p=0.011). The high motivation group showed significant improvement, in comparison to the control group (p=0.010). Also in the change (Time ②-①), the value of Cohen's d (d=0.797 ≈ 0.8) shown in the post-hoc comparison between the low motivation group and the control group indicates large effect size. If the sample size of these two groups can be enlarged, there is a possibility that a significant difference can be found between the two groups.

Figure 5.53. Three-group comparison across times
Vocabulary translation task (achievement orientation)
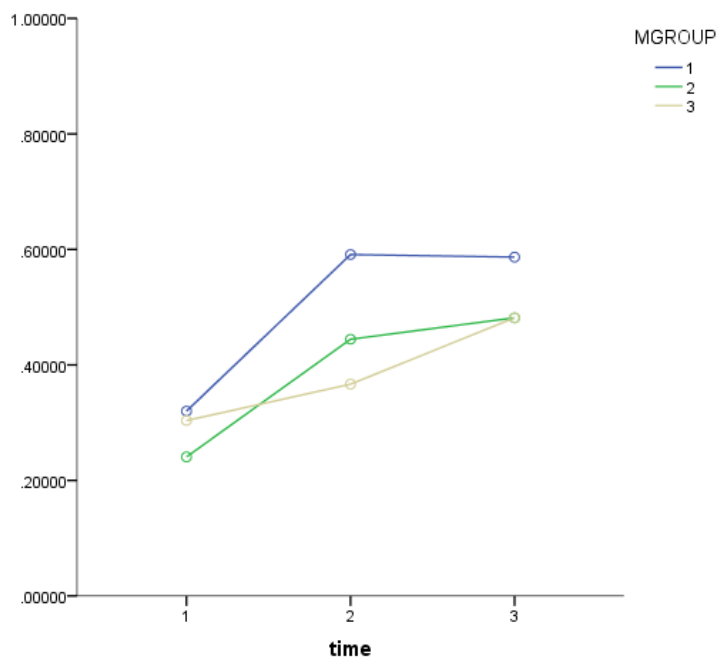
Table 5.40. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (achievement orientation)

Change Time ②-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.271	0.232	5.010	* **0.011**
	2	0.204	0.206		
	3	0.063	0.142		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.586		0.305
	2 vs. 3		0.087		**0.797**
	1 vs. 3		* **0.010**		1.081
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	-0.004	0.293	1.539	0.225
	2	0.037	0.115		
	3	0.115	0.169		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.824		-0.184
	2 vs. 3		0.478		-0.540
	1 vs. 3		0.213		-0.498
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
	1	0.267	0.243	0.652	0.525
	2	0.241	0.224		
	3	0.178	0.232		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.946		0.111
	2 vs. 3		0.697		0.276
	1 vs. 3		0.523		0.375

Figure 5.54. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (achievement orientation)

* p<0.05
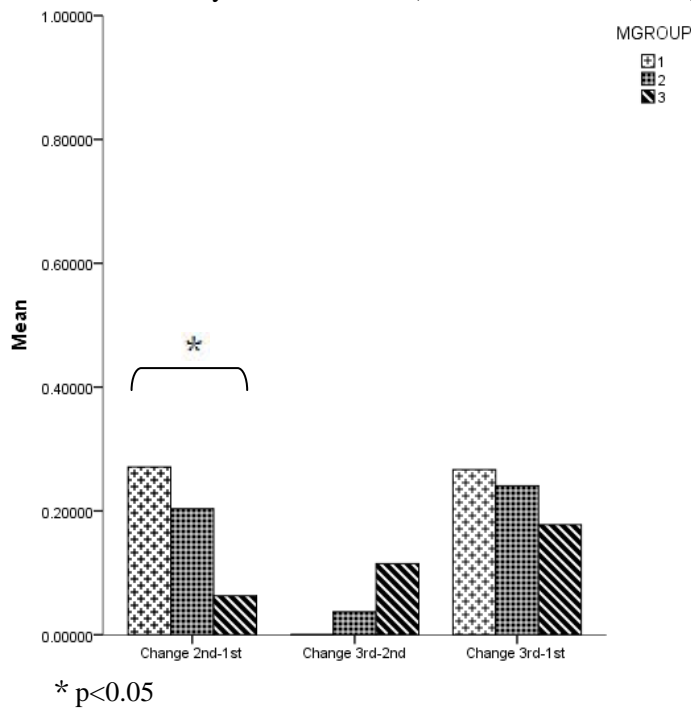
5) Instrumentality

Regarding the homogeneity in the pre-test in the examination of the impact of the motivation factor instrumentality, no significant difference is found according to the p-values listed in Table 5.41 below. All the three groups are homogeneous at the pre-test stage, thus they are eligible for further comparisons.

Table 5.41. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (instrumentality)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	0.438
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	0.661
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	0.903

Again, Figure 5.55 below shows a similar pattern of trends discovered in Figures 5.45, 5.49, 5.51 and 5.53. Across the three test stages, the high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation

group and the control group and it retained the improvement made from Time ① to Time ② until Time ③. As is presented in Table 5.42 and Figure 5.56 below, in the change (Time ②-①), there is a significant difference found (p=0.011). The post-hoc test suggests that the high motivation group significantly outperformed the control group and the low motivation group significantly outperformed the control group as well.

Figure 5.55. Three-group comparison across times
Vocabulary translation task (instrumentality)
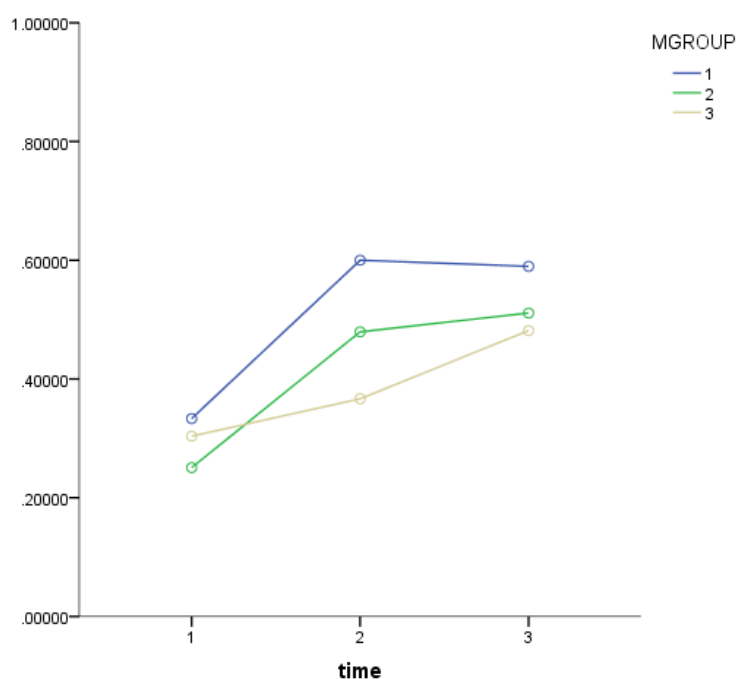
Table 5.42. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (instrumentality)

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.267	0.240	5.000	* **0.011**
	2	0.229	0.211		
	3	0.063	0.142		
	Post-hoc tests				
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d
	1 vs. 2		0.850		0.168

				2 vs. 3	* **0.032**		0.923	
				1 vs. 3	* **0.019**		1.035	
Change Time ③-②	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value			
	1	-0.010	0.307	1.654	0.202			
	2	0.032	0.124					
	3	0.115	0.169					
	Post-hoc tests							
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d			
	1 vs. 2		0.820		-0.179			
	2 vs. 3		0.399		-0.560			
	1 vs. 3		0.203		-0.504			
Change Time ③-①	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value			
	1	0.256	0.248	0.717	0.493			
	2	0.260	0.223					
	3	0.178	0.232					
	Post-hoc tests							
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d			
	1 vs. 2		0.999		-0.017			
	2 vs. 3		0.515		0.360			
	1 vs. 3		0.624		0.325			

Figure 5.56. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (instrumentality)

* p<0.05
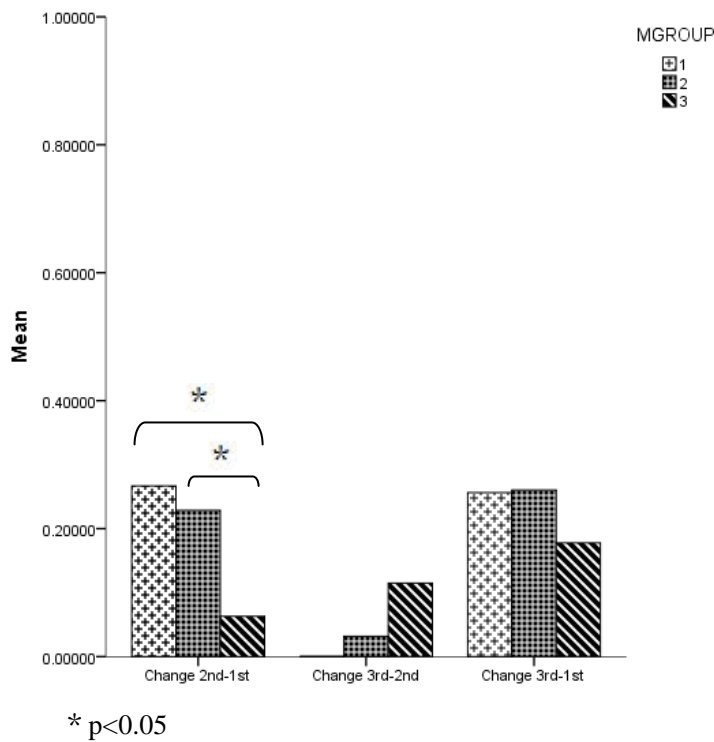
6) The English media orientation

In the examination of the impact of the motivation factor of the English media orientation, the cross-group homogeneity was first checked. The p-values listed in Table 5.43 below suggest there is no significant difference cross the groups. They are homogeneous in the pre-test. Therefore they are available for further statistical comparisons.

Table 5.43. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary translation task (the English media orientation)

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	0.891
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	0.827
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	0.982

The trend of cross-group performances over time presented in Figure 5.57

share similarities to the trend shown in Figures 5.45, 5.49, 5.51, 5.53 and 5.55. The high motivation group performed better than the low motivation group and the control group. The statistics shown Table 5.44 (also see the accompany Figure 5.58) suggest that in the change (Time ②-①), a significant difference is detected (p=0.006). The post-hoc test indicates that the significant difference lies in the comparison between the high motivation group and the control group (p=0.004). From Time ① to Time ②, the high motivation group improved by a significant amount compared to the control group.

Figure 5.57. Three-group comparison across times
Vocabulary translation task (the English media orientation)
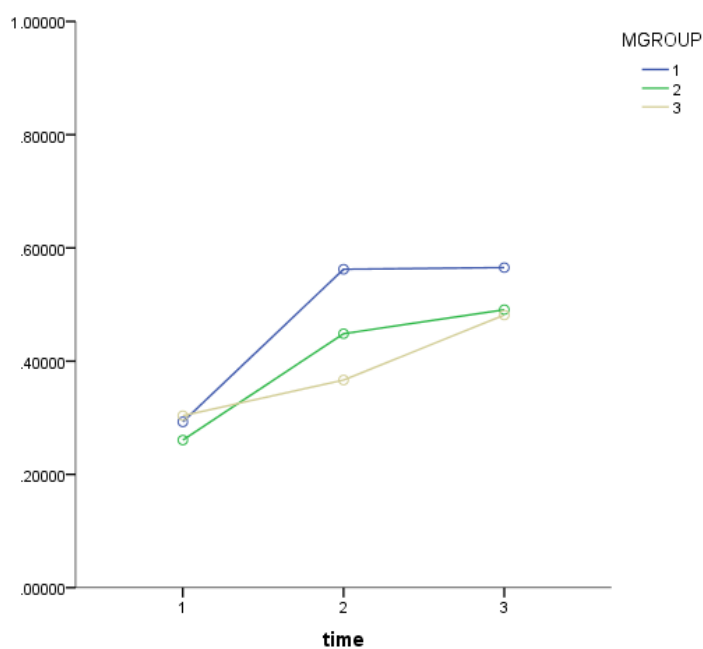
Table 5.44. Statistics of three-group comparison
Vocabulary translation task (the English media orientation)

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.270	0.199	5.593	* **0.006**
	2	0.188	0.260		
	3	0.063	0.142		
	Post-hoc tests				

Groups	p-value	Cohen's d
1 vs. 2	0.498	0.354
2 vs. 3	0.230	0.597
1 vs. 3	* **0.004**	1.197

Change Time ③-②

Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
1	0.003	0.247	1.620	0.208
2	0.042	0.100		
3	0.115	0.169		

Post-hoc tests

Groups	p-value	Cohen's d
1 vs. 2	0.850	-0.207
2 vs. 3	0.609	-0.526
1 vs. 3	0.182	-0.529

Change Time ③-①

Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
1	0.272	0.225	0.842	0.437
2	0.230	0.247		
3	0.178	0.232		

Post-hoc tests

Groups	p-value	Cohen's d
1 vs. 2	0.874	0.178
2 vs. 3	0.825	0.217
1 vs. 3	0.403	0.411

Figure 5.58. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary translation task (the English media orientation)

* p<0.05
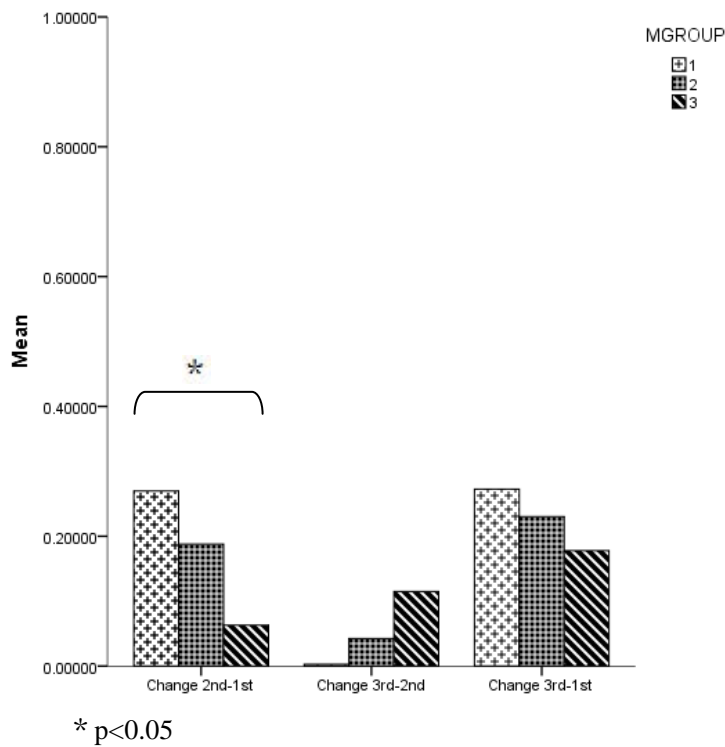
Brief summary

In this subsection, the impact of the overall motivation, as well as the impact of the six individual motivation factors was examined by comparing the performances of the high motivation group, the low motivation group and the control group over test-times. As shown in the statistical factors and figures in the examination of the overall motivation and the individual motivation factors: 1) in all the three test stages, the high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation group and the control group; 2) from Time ① to Time ②, the high motivation group improved a significant amount than the control group; 3) the high motivation group retained the improvement made from Time ① to Time ②, and to Time ③.

5.2.2.2 Choice task

All the p-values in the homogeneity comparisons in the pre-test were above 0.05, which indicates that all the three groups are comparable (see Table 5.45). This set of data is demonstrated to be normal distributed and available for further parametric testing.

Table 5.45. Three-group pre-test homogeneity
Vocabulary choice task

	P-value
Group comparison (1 vs. 2)	p=0.712
Group comparison (2 vs. 3)	p=0.548
Group comparison (1 vs. 3)	p=1.000

In terms of the mean accuracy rate across test-times, it can be seen from Figure 5.59 that at Time ①, the three groups share a very similar starting point. By Time ②, the high motivation group and the low motivation group had progressed in a similar manner, and the high motivation group performed better than the low motivation group. The accuracy rate of the control group dropped down at Time ②. The control group and the low motivation group reached roughly the same mean accuracy rate at the second stage. However, by Time ③, when the low motivation group and the control group improved a little, the high motivation group regressed drastically. The rate of the high motivation group is the lowest in comparison with the other two groups.

Figure 5.59. Three-group comparison across times
Vocabulary choice task
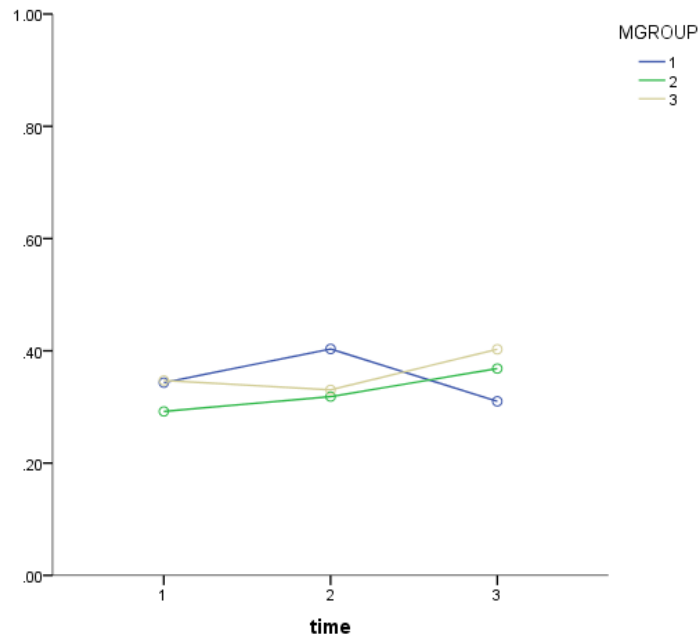
Statistical values generated from three separate one-way ANOVAs are shown in Table 5.46 (also see Figure 5.60) below. As presented, in the change from Time ① to Time ② and the overall change from Time ① to Time ③, the p-values are above 0.05. No significant difference is detected. However from Time ② to Time ③, the change is significantly different across groups (F=5.336, p=0.008). Further analysis in the post-hoc tests show that the significant differences lies in the comparison between the high motivation group and the low motivation group, as well as in the comparison between the high motivation group and the control group.

Table 5.46. Statistical values of three-group comparison
Vocabulary choice task

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value
Change Time ②-①	1	0.060	0.161	0.905	0.411
	2	0.026	0.168		
	3	-0.017	0.164		
	Post-hoc tests				

	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d	
	1 vs. 2		0.824		0.207	
	2 vs. 3		0.708		0.259	
	1 vs. 3		0.383		0.474	

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value	
	1	-0.093	0.173			
	2	0.050	0.126	5.336	* **0.008**	
	3	0.072	0.168			
Change Time ③-②	Post-hoc tests					
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d	
	1 vs. 2		* **0.027**		-0.945	
	2 vs. 3		0.901		-0.148	
	1 vs. 3		* **0.010**		-0.968	

	Group	Mean	SD	F	p-value	
	1	-0.033	0.140			
	2	0.076	0.146	1.901	0.160	
	3	0.056	0.211			
Change Time ③-①	Post-hoc tests					
	Groups		p-value		Cohen's d	
	1 vs. 2		0.159		-0.762	
	2 vs. 3		0.927		0.110	
	1 vs. 3		0.301		-0.497	

Figure 5.60. Three-group comparisons of change
Vocabulary choice task
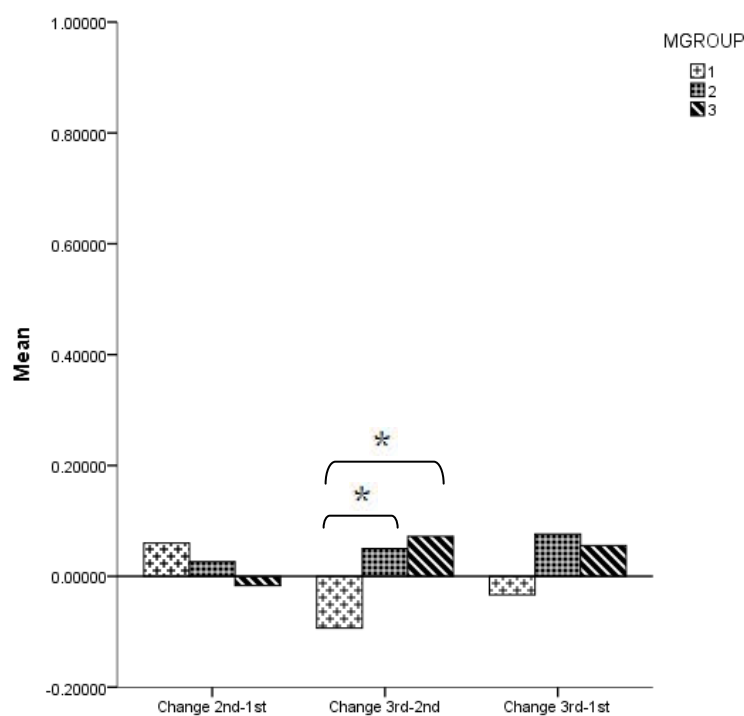
* p<0.05

5.2.2.3 Observations of the results

Section 5.2.2.1 and Section 5.2.2.2 presented the statistics, the tables and figures, providing evidence for the impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping in both the translation and choice task in the vocabulary test. In the translation task, the overall motivation and the six individual motivation factors are all positively influential in the long term, on the grounds that: 1) the high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation group and the control group; 2) from the pre-test to the immediate post-test, the high motivation group improved by a significant amount as compared to the control group; 3) the great improvement of the high motivation group is retained until the delayed post-test. The motivation factors provided by audio-visual media had a significant positive and long-lasting impact on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form

mapping. The positive influence demonstrated of the motivation factors from the audio-visual media is consistent with the hypothesis made in Section 3.4 that motivation factors from audio-visual media and the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping go hand in hand. However, in the choice task, audio-visual media showed only a very minimal effect. When the vocabulary is applied into new context, the impact of the motivation factors from audio-visual media cannot be sustained.

5.2.3 Brief summary

In this section, the results of the impact of audio-visual media and the impact of the motivation factors from audio-visual media on the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping were presented and interpreted. It was found that audio-visual media was positively influential in the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping in the long term, but was not very influential when the learners apply the vocabulary meaning into new contexts. In the examination of the motivation factors, it was suggested that the overall motivation as well as the six individual motivation factors can all positively influence the learning of vocabulary learning in the long term. However, when the learners apply the vocabulary meaning to new contexts, the impact of motivation factors was substantially weakened.

5.3 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented and analysed the data obtained from the one-year longitudinal experiment which tested the impact of audio-visual media and the impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity in an AJT and the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping in a vocabulary test respectively.

In summary, in the AJT, it was found that the participants were not fully

aware of the singular-plural distinction and did not know the use of article "the". In terms of the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity, audio-visual media had a weak impact. With regard to the motivation factors from the audio-visual media, they were demonstrated to be not influential.

In the vocabulary test, it was found that audio-visual media had a long-term positive influence in the translation task. So in conclusion, audio-visual media was influential in the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. However, when applying the vocabulary meaning to new contexts, the impact of audio-visual media was not sustained. The motivation factors from audio-visual media (both the overall motivation and the six individual motivation factors) were demonstrated to be positively influential when Chinese learners learn the vocabulary meaning and form mapping in the long term (as was shown in the translation task). However, it was found that the impact of the motivation factors was substantially weakened in the choice task in which the learners need to apply the vocabulary meaning into new contexts. The next chapter will present the discussion of the findings from the experiment in detail.

Chapter Six: Discussion

This chapter provides discussion of the results obtained from the one-year long experiment in the current study. To recapitulate the hypotheses of the current study, it was stated in Section 3.4 that:

Hypothesis 1: Audio-visual media has a positive impact on the acquisition of English genericity by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English. There is a possibility that motivation is positively influential in the acquisition process.

Hypothesis 2: Audio-visual media has a positive impact on the learning of English vocabulary by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English. The motivational factors provided by the given audio-visual media and L2 learning process go hand in hand.

The findings of the current study partially support Hypothesis 1 and fully support Hypothesis 2. In terms of acquisition, audio-visual media had a weak impact. The motivation factors from audio-visual media were not influential in the acquisition aspect. In the learning aspect (of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping), audio-visual media, as well as the motivation factors from audio-visual media had a strong positive long-term impact. However, the impact from both audio-visual media as a whole and the motivation factors did not extend to when the vocabulary meaning is associated with new contexts.

Based on the findings, the impact of audio-visual media as a whole, and the impact of the motivation factors from audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning are discussed respectively in Section 6.1 and Section 6.2. Based on the results and patterns shown in Chapter Five, the

high motivation group consistently performed better than the low motivation group, and significantly outperformed the control group in the examination of the overall motivation and the six motivation factors in the translation task of the vocabulary test, a theoretical proposal called the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis is raised to contribute to the field of L2 acquisition research. The definition, the characteristics, the importance and the main functions of the motivation input carrier are explained in detail in Section 6.3. Having established the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition and learning of English, the possible application of audio-visual media in the Chinese context and the implications from the proposal of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis for English teachers and learners in China are discussed (see Section 6.4).

6.1 The impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition

In the current study, the impact of audio-visual media as a whole on English acquisition by Chinese-speaking learners was examined by an AJT which adopted English genericity as the target test property. It was found that audio-visual media had a weak impact on the acquisition of English genericity.

I suggest the weak positive impact of audio-visual media in acquisition is mainly attributed to the fact that audio-visual media contains positive evidence. Since positive evidence can access the language module in the mind and facilitate L2 acquisition, audio-visual media can positively influence L2 acquisition.

Regarding this conclusion, another main issue that needs further explanation is on why audio-visual media can have a weak positive impact on acquisition, but not a significant impact. I argue that, this is due to the fact

that language input is not a sufficient condition. Language output and interaction are also important in L2 acquisition. When the learners receive audio-visual media in a self-learning setting, L2 learners lack the opportunity for output and interaction.

In terms of output, it is one of the five essential components which are the apperceived input, the comprehended input, the intake, the integration, and the output in the L2 acquisition process (Gass, 1997). Gass acknowledges the status of output in L2 acquisition, and argues that output is beneficial when L2 learners test their hypotheses of underlying grammar (Gass, 1997). Swain (1985, 1995, 2005) also identifies the role of output by proposing the Output Hypothesis. While she accepts the necessity of language input, she points out that language input might not be sufficient (Swain, 1985). The importance of output cannot be ignored, and Swain also claims that output is not only a product of L2 acquisition, but also an indispensible component in the L2 acquisition process (Swain, 2005).

In the proposal of Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2005), there are three basic functions of output which can serve the L2 acquisition and learning process. They are: the noticing/ triggering function, the hypothesis testing function and the metalinguistic reflection function (Swain, 1995; Swain and Lapkin, 1995). In her explanation, she explicitly claims that "the noticing/ triggering function" and the "metalinguistic reflection function" are consciously engaged. Therefore, in the framework of the current study, these two functions can only serve in the learning process, but not in the acquisition process. Due to the consciously registered nature of these two functions, they will not be illustrated in detail in this section. The relevant function of output that might affect acquisition is the hypothesis testing function. L2 learners can obtain feedback of indirect negative evidence in the negotiation from interlocutors to either confirm or reject their underlying

syntactic hypothesis. If their hypothesis is problematic, the feedback they received would help them correct and modify the hypothesis. The modified hypothesis would then contribute to the development of the underlying knowledge of the L2.

It is obvious that output plays an important role in the L2 acquisition process and the unconsciously registered functions may benefit L2 learners in acquiring the target language. However, due to fact that the experiment in the current study was carried out in the self-learning setting, where very few output opportunities were provided, the participants in the current study could not have benefited from output to test their underlying hypothesis and therefore could not promote automatic processing.

With regard to interaction, many researchers (Braidi, 1995; Gass, 1997; Gass and Varonis, 1994; Long, 1981, 1985, 1996; Mackey, 1999, 2012 and so on) highlight interaction as being important and facilitative in L2 acquisition. Long (1981. 1985, 1996) proposes the Interaction Hypothesis which attaches great importance on interaction. He claims that language input alone cannot lead to successful L2 acquisition. L2 learners also depend on the information provided from the language environment, especially from interaction and negotiation.

Interaction is a two-way activity. On the one hand, it is a bridge which connects the language input that learners receive and the language output that learners produce. Interaction provides a place where L2 learners can produce output. The benefits of output, including the hypothesis testing function, can be realized from the interaction opportunities (Mackey, 2012). On the other hand, interaction enables L2 learners to receive relevant feedbacks to improve and modify their interlanguage, especially when there is a mismatch between their input and output. The feedback in interaction

may include both positive evidence and indirect negative evidence. When the interlocutor is a native language speaker, the utterance itself from the interlocutor can serve as positive grammatical evidence. Indirect negative evidence is provided when the interlocutor does confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests and so on, to elicit more modified output (Long, 1983; Mackey, 2012). As presented in Section 3.1.2, positive evidence and indirect negative evidence can contribute to L2 learners' innate processing, and thus promote L2 acquisition. The interlocutor's utterances and the implicit guidance that interlocutors make can benefit L2 learners' acquisition of the target language. This, according to Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975), may contribute to L2 learners' syntactic development.

Since the current study was conducted in a self-learning setting where there were rare interaction opportunities, the learners cannot be involved in interaction and obtain indirect negative evidence to promote L2 acquisition.

Apart from examining the impact of audio-visual media as a whole, this study also examined the impact of the motivation factors from audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity. It was found that the motivation factors were not influential in the acquisition of English genericity. This result provides empirical evidence for the updated Affective Filter Hypothesis that the linguistic related modules are immune from the affective system in the MOGUL framework (Sharwood Smith, 2014). Even if motivation of language learning is promoted, L2 acquisition cannot be enhanced.

Compared to the previous studies which have been reviewed in Section 3.2.2, the current study prolonged the input period and involved a homogeneity pre-test and a delayed post-test to investigate the long-term

effect. By developing the research methods, the weak long-term impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition has been detected. This piece of new evidence provides a supplement to the existing literature regarding the impact of audio-visual media in L2 acquisition research.

6.2 The impact of audio-visual media on L2 learning

The impact of audio-visual media on English language learning by Chinese-speaking learners was examined with a vocabulary test (including a translation task and a choice task), which adopted English vocabulary meaning and form mapping as the target test property in the current study. As shown in the results in Chapter Five, a conclusion can be made that audio-visual media is significantly effective in meaning inferences of new vocabulary as shown in the results of the translation task, which demonstrated the second hypothesis in the current study (see Section 3.4). However, the positive effect did not extend to the choice task. Regarding this finding, there are two issues which need further explanation from the theoretical viewpoint.

The first main issue centres on the reason why audio-visual media had a long-term positive influence on the learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. I argue that the long-term impact may be due to the fact that audio-visual media can provide subtitles, visual and verbal clues, a plot and linguistic context for L2 learners. These four contributions are discussed below.

The subtitle effect

One of the contributing factors to the impact of meaning inference in audio-visual media may be the subtitle effect. There are basically two reasons why subtitles can facilitate L2 vocabulary learning. Firstly, in the

subtitles presented in audio-visual media, L2 learners can access the written forms of the utterances produced by the actors. The linguistic verbal information is then visualized (Danan, 2004). The written forms provide the participants the opportunity to establish a connection between form and meaning of vocabulary. According to Nation (2001), the form-meaning connection is a very important part of vocabulary learning. Subtitles make the establishment of this connection possible. Secondly, participants can also infer the meaning of vocabulary based on the combination of their existing knowledge and the vocabulary forms presented in the subtitle. For instance, L2 learners may have the meaning of some affixes and how the affixes work. Given the form presented the subtitles, L2 learners can identify those affixes from the subtitles and put the meanings of the affixes into the inference of new vocabulary. Subtitles can provide opportunities for L2 learners to use existing knowledge in inferring the meaning of new vocabulary.

Based on the impact of subtitles in L2 vocabulary learning as above, I propose that the subtitles are a contributory factor in the impact of vocabulary learning through audio-visual media in the current study.

The effect of visual and verbal clues

The visual clues and verbal clues involved in audio-visual media may be another contributing factor to the positive impact of L2 learning from audio-visual media. In contrast to the role in L2 acquisition, non-linguistic clues are shown to be very important in L2 learning.

In terms of visual clues, L2 learners can find information from actors' gestures, facial expressions, body language and other background location information. With the help of visual aids, L2 learners can learn vocabulary

in a much easier way and retain the items relatively longer. Canning-Wilson (2000) shows that visual images contained in the videos can help enhance L2 learners' meaning inference and the recognition of vocabulary. This argument has also been tested by Duquette and Painchaud (1996). In their study, they tested vocabulary learning from a listening dialogue. The experimental group received a listening dialogue with visual aids, whereas the control group received the listening dialogue without visual aids. The outcome of their vocabulary learning revealed that the experimental group learnt more vocabulary than the control group. Therefore, they suggested that visual clues enabled the learner to draw the inference of new vocabulary.

Among the visual clues, the gestures performed by the actors are also readily available. As has been argued by researchers (Farley et al., 2012; Macedonia, 2003), gestures are helpful in L2 learning of both concrete and abstract words. Gestures are beneficial when L2 learners look for the corresponding meaning of words. It is also tested to be effective in L2 learners' long-term retention of new vocabularies (Allen, 1995; Wang, 2012). Gestures can also help L2 learners recognise the semantic property of vocabulary, such as the instantaneous property of momentary verbs.

With regard to verbal clues, it is extremely helpful when L2 learners infer the meaning of onomatopoeia. The nature of onomatopoeia is that the word imitates the relevant sound. If the sound is given as verbal clue, L2 learners can connect the sound, the word form and word meaning together. This would lead to successful learning of vocabulary items that are onomatopoeic. In the current study, onomatopoeia is included in the translation task as in "whirr", which describes "the low loud sound of machine movement" (Hornby, 2008: 2294). By referring to the verbal clues from audio-visual media, the learners can correctly obtain the meaning of this onomatopoeia.

The plot effect

The plot embedded in the audio-visual media may also contribute to the positive impact found in L2 learning in the current study as well. One function of plots in L2 learning of vocabulary is that plots provide opportunities for L2 learners to comprehend the meaning of new vocabulary. Here the plots serve the same function as the subtitles and the visual and verbal clues. If the learners cannot infer the word meaning from the subtitles and the visual and verbal clues, they can also get help from plot. Generally speaking, plots are continuous integrated stories. L2 learners can, not only understand plots by referring to actor's utterances and visual and verbal clues, but also understand by referring to previous stories. If the plot of the current episode is understood with the help of previous stories, word meaning can be inferred from the content of the plot as well.

Another function of plots in the L2 learning of vocabulary is that participants can interact with plots to confirm their inference of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. It is just argued that participants can benefit from subtitles and non-linguistic clues to infer the meaning of new vocabulary. However, it is not the case that their meaning inference can be 100 percent correct. If L2 learners can correctly infer the meaning of new vocabulary, there must be a mechanism to verify their hypothesis about meaning inference. The plot is just the place where this mechanism can be exploited. L2 learners receive the plot information, together with linguistic input from audio-visual media. They process both the plot information and the linguistic input simultaneously. While they process the linguistic input, they also come to understand the plot. If the L2 learner's meaning inference of vocabulary is correct, there will not be any obstacles in understanding the plot. However, if the L2 learner's meaning inference of vocabulary is

problematic, there would be a breakdown in understanding the plot. This breakdown would in turn offers cues to L2 learners that there might be something wrong with the meaning inference of the particular vocabulary. With the cues from the breakdown, L2 learners can go back to their previous meaning inference and seek to revise the word meaning again from the plot. If their modified meaning is correct, there won't be any breakdown of understanding the plot. If their modified meaning is still problematic, then the above procedure would be repeated, until the understanding breakdown is resolved. Thus, it is obvious that plots play an essential role in learning the meaning of new vocabulary. Without a plot, interaction for the purpose of the meaning check cannot happen. Here in this process, the breakdown of understanding plot plays the role of an alerter when L2 learners confirm the correctness of their meaning inference. Its function is very similar to the indirect negative feedback, in that they both provide implicit hints for L2 learners to notice the problematic points and modify them accordingly.

In light of these two functions of plots, I suggest that plots can also contribute to the impact of meaning inference in the L2 learning of new vocabulary in the current study. For instance, there is a test item "outrageous" in the vocabulary test in this study. This word appeared in episode four in *Doctor Who (Series One)*. Before the appearance of "outrageous", there was a sentence "*I have got the White House phoning me direct, because Downing Street won't answer their calls!*" This preceding sentence in the plot expressed anger which provided implication of the meaning of "outrageous".

The linguistic context effect

In addition, the linguistic context involved in audio-visual media are claimed to be of great importance in giving rise to the impact of meaning

inferences. Many researchers (Baleghizadeh and Shahry, 2011; Kang, 1995; Nation, 2001) have pointed out that the linguistic context is beneficial when L2 learners learn the vocabulary in the target language. Nation (2001) suggested that vocabulary can be learnt after they are picked up from the linguistic contexts by L2 learners. Baleghizadeh and Shahry (2011) also demonstrated the positive role of the linguistic context by conducting an experiment in vocabulary learning. They recruited 33 Iranian learners of English and they were required to learn 10 new English words in consecutive sentence contexts and another 10 new English words using a context-free method. The result revealed that the participants could better remember the 10 words which were learnt in the context mode. Therefore it is suggested that context can positively influence the participants' vocabulary learning.

In summary, subtitles, visual and verbal clues, plot and linguistic context all contribute to the positive impact of audio-visual media in the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping.

The second main issue focused on the reason why the positive impact of audio-visual media is shown much clearer in the translation task than the choice task. I assume that this is because of the new contexts involved in the choice task. In the research design of the translation task, the participants were asked to write the corresponding Chinese translation of the given English word. No contexts were provided. The participants in the experimental group could understand and infer meaning from the language input in audio-visual media, thus they performed much better than the control group. However, in the choice task, participants were required to learn the meaning of vocabulary from the language input first and then put the words into a novel context. Applying new words into another context is a step further made beyond meaning inferring and understanding. Thus the

impact of audio-visual media input is shown clearer in the translation task.

Understanding the knowledge of vocabulary meaning and form mapping provided by audio-visual media is a necessary condition but not sufficient when the vocabulary is applied into new contexts. Other metalinguistic knowledge, such as word association and constraints on use (see Table 3.4), are also necessary in the new context. Audio-visual media can only present a subset of possible word associations and constraints on use which may not cover the metalinguistic vocabulary knowledge required in the new context. Therefore, the impact of audio-visual media is restricted when L2 learners apply the vocabulary in new contexts.

In addition to the examination of the impact of audio-visual media as a whole, the current study also examined the impact of motivation factors (overall motivation and the six individual motivation factors) from audio-visual on the learning of English vocabulary learning. It was found that the motivation factors from audio-visual media were positively effective in L2 learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping, but when the vocabulary is applied to new contexts, the motivation factors were substantially weakened. I assume this is attributed to the nature of the task, in particular the new contexts introduced in the choice task. Meaning inference has a very close connection to the plot, the context information and so on in the audio-visual media. In the translation task, where there is no new context, the motivation factors would still have influence on the meaning inference. In contrast, the choice task introduced new contexts in the test questions independent of the given audio-visual media. Therefore, the source, where the motivation factors came from, lost the efficacy to act on the participants' results in the choice task. The ineffectiveness of the motivation variable coming from the audio-visual media in the choice task is not due to the issues of the motivation itself, but due to the void

connection between the motivation and the new context. For instance, it might be possible that the L2 learner was motivated and fascinated by a specific beautiful scene shown in the audio-visual media, so his or her motivation of instrumentality and attitude to culture might be promoted to a higher level. When a new context, which does not involve the beautiful scene, is introduced to the learner, his or her motivation of instrumentality and attitude to culture might not show its full effect.

Compared to the previous studies which have been reviewed in Section 3.2.2, the current study developed the research methods, by extending the input period and involving a delayed post-test. The findings in this study further confirm the positive impact of audio-visual media on vocabulary learning in the previous literature. It is worth noting that Danan's predication (1992) (see Section 3.2.2.2) that learnt vocabularies can be identified in the new context is falsified in the current study.

6.3 Theoretical proposal – the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis

In this thesis, audio-visual media, as a carrier of language input and motivational factors, was tested for its impact on L2 acquisition and learning respectively. Apart from its overall impact, the impact of motivation factors provided by audio-visual media was also tested, by setting motivation as a variable in the experiment. No evidence was found to support that motivation factors from audio-visual media were effective in L2 acquisition. However, they were found to be effective in the L2 learning. It was shown that in the vocabulary translation task, the participants who were highly motivated by the audio-visual media input performed better than the participants who were not highly motivated in both the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test. Based on this result, I argue that the input carrier should simultaneously provide language input and motivational factors for the L2 learner, to better facilitate their L2 learning. Thus, I raise the proposal

of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis, to theoretically contribute to the field of L2 acquisition research.

The current section focuses on the explanation of the motivational input carrier, including its definition and the importance of motivational factors in the input carrier. The potential functions of motivational input carrier are also elaborated. This section is concluded by a brief summary.

6.3.1 The definition of the motivational input carrier

Language input does not exist in isolation and is provided and conveyed by an input carrier. By definition, the input carrier is the source where L2 learners get exposure to the target language. For instance, L1 Chinese teachers of English and native English speakers in L2 classrooms, and the audio-visual media tested in this thesis are all examples of the input carrier. The input carrier has at least one indispensible component, which is language input. As is shown in Figure 6.1, the simple input carrier only provides language input to L2 learners. In comparison, the motivational input carrier conveys both language input and motivational factors to L2 learners simultaneously (see Figure 6.1). According to the results obtained in the translation task in this experiment, I argue that motivational factors are another important component of the input carrier. Motivation factors can be facilitative when L2 learners process the language input they receive and convert the language input into intake.

Figure 6.1. Comparison between the simple input carrier and the motivational input

carrier

Simple input carrier	Motivational input carrier
↓	↙ ↘
Language input	**Motivation factors** including {Culture attitude, Enjoyment, Determination, Needs for foreign residence, and so on} **Language input**
↓	↓ ↓
L2 Learners	**L2 Learners**
↓	↓
Language intake	**Language intake**
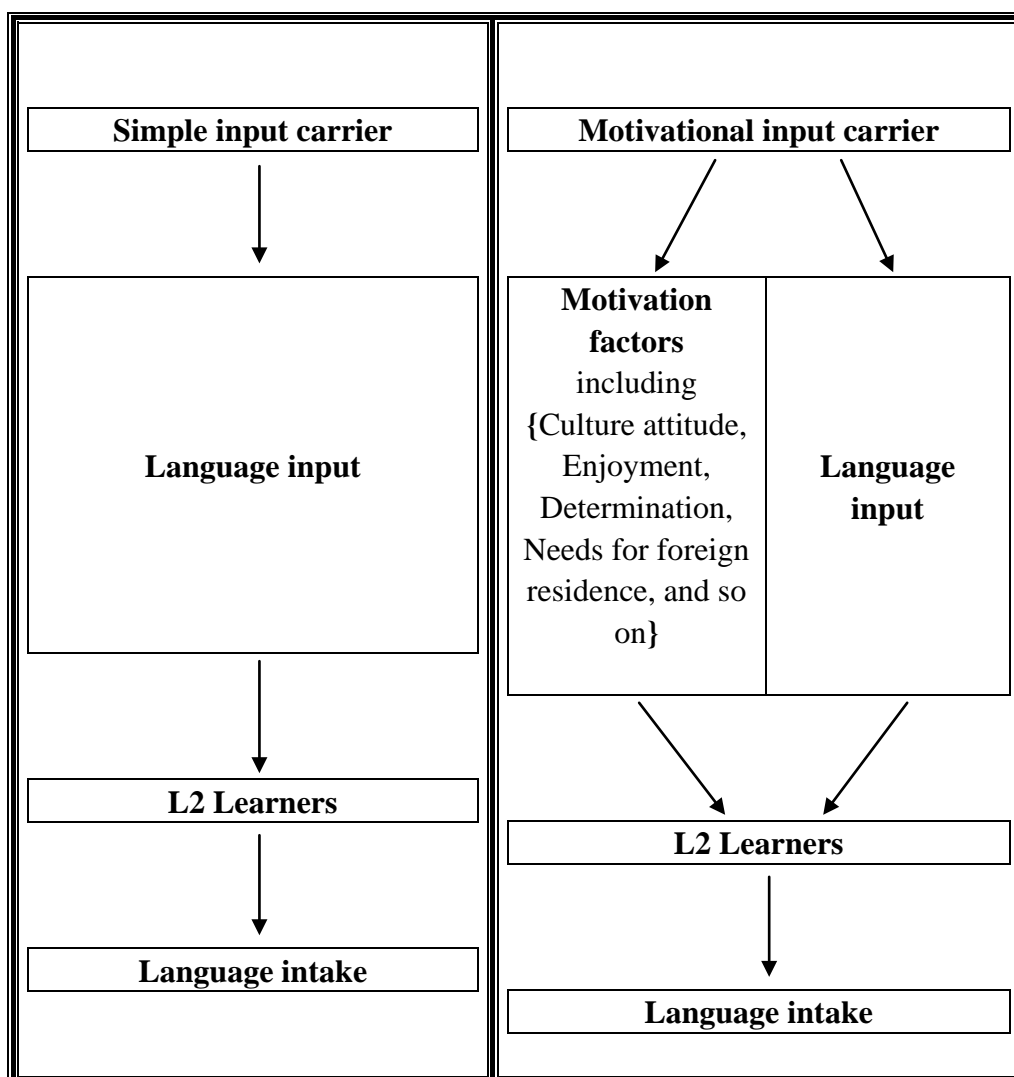
The motivational input carrier is highly personalised. It varies with each individual L2 learner. This is due to the fact that individuals can be motivated by different motivation factors. Since these motivation factors are personalised, the suitable motivational input carrier is different from person to person.

According to the findings of the current study the motivation variable only had a positive impact on the learning process, and not the acquisition process. The "motivational input carrier" can only directly benefit language learning results and cannot directly influence the acquisition outcome.

However, I argue that motivational input carrier can indirectly benefit L2 acquisition. The by-products of the motivational input carrier, which may be facilitative in the acquisition process, are illustrated in Section 6.3.3.

6.3.2 The importance of motivational factors in the input carrier

Motivational factors are an important component in the input carrier. As it was reviewed in Section 3.1.3, motivation, is a significant factor under the subsystem of alertness in Noticing Hypothesis (Tomlin and Villa, 1994) and bears great significance in the process of the "input-intake" conversion. Motivational factors, such as the attitude to culture (Schmidt et al., 1996), learning enjoyment (Gardner, 1985; Schmidt et al., 1996), instrumentality (Gardner, 1985), the wish of foreign residence (Schmidt et al., 1996), the sense of achievement (Dörnyei, 1990), learning determination (Schmidt et al., 1996), and the need for watching and understanding the films or TV programmes in the target language (Clement et al., 1994), are all beneficial when learners convert the language input they receive into the language intake that they can retain. When motivational factors are delivered together with language input from the input carrier to L2 learners, the input can be better processed and L2 learners can achieve a greater amount of language intake.

Not only from the perspective of theoretical explanation, but also from the empirical evidence from the current study, can the importance of motivational factors in the input carrier be demonstrated. When examining the impact of audio-visual media on L2 learning, two tasks: translation task and choice task, were involved. The results of the translation task showed that participants who were motivated by the input carrier (i.e. the given audio-visual media) did better in both the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test than the participants who were not highly motivated in

vocabulary meaning inference. The motivational input carrier itself (i.e. the given audio-visual media) can provide diverse motivation factors to the participants, including the motivation factors of attitude to culture, determination, enjoyment, achievement orientation, instrumentality and the English media orientation. Thus the participants who were motivated by the factors from the input carrier (the participants in the high motivation group) performed better. However in contrast, due to the fact that new contexts were applied in the choice task, the original motivation factors obtained from the input carrier were not maintained. The new contexts did not contain any motivational elements. It is argued to be one of the reasons why there was no difference found between the high and low motivation groups in the choice task. This result, in return, offered supporting evidence to the importance of motivational input carrier.

6.3.3 The potential functions of the motivational input carrier

Considering the nature of motivational input carrier, I argue that it has three potential functions. Firstly, the motivational input carrier can stimulate the L2 learners' willingness to communicate. L2 learners can then benefit from the linguistic and non-linguistic information in the communication, and thus potentially promote their L2 learning. It is worth noting that this willingness to communicate would possibly encourage L2 learners to seek opportunities to get involved in interactions and produce output if the available opportunities allow. These interaction and output opportunities may be the beneficial by-products of the motivational input carrier.

As illustrated in Section 3.2.1, researchers have found that there is a close relationship between L2 learning motivation and the willingness to communicate. Motivational input carrier directly provides motivation factors to L2 learners (See Figure 6.2). On the one hand, the motivation

factors that learners receive can help them notice the language input and help them convert language input into intake in L2 learning process. On the other hand, if L2 learners are well motivated, their willingness to communicate would be stronger. If opportunities are available, L2 learners can produce language output and interact and thus obtain sufficient linguistic and non-linguistic information in the communication. As discussed in Section 6.1, interaction and output are essential in both L2 acquisition and the learning processes. Though motivation in the motivational input carrier cannot directly benefit the L2 acquisition process, the potential by-products of motivational input carrier, which are interaction and output, can help acquisition.

Figure 6.2. The motivational input carrier and the willingness to communicate
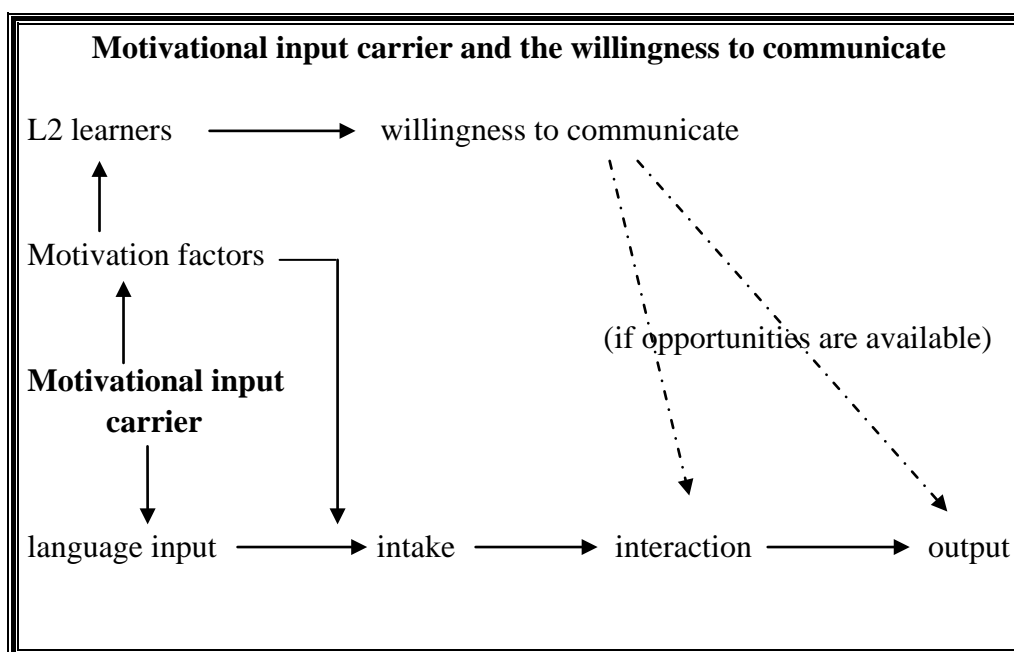
It is worth noting that available opportunity is an important factor for L2 learners to get involved in interaction and output production. This point has been revealed in the current study. The given audio-visual media was served as the motivational input carrier and directly provided motivation factors to L2 learners. However, although the participants were motivated and their willingness to communicate had hypothetically been stimulated, they had

minor developments in acquisition. One explanation given in Section 6.1 is that they lacked the opportunities to interact and produce output. Given the limitations of their self-learning situation, interaction and output opportunities were blocked. The lack of interaction and output opportunities prevented their willingness to communicate from coming into effect.

Secondly, the motivational input carrier can stimulate L2 learners, in a way that L2 learners might autonomously take the initiative to find a new motivational input carrier, and thus form a beneficial circle in their L2 study.

Figure 6.3. Motivational input carrier and the beneficial circle in L2 study

Motivational input carrier and the beneficial circle in L2 study

Motivational input carrier

(provide)

Motivation factors   language input

(stimulate)

L2 learners

(gain)   (seek for)

Learner autonomy

(encourage)

Plan and manage L2 study

(seek for)
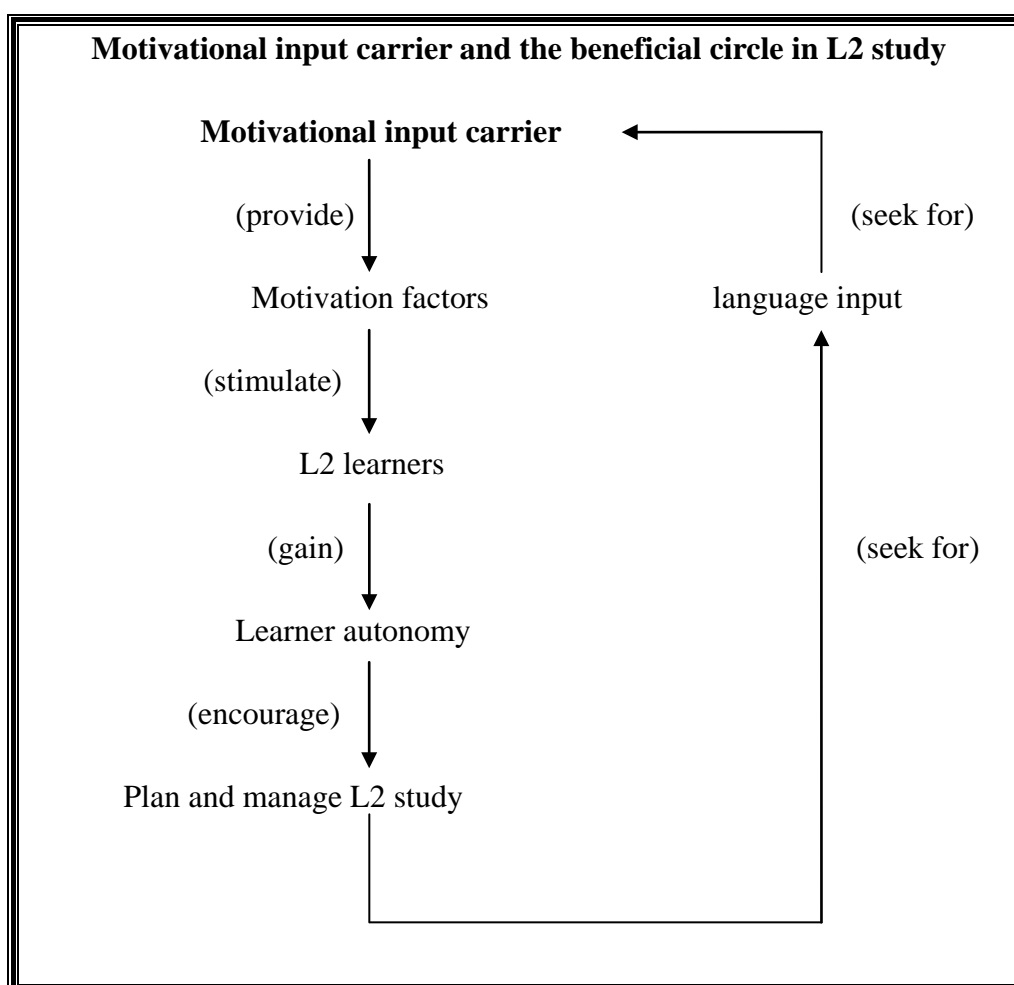
Figure 6.3 above presents how the beneficial circle works. As stated, the motivational input carrier can directly provide relevant motivation factors to L2 learners. L2 learners might be inspired by the motivational input, and

thus become positive to the cultural background of the target language, enjoy the language learning process, and become eager to know more about the target language to satisfy the needs of foreign residence and so on. Researchers have suggested that learner motivation can lead to "learner autonomy", as discussed in Section 3.2.1 (Lamb, 2007; Spratt et al., 2002; Ushioda, 2011). The motivation factors that they receive from the motivational input carrier might contribute to their autonomous language learning. According to the literature, it is suggested that motivated L2 learners can autonomously plan and manage their L2 study (Holec, 1981). Among the initiatives they might take, seeking appropriate learning materials and language input is an important part of the plan (Dam, 1990). Thus it can be inferred that after being motivated by the motivational input carrier, L2 learners will gain greater learner autonomy. This autonomy would encourage L2 learners to seek more relevant language input from the motivational input carrier which they are interested in. The newly found motivational input carrier will again provide motivation factors to L2 learners, thus the whole learning process is a beneficial circle. The motivational input carrier keeps L2 learners both actively learning and acquiring the target language. This would not be a one-off process, but rather a dynamic circulation.

Thirdly, the motivational input carrier can help L2 learners enhance their learning self-efficacy and good learner strategies, as is shown in Figure 6.4 below, and thus contributes to language input processing .

Figure 6.4. Motivational input carrier and self-efficacy

Motivational input carrier and self-efficacy

Motivation factors ⟷ self-efficacy ⟶ good learner strategies

Motivational input carrier

language input ⟶ intake
(language input processing)
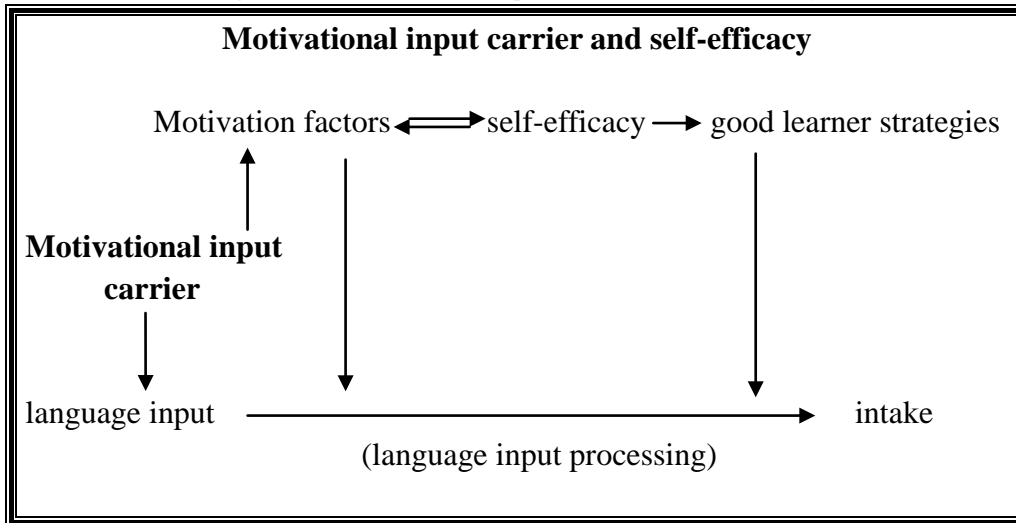
In Section 3.2.1, it is suggested that motivation factors have a close connection with self-efficacy beliefs. Motivational input carriers provide motivational factors to learners. These motivation factors can, on the one hand, act on language input processing, and on the other hand, enhance learners' self-efficacy. Since motivation and self-efficacy have a mutual promoting relationship, motivation can be reinforced by the promoted self-efficacy, and further contribute to language input processing. As is reviewed in Section 3.2.1, self-efficacy beliefs can possibly lead to good learner strategies. The strategies, such as the memory strategy and the cognitive strategy, can help with language input processing. By promoting self-efficacy and good learner strategies, motivational input carrier can contribute a lot to language input processing.

The above three functions of the motivational input carrier are not isolated. They are interrelated with each other and are symbiotic when L2 learners receive the motivational input carrier. Motivation factors can directly work on the conversion of language input to intake in L2 learning and indirectly influence L2 acquisition by stimulating the L2 learner's willingness to communicate, self-efficacy and arousing learner autonomy simultaneously. The three functions of the motivational input carrier are combined to

positively influence the learner's L2 learning and acquisition.

6.3.4 Section summary

In this section, the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis has been proposed, based on the experimental results from the current study. The definition of input carrier has been introduced. The indispensible components of the input carrier are language input and motivational factors. Language input and motivational factors should be provided for L2 learners at the same time. Motivational factors have been claimed to be very important in the input carrier, as they can directly help L2 learners process the language input they receive. The empirical evidence from the current study also demonstrated this claim. The potential functions of the motivational input carrier have also been elaborated.

The motivational input carrier can stimulate the L2 learners' willingness to communicate and share, and thus indirectly promote their L2 learning and acquisition. In addition, the motivational input carrier can potentially help L2 learners take the initiative to find new motivational input carriers and form a beneficial circle in their L2 study. Furthermore, the motivational input carrier can enhance self-efficacy beliefs, to better facilitate language input processing. The three functions of the motivational input carrier are interrelated, to act on L2 learning and acquisition.

6.4 Offering solutions for the issues of English language education in China: the application of audio-visual media and the implication of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis

As is stated in the introduction chapter, one of the research motivations for the current project is that there are several issues in L2 English language

education in China. The main issues are focused on the quantity of English language input, the quality of the English language input and the L2 learner's English learning motivation. These issues are found in the English language education in Chinese schools and universities, in the English language education in supplementary lessons offered by private language institutions and in other forms of English language education in China, including group-learning. These issues have been discussed in Chapter Two. The current study is implemented, in the hope of providing solutions and offering suggestions to the issues in English language education in China. Based on the obtained results from the one-year-long experiment, the previous discussions, and the proposed theoretical hypothesis, this section provides suggestions of how to apply audio-visual media in English language education in China and the implications of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis.

6.4.1 The application of audio-visual media in the Chinese context

As is shown in the experimental results from the current research, audio-visual media had a positive impact on L2 acquisition and learning. Also, according to the theoretical proposal of motivational input carrier, audio-visual media, as a motivational input carrier, has the potential to help L2 learning and also L2 acquisition when there are interaction and output opportunities. Therefore, audio-visual media can be helpful and effective when tackling the issues found in the English language education in China.

In a practical sense, audio-visual media can be a very good tool to be applied in the classroom context. Teachers can teach according to the syllabus first and then use the language input in audio-visual media as evidence for the explanation of the knowledge in the syllabus. Teachers can also draw materials from audio-visual media as homework for students.

For instance, when teaching English genericity (the test property in the current study) in EFL classrooms, teachers need to firstly choose an appropriate clip of audio-visual media which contains rich evidence of English genericity. In class, the teacher can play the audio-visual media clip for the students to draw generalizations about the NP forms which are available in English genericity, and check the correctness of their generalization. Because the Chinese-speaking learners may have difficulties in the plural marking and the use of articles, teachers should provide help. Accompanied with the audio-visual media, teachers can help students to conquer L1 transfer, by illustrating the differences between English genericity and Chinese genericity. Teachers also need to provide ample opportunities for interaction and output for L2 learners in class.

Based on the findings in the current study, when applying audio-visual media in classroom contexts, there are several points which need to be taken into account. Firstly, teachers need to choose appropriate audio-visual media for the learners in classrooms. The standard for appropriateness might include the type of audio-visual media, the complexity of the language involved, the complexity of plot and the relevance of the audio-visual media to the teaching syllabus. In order to possibly stimulate L2 learner motivation, teachers need to know the average motivation tendency of the class before choosing audio-visual media as supplementary materials. Secondly, language teachers should help the class identify the non-linguistic clues which can benefit the class in L2 learning. Thirdly, the teachers should provide opportunities for L2 learners to interact and produce output after they receive the audio-visual media as language input, to better facilitate L2 learners' L2 acquisition and learning. Finally, the teacher should schedule the class beforehand and set an appropriate period of time for watching the audio-visual materials.

Apart from the application in the classroom setting, audio-visual media can also be widely applied in self-learning contexts. Since the current study was carried out in a self-learning setting, the obtained results can be very encouraging for L2 learners who wish to use audio-visual media as their motivational English language input carrier. However, several points need to be taken into consideration.

Firstly, L2 learners need to activate the subtitles of the target language when watching audio-visual media to receive English language input. As discussed in Section 6.2, subtitles can contribute to successful L2 learning of vocabulary meaning and form mapping. To maximize the positive effect from subtitles, therefore, L2 learners need to keep the subtitles on.

Secondly, it has been mentioned in Section 6.3.3 that the motivational language input carrier can stimulate L2 learners' willingness to communicate. And this willingness would stimulate them to get involved in the interaction and output production. Therefore, learners should actively seek opportunities to talk and interact with native language speaking interlocutors.

6.4.2 The implications of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis in the Chinese context

In the theoretical proposal of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis, I argue that the input carrier should provide L2 learners with language input and diverse motivation factors simultaneously. As is stated in Section 6.3.1, there are many forms of input carriers. Apart from audio-visual media, teachers in both EFL and EMI classrooms can also be treated as input carriers. Considering the advantages of the motivational input carrier, it

pedagogically implies that the teacher, as an input carrier, need to provide Chinese-speaking L2 English learners with sufficient amount of high-quality English language input and diverse motivational factors at the same time. This hypothesis provides implications for English teachers in China.

L1 Chinese-speaking teachers need to actively improve their English proficiency and try their best to provide high-quality English input, if they reckon that they are not strong enough in their English teaching ability. As is mentioned in Section 2.2, some teachers admit that they are not fully competent to use English in teaching (Gao and Liu, 2006; Huang and Zhang, 2004). To provide high quality English language input to L2 English learners in China, teachers are suggested to take every possible opportunity to take part in English language teacher training programmes. If conditions permit, teachers are advised to take advantage of various funding opportunities and go abroad to be immersed in English-speaking countries. If conditions do not allow, teachers can also promote their English acquisition and learning by watching English audio-visual media. Apart from the positive effects of audio-visual media demonstrated in the experiment of the current study and the potential of audio-visual media proposed in the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis, Zhang C, (2015) also provides evidence that audio-visual media can positively influence the L2 phonological acquisition. Teachers can benefit from audio-visual media to improve their English phonology. Teachers are also suggested to broaden their English knowledge, including widening their English vocabulary size and keeping their English knowledge up to date. Chinese-speaking teachers are recommended to adjust their teaching approach, to enhance the total amount of English input in EFL and EMI classrooms. As stated in Section 2.1, the quantity of English input in the Chinese context is quite limited. Therefore, L1 Chinese teachers are suggested to use English when they given instructions in EFL classrooms, instead of Chinese, and reduce the

amount of class time spent writing notes on blackboards.

Chinese-speaking teachers, as an efficient motivational input carrier, are advised to provide comprehensive and diverse motivation factors to L2 English learners. In the Chinese situation, L2 English learner motivation is quite undependable. This is mainly because of the exam-driven evaluation system in China. To change the status quo, teachers need to provide comprehensive motivation factors, so that students' motivation can be diversified and stabilised. As is demonstrated in the experiment, motivation factors are directly helpful in input processing of L2 learning. They can also potentially promote L2 learning and acquisition indirectly by enhancing L2 learners' willingness to communicate, self-efficacy and also promote learner autonomy. In the Chinese EFL classrooms, the content involved should be very comprehensive and interesting, so that L2 English learners can get motivation factors from the input. In order to realise the potential of motivation factors provided by teachers as a motivational input carrier, teachers need to reallocate the class time and create more opportunities for interaction and language production, to better facilitate L2 learning and acquisition.

There are also some implications from the motivational input carrier for L2 learners. Firstly, due to the fact that the total number of contact hours in EFL and EMI classes is quite small, L2 learners should not only receive English input passively, but also enhance their language learning autonomy. When their language learning autonomy is raised, they can easily enter the beneficial circle presented in Section 6.3.3, and look for suitable motivational input carriers according to their study plan. L2 learners can discuss their choice of motivational input carriers with their teacher and seek professional advice.

In the discussion of the characteristics of the motivational input carrier, individualisation is the most prominent one. This characteristic requires the L2 learner to choose audio-visual media as the motivational input carrier based on their personal interests and needs. L2 learners are individually different in terms of motivation momentum. Choosing the most relevant types of audio-visual media as the motivational input carrier would enable learner motivation to be stimulated to the largest extent. Thus they can benefit the most from the motivational input carrier. There are several aspects which need to be taken into consideration when choosing the right audio-visual media as motivational language input for individual L2 learners. The type of media, such as comedy, history shows, war shows, thrillers, needs to be chosen carefully, considering the personal interests of the L2 learners. Another reference criterion is that L2 learners need to choose the cultural background of the audio-visual media. For instance, some L2 learners are interested in, and only interested in, audio-visual media which is produced with a British cultural background. If they are presented with audio-visual media produced with an American cultural background, their motivation might not be stimulated.

When interaction and output opportunities are available, L2 learners need to take full advantage of these opportunities and actively participate in the opportunities. Since interaction and output can help L2 learning, and especially acquisition, Chinese-speaking L2 English learners are suggested to be brave and talk, so that L2 learners can get the most from the motivational input carrier that they receive.

6.4.3 Brief summary

In light of the issues found in the current Chinese situation of English language education, this subsection provides suggestions and implications to

cope with these issues, based on the experimental results of the current study and the theoretical proposal of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis. Audio-visual media, as a motivational input carrier can be widely applied in the English language education in China, in both classroom settings and self-learning contexts. Several suggestions are provided to the application. The theoretical proposal of the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis provides pedagogical implications for teachers and L2 English learners in the Chinese context. Several suggestions for Chinese-speaking teachers of English in China are raised, to guide them to be a motivational input carrier for L2 learners. Suggestions for L2 learners are provided as well.

6.5 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the discussion of the results obtained from the current study is presented. Based on the observations of the results presented in Chapter Five, it was found that audio-visual media had a weak impact on the acquisition of English genericity. The motivation variable was not influential in acquisition. In the L2 learning of vocabulary, audio-visual media was positively influential. The motivation variable was positively influential in learning as well. However, the impact of audio-visual media and the impact of the motivation variable were not extended when applied to the vocabulary in new contexts. Explanations for the findings are given from the perspectives of L2 acquisition and L2 learning respectively.

I argue that the positive impact of audio-visual media was due to the fact that it contains rich positive evidence which can be processed in the language module and thus facilitate the acquisition of the target language. However, the impact was not significantly positive. I argue this is because in this setting, learners had limited opportunities for output and interaction

when they viewed audio-visual media. The motivation variable was not influential in acquisition. This finding provided empirical evidence to the updated Affective Filter Hypothesis.

For the significant impact found in meaning inference in L2 learning aspect, I claim that the subtitles, the visual and verbal clues, the plot and the linguistic context clues can contribute to this significant effective result. However, it was found that this impact cannot extend to further application of vocabularies in new contexts. I suggest that the knowledge of meaning is necessary but not sufficient when applying vocabularies in new contexts. Other aspects of metalinguistic vocabulary knowledge are required.

The motivation factors from audio-visual media were demonstrated to be positively influential in the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping. However, when the vocabulary is applied into new contexts, the motivation from audio-visual media cannot be maintained. This is because the connection between motivation and the context in audio-visual media is broken when the vocabulary is applied to new contexts.

Based on the discussion of the impact of motivation factors from audio-visual media in the current study, I proposed the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis to theoretically contribute to the field. In the hypothesis, the definition and the importance of motivational language input are illustrated. Apart from these, three functions of motivational language input are also presented. The motivational input carrier can comprehensively provide motivation factors to directly help input processing in L2 learning. The motivation factors from the motivational input carrier can also help L2 learners raise their willingness to communicate, self-efficacy and their language learning autonomy. When interaction and output opportunities are available for L2 learners, the motivational input carrier can also be

beneficial for L2 learners in L2 acquisition.

To offer solutions for the issues found in the English language education in China, audio-visual media can have a wide application in the Chinese context. Meanwhile, in light of the proposed the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis, several implications and suggestions are provided for Chinese-speaking teachers and L2 English learners in China.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

The current research set out to investigate the impact of audio-visual media and the extent to which it can contribute to English acquisition and learning by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English, from a longitudinal view. This research originated from the background of the L2 English language education in China. It was motivated by the issues found in the Chinese context and the necessity of language input, especially the necessity of authentic L2 input (i.e. positive evidence). Admittedly, there are several issues which exist in English language education in China. The quantity and the quality of English input is less than ideal. In addition, Chinese-speaking L2 English learner motivation is exam-driven and not dependable. Given that positive evidence is the input which can be directly processed in the language module and facilitate L2 acquisition and learning, it is necessary to enhance the English language input in China and provide a sufficient amount of positive evidence to L2 English learners. Besides, based on the fact that language learning motivation can contribute to input processing and the conversion to intake, it is also necessary to comprehensively enhance learners' English learning motivation. To offer solutions for these issues, audio-visual media was hypothesized to be a suitable alternative of English language input in China, on account of being a provider of a large amount of positive evidence of English and a provider of motivation factors for English learners in China. Former studies of audio-visual media have provided implications of its impact. However, there is little evidence of the long-term impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning in the Chinese context found in the literature. Therefore, the current research was implemented to fill the above research gaps.

This chapter of conclusion aims to summarise the methodology and the main findings of the current research and present the main contributions to

the field as well as stating the limitations of the current study. The implications for future research and pedagogical suggestions are presented at the end of the chapter.

7.1 Summary of the methodology and the main research findings

In the current research, a one-year-long intervention experiment was conducted to test the impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning respectively. English genericity was adopted as the test item for the acquisition aspect, and English vocabulary meaning and form mapping was adopted as the test item for the learning aspect. Based on the nature of the audio-visual media, it was predicted that: 1) audio-visual media can have a positive effect on learners' acquisition of English genericity, 2) it is possible that the motivation factors provided by the audio-visual media can be positively influential in the acquisition aspect, 3) audio-visual media can have a positive effect on learners' learning of English vocabulary, 4) the motivation factors provided by the audio-visual media can be positively effective when learning English vocabulary.

In the experiment, 52 Chinese university students participated through three experimental stages which were the pre-test, the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test. In the pre-test, the participants were required to complete the background questionnaire, the Oxford placement test and the tests designed for the current research (AJT and the vocabulary task). After the pre-test, the participants were randomly allocated to the experimental group (n=34) and the control group (n=18). In the input-given period (five months), the experimental group received the audio-visual media input (*Doctor Who Series One*) while the control group did not. While watching the given TV series, the participants in the experimental group were required to watch the given input three times and to fill in a motivation questionnaire each time

they watched (altogether 39 times). The participants in the experimental group were further allocated into the high motivation group and the low motivation group according to the ratings they gave in the motivation questionnaires. In the immediate post-test stage, all the participants were required to complete the repeated AJT and the vocabulary task. Meanwhile, the participants in the experimental group were required to also complete a content recalling task to demonstrate that they really watched the given TV series. In the cooling down period (five months), none of the participants received input stimuli. Finally in the delayed post-test, all the participants were once again required to complete the AJT and the vocabulary task.

After all the results were obtained, a quantitative analysis was conducted using SPSS. The results showed that audio-visual media had a weak impact on the acquisition of English genericity. The motivation factors provided by the audio-visual media were generally not influential. However, in contrast, the audio-visual media input was positively influential in the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping. The motivation factors provided by the audio-visual media input were influential in vocabulary learning. However, the impact of audio-visual media as a whole and the motivation variable could not be sustained when the vocabulary was applied to new contexts.

I argue that the impact of audio-visual media in the English acquisition aspect was due to the nature of audio-visual media in that it offers rich positive evidence which can facilitate the acquisition of underlying tacit knowledge. The reason why the impact was not significantly positive may be due to the lack of output and interaction opportunities when learners view the audio-visual media in a self-learning setting. The finding also suggested that the motivation factors from audio-visual media were not influential. This provides empirical evidence to the updated Affective Filter

Hypothesis that the UG-controlled modules are immune from the affective system.

The impact of audio-visual media in the learning aspect was attributed to the merits of audio-visual media in that it can provide subtitles, visual and verbal clues, plots and linguistic contexts for English learners. The motivation factors were positively influential in the learning of English vocabulary learning, because motivation can contribute to the noticing of language input and convert it into intake. When the vocabulary was applied in new contexts, the impact of audio-visual media was not extended and the motivation from audio-visual media could not be sustained. This is because the knowledge of vocabulary meaning and form mapping is necessary but not sufficient in the further application of vocabularies into new contexts. Since there was a disconnection between the motivation from audio-visual media and the new contexts, the motivation cannot be sustained when new contexts were introduced.

Based on the results that the high motivation group performed consistently better than the low motivation group in the immediate post-test stage and the delayed post-test stage, the theoretical proposal Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis was raised. Input carrier is the source where L2 learners can obtain the language input. It was argued that motivation factors should be conveyed to learners together with language input from the motivational input carrier. There are three potential functions proposed. The motivational input carrier can comprehensively provide motivation factors to directly help input processing in L2 learning. The motivation factors from the motivational input carrier can also help L2 learners raise their language learning autonomy, self-efficacy and their willingness to communicate. When interaction and output opportunities are available for L2 learners, the motivational input carrier can be also beneficial for L2 learners in their L2

acquisition.

According to the results and discussions of the impact of audio-visual media, it was suggested to be widely applied in the Chinese context to offer solutions for the issues in the English language education in China.

7.2 Main contributions of the current study

This research makes several contributions. The key strength of the current study is that it has an interdisciplinary nature. It fills the research gaps mentioned in the literature and it provides suggestions and implications both in theory and in practice.

This research is an interdisciplinary research. It connects the psycholinguistic property which is motivation with L2 acquisition. It also introduces audio-visual media to L2 research. The introduction of motivation and audio-visual media allows us to view issues in L2 acquisition from diverse perspectives. It is a research innovation and a valuable exploration in the field.

The current research also fills the research gaps. As is mentioned in Chapter Two and Chapter Three, there is little evidence about the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition of underlying tacit knowledge and about the long-term effect of audio-visual media on both L2 acquisition and learning. Furthermore, the impact of audio-visual media has not been investigated under the Chinese background. This research extends our knowledge of how audio-visual works as language input and the extent to which it can contribute to L2 acquisition and learning. It also enhances our understanding of how motivation factors provided by audio-visual media influence L2 learning outcomes. The longitudinal design of the intervention

experiment is the key feature of the present research. It provides deep understanding of the impact of audio-visual media on L2 acquisition and learning in the long term.

In addition, this research provides theoretical contribution to the field, by proposing the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis. This hypothesis is raised according to the results obtained in the current study. This is the first time that motivation is investigated from the perspective of language input, rather than the perspective of L2 learners. This hypothesis pointed out the direct and significant role of motivation in input processing of L2 learning. The hypothesis also put forward the potential of motivational input carriers in L2 acquisition and learning, by stimulating L2 learners' willingness to communicate, enhancing self-efficacy and also generate learner autonomy. This is a justifiable research hypothesis, and future studies can be conducted to justify the hypothesis. The suggestions of the justifications are presented in Section 7.4.

This research provides pedagogical implications and suggestions for the L2 English language education in China. Due to the nature of the present study, set in L2 English language education context in China, the findings of the thesis could be very helpful to cope with the issues found in English language education in China. Audio-visual media is demonstrated to be positively influential in self-learning settings in the current research. It is recommended that audio-visual media can also be widely applied in EFL and EMI classrooms. Admittedly, the self-learning setting is very different from the classroom setting, in the sense that it relies more on language learning autonomy and the opportunities for interaction and output are not abundant. However, since in classroom settings, opportunities for interaction and output are provided and classroom teaching does not solely depend on learner's autonomy, audio-visual media has a good prospect of application

in EFL and EMI classrooms in China, based on the illuminating results in the current study.

7.3 Limitations of the current study

This research also has limitations. The first limitation is regarding the sample size. Due to the nature of longitudinal design, there was attrition of participants in the experiment during the input-given period. Considering the duration of the experiment and the researcher's own situation, the number of the participants is the largest that the researcher could achieve. The second limitation is that it would be very interesting to examine what specific content and plots in the audio-visual media can provide different motivational factors. However, due to the scale of the current research, this was not included in the research scope.

7.4 Implications for future research and for policies

In order to better understand the audio-visual media as motivational language input and its potential in influencing L2 learners' L2 acquisition and learning, I hereby suggest that there are several relevant research projects which can be conducted.

The impact of audio-visual media as a motivational language input carrier needs to be tested on beginners and advanced learners as well. Together with the findings on the intermediate learners in the current study, findings from beginners and advanced learners in future research would present a whole picture of the overall impact of audio-visual media as a motivational language input carrier targeting different levels of L2 learners.

It would be illuminating to carry out a research focusing on how

motivational factors from audio-visual media influences L2 learner performance on listening comprehension, writing comprehension and reading comprehension. Although previous studies have investigated the audio-visual influence on these comprehension perspectives, they did not take motivation into consideration. Further studies need to be undertaken regarding the motivation impact on L2 learners' language comprehension.

Parallel qualitative research can also be done on the same topic. This current research obtained quantitative data to investigate the impact of audio-visual media on English acquisition and learning in the Chinese context. If valid qualitative data are available in the future, it would very interesting to compare the results obtained from the two research methods respectively. Furthermore, the present study investigated the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition and learning by Chinese-speaking learners of L2 English. The involved languages were English and Chinese. Future studies can target L2 learners from different language backgrounds.

This study examined the impact of audio-visual media on the acquisition of English genericity and the learning of English vocabulary meaning and form mapping in language comprehension. Future studies could set the aim to test the impact of audio-visual media on L2 production.

Other studies can be conducted to justify the Motivational Input Carrier Hypothesis. In the hypothesis, I argue that there are three potential functions of motivational input carriers. Researchers can implement studies to see if the functions work in L2 acquisition and learning, by using both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The current research also has implications for policy making. As is mentioned, I argued that audio-visual media can be widely applied in the

English language education in China. Further research is required to see how it can be fitted into the existing English teaching syllabus in China and the extent to which audio-visual media can be involved in EFL classrooms.

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Appendix One: Background questionnaire

Background information questionnaire

实验参与者背景调查问卷

This is a questionnaire designed to gain the knowledge of participants' background information. Please fill in the blank or indicate your choice below. Anything related to individual privacy will not be included in this questionnaire. All of your answers will be protected and treated as completely confidential.

本调查问卷旨在了解实验参与者的背景信息。请您在此问卷中填空或做出选择。本问卷不涉及与个人隐私相关的任何内容。您的答案将被保密。

Part 1 Personal background information

第一部分：个人背景信息

Age 年龄	Gender 性别
University 所在大学	Major 所学专业
What year are you in? (Please tick.) 所在年级 (请划勾) 1st　　　2nd　　　3rd　　　4th	
First Language 母语	

Part 2 Information about English language learning

第二部分：关于英语学习的信息

1. Are you still taking English lessons at present? If yes, how many hours do you spend in taking English lessons per week?
您现在是否还在上英语课？如果您回答是，那么您每周上几个小时的英语课？

2. Apart from English language learning, have you ever learned other foreign languages? If yes, which language did you learn? How many years did you learn?
除了英语学习，您有没有曾经学习过其他外语？如有，是哪种语言？学习了几年？

3. Have you ever been to English-speaking countries? If yes, how long have you been there？
您曾经去过讲英语的国家吗？如果有，那么您在那里呆了多长时间呢？

4. Do you have many opportunities to talk with English native speakers in your daily life?
您在日常生活中和母语是英语的人交流的机会多吗？

None	Few	A few	Many
没有	很少有	有一点	很多

Appendix Two: The test items and distractors in the acceptability judgment task

Test items in acceptability judgment task

Control Category: anaphoric context

1. Tom's room is totally a mess. Papers and books are thrown everywhere. And there are even pets including a cat and two squirrels. The pets are quite weird, for example………..

(a)

A. The cat eats grass.	1	2	3	4
B. A cat eats grass.	1	2	3	4
C. Cat eats grass.	1	2	3	4
D. The cats eat grass.	1	2	3	4
E. Cats eat grass.	1	2	3	4

(b)

A. A squirrel does not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
B. The squirrel does not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
C. Squirrels do not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
D. The squirrels do not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4
E. Squirrel does not eat nuts.	1	2	3	4

2. Alice love flowers. She has two roses and one daisy at home. Due to some unknown reasons, the colour of the flowers is quite strange. For instance………………….

(a)

A. Daisy has red blossoms.	1	2	3	4
B.A daisy has red blossoms.	1	2	3	4
C. Daisies have red blossoms.	1	2	3	4
D. The daisies have red blossoms.	1	2	3	4
E. The daisy has red blossoms.	1	2	3	4

(b)

A. The roses have purple blossoms.	1	2	3	4
B. The rose has purple blossoms.	1	2	3	4

C. Rose has purple blossoms.	1	2	3	4
D. A rose has purple blossoms.	1	2	3	4
E. Roses have purple blossoms.	1	2	3	4

3. Mr. Smith has two cars and a bicycle. They are quite unusual, for instance………………………………

(a)

A. A bicycle has no handlebars.	1	2	3	4
B. The bicycle has no handlebars.	1	2	3	4
C. Bicycles have no handlebars.	1	2	3	4
D. Bicycle has no handlebars.	1	2	3	4
E. The bicycles have no handlebars.	1	2	3	4

(b)

A. The cars have very small wheels.	1	2	3	4
B. Car has very small wheels.	1	2	3	4
C. A car has very small wheels.	1	2	3	4
D. The car has very small wheels.	1	2	3	4
E. Cars have very small wheels.	1	2	3	4

NP-level genericity

1. I really like going to the zoo. Unfortunately, there are many animals that can't be found in a zoo, or anywhere else. It is very sad. For example, …………………..

A. Dodo birds are extinct.	1	2	3	4
B. A dodo birds is extinct.	1	2	3	4
C. The dodo bird is extinct.	1	2	3	4
D. The dodo birds are extinct.	1	2	3	4
E. Dodo bird is extinct.	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 279)

2. These woods are really beautiful. And you can do a lot in them: you can hike, pick mushrooms and have picnics. But be very careful don't leave food around! Otherwise, you might attract animals. You see ……………………

A. Brown bear is common in these woods.	1	2	3	4
B. The brown bears are common in these woods.	1	2	3	4
C. A brown bear is common in these woods.	1	2	3	4

D. The brown bear is common in these woods.	1	2	3	4
E. Brown bears are common in these woods.	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 279)

3. Not all animals can live for centuries, some of them disappeared for good and some of them are rare. For instance, ………(a)………… Also, ……(b)……… If you want to see the appearance, you will have to go to the museum and have a look at the model.

(a)

A. Stegosaurus is extinct.	1	2	3	4
B. The stegosauruses are extinct.	1	2	3	4
C. The stegosaurus is extinct.	1	2	3	4
D. A stegosaurus is extinct.	1	2	3	4
E. Stegosauruses are extinct.	1	2	3	4

(b)

A. Sumatran tiger is not commonly seen now.	1	2	3	4
B. Sumatran tigers are not commonly seen now.	1	2	3	4
C. the Sumatran tiger is not commonly seen now.	1	2	3	4
D. the Sumatran tigers are not commonly seen now.	1	2	3	4
E. a Sumatran tiger is not commonly seen now.	1	2	3	4

4. I know that you like birds. Well, if you ever visit California, you will see lots of different kinds of birds there. For example………..

A. Pelican is widespread on the California coast.	1	2	3	4
B. The pelicans are widespread on the California coast.	1	2	3	4
C. The pelican is widespread on the California coast.	1	2	3	4
D. Pelicans are widespread on the California coast.	1	2	3	4
E. A pelican is widespread on the California coast.	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 279)

5. The Netherlands is a great country to visit. It has wonderful museums, great food, and excellent public transportation. And, of course, it is a great place to buy flowers. As you probably know…….

A. Tulips are very popular in the Netherlands.	1	2	3	4
B. The tulip is very popular in the Netherlands.	1	2	3	4
C. Tulip is very popular in the Netherlands.	1	2	3	4
D. A tulip is very popular in the Netherlands.	1	2	3	4

| E. The tulips are very popular in the Netherlands. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

(Ionin et al., 2011: 279)

Sentence-level genericity

1. My brother has been in a bad mood lately. And no wonder—his apartment is so uncomfortable; it must be very depressing to live there. And he has a very dim and unpleasant overhead light. I told him he should buy a new lamp—something pleasant. For example, I know that………….

A. A green lamp is very relaxing.	1	2	3	4
B. Green lamp is very relaxing.	1	2	3	4
C. The green lamps are very relaxing.	1	2	3	4
D. The green lamp is very relaxing.	1	2	3	4
E. Green lamps are very relaxing.	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 280)

2. My husband and I are looking for a new car. My husband would like to get a white one, because white is such a beautiful color. But I am worried about vandalism. I am worried because…………….

A. White car attracts attention.	1	2	3	4
B. A white car attracts attention.	1	2	3	4
C. White cars attract attention.	1	2	3	4
D. The white car attracts attention.	1	2	3	4
E. The white cars attract attention.	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 280)

3. It is my niece's birthday this Saturday-she is going to be three years old. I am not sure what to get her. Maybe I will just get her some toy, like a stuffed dog or bear. I cannot go wrong with that. We all know that……

A. the toy animal is a good children's gift.	1	2	3	4
B. toy animal is a good children's gift.	1	2	3	4
C. a toy animal is a good children's gift.	1	2	3	4
D. toy animals are good children's gifts.	1	2	3	4
E. the toy animals are good children's gifts.	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 280)

4. When you buy accessories, you need to consider the colour. Some colours are quite attractive; therefore your accessory is in danger of stealing. For instance, …………(a)…………… If you choose dark colours, it is safer. For instance, ……(b)…………

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(a)

A. red purse can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
B. a red purse can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
C. the red purse can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
D. red purses can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4
E. the red purses can easily be stolen.	1	2	3	4

(b)

A. the black purse is not so noticeable.	1	2	3	4
B. the black purses are not so noticeable.	1	2	3	4
C. black purses are not so noticeable.	1	2	3	4
D. a black purse is not so noticeable.	1	2	3	4
E. black purse is not so noticeable.	1	2	3	4

5. I would like to give my daughter a pet for her birthday; perhaps I will give her a puppy. My daughter is going to be eight, and she is very responsible. This is really important. As everyone knows……

A. little puppies need a lot of time and attention	1	2	3	4
B. a little puppy needs a lot of time and attention	1	2	3	4
C. little puppy needs a lot of time and attention	1	2	3	4
D. the little puppy needs a lot of time and attention	1	2	3	4
E. the little puppies need a lot of time and attention	1	2	3	4

(Ionin et al., 2011: 280)

Distractors in acceptability judgment task

1. Having the prerequisite skills for a particular job is strength. Lacking those skills is obviously a weakness. A book keeper who can't add or a carpenter who can't cut a straight line with a saw ………….
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.24en.com/e/DoPrint/?classid=809&id=149342,
accessed 24 July 2013)

A. is hopeless cases	1	2	3	4
B. being hopeless cases	1	2	3	4
C. been hopeless cases	1	2	3	4
D. are hopeless cases	1	2	3	4
E. are being hopeless cases	1	2	3	4

2. When an event takes place, newspapers are on the streets ………………...
Wherever anything happens in the world, reporters are on the spot to gather the news.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.24en.com/tem/moniti/tem4/2008-02-19/65809.html,
accessed 24 July 2013)

A. giving the details	1	2	3	4
B. be given the details	1	2	3	4
C. given the details	1	2	3	4
D. to be given the details	1	2	3	4
E. being given the details	1	2	3	4

3. People will be alert and receptive if they……….. information that gets them to think about things they are interested in.
(The context was extracted from: http://emuch.net/fanwen/540/81025.html,
accessed 24 July 2013)

A. had been faced with	1	2	3	4
B. facing with	1	2	3	4
C. had being faced with	1	2	3	4
D. are been faced with	1	2	3	4
E. are faced with	1	2	3	4

4. One common mistake is choosing an occupation for its real or imagined prestige. Too many high-school students, or their parents for them, choose the professional field, ……… both the relatively small proportion of work vacancies in the professions and the extremely high educational and personal requirements.
(The context was extracted from:
http://edu.163.com/09/0922/16/5JR3GDRJ00293NVE.html,
accessed 24 July 2013)

A. to disregarding	1	2	3	4
B. disregard	1	2	3	4
C. disregarding	1	2	3	4
D. to have disregarded	1	2	3	4
E. to have been disregarded	1	2	3	4

5. Professor Smith's dedication to ____earned him the respect of both his colleagues and students.
(The context was extracted from:

A. being taught	1	2	3	4
B. be taught	1	2	3	4
C. teaches	1	2	3	4
D. teaching	1	2	3	4
E. taught	1	2	3	4

6. Living standards have soared during the twentieth century and are expected to ……………. in the decades ahead.
(The context was extracted from:
http://m.hujiang.com/en_zhuansi/p434792/, accessed 24 July 2013)

A. continue to risen	1	2	3	4
B. continue rising	1	2	3	4
C. continue to have risen	1	2	3	4
D. continue having risen	1	2	3	4
E. continue to be risen	1	2	3	4

7. Deprived of control over one's life, a phenomenon studied in prisoners, nursing-home patients, etc., people…………………..
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.hjenglish.com/talk/page/434807/, accessed 24 July 2013)

A. are suffered lower morale and worse health	1	2	3	4
B. suffering lower morale and worse health	1	2	3	4
C. suffer lower morale and worse health	1	2	3	4
D. was suffered lower morale and worse health	1	2	3	4
E. being suffered lower morale and worse health	1	2	3	4

8. Flight simulator refers to any electronic or mechanical system for training airplane and spacecraft pilots and crew member by simulating flight conditions. The purpose of simulation is to thoroughly familiarize students with…………………… before they undergo extensive and possibly dangerous actual flight training.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.hjenglish.com/subject/tem/page/5296/, accessed 24 July 2013)

A. the vehicle concerned	1	2	3	4
B. the vehicle being concerned	1	2	3	4
C. the vehicle concern	1	2	3	4
D. the vehicle concerning	1	2	3	4

E. the vehicle is concerned	1	2	3	4

9. Together with other activities ……………… but have come to be designated as artistic (such as music or dance), painting was one of the earliest ways in which man sought to express his own personality and his emerging understanding of an existence beyond the material world.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.hjenglish.com/tem/page/7850/, accessed 24 July 2013)

A. that may have been ritualistic in origin	1	2	3	4
B. may have ritualistic in origin	1	2	3	4
C. may have been ritualistic in origin	1	2	3	4
D. that may have ritualistic in origin	1	2	3	4
E. may had been ritualistic in origin	1	2	3	4

10. A far-reaching question has to do with the value of art. Two opposing theoretical positions ……………….: one holds that art and its appreciation are a means to some recognized moral good, whereas the other maintains that art is intrinsically valuable and is an end in itself.
(The context was extracted from:
http://3g.en8848.com.cn/exam/tem4/tk/99636.html ,accessed 24 July 2013)

A. taken on this issue	1	2	3	4
B. have been taken on this issue	1	2	3	4
C. taking on this issue	1	2	3	4
D. had being taken on this issue	1	2	3	4
E. has taken on this issue	1	2	3	4

11. Corresponding to the trend in contemporary aesthetic thought, critics have followed either of two approaches. In one, criticism is restricted to the analysis and interpretation of the work of art. In the other, it is devoted to articulating the response to the aesthetic object and to………
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.hjenglish.com/subject/tem/page/7849/, accessed 24 July 2013)

A. justified a particular way of perceiving it	1	2	3	4
B. being justified a particular way of perceiving it	1	2	3	4
C. justifies a particular way of perceiving it	1	2	3	4
D. justifying a particular way of perceiving it	1	2	3	4
E. have justified a particular way of perceiving it	1	2	3	4

12. How many people read the newspaper? Circulation depends somewhat on the work of the circulation department and on the services or

entertainment…………………..

(The context was extracted from:

http://www.24en.com/tem/moniti/tem4/2008-02-19/65809.html, accessed 24 July 2013)

A. to be offered in a newspaper's pages	1	2	3	4
B. offering in a newspaper's pages	1	2	3	4
C. is offered in a newspaper's pages	1	2	3	4
D. offer in a newspaper's pages	1	2	3	4
E. offered in a newspaper's pages	1	2	3	4

Appendix Three: Vocabulary test

Test items in choice task

1. Her trauma was so severe that she suffered _____ and didn't recognize her husband, whom she had married just two months earlier. (The context was extracted from: www.jukuu.com, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. insomnia   **B. amnesia**   C. cafeteria   D. bacteria

2. Being able to speak a foreign language is a major _____. (The context was extracted from: http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/asset?q=asset, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. asset   B. illusion   C. apprentice   D. echo

3. The government is accused of _____ the terms of the treaty. (The context was extracted from: http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/breach_2, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. splitting   B. ruining   **C. breaching**   D. condoning

4. The wooden cart _____ as it moved along. (The context was adapted from: http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/creak_1?q=creak, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. murmured   B. spinned   **C. creaked**   D. impeached

5. Only those over 70 are _____ for the special payment. (The context was extracted from: http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/eligible?q=eligible, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. eligible   B. impalpable   C. capable   D. incredible

6. Her shabby appearance drew _____ from the guests. (The context was extracted from: http://www.iciba.com/sniggers, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. whining   **B. sniggering**   C. moaning   D. humming

7. The bird _____ its wings and flew away.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/flap_2,
accessed 25 July 2013)

A. flapped   B. trotted   C. clung   D. bumped

8. The children were _____ to the country when the city was being bombed.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/evacuate?q=e
vacuate, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. evacuated   B. intermingled   C. drained   D. engaged

9. Urban _____ facilities have improved considerably.
(The context was extracted from:
http://dict.hjenglish.com/w/infrastructure, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. structure   **B. infrastructure**   C. morass   D. cottage

10. The police have appointed an officer to encourage _____ with the local community.
(The context was extracted from: www.jukuu.com, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. flatter   B. interim   C. transmission   **D. liaison**

11. Issuing _____ is a method for the nation to raise public welfare fund.
(The context was extracted from: www.jukuu.com, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. lottery   B. specimen   C. scratch   D. feint

12. I am not prepared to stay and listen to these _____ insults.
(The context was extracted from: www.jukuu.com, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. apparent   B. haphazard   C. accelerate   **D. outrageous**

13. Considerations of safety _____ all other concerns.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/override?q=ov
erride, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. escalate   **B. override**   C. engage   D. abandon

14. The organizer was familiar with the _____ of royal visits.

(The context was adapted from:
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/protocol?q=protocol, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. protocol   B. equanimity   C. estate   D. disturbance

15. The picture is messy and it has too much _____ detail.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/redundant?q=redundant, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. necessary   B. concise   C. decent   **D. redundant**

16. Alcohol may be a medical disinfectant, but should not be relied upon to _____ water.
(The context was extracted from: www.jukuu.com, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. drain   B. fortify   **C. sterilize**   D. filter

17. If the humidity is above the set point, turn on external _____.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/library/x-ditaproc/,
accessed 25 July 2013)

A. cavity   B. custody   C. stitch   **D. ventilation**

18. Pieces of _____ of the plane were found ten miles away from the scene of the explosion.
(The context was extracted from:
http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/wreckage?q=wreckage, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. twig   **B. wreckage**   C. flake   D. string

19. The _____ of vomit reached me instantly.
(The context was extracted from: http://dict.hjenglish.com/w/vomit, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. fragrance   B. mast   **C. stink**   D. perfume

20. After years of intense debate, the issue of whether the Martian _____ contains life or not remains unresolved.
(The context was extracted from:
http://news.discovery.com/space/alien-life-exoplanets/top-10-places-to-find-alien-life-130130.htm, accessed 25 July 2013)

A. meteorite   B. balcony   C. cement   D. gloss

Test items in translation task

1. artefact
2. chunk
3. decade
4. devastation
5. freak
6. galaxy
7. giggle
8. trill
9. growl
10. stroll
11. hazardous
12. whirr
13. paradox
14. licence
15. triplicate

Distractors in choice task

1. The new underground railway will ___the journey to all parts of the city.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://www.iciba.com/underground+railway, accessed 26 July 2013)

    A. consume   B. eliminate   C. formulate   **D. facilitate**

2. The new secretary has written a remarkably __ report only in a few pages
   but with all the details.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://202.194.48.102/englishonline/zhxl/chxx/vocab900/VocTest7.htm,
   accessed 26 July 2013)

  A. concise   B. clear   C. precise   D. elaborate

3. Now a paper in Science argues that organic chemicals in the rock come
   mostly from __ on earth rather than bacteria on Mars.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://www.mokaoba.com/daxueyingyu/2977/shiti/1163959.html,
   accessed 26 July 2013)

A. configuration B. constitution   C. condemnation **D. contamination**

4. My tutor, frequently reminds me to ___ myself of every chance to improve my English.
   (The context was adapted from: http://dict.hjenglish.com/w/avail,
   accessed 26 July 2013)

   A. assure   B. inform   **C. avail**   D. notify

5. Fashion designers are rarely concerned with vital things like warmth, comfort and __
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://emuch.net/fanwen/540/80810.html, accessed 26 July 2013)

   A. stability   B. capability   **C. durability**   D. availability

6. It is well known that knowledge is the __ condition for expansion of mind.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://www.en8848.com.cn/CET6/words/tjch/164207.html,
   accessed 26 July 2013)

   A. incompatible B. incredible   C. indefinite   **D. indispensable**

7. This disease __ itself in yellowness of the skin and eyes.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://dict.cn/The%20disease%20manifests%20itself%20in%20yellownes
   s%20of%20the%20skin%20and%20eyes_2E, accessed 26 July 2013)

   A. manifests   B. modifies   C. magnifies   D. exposes

8. Up until that time, his interest had focused almost__ on fully mastering the skills and techniques of his craft.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://www.enread.com/exam/university/cetsix/44490.html,
   accessed 26 July 2013)

   A. restrictively   B. radically   C. inclusively   **D. exclusively**

9. The meeting was ___ over by the mayor to discuss the tax raise in the city.
   (The context was extracted from:
   http://wap.putclub.com/html/exam/tem4/mock/2012/0115/45874.html,
   accessed 26 July 2013)

A. presumed   B. propelled   **C. presided**   D. pricked

10. In his last years, Henry suffered from a disease that slowly __ him of much of his sight.
    (The context was extracted from:
    http://bbs.tingroom.com/viewthread.php?action=printable&tid=151705,
    accessed 26 July 2013)

    A. relieved   B. jeopardized   **C. deprived**   D. eliminated

Distractors in translation task

1. overlap
2. flourish
3. gleam
4. interval
5. enchant
6. enclose
7. incompatible
8. magnify
9. disposal
10. terrace

Appendix Four : Pilot Questionnaire Survey for TV series selection

您的性别是：男/女

Please indicate your gender: Male/Female

1. 平时看电视剧，特别是美剧或者英剧，您比较喜欢看哪一种题材呢？

   When you watch TV series, especially English TV series, which types do you prefer?

   请您在相应的空白处做以标记。(对勾，填充颜色等方式均可)

   Please indicate your preference in the blank.

	喜欢 Preferable	不喜欢 Not Preferable
战争类 war		
历史类 history		
律政类 law; legal affair		
情景喜剧类 sitcom; comedy		
犯罪调查类 （包括悬疑）crime		
冒险类 adventure		
医疗类 medical show		
科 幻 、 奇 幻 类 science-fiction		
惊悚类 thriller		

2. 请针对各种题材举一例说明： （例如：情景喜剧类:《生活大爆炸》）

   Please give an example in every type of TV series. (e.g. Sitcom; comedy: The Big Bang Theory)

1) 战争类 war

2) 历史类 history

3) 律政类 law; legal affair

4) 情景喜剧类 sitcom; comedy

5) 犯罪调查类 （包括悬疑）crime

6) 冒险类 adventure

7) 医疗类 medical show

8) 科幻、奇幻类   science-fiction

9) 惊悚类   thriller

3. 有没有什么特别的因素（例如：文化，饮食，服饰，建筑，演员等）令您特别钟情于一种题材或者特别不喜欢一种题材？若有请您列举。

Are there any factors (e.g. culture, food, clothes, architecture, actor, etc.) that make you feel preferable or not preferable to a specific type of TV series? Please illustrate with an example.

Appendix Five: Motivation rating questionnaire

Motivation Evaluation

Name of the participant (参与者姓名) _____
Date of watching (观看日期) _____
Number of episode (集数) _____
Number of watching times (观看次数) _____

This is a questionnaire focusing on your language learning motivation. Please select the most appropriate one according to the rating scale.
本问卷旨在调查语言学习动机。请您根据量表示意选择出最适合的一项。

Rating scale 量表示意

★　　　★★　　　★★★　　　★★★★　　　★★★★★

Disagree　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　Agree
不同意　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　同意

1. After watching this episode of the TV series, I start to purely love and enjoy learning English, because I am motivated to understand the culture of English-speaking countries, to communicate with the local people and to integrate to the society of English-speaking countries.

在观看了这集电视剧后，我开始纯粹的喜欢并且享受学习英语，因为它激发了我多多了解讲英语国家的文化，并和当地人交流，以融入英语国家社会的愿望。

★　　　★★　　　★★★　　　★★★★　　　★★★★★

2. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because it (this episode) stimulates my determination of learning English.

在观看了这集电视剧后，我开始积极的学习英语，因为它（这集电视剧）激发了我学好英语的决心。

★　　　★★　　　★★★　　　★★★★　　　★★★★★

3. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because learning English through TV series is enjoyable and entertaining.

在观看了这集电视剧后，我开始积极的学习英语，因为这个过程是快乐的，愉悦身心的。

★   ★ ★   ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

4. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because it (this episode) brought me the sense of achievement in English learning.

在观看了这集电视剧之后，我开始积极的学习英语，因为它（这集电视剧）带给了我英语学习的成就感。

★   ★ ★   ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

5. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English to have further education in English-speaking countries, to find an English related job, or to reside in English-speaking countries.

看过这集电视剧之后，我开始积极的学英语，因为它激发了我到讲英语的国家学习深造，从事英语相关工作，或到讲英语的国家定居的愿望等。

★   ★ ★   ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

6. After watching this episode of the TV series, I am motivated to learn English, because I want to understand and enjoy watching this episode and other English TV series (or understand English songs).

看过这集电视剧之后，我开始积极的学习英语，因为我想要看懂并欣赏这部及其他英语电视剧（或听懂英文歌）。

★   ★ ★   ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★   ★ ★ ★ ★ ★