

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING WITH
SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION MATERIALS:
AN EXPLORATORY STUDY**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates second language (L2) learning with self-instructional television (SITV) materials. It aims to explore: (1) how SITV materials can contribute to L2 learning; (2) the process of self-instruction involved in the use of SITV materials; and (3) a new methodological approach for investigating the use of SITV materials.

The initial literature review considers self-instruction in general and learning involving self-instructional broadcast materials in particular, providing details also of two preliminary studies of Japanese students carried out by the author.

The main study was designed to investigate, in an exploratory-interpretive fashion, the process whereby seven British adult learners studied Japanese using SITV materials over a fourteen-month period consisting of four phases.

Phase 1 revealed features of SITV materials learners find salient while viewing SITV lessons. It was also found that the learners' focus shifted from surface features of the materials to content and onto their own learning process, and that this development accompanied changes in the way they studied with the materials. This led me to carry out a second literature review, on learner strategies.

The research in Phase 2 focussed on learners' strategy use while viewing SITV lessons, revealing the types of strategies learners use as well as variability in strategy use according to the lesson, with implications for strategy research more generally.

In Phases 3 and 4, which were motivated by the learners themselves, I had the chance to observe what they would do if left on their own. In Phase 4, learners formed a semi-autonomous learning group and together invented creative activities of their own to fulfill their needs and shared strategies to overcome their common problems.

On the basis of these findings, the thesis concludes with an overall discussion of the role of SITV materials in L2 learning, the process of materials-centred self-instruction, and issues of research methodology, as well as pedagogical and methodological implications. Directions for future research are also suggested.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This thesis considers the learning of second languages (L2) using self-instructional television (SITV) materials, that is, television language courses specifically designed for second language self-instruction (see Chapter 2 for further discussion on the notion of self-instruction). As I will briefly indicate in this introduction, such materials are widely used in the Japanese context, with which I am most familiar, but have received little serious attention from researchers in this or other contexts (again see Chapter 2).

I first developed an interest in researching the use of SITV materials on the basis of personal experience in the production of a particular television language course for the learning of Japanese as a foreign language. My journey of exploration in this area had begun even prior to this, however, when I first started teaching Japanese using video materials. In 1989, I became involved in teaching Japanese to adults in a language school in Tokyo. The courses were in conversational Japanese for people working in Japan, mostly business people from countries such as the USA and the UK. The school used video materials as the core component. As I taught using these materials, I became aware that as learners watched the video, they engaged to a considerable degree in inferencing, that is, the making of informed guesses as to the meaning of an unknown unit in an utterance in the light of all available linguistic clues which are familiar to the learner in combination with the other nonlinguistic clues available (Carton, 1971; Haastrup, 1987). Learners were observed to be using various audio and visual clues provided in the materials to guess the meaning of unknown units. This observation led me to an early study published in 1993, in which I investigated this area more thoroughly (details of this study will be presented in Chapters 2 and 5).

From 1993 to 1996, I was fortunate to be involved in the production of the second part of a major television language course called 'Let's Learn Japanese' (Part One of this series was produced in 1981). The materials I helped to develop were to be broadcast on television in countries outside Japan. I had several roles in this project. First, I was one of the three materials designers who organized the teaching content in negotiation with others on the production team, including the director and the script-writer. Second, I was also the presenter ('teacher figure') in

the series. Finally, I co-wrote the accompanying textbook for the Japan Foundation (the Japanese equivalent to The British Council), which had commissioned the series. During the production process of these materials, I became strongly aware of the fact that decisions made in this process were frequently based on untested assumptions regarding how learners might learn using this kind of material. These assumptions mostly derived from the prior experience of members of staff as teachers, producers, directors, or script-writers, rather than being based on data derived from empirical investigations into how learners actually learn with this type of material. During these years of work, therefore, I developed an intrinsic motivation to find out how learners actually perceive elements in the materials which are presumed by the designers of the materials to be useful to them and how learners actually use the materials in their learning process. Do learners really find these elements useful? How do learners make sense of these materials when they are engaged in learning? There were many questions which I felt needed to be answered in order to evaluate the work we had done. Findings in this area appeared to be extremely limited even for SITV materials in other contexts. In this thesis I therefore investigate the use of SITV materials in the hope of providing a basis on which future production of and research into such materials may be based.

A second reason for my involvement in this area of investigation is the significance of the use of such materials in Japan, where I was born and grew up. It is no exaggeration to say that SITV materials play a major role in L2 learning in Japan. On television and radio, a wide variety of foreign language instructional programmes are newly produced each year and broadcast at various times everyday. For example, in 2000, NHK (The Japan Broadcasting Corporation), the major educational broadcasting company in Japan, provided 13 radio language series per week for eight languages: Chinese, English, French, German, Italian, Korean, Russian and Spanish and fourteen television language series for the same eight languages, with the addition of Japanese (NHK, 2000). Radio and television foreign language instructional programmes account for a total of 23 hours and 50 minutes of on-air time per week including repeats. This contrasts with BBC language course provision in the UK which accounts for only four hours of on-air time per week, exclusively on television (BBC, 1998). In Japan, people interested in learning languages make use of these courses according to their various needs. My parents, for example, studied Italian by watching one of the series every week for a year before they visited Italy, and Spanish before they visited Spain the following year. I myself used the French series for six months when I took up French at university. Further evidence for the significance of such materials in the

Japanese context will be presented in Chapter 2.

Despite the fact that SITV materials can be seen to play an important role in L2 learning in Japan, little serious investigation has been carried out into the characteristics of these materials or the ways they are used. In the British context, greater efforts have been devoted to the evaluation of particular BBC television and radio series (see Chapter 2), and these studies are likely to be of relevance to the investigation of materials produced in Japan. However, on the basis of my own experiences in SITV materials production, it has become clear to me that, despite the resources and energies devoted to the production of such materials, relatively little attention has been paid in any context, including Britain, to investigation of the actual use of such materials by learners. For the contextual and motivational reasons described above, the main focus of my study will be on SITV materials produced in the Japanese context for the learning of Japanese as a foreign language.

1.2 Aims and scope of the thesis

The first aim of the thesis is to contribute, for ultimately practical purposes, to an understanding of how SITV *materials* can contribute to L2 learning and how they can be improved, given the importance of such materials in the Japanese context with which I am particularly familiar. Despite their apparent popularity in this and other contexts, very little serious attention appears to have been paid to what features of SITV materials contribute to L2 learning in what ways, or how such features might be exploited by learners for the enhancement of their own L2 learning. Since I place importance on investigating learners' contributions in this area as much as on identifying features of materials themselves which play a role, I investigate this topic mainly by observing how learners perceive, make sense of and respond to the materials in question, in short, the ways in which they interact with the materials (as will be discussed further below).

The second aim is to contribute to a deeper understanding of the *process* of L2 self-instruction involving the use of self-instructional television (SITV) materials, and thereby to throw light on the nature of self-instructed language learning more generally. *Self-instruction* is defined as a mode of learning in which learners take the initiative in their learning outside institutionalised educational control (see 2.2 for further discussion). Dickinson (1987:5) indicates that one form of self-instruction involves relying heavily on specially designed learning materials. He terms this 'materials-centred self-instruction' in which

much of the decision-making with regard to learning is built into the ('self-instructional') materials to enable learners to learn on their own. The learning situation considered in this thesis (learning with SITV materials) falls into this category. In the literature on materials-centred self-instruction, the focus has primarily been on evaluating the materials themselves (see Chapter 2) and little attention has been paid to characteristics of this mode of learning and how learners interact with the materials in pursuing this form of self-instruction. Indeed, learners engaged in materials-centred self-instruction have tended to be characterized as passive (Dickinson, 1987; Holec, 1981) beings who simply follow the rails laid down by the materials designers. However, just as the outcomes of classroom learning can be conceptualized as a co-product of interaction between teacher and learners, the outcomes of materials-centred self-instruction can be understood as a co-product of the interaction between the learner and the materials in question. Accordingly, the active role the learner may play in this process deserves to be explored. My ultimate goal, then, is to understand the process of self-instruction using SITV materials, by shedding light in particular on how learners contribute within this process, in other words, what learners think and do and how they feel in their attempts to learn from such materials. At the same time, I hope to focus on developmental aspects of this process by adopting a longitudinal perspective.

It is worth noting here further that even though in self-instruction learners act outside the control of teachers or institutions, this does not mean they are wholly self-directed, that is, fully in control of their learning, or autonomous, that is, able to engage in self-directed learning (see 2.2 for definition). It can be argued that self-instruction provides an opportunity to exercise autonomy, which is a necessary condition for the *development* of autonomy, but not a sufficient one. Indeed, some researchers point out that engagement in materials-centred self-instruction can actually inhibit autonomy (Holec, 1981, Benson, 2001). Finding out the extent to which the learners are autonomous in self-instruction is not the primary concern of the present study, although it is relevant in that the way learners use SITV materials in self-instruction is likely to be related to the degree to which they are in control of such use. Nor does the study focus on how one can *develop* learner autonomy using this type of self-instructional material in self-instruction although implications in this area will be discussed in Chapter 8.

The above leads me to consideration of the third aim of the thesis, which is to establish new *methodological approaches* for investigating the use of SITV materials. The research methods previously employed in this area have tended to be highly controlling and selective (see 3.4), involving tests (for example, Flavell

and Micallef, 1995) or surveys (for example, Rybak, 1983), both of which impose predetermined categories on learners. Previous studies have tended to value quantification over interpretation, and have failed to take account of developmental aspects. However, as van Lier (1988) points out, other approaches are available to the classroom researcher, and my conflation of materials-centred self-instruction with other forms of instructed learning (see Chapter 2) enables me to consider alternative means for investigating in my chosen area. The following major considerations have governed the approach adopted in my main study. Primarily, I adopt an exploratory-interpretive approach (Grotjahn, 1987) through which I attempt to discover new issues and theories through analytic induction from data. This entails employment of methods which enable me to explore the complexity of SITV learning as far as possible from participants' own viewpoints. I focus on the process of SITV learning rather than its product, employing a longitudinal, developmental perspective. By employing these approaches I hope to reveal findings which have not been captured in previous studies, and at the same time contribute to the establishment of a new methodological perspective for future research into the use of SITV and other self-instructional materials, and into other L2 educational issues more generally. These considerations are further developed in Chapters 2 and 3.

1.3 Overview of the thesis

With the above aims in mind, I pursued the investigation which will be described in the following chapters. The thesis comprises literature reviews in three areas, and the report of my own study. My own investigation proceeded in such a manner that the execution of one phase of research led on to the execution of the next combined with consultation of a further area of literature. The structure of the thesis represents the sequence through which I pursued this investigation. I adopted this narrative format of writing because in this way I can best represent what I did and the manner in which I did what I did. Below I present an overview of this thesis.

In Chapter 2, I clarify certain key concepts, drawing on the existing literature related to self-instruction and the use of SITV materials. I review studies previously carried out relating to the use of SITV materials, focussing on two areas of particular relevance. First, I review works which relate to a defining feature of SITV materials, namely the visual elements of television / video materials, and studies which throw light on their significance for L2 learning.

Second, I review studies looking into the use of L2 self-instructional materials, in particular self-instructional broadcast (SIB) materials. The latter review, covering the use of materials produced in the UK and in Japan, reveals some inadequacies of previous research, particularly within the Japanese context, and provides a justification for two preliminary studies of my own in the Japanese context, which I also report on in this chapter. These two studies motivated me to carry out the main study which is presented in the rest of the thesis.

In Chapter 3, I consider the underpinnings of the methodology for the main study. Previous studies on SIB learning (reviewed in 2.4 in Chapter 2) have almost exclusively used structured surveys and tests without much attention being paid to the process as opposed to the products of learning, failing to take account of the developmental aspects. My own preliminary studies reported on in 2.5 employed an open-ended questionnaire and interviews, but failed to address aspects of process adequately. In the main study, therefore, I employ an *exploratory-interpretive* approach (Grotjahn, 1987) with the aim of overcoming some of the limitations of the previous studies. In this chapter, I aim to present the theoretical underpinnings and practical considerations with regard to employment of this approach in an investigation of SITV learning.

Using this approach, I carried out Phase 1 of my main study, which is reported on in Chapter 4. In order to investigate areas which were not covered in previous work, this study focusses on a specific case of learners using a particular SITV series. The participants for my two studies reported in Chapter 2 were experienced users of SIB materials in Japan. In this main study, however, I chose a group in Britain who had never studied with any sort of SITV materials, thus aiming to document closely the process by which these ordinary or (in terms of SITV learning) inexperienced learners embark on SITV learning, respond to the SITV materials and develop as they continue this process. In Phase 1, therefore, I document the features of a particular set of SITV materials for Japanese language learning which were perceived to be salient by learners and how these salient features evolved over time. I also discuss how the learners' focus shifted away from materials-oriented features towards learning-oriented features as well as some developments observed in this phase. In order to understand their learning process more precisely, in Phase 2 of the study I decided to investigate strategies learners employ during SITV lessons.

In Chapter 5, I survey the literature on learner strategies as a basis for investigation in Phase 2. I first review the major taxonomies developed for describing learner strategies. Then I review previous work on learners' application of strategies for listening / viewing tasks. These studies provide insights into the *types* of strategies applied in listening / viewing and address differences between the strategies used by effective and less effective listeners. Nevertheless, they suffer from certain deficiencies which are relevant to my research. First, most studies do not address the role of visual aspects and how these shape strategy use. Second, they are restricted in their approach to research, tending to rely on quantitative analysis rather than qualitative. Finally, the studies tend to overlook developmental aspects of strategy use, using cross-sectional rather than longitudinal methods.

Phase 2 of the main study, reported on in Chapter 6, focusses on the learners' use of strategies during SITV lessons. By using verbal reports, I elicited participants' reports on their thought processes after each segment of a lesson. The unique characteristics of lessons delivered via SITV materials (namely, the way they can be 'paused' to elicit learners' reactions) made possible this 'micro-analysis' of learners' strategy use during a lesson. In this way, I was able to investigate the learning process in the *micro* sense (within a particular lesson) as well as in the macro sense (over 8 lessons). This enabled me to uncover the types of strategies used and the ways in which they are used within instructional sequences, whilst highlighting variability in such strategy use. Some developmental changes over the phase are also discussed.

After Phase 2 was finished, the learners expressed their wish to continue with the sessions as they found them beneficial for their Japanese learning. We ended up having 16 more sessions, taking place over two distinct periods. I refer to these sequel phases as 'Phase 3' and 'Phase 4' respectively. The additional data collected from these phases have some important implications for understanding the process of SITV learning and L2 self-instruction. In Chapter 7, I provide a description of these phases and highlight significant findings.

In Chapter 8, I discuss the overall findings of the study reported on in this thesis in relation to the three aims I set at the beginning, namely: (1) to contribute insights into how SITV materials can contribute to L2 learning and how materials can be improved; (2) to contribute to understanding the process of SITV learning / self-instruction; and (3) to establish a new methodology for investigating SITV

learning / self-instruction. I discuss the findings in relation to previous work in the field of second language acquisition as I draw implications for materials production and research methodology respectively before evaluating the limitations of the present work. Finally, I draw conclusions and suggest some directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

SELF-INSTRUCTION AND SITV MATERIALS

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I review previous works related to the use of self-instructional television (SITV) materials in L2 learning. I start by defining the key terms used throughout the thesis and by clarifying what I mean by self-instruction, SITV materials, and SITV learning (2.2). I then review works in two areas which are particularly relevant to the current investigation: the role of the visual element in SITV materials (2.3), and roles of self-instructional materials in L2 learning (2.4). In the first area I begin by summarising the major findings of earlier works of the 1960s on the visual elements of television which can be effectively exploited for L2 teaching. These works, though not empirically-grounded drew inferences from experimental research on general educational and instructional television, and provided an important basis for the succeeding investigations in the area. I then review a noteworthy group of studies which attempt to build on these earlier works, relating to roles of visual elements of television / video materials in L2 teaching and learning. In 2.4, I review relevant studies on L2 learning using self-instructional materials, with a particular focus on broadcast materials. Finally, in 2.5, I devote some space to two of my own studies carried out in the Japanese context which directly motivated me to pursue the main study to be discussed in this thesis.

2.2 Self-instructional television (SITV) materials, and 'SITV learning'

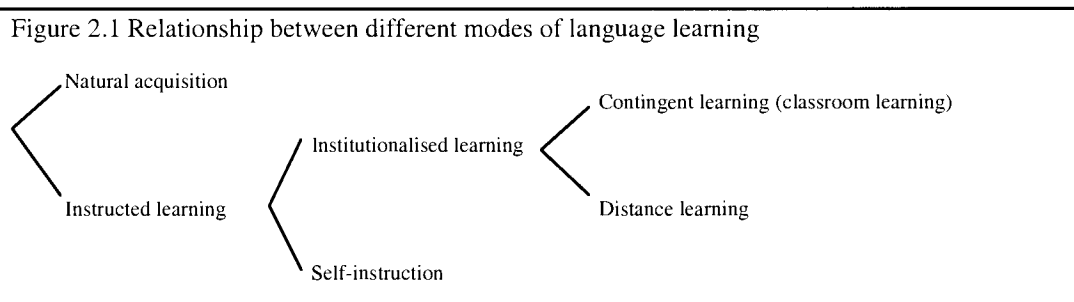
2.2.1 Self-instruction

Let us start by clarifying what is meant by the term *self-instruction*. Dickinson (1987) defines self-instruction as 'a situation in which a learner, with others or alone, is working without direct control from a teacher' (p 5). According to this broad definition, self-instruction is seen as potentially taking place inside the classroom (as in the case of individualised learning) as well as outside the classroom (Dickinson, 1987). In other words, it can include situations in which a learner receives some structuring from a teacher. Such a broad conception of self-instruction becomes problematic when we come to regard the relationship of self-instruction to other modes of instruction. White (1995), for example, follows

Dickinson's definition and uses self-instruction to refer to a learning situation in distance learning where a learner receives indirect control from a teacher who is at a distance. However, experiencing teacher intervention from a distance appears to be crucially different from not having any teacher intervention at all, and the failure to make this distinction appears to create ambiguity. Benson (2001:62) interprets the term even more broadly as 'any deliberate effort by the learner to acquire or master language content or skills'. Such a broad definition is not very productive as it does not distinguish self-instruction from other acts of deliberate learning behaviour including learner strategies. Jones (1998:378), on the other hand, more narrowly defines self-instruction as 'a deliberate long-term learning project instigated, planned, and carried out by the learner alone, without teacher intervention'. This narrower conception of self-instruction appears to be more appropriate in the sense that it clearly states the characteristic of there being no teacher intervention. However, it fails to take account of the fact that the learner may use self-instructional materials which 'replace' a teacher, in other words it seems to equate self-instruction too closely with 'self-directed learning' (see below). As I shall discuss further below, self-instruction does not necessarily entail self-direction and these two concepts ought to be discussed separately although they are related to each other.

In order to resolve the types of confusion discussed above, in my view the term self-instruction ought to be used to refer to a particular mode of learning through which instructed learning is realised, and defined adequately in relation to other modes of instructed learning. I refer to mode here to represent a 'way in which instruction is realised'. Figure 2.1 illustrates the relationship I propose between different modes of instructed learning. *Instructed learning* is a cover term which refers to learning that involves a 'planned attempt to intervene in the learning process' (Ellis, 1990: 40). Ellis further argues that instructed L2 learning involves some form of 'formal instruction', which is defined from a psycholinguistic perspective as any 'planned attempt to intervene directly in the process of interlanguage construction by providing samples of specific linguistic features for learning' (Ellis, 1990: 93). Instructed learning is contrasted with *natural acquisition* (of languages) which does not involve formal instruction, although in reality, as Benson (2001:62) points out, learners are likely to engage in natural acquisition through direct communication in the target language or interaction with target language texts concurrently even if they are receiving formal instruction. Among the different modes by which instructed learning can be realised, *self-instruction* is a mode in which individuals take the initiative for learning without receiving control from institutionalised education. This non-

institutional aspect is perhaps the defining feature which distinguishes self-instruction from other, institutionalised forms of instructed learning. Distance learning may resemble self-instruction in the sense that there is no teacher present in the learning situation. However, it is an institutionalised mode of learning in which a teacher is present *at a distance* as opposed to in contingent forms of learning (such as classroom learning) and is better distinguished from self-instruction.



There are several characteristics of self-instruction which require further clarification here. First, it does not imply that learners undertake the task of mastering a language entirely by themselves, though this latter view is suggested in Jones's definition above. In other words, it is possible for a learner to engage in self-instruction while also being involved in classroom instruction and / or in natural acquisition. In fact, Jones (1996) found that most of the users of self-instructional materials he investigated combined self-instruction and classroom learning (see also 2.4). The most effective route suggested in his study is engaging in classwork at the beginning level, then proceeding to self-instruction.

Secondly, self-instruction does not necessarily refer exclusively to individual work (as implied in Jones's definition above) but can involve working in a group. For example, in an early study of self-instruction, Tough (1971) investigated self-directed 'learning projects' in North America and found that adults often studied in small and medium-sized 'autonomous learning groups' whose members themselves planned their learning sessions.

Thirdly, it does not necessarily imply learner *autonomy*, which is probably best defined as a capacity or positive attitude for taking control of various aspects of one's own learning. Little (1991:4) defines autonomy as 'the capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action'. *Self-direction*, on the other hand, may be seen to refer to actual control over learning decisions. 'Self-instruction', 'self-direction', and 'autonomy' are often confused due to differences in the use of these terms in the literature. For example, Dickinson uses 'self-direction' to refer to an 'attitude to the learning task, where

the learner accepts responsibility for all the decisions concerned with his learning and defines 'autonomy' as actual control over learning decisions, which I prefer to term here 'self-direction'. While the reversal of his terms here might appear confusing, I am in fact attempting to avoid confusion, since contemporary researchers tend to define self-direction in terms of behaviour and autonomy in terms of attitude or capacity, following Holec (1979) rather than Dickinson (1987) in this respect. It should also be noted that in the adult education literature, what I term 'self-instruction' here is often referred to as 'self-direction' (Knowles, 1975:18),

This third point becomes more apparent as we turn to consideration of *degrees of self-direction* within self-instruction, which may be assessed according to the extent to which learners are actually in control of the different decisions necessary in their learning (Dickinson, 1987: 14). One way in which this may be done is by taking into account the role of materials. Dickinson points out that although self-instruction is ideally carried out in a self-directed manner, it may not be so if the learners are simply following decisions built into the chosen self-instructional materials instead of making their own decisions. He terms this mode of learning *materials-centred self-instruction*. Programmed learning as described by Howatt (1969) is the extreme case of this form of self-instruction. One could argue that the mere fact of using self-instructional materials does not imply that learners have no control over their learning. However, it is fair to say that many home-learners are enabled to engage in self-instruction by their use of the self-instructional materials, as is reported in Jones's (1996) survey carried out in the UK and in other contexts as well (see 2.4). Indeed, in the literature on learner autonomy, learners' engagement in materials-centred self-instruction tended to be perceived in a negative sense, with such learners having been described as supine beings (Holec 1981) who passively follow the syllabus and the instruction provided in the materials. From this viewpoint, materials-centred self-instruction may at times be seen to inhibit the development or exercise of autonomy (Holec, 1981; Dickinson, 1997; Benson, 2001:9). I will return to this issue of degree of self-direction in self-instruction after having defined some characteristics of SITV materials in 2.2.3.

2.2.2 SITV materials and SITV learning

'Self-study' or 'self-instructional materials' refer to materials which are specifically designed to enable a learner to learn a language without direct intervention from a teacher (the term 'self-instructional materials' will be used for

consistency in this thesis). Consequently, many of the decisions which tend to be taken by the teacher in a classroom are made by the designers of such materials and embedded within them. Thus, the user of such materials may be working without a teacher, without being in a classroom, and yet still be on the receiving end of some kind of intervention in the learning process through the medium of the materials. Accordingly, recent research into self-instructional textbook and audio tape materials has demonstrated that such materials display different features from course materials designed for classroom use, including more explicit instructions, and answer keys (Hayet, 1990 / 91; Roberts, 1995, 1996; Jones, 1996). Recently produced self-instructional materials often come in the form of 'self-instructional packages' made up of several different components, including various combinations of course book, audio- and / or video-cassettes, and reference guides, typically with a core component carrying the main learning information and activities (Jones, 1996).

The specific type of self-instructional materials focused on in this thesis falls within the category of audio-visual materials employing what Bretz (1971:66) terms *audio-motion-visual* media. Bretz provides a useful classification of different media according to the kind of information presented: audio and / or visual, with the latter involving either still or motion presentation (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Classification of media (source: Bretz, 1971:66)

TELECOMMUNICATION					RECORDING
	Audio	Visual	Graphic	Motion	
CLASS I AUDIO-MOTION-VISUAL MEDIA					
	X	X	X	X	Sound film
Television	X	X	X	X	Video tape
	X	X	X	X	Film-TV recording
Picturephone	X	X	X	X	Holographic recording
CLASS II AUDIO-STILL VISUAL MEDIA					
Slow-scan TV	X	X	X	X	
Time shared TV					Recorded still-TV
	X	X	X	X	Sound filmstrip
	X	X	X	X	Sound slide set
	X	X	X	X	Sound on-slide
	X	X	X	X	Sound page
	X	X	X	X	Talking book
CLASS III AUDIO SEMIMOTION MEDIA					
Teletyping	X		X	X	Recorded teletyping
CLASS IV MOTION-VISUAL MEDIA					
		X	X	X	Silent film
CLASS V STILL VISUAL MEDIA					
Facsimile		X	X	X	Printed page
		X	X	X	Filmstrip
		X	X	X	Picture set
		X	X	X	Microfilm
		X	X	X	Video file
CLASS VI AUDIO MEDIA					
Telephone	X				Audio disc
Radio	X				Audio tape
CLASS VII PRINT MEDIA					
Teletype			X	X	Punched paper tape

On a second dimension, Bretz divides communication media into 'telemedia', which involve transmission over distance in real-time, as via television or radio,

and 'recording media' which involve recording, storage and play-back at a later time, as is the case with video- or audio- recordings.

My own main focus will be on materials originally designed to be broadcast on television (that is, on SITV materials as telemedia). Nevertheless, I recognize that it is often the case that such materials are subsequently sold on video tape by the producers or recorded personally by viewers (that is, employed as recording media). In the present age, the same materials may also at times be used as one element in multimedia 'packages' mediated by computers. Therefore, although my focus is on materials originally produced as audio-motion-visual telemedia, the issues raised in my study are likely to be relevant to the use of other forms of audio-motion-visual material in self-instruction.

In this connection, however, it should be emphasized that I will not address the use of mainstream broadcast television programmes (including, for example, satellite news broadcasts) for L2 self-instruction, except insofar as 'authentic' segments are included in the language teaching materials under consideration. The main concern in this study will be with materials specifically designed for L2 self-instruction, although implications may arise for language learning via television more generally.

Finally, since textual, audio tape or indeed (in the case of past BBC courses, in particular) broadcast radio resources are often produced to accompany and support learning with SITV materials (thus forming a kind of 'package' with these materials), I will not ignore the role of such resources, although my main focus will be on the uses and characteristics of SITV materials themselves.

Taking the above into consideration, I can now define *SITV materials* as 'self-instructional materials which employ audio-motion-visual telemedia'. They are designed with self-instruction in mind, under the assumption that the materials are used in real-time, and that learners use the materials without being in class. Also, I intend to focus on the *self-instructional use* of SITV materials, rather than the institutional use of SITV materials by teachers. The latter usage of this type of material has frequently been reported in the British secondary school context (for example, by Hawkins, 1977, 1978; Sharp, 1995). However, my own research will focus on the use of SITV materials in non-institutional settings, for self-instruction. Henceforth, then, the term *SITV learning* will be used as shorthand for the 'self-instructional use of SITV materials for L2 learning'.

2.2.3 A model of SITV learning

Having defined some key terms and certain aspects relating to the scope of my research, I now return to a consideration of materials-centred self-instruction in general, with a view to clarifying SITV learning in particular. As I mentioned earlier, if learners attempt to engage in self-instruction by relying solely on self-instructional course material, the extent to which they are actually in control of the different decisions in their learning will inevitably be limited. To what extent are decisions with regard to learning already built into these materials, in other words, how much control can we expect learners to have if they embark on SITV learning? Holec (1981:3) identifies a number of areas within which the degree of control learners have over their learning can be assessed. These areas include: objectives, content, progressions (pace), methods / techniques, monitoring, and evaluation. These areas of self-direction correspond to what has been described in definitions of learner autonomy as learners' ability for planning, executing, monitoring, and evaluating their learning (Little, 1995; Wenden, 1998). Dickinson (1987: 13–15) describes the dimensions of self-direction in a practical way by identifying the following areas: (i) (initial) decision to learn the language; (ii) mode, i.e. decision whether to engage in self-instruction or to join a class (here I use the term 'mode' in place of Dickinson's 'method', which seems somewhat ambiguous); (iii) pace of learning; (iv) time and place of learning; and (v) choice of materials for learning. Completely self-directed self-instruction (or what Dickinson calls learner-centred self-instruction) would involve learners' being in control of decision-making in all of these areas. Let us, then, take a first step towards characterizing SITV learning (as opposed to other modes of self-instruction) with reference to some of the areas of decision-making responsibility.

Suppose one decides to study a foreign language solely by following a television (or radio) language course, in what I shall term a 'default' manner (that is, not using any supporting textual materials, and only listening to / watching broadcasts themselves, without making / using recordings). How much control will one have in the areas mentioned above? Table 2.1 illustrates the degree of learner control over self-instruction which is implied in this kind of default use of SITV (or self-instructional radio) materials, as compared with other types of self-instruction. For reasons of clarity, at this initial stage, the areas of monitoring and evaluation will not be considered until later in the thesis.

In fully self-directed self-instruction (or what Dickinson (1987) terms 'learner-centred self-instruction'), the learner exercises choice in all of the areas indicated. On the other hand, in 'materials-centred' self-instruction, freedom of

choice is limited in some areas, more so in the case of default use of SITV and self-instructional radio materials than with textual or audio- / video-recorded self-study materials. In particular, pace and time of learning are determined by the producers and the broadcasting company rather than by the learners themselves, in contrast with self-instruction using textual and / or audio- / video-taped materials. Choice of place of learning may or may not be severely restricted (unlike with self-instruction using textual materials), depending on whether the learners have a portable television and / or radio (evidently, choice is likely to be more limited in the case of the visual medium). Finally, once the decision has been made to follow a particular course, all required materials are provided by the course producers; indeed, lack of control in this area may be seen to be a defining feature of materials-centred self-instruction in general. This model implies that in materials-centred self-instruction, learners' choice or control is limited particularly in the area of management of learning. The above model of the default use of SITV materials will be revisited after having investigated the actual use of such materials by learners in the main study.

Area of choice	Fully self-directed self-instruction	Materials-centred self-instruction, using:		
		textual materials	audio-/video-recordings	SITV materials
Decision to learn X	+	+	+	+
Mode	+	+	+	+
Pace	+	+	+	-
Time	+	+	+	-
Place	+	+	-	-
Content	+	-	-	-
Method	+	-	-	-
Materials	+	-	-	-

Key: + = Learner has free choice
 - = Learner's choice is denied / restricted

The above model confirms that this mode of learning does clearly involve 'instructed learning'. As mentioned above, Ellis (1990: 93) argues that instructed learning involves some form of 'formal instruction', which is defined as a 'planned attempt to intervene directly in the process of interlanguage construction by providing samples of specific linguistic features for learning'. Clearly, the producers of self-instructional materials for L2 learning do select and encourage a focus on specific linguistic features in a specific order, thus attempting to intervene in the learner's process of interlanguage construction. In the second language acquisition (SLA) literature, however, the term 'instructed learning' has been used almost exclusively to refer to language learning which takes place in classrooms, and Ellis himself (Ellis, 1997:107) tends to use the terms 'instructed learning' and 'classroom learning' interchangeably, with no consideration being

given to self-instruction. Investigation of the 'grey area' (as represented by SITV learning) between classroom learning and naturalistic learning or fully self-directed self-instruction is likely, then, to provide insights which might in turn inform conceptions of instructed learning and formal instruction. At the very least, the parallel I have drawn between materials-centred self-instruction and instructed (including classroom) learning will enable me to borrow methods of investigation from the arena of classroom research (see Chapter 3 for further discussion).

2.3 The visual aspects of L2 television / video materials and L2 learning

Having considered the nature of self-instruction and SITV learning, I now focus on a particular aspect of SITV materials, that is, its characteristics as 'audio-motion-visual media' (Bretz, 1971), considering in particular, roles of visual media in language learning. The studies reviewed here are rather disparate in terms of focus, context, method and time of investigation. This disparity relates to trends in the existing literature in this area being linked to developments in technology and to a tendency to consider the use of the latest educational technology of the time. Although the introduction of television to the teaching of foreign languages goes back to over half a century ago in Britain and in the United States (Corder, 1960; Hill, 1996), my literature search into empirical investigations of the use of television in L2 learning only reveals how much it has tended to be used in the absence of serious research in this area. This appears in the following trend in numbers of publications: the majority of work on the use of television for language learning were published in the 1960s and 1970s (for example, Huebener, 1960; Corder, 1960, 1966; Sherrington, 1973; Vernon, 1973), video was focussed on in the 1980s (for example, Geddes and Sturtridge, 1982; Lonergan, 1984; Allan, 1985; Tomalin, 1986), and in mid 1980s, there is the computer (for example, Hainline (ed.), 1987; Kenning and Kenning, 1990), and in the 1990s there is the internet (for example, Townsend, 1997, Warschauer, 1999). This trend shows that attempts have been made to come to terms with the latest technology in language learning and teaching as it has been developed. However, work on a particular technology tends to have come to an end as soon as a newer medium has been developed, before any serious empirical work has been carried out. As a result, the majority of work on the use of television remains speculative and very little empirical research has in fact been carried out. I might add here that empirical research here means research supported by directly observable data yielding proof or strong confirmation of a theory or hypothesis in a research

setting (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000:10). I consider below works which are either empirically grounded or appear to provide useful directions for empirical research.

2.3.1 Early studies based on inferences from general educational television¹

The use of television for L2 instruction first started to receive serious consideration in the 1960s, and most works on how best to exploit television in this area were published around this time. Of these, the most influential and systematic works were produced by S. Pit Corder (Corder, 1960, 1966), who was later to become better known for his work on interlanguage (for example, Corder, 1981). Although these earlier works are not empirical investigations themselves, the assumptions and principles are derived from findings of experimental works carried out on educational television by psychologists such as Vernon (1953) and Trenaman (1960).

Corder, in his two most influential books on the use of visual elements in language teaching (Corder, 1960, 1966) stresses the importance of television in the 'contextualisation' of target language items. Contextualisation is 'a demonstration of how a linguistic item operates in a system' (Corder, 1966:15) and manifests itself in two different ways: *systemic contextualisation*, which shows how the target linguistic item relates to other vocabulary, pronunciation or grammar items in the language, and *situational contextualisation* which relates to the 'real life' context in which the language occurs. Corder argues that television has great advantages, particularly in the latter area, contextualisation being considered superior to translation and description as a means of presenting language. Indeed, the notion of 'contextualisation' being television's strongest point has prevailed among L2 teachers and researchers up to the present time (Hill, 1996).

Corder goes on to elaborate on specific ways in which contextualisation can occur visually by describing the following characteristics or uses of television which will contribute to successful learning:

(1) Movement: Expressive movements and facial expressions of people observed are more effective than static scenes (Vernon, 1953). Movement on television also has a positive effect on learners' motivation (UNESCO, 1954).

¹ 'Educational' television refers to all programmes whose primary interest is to educate rather than entertain, whereas 'instructional' television refers to programmes directly related to an organized, on-going program of formal instruction directed to specified learners. The former, therefore, is a wider term which subsumes the latter (Dale, 1955:363).

- (2) The visible presence of the speaker: Learners were found to prefer seeing speakers on the screen to hearing just voices or commentaries off-screen (Vernon, 1953).
- (3) Coordination of visual and verbal material: The closer the verbal material corresponds to the visual material, the more successful the learning outcome (Vernon, 1953).
- (4) Concreteness of material: Learning is enhanced if the material is concrete, especially when it shows lives and emotions of ordinary people (Trenaman, 1960).
- (5) Diagrams and visual aids: These can present essential information in a clear and simple manner and are found to be effective for learning (Vernon, 1953), including, for example, in the presentation or consolidation of verb conjugations (Allen, 1959).

It needs to be noted that the developments in technology have been rapid since Corder's time and that there is now a substantial difference in the quality and sophistication of the mediating equipment. For example, television at the time Corder was writing was exclusively black and white. However, Corder's insights are by no means dated and provide a very important basis for consideration of television's role in L2 language teaching, with particular reference to its visual component. On the other hand, the studies on which Corder based his insights exclusively dealt with effects of television on retention of information content (Vernon, 1953; Trenaman, 1960) rather than specifically on the teaching or learning of second language *skills*, which, as Corder and Sherrington (1973) admit themselves, is a substantially different area. Moreover, these works are characterized by their experimental methodology of investigation, carried out in decontextualised settings, that is, in settings which are quite distinct from those in which learning typically takes place.

2.3.2 Works on visual elements in L2 video materials

While research into educational television in general appears to have peaked in the 1960s and early 1970s (for example, Gordon, 1965; Hickel, 1965; Cripwell, 1966; Groombridge et. al. (eds.), 1966; Waniewicz, 1972), there have been a number of more recent studies in this field relating, in particular, to production and implementation issues (for example, Holtzman (ed.), 1981; Choat, 1989; Sharp, 1995). In the area of foreign language teaching, however, the early work of Corder (1960, 1966) on television's specific characteristics and

advantages had not been followed up, even in relation to video, which occupied more of the attention of the language teaching profession in the 1980s.

While television still proved to be attractive and influential, publications on the use of technology in L2 teaching gradually shifted their focus to the use of video tape recorders in the 1970s and 1980s. Many works were published on techniques which can be used with video materials, (for example, Geddes and Sturtridge, 1982; Lonergan, 1984; Allan, 1985; Tomalin, 1986; Hill, 1981), and there have also been surveys and reports relating to actual use of video in language instruction (MacKnight, 1983), as well as guidelines for the in-house production of video materials (Lonergan, 1984).

This development may have been related to an effort to advertise the value of video to teachers who 'feared the supposedly complicated technology and the loss of teacher prestige' involved in its use (Lonergan, 1991:4). These publications on 'how to use video' present the advantages of television and / or video emphasizing that they can 'provide contextualisation', 'bring real life into classrooms', and 'motivate students' (Stempleski and Tomalin, 1990). Certainly, remarks such as these are derived from practical experience and they by no means contradict intuitions of teachers who have experienced teaching with video or television since Corder's time. However, such assertions are not supported by empirical research but rather are 'anecdotal or take the form of generalized observation' (MacWilliam, 1986:131).

Contrary to the 'fever' for video shown in the L2 literature, research on the use of television / video in general education was beginning to warn of possible negative effects of video (Fisher, 1984; Gunter, 1980). There was clearly a need for more precise discussion and systematic investigation in the area of L2 learning and teaching into what features of visual cues could best be exploited and under what conditions.

Although few studies have in fact been carried out, some researchers have attempted to investigate further the visual elements of video materials in relation to the contextualisation of language presentation argued for in the earlier work of Corder (1960, 1966). I will review these studies below.

2.3.3 C.R.A.P.E.L. studies

Philip Riley and his colleagues at the C.R.A.P.E.L., University of Nancy II, have examined the roles of non-linguistic sources of information in communication in order for the potential of video to be best exploited in L2 teaching and learning. Their basic premises are: (i) that 'of all the variables in the

language learning situation, only a few are 'linguistic' (Riley, 1981:144), and that (ii) consideration of non-linguistic sources of information is as important as that of linguistic sources in the teaching of communication. Based on their experience of teaching with video and on their observations of how learners use the video section in their sound library (Riley and Zoppis, 1977; 1985), these researchers provide theoretical insights into the roles of the visual channel in face-to-face interaction. Communicative aspects of interaction are discussed in terms of three major components (Riley, 1976): (1) the verbal component, having the features of [+ verbal] [+ vocal]; (2) the paralinguistic component, with features [- verbal] [+ vocal]; and (3) the non-verbal component, with [- verbal] [- vocal] features. With the aim of understanding the roles of the non-verbal component, Riley (1981; 1985) indicates the communicative functions of this component as listed in Table 2.2. These principles provide an important theoretical basis for understanding the role of the visual elements provided in television and / or video and for developing ways of exploiting these in language pedagogy. Their work was pursued further (see Willis, 1983a; 1983b; Umino, 1993a; 1993b) as we will see below.

<p>Table 2.2 Functions of visual elements in communication (Riley, 1981)</p> <p>(1) <u>The deictic function</u>: 'pointing at objects which are physically present in the communicative situation'.</p> <p>(2) <u>The interactional function</u>: combining turns, i.e. who speaks when and to whom.</p> <p>(3) <u>The modal function</u>: 'the extent to which he [the actor] is committed to the literal meaning, the propositional content, of his utterance,'</p> <p>(4) <u>The indexical function</u>: providing information about the actor's self, as opposed to the modal function, which refers to how the actor tries to influence others.</p> <p>(5) <u>The linguistic function</u>: conveying linguistic meaning.</p> <p>(6) <u>The situational function</u>: 'spatio-temporal setting perceived as a scene for a specific type of communicative event'</p>

2.3.4 Willis (1983a, 1983b)

Drawing insights from the work of Riley and his colleagues reviewed above, Jane Willis and her colleagues have attempted to re-examine what makes contextualisation of language possible and effective in television / video materials (D. Willis, 1983; J. Willis, 1983a, 1983b; Candlin, et. al., 1982).

J. Willis (1983a) identifies the visual features provided in particular television scenes and aims to develop a model of how learners can make sense of what is going on with reference to the interaction of linguistic and non-linguistic

elements. Setting and interaction, then, can be understood in terms of the elements listed in Table 2.3.

Willis claims that learners usually respond initially to elements relating to the setting, and only then to features such as proxemics, posture, gesture, facial expression, and eye contact which relate more directly to interaction. Taken together these features communicate the affective, textual and interactive information in a given televised discourse.

Table 2.3 Taxonomy of visual elements in video materials (J. Willis, 1983a)
Elements relating to setting: <u>Background</u> : referring to the place itself, related to Riley's 'deictic function' <u>Situation</u> : referring to viewers' interpretation of what is happening and why: related to Riley's 'situational function' <u>Participants</u> : people and their relationships, relating to Riley's 'indexical function'
Elements relating to interaction: <u>Proxemics</u> : distance at which people sit / stand vis-a-vis each other <u>Posture</u> : ways in which the body is disposed <u>Gesture</u> : movement involving less than whole body <u>Facial expression</u> : mouth, eyes, eyebrows, muscular tension <u>Eye contact</u> : contact, gaze length, direction, etc.

Willis's taxonomy has important implications for pedagogy in that it identifies the various visual features learners should be sensitized to in order to comprehend the message conveyed via the interrelation of linguistic and non-linguistic sources. Willis does not, however, investigate how learners actually deal with these visual features in the process of comprehension in watching and listening to television or video materials.

2.3.5 Umino (1993a, 1993b)

Building on the work of Riley and Willis, several years later I carried out an empirical study looking into how learners use the visual elements presented in Willis (1983) to infer meaning of an unknown linguistic element in listening to and viewing video materials. In the study (Umino, 1993a, 1993b), twenty adult learners of Japanese whose L1 was English were asked to infer the meaning of an unknown element or elements within a given text from L2 video materials and to report retrospectively what information sources they had used immediately after completion of the task. Learners reported having used various nonverbal cues relating, for example, to background, participants, actions, posture, facial expression and eye contact, as well as linguistic cues, to infer the meaning of

unknown linguistic elements. Also, learners with lower proficiency in the target language were found to use both a greater number of cues overall and a greater number of non-linguistic than linguistic cues. This study also suggested that the effectiveness with which learners can infer meaning using the contextual cues deliberately provided on television is affected by features such as naturalness in the delivery of speech, and naturalness of situation. While inferencing may be an important strategy in comprehension, it is but one aspect of the overall process of learning using television. These studies (Umino 1993a, 1993b) did not investigate roles of other strategies and this needs to be investigated further. I will return to this study in Chapter 5.

2.4 Studies of the use of self-instructional materials

I now turn to studies looking into the use of L2 self-instructional materials. These include work on self-instructional broadcast (SIB) materials, that is, television and radio courses designed for the purpose of L2 self-instruction as well as on textbook materials.

2.4.1 Studies of the use of self-instructional textbook materials

As Jones (1996, 1998) mentions, self-instructional materials for L2 learning have long been neglected by SLA researchers and their use has been under-researched. Until recently, there have been only impressionistic surveys of L2 self-instructional packages such as those carried out for the Consumer's Association in the UK (Roberts, 1992, 1995). Thus, Jones (1996, 1998) was the first to investigate in a systematic fashion the characteristics of L2 self-instructional packages and their use in L2 self-instruction. He first developed a checklist and examined 40 such course packages. Then, he carried out semi-structured telephone interviews with 70 language learners on their experience of the use of these materials. He used multivariate statistical methods to identify patterns of learners' experience with the materials, learning strategies, the role of L2 environment, perceptions of success and failure, and the phenomenon of 'dropping out'.

The study involved participants with a variety of backgrounds, target languages, and proficiency levels, and it was successful in identifying some interesting relationships between variables. In particular, it revealed that most learners in fact combined self-instruction with class-work, and that those learners who rated themselves as obtaining high proficiency in the L2 reported having

started with class-learning and then later pursued self-instruction. It also highlighted the fact that self-instruction is a complicated process which should be regarded in relation to other means of instruction within a wider and longer-term view of language learning.

Jones's study, on the other hand, had a sample of only 70 students which is not large enough for generalisations to be made with confidence using a quantitative survey method. The telephone interview technique does not allow for in-depth investigation of what actually happens in self-instruction. Being cross-sectional, the study did not examine the process of self-instruction longitudinally. Furthermore, it mostly treated textbook materials and did not shed much light on the roles of the audio-visual elements of SITV materials.

2.4.2 Studies of BBC language courses used in the UK

BBC language series have a long history dating from 1930s (Rybak, 1980; Hill, 1996) and they are well-known for exploiting to the full the characteristics of television / video as audio-visual materials. The most thorough and intensive investigations into the use of BBC language learning materials were carried out in the late 1970s, in collaboration between the BBC and two outside institutions, namely the Language Teaching Centre of the University of York and the Language Centre of Brighton Polytechnic. My review here is based on the reports and summaries of these studies provided in Booker and Bur (1982), Hawkins (1976, 1977, 1978) and Hill (1976, 1978a, 1978b, 1979), and summarised in Rybak (1980, 1983, 1984).

In these series of studies, the researchers used various means (such as including questionnaire cards in textbooks and subsequently tracking down the respondents) to obtain responses from samples ranging from 50 to 1200 users. As a result they succeeded in defining the audience for ten major BBC language courses, and in evaluating these courses according to reactions from the audience (Rybak, 1980) (see also Table 2.4 for summary).

These studies are valuable in that collaboration with the BBC and the employment of a survey method enabled the researchers to gain insights from a relatively large sample of the actual audience, providing an overall picture of the audience and their specific reactions to individual courses. Furthermore, these researchers identified 'dropping out' as one of the major problems associated with this mode of learning. They addressed the issue by investigating the drop-out rate and potential reasons by means of questionnaires at various stages of the course and the drop-out questionnaire addressed to the non-persisters.

However, the questionnaires on some projects met with a low response rate, which, while useful for estimating the drop-out rate, potentially affected the reliability of some of the other results. Secondly, the major means of data collection was limited to structured surveys, thus potentially imposing predetermined views of the materials' designers on the respondents, since the surveys did not allow room for learners to provide their own perspectives on this mode of learning. Thirdly, while these studies investigate the features of the audience and their reactions to the materials, crucially they did not capture how learners tackle learning while using these courses.

2.4.3 Studies of BBC radio language courses used in Africa

The use of BBC language courses outside the UK has also been evaluated. Micallef (1992) and Flavell and Micallef (1995) measured the improvement of the English of learners who had studied using BBC radio series in Mozambique, at the same time as developing a new means for assessing language improvement for BBC radio. They investigated pupils' learning in three schools in the capital city (Maputo), two schools in a principal city (Beira), and three schools in rural areas (Xai-xai and Chimoio), grouping them as follows:

Control group: pupils who learned in normal classes

Radio only: pupils who learned with radio only

Radio plus texts plus teacher assistance: pupils who learned with radio and received teacher assistance

Flavell and Micallef (1995) compared students' performance on listening and grammar tests given to them before, during and after the three-week period. Their findings show that exposure to BBC English radio programmes appears to have brought significant benefits to listeners in Mozambique secondary schools.

Although the work done by Flavell and Micallef is significant for an understanding of the potential roles of broadcast materials in L2 learning, particularly in the African context, their work is of limited relevance to my specific research aims. They consider the effects of radio, and not television; also, their main focus is on the institutional use of radio and therefore their studies do not provide insights into learners' self-instructional use of these materials, nor into how individual learners cope with the task of learning with them.

2.4.4 Studies of BBC radio language courses used in Russia

Another study which looks into the use of BBC radio language courses outside the UK is Flavell and Fearn (1996). Their aim was to evaluate the BBC radio series, 'English One to One' as used by 80 listeners in Russia, during the course of 20 weeks. They employed multiple data collection instruments: tests, questionnaires, diaries, telephone helpline, group discussion, and filming. Considerably improved performance was observed on language tests after following the programmes, indicating the potential efficacy of SIB materials as a means for learning foreign languages. The reactions of the audience to the course itself suggest the important role of radio / television as means of exposure to target language input in a foreign language learning context where there is limited exposure to the target language. Also, the majority of learners reported the radio programmes gave them confidence in using English, suggesting the importance of SIB materials as a motivating factor.

The study's longitudinal perspective enables the researchers to bring into focus the more developmental aspects of the use of SIB materials. The employment of qualitative data collection instruments such as diary, observation and group interview indicates an important new departure in methods for investigating this type of learning. However, interviews and observations were carried out only once during the 20 weeks and therefore did not quite succeed in capturing participants' perspectives as much as had been intended. Also, this study, like those by Flavell and Micallef, only focuses on radio series and does not treat television materials, therefore inevitably failing to consider the effects of visual aspects of broadcast materials, which I wish to focus on in my own study.

2.4.5 Studies of NHK educational broadcasts used in Japan

I now turn my attention to SIB materials produced in the Japanese context. There are a great number and variety of SIB materials for foreign language learning in Japan, particularly those produced by the *Nihon Housou Kyoukai* [NHK] (The Japan Broadcasting Corporation), the major broadcasting station in Japan. As of 1998, NHK provided 13 radio language series per week for 8 languages: Chinese, English, French, German, Italian, Korean, Russian and Spanish and 14 television language series for the same 8 languages, with the addition of Japanese. Despite the apparent popularity of these materials, there has been no research into the characteristics of learning with these materials equivalent to that done on the BBC language courses reviewed above. However,

some studies have looked into general perceptions of educational broadcast materials including language courses. Ohkushi and Hara (1991), Ohkushi (1991) and Hara (1992) are a series of articles reporting the results of a survey administered to 3085 people between the ages of 15 and 79 from all parts of Japan on the use of educational broadcast materials provided by NHK.² Ohkushi and Hara (1991) report that the proportion of people surveyed who had used educational broadcasts in the five preceding years was 36.7 percent, and that the number of series used by each of these people was 3.5 on average, which means that one out of every three people used 3.5 series on average in the five preceding years. Television language courses made up 13.9 % of the broadcast, and radio language courses, 5.9%. Both of these proportions were interpreted by Ohkushi and Hara as being high.

Ohkushi (1991) looked in more detail at how learners actually used educational broadcast materials within the preceding one year. He reports that people tended to use the programmes continuously for an extended period of time, although withdrawal rates were relatively high, especially with radio language courses (15-20%). Ohkushi, like Rybak (1983), views withdrawal as a potential problem of this mode of learning, although reasons for withdrawal are not addressed in his study. Hara (1992), on the other hand, attempted to identify characteristics of people who used different types of programmes and found that the group that made the most use of foreign language courses consisted of men and women between their late teens and early twenties.

The above studies provide some evidence that learning with educational broadcasts is a popular and potentially significant means of adult education in Japan. They also provide an idea of audience features to these materials. However, these results relate to educational broadcasts in general and not specifically to SIB materials for L2 learning. Also, they do not touch upon how learners actually benefit from this mode of learning nor the problems they encounter.

More recently, Hara and Hattori (1995) have surveyed 500 people living in metropolitan areas, aged between 15 and 64, on their interest in L2 learning and SIB materials. Hara and Hattori found that 64 % of respondents have the intention of learning a foreign language in the future. The primary means respondents intended to employ were television language courses (24.3 %),

² The educational materials considered here include television and radio programs developed for the purposes of foreign language education, higher education, high school education, vocational education, home and practical skills, and hobbies.

private lessons or language school lessons (24.3 %), radio language courses (22.4 %), and audio or video tapes (15 %). Furthermore, 70 % of the respondents who intended to learn an L2 planned to use SIB materials, though not necessarily as their primary means of study.

The main advantage of all of the above studies is that the relatively large sample size allowed for a general understanding of the audience and some aspects of their use of educational broadcast courses. They also confirm the significance of SIB materials for L2 learning for adult learning in Japan. However, they only concentrate on the audience features and their potential needs and their reactions to particular courses or effects of the courses, and do not focus on how learners benefit from this type of material in their L2 learning, including learners' contributions in this area. Furthermore, most of the studies do not address issues specific to language courses and little attention is given to language learners. In attempt to address these issues, I carried out a study of my own in 1998 (see Umino 1999, 2000). This will be reported in 2.5 below.

2.4.6 A study of SITV materials produced in Japan

Here, I review one survey which has attempted to understand the audience and their reactions to a particular television language course produced in Japan but used outside Japan. The course focussed on here, 'Let's Learn Japanese' (Japan Foundation) is a television course for learning Japanese as a foreign language. The first part of this series, since its production in 1985, has been broadcast in over seventeen countries (see Chapter 3 for further details of this material).³ Since, in my main study, I will be focussing on the interaction between learners and these particular materials, I will review this survey at some length.

The survey, reported in Lyle (1990), was carried out by Nippon Golden Networks, a cable television company in Hawaii using the local audience. 439 people were randomly selected from among those who had ordered the accompanying textbook and were interviewed by telephone. With 29 refusing to respond, the resulting sample size was 410, of whom 296 respondents reported that they watched the series regularly.

Over 60 % of the respondents were female. There was no significant difference observed in reactions between male and female respondents. The

³ The countries in which the series has been broadcast include the U.S.A., Australia, Brazil, Russia, Hong Kong, China, Korea, Thailand, Malaysia, Sri Lanka and Greece (Sakata, 1991).

majority of the respondents were white-collar workers, three fourths of whom were over forty and one fourth over sixty (see below).

The majority of the respondents expressed satisfaction with the course (81 % with the programmes and 87 % with the textbook). 54 % of the respondents watched at least one repeat in addition to the first broadcast of each programme. Another feature worth noting is that 55 % of the respondents reported having watched the programme together with other people, which might explain the extremely low drop-out rate (only one person reported having withdrawn from following the course). This contrasts with the case of BBC learners (as reported above), where isolation and drop-out were seen to constitute severe problems.

This study reveals some important characteristics of the audience for this series and also some interesting aspects of how programmes are used, such as their being watched in groups rather than individually, or the same programme being watched repeatedly. However, it does not reveal sufficiently how learners benefit from such uses, nor how they consciously try to make their learning more effective by means of these uses. Different kinds of studies are needed in order to answer such questions.

As has been mentioned in Chapter 1, the series investigated in this particular study is part of a project in which I participated. For this and other reasons to be explained in Chapter 3, this series will be focussed on in my main study. Therefore, the questions raised above will be followed up in subsequent chapters.

2.4.7 Summary of this section

In this section I have reviewed studies which investigate the use of self-instructional materials for L2 learning, in particular SIB materials, produced in the UK and in Japan (see Table 2.4 for an overall summary of the studies).

Jones (1996, 1998) focuses on textbook materials rather than broadcasts and is different to the rest of the studies. Studies of the BBC language courses typically focused on the audience and their reactions to particular courses, apart from Flavell and Micallef (1995), who assess the outcomes of instruction through a radio language course. Studies of the NHK courses, on the other hand, focus on general audience features rather than on aspects of the use of particular series, and do not provide insights into learners' reactions to materials or the mode of learning, neglecting these areas in comparison to studies on BBC courses. Lyle (1990) succeeds in obtaining learners' reactions to a particular television course

and reveals interesting aspects of its use, but does not address the details of how such uses may be beneficial to these learners.

These are all empirically-grounded works covering areas related to the audience and their reactions to materials but none of them investigate in detail what specific features of the materials learners benefit from or find problematic in relation to learning, nor do they attempt to relate their findings to the more general characteristics of the mode of learning including how learners themselves might contribute in this area. In terms of methodology of investigation, the studies typically use structured and quantitative methods (mostly structured surveys or tests) as major data collecting instruments with a relatively large sample. Only Flavell and Fearn (1995) attempt to incorporate qualitative methods such as group discussion and observation, although only in a subsidiary role. With the aim of shedding light on the issues identified above and to identify further issues which need to be addressed, I have carried out two preliminary studies within the Japanese context. These will be reported on in 2.5 below.

Table 2.4 Summary of studies on self-instructional, in particular SIB materials

Authors	Purpose of study	Context / Participants	Materials	Method of data collection
Jones (1996, 1998)	- identify patterns of learners' experience in self-instruction - the role of L2 environment, perceptions of success and failure, drop-out.	Home learners who are university students	self-study packages situated in the Language Centre	One-off semi-structured interview via telephone
Summarised in Rybak (1980, 1983)	- identify audience features - obtain learners' reactions to TV / radio language courses - identify drop-out rates / reasons for drop-out	adult home learners in the UK	BBC TV/ radio	structured questionnaire (administered one to three times within one to three years)
Flavell and Micallef (1995)	- assess the effect of a radio language course	secondary pupils in Mozambique	BBC radio	test (after 3 weeks)
Flavell and Fearn (1995)	- obtain learners' reactions to a radio language course - assess the effectiveness of the course	adult home learners in Russia	BBC radio	structured questionnaire, test (after 20 weeks), semi-structured diary
Ohkushi (1991a, 1991b) Hara (1992)	- identify audience features - obtain general perceptions of educational broadcasts	potential adult home learners in Japan	NHK TV/ radio	one-off structured questionnaire
Hara and Hattori (1995)	- analyze needs of potential audience for broadcast language courses	potential adult home learners in Japan	NHK TV/ radio	one-off structured interview via telephone
Lyle (1990)	- obtain learners' reactions to a TV language course	adult home learners in Hawaii	The Japan Foundation	one-off structured interview via telephone

2.5 My preliminary studies (Umino, 1999, 2000)

In 1998 I have carried out two preliminary studies on learners' use of NHK L2 SIB (radio and television) materials produced in Japan. As one aim of

these studies was to identify issues which needed to be addressed further, the participants chosen for the studies were a group of Japanese university language-major students who were assumed to possess rich experience of SIB learning. These studies involved a questionnaire administered to 138 students, and a detailed interview carried out with 20 students who had responded to the questionnaire. Because these two studies contributed to my understanding of the basic issues in SIB learning and so motivated me to pursue the main study in this thesis, I shall discuss them in some detail below.

The questionnaire study (Umino, 1999)

The questionnaire study aimed at understanding the extent of use of SIB materials by this group of learners, and general advantages and problems learners find in SIB learning, with a view to identifying issues which should be considered in further research in this area. I accordingly decided to address the following broad research questions: (1) To what extent do learners use SIB materials for L2 learning? (2) What do learners perceive to be advantages / problems of learning using SIB material? To throw light on these issues, a questionnaire was administered to 138 Japanese university students who majored in foreign languages⁴ (99 female, 39 male; most of them in their first year). It first asked students to name all of the series they had ever used, then to describe what they did apart from simply listening to and / or watching the programmes, and to name things which interested them most in the programmes. Only finally were students asked to describe general advantages and problems of this mode of learning, on the basis of their experiences, in an open-ended fashion. The questionnaire was administered and responded to in Japanese.

Learners were found to be making extensive use of SIB materials: 125 (91 %) of the students have used SIB materials for L2 learning in the past, and the majority (66 %) of all users have followed two or more different series, with nine different series being the highest individual count recorded. Of the 298 series counts reported to have been used by 125 users (representing an average of 2.38 series per student), 62 % of the series counts were reported as completed. This also means that the other 38 % correspond to courses not completed, confirming the previous findings by Rybak (1980; 1983) and Ohkushi (1991) that persistence is one of the major challenges in the management of L2 study using SIB materials.

⁴ It was administered to participants in a lecture course entitled 'teaching and learning of foreign languages', during the lecture taught by me at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies. Therefore, the response rate was 100%.

The results of a theme analysis (following the procedure described in Nunan, 1992 and White, 1995) of the responses to open-ended questions indicated what are perceived as major advantages and problems of SIB learning by these learners. The most frequently mentioned advantages of SIB materials related to the ability of SIB materials to provide a valuable opportunity for exposure to the naturalistic speech behaviours of native speakers (including nonverbal behaviours), therefore constituting an effective basis on which learners can improve their ability to comprehend and / or produce natural target language speech. This appears to be related to limitations of native speaker input in the learning environment in Japan (in particular for languages other than English), the heavy emphasis placed on the written mode of the foreign language in school education, and beliefs prevalent among Japanese language learners that having a native-speaker-like pronunciation is of great importance. A second cluster of advantages related to the length and organization of individual programmes, in other words their being short and well organized. A third cluster of advantages related to the interest value of particular courses used, including the fact that these present a variety of content and / or topics. Factors perceived to generate most interest were songs, skits, and stories or dramas.

Turning now to advantages of the use of SIB materials as a *mode* of learning, the most frequently reported advantage was that learning is kept regular. Because the programmes are broadcast regularly and at a fixed time, many students seem to find it relatively easy to continue their studies on a regular basis. It is interesting to note that although several learners mentioned the possibility of recording programmes as an advantage, some countered this with the claim that recording can be a hindrance, since they no longer experience a pressure to listen or watch. These results imply that external determination of time and pace of learning, in other words, the fact that learners have no choice in these areas (see Table 2.1), should not automatically be viewed as a problem. Instead, at least some learners may perceive this factor as helping them to keep up a regular pace, which they might find difficult under different circumstances. The advantage of being able to study at home in a relaxed environment is also worth noting.

With regard to the perceived problems of SIB learning, the most frequently mentioned problem was lack of interaction, which included references to having no means of monitoring the accuracy of one's production, in particular their pronunciation, as well as having no way to ask questions when one does not understand. This problem relates to two important aspects of self-instruction, namely (self-) monitoring and (self-) assessment. Whereas text-based self-study materials tend at least to contain exercises against which students can measure

their abilities, the use of SIB materials alone is unlikely to provide users with sufficient means of monitoring or assessing progress, although it cannot be said that users' choices are actually 'limited' by the materials in this area (hence my exclusion of these areas from the preliminary model in Table 2.1). Potentially, learners *can* take on responsibility for monitoring and assessment themselves, but, as my participants' responses seem to indicate, they are likely to have problems in this area. Further investigation of possible means for enhancing learner training or guidance in the areas of self-monitoring and self-assessment, perhaps via SIB materials themselves, would presumably be of value.

Furthermore, it is interesting that many of the aspects mentioned under advantages are also noted here as problems. In particular, while external determination of time and pace of learning was seen by many students as an advantage (see above), *not* having control in these areas was also noted as a problem. Indeed, not being able to control the time of learning was considered to be the second most important problem with this mode of learning, and by far the most common reason for non-completion of a series. If the timing of the broadcasts does not suit the learner's lifestyle, or when it is difficult for the learner to arrange a fixed time regularly, this inflexibility becomes problematic. Similarly, having no control over the pace of learning / speed of progress (and the related problem of not being able to catch up if one misses a programme) was frequently mentioned as a problem, even though external determination of pace, as indicated above, was also mentioned frequently as an advantage. Potential reasons for such contradictions were left unanswered in this study but were later pursued in the interview study as we see below.

In sum, this study revealed the extent of use of SIB materials by Japanese university students, and the perceived advantages and problems of SIB materials, and this mode of learning. The study, however, did not address the issues raised with sufficient specificity or in depth, and there were aspects still left unclear. First, although the study revealed that the students used a number of series on a number of languages, the precise manner in which this was done was still left unclear. Secondly, although the majority of the students reported having completed the courses, the questionnaire did not reveal in what ways this was made possible. Furthermore, the contradictions observed in the learners' perceptions of advantages and problems of this mode of learning remained unresolved. In short, the questionnaire was beneficial in providing an overall picture, but was not able to provide an in-depth picture of learning with SIB materials in individual cases.

The interview study (Umino, 2000)

In order to address the issues raised in the questionnaire study in more depth, I carried out detailed interviews with twenty students who had responded to the questionnaire. As mentioned above, this study was intended to obtain more detailed descriptions of the situations in which learners used the SIB materials with the aim of clarifying the issues that emerged from the questionnaire study. In particular, I was interested in the following two issues: (1) How did users of SIB materials study with the materials? (2) How did users of SIB materials manage / fail to persist in using the materials?

From among the students who had agreed to be contacted for further interviews, I selected twenty students so that the group as a whole covered the entire range of experiences reported in the questionnaire, including course completion / non-completion, use of radio / television, and use of one series / a number of series, and study of one language / more than one language. Thus, the twenty informants as a group covered all of the above experiences.

In the interview, I asked the informants to describe when, where, for how long and why they had studied using the particular series they listed in the questionnaire, what they did in order to make their study more effective apart from merely listening or watching the programmes, and what they had found most useful in the series. The interviews were conducted in Japanese, recorded onto audio tapes, transcribed for analysis, and later translated into English by me.

Based on students' descriptions, I first developed the profiles of learners' past learning experiences with SIB materials. Through this, the following four distinct patterns seemed to emerge in the pursuit of L2 learning using SIB language courses, depending on age of starting the study, ages during which students persisted, and length of persistence:

(1) 'Early-starters, late-completers': Students grouped under this heading started using SIB materials at an early age (before or during junior high school, in other words up to age 15) and continued using one series or another regularly up to the time of the interview. The time period during which they had used SIB materials in their L2 learning extended over 6 to 10 years, in other words one third or more of their lifetime to date. There were six students in this group.

(2) 'Early-starters, late-non-completers': Students in this group started learning an L2 with SIB materials at an early age (before or during junior high school, in other words up to age 15), and continued using all or most of the series for a fairly

long period of 2 to 4 years but did not continue using them after entering university in as regular and continuous a manner as Group (1) students above. There were five students in this group.

(3) 'Late-starters, late-completers': Students in this group started using the series at a later age (after entering high school after age 16) and continued using all or most of them regularly for a fairly long period of 1 to 3 years, thus extending into their university years. Four students belonged to this group.

(4) 'Non-completers': Students in this group have never managed to complete a single series through regular listening / viewing, regardless of their age, although they have attempted with several series, hence they are described as 'non-completers'. Five students belonged to this group.

From the students' descriptions of their learning experiences, some noticeable features emerged which seemed to relate to their success at completing a given SIB course. First, those students who managed to complete the courses even after entering university (Groups 1 and 3, that is, the 'late-completers') generally maintained regularity in terms of time, place and pace of study: they studied at a fixed time of the day, usually at the time of broadcast (that is, not using recordings), in a fixed place (for example, on a train to school, in their rooms, in the kitchen, bath, etc.), and at a fixed pace (daily, weekly, etc.). Even if they recorded the programmes in order to allow for flexibility, they tended to set a fixed time for listening to or watching the recordings. Students who persisted for an extended period of time (the longest being nine years) have routinized or habitualized the act of SIB learning so that it has become a part of their lives. Such routinization is an interesting aspect of learning with SIB materials which has not been reported in the previous studies reviewed above.

Secondly, students who managed to persist in their early years (Groups 1 and 2, that is, the 'early-starters') generally mentioned having received some kind of help from their family. If we look at Table 2.5, seven out of the eleven 'early-starters' reported listening to the radio series together with a family member (mother, sister, or father). Parents also supported their children's learning by purchasing the textbooks and adjusting meal times so that they did not overlap with the time of broadcasts. In the following case, for example, the family was particularly cooperative in maintaining regularity of learning:

Student 11: It [the series] was on from six-forty five to seven in the morning. It came on every morning by the timer on the radio. My family wanted to listen to it together, so the timer was set on the radio in the living-room to turn on at the same time as well. We all listened to the series together as we had breakfast and repeated in unison, my father and my mother and I. (laughs) (Interviewer: So, did you always listen as you had breakfast?) Well, and other things. You see, all the radios in the house were set by timer to turn on at that time. So, we could listen to it at the kitchen table, or in the bathroom if we had to go there to brush our teeth. So we could spend our morning doing what people normally do but as we listened and repeated in a loud voice.

By contrast, none of the ‘non-completers’ (Group 4) reported maintaining a fixed time for listening / viewing or gaining support from family members, as can be seen in Table 2.5, and these might be considered important factors in ensuring persistence for the sample interviewed.

The above findings indicate at least two factors which enable learners to persist in SIB learning: regularity in terms of time, place and pace of study, and support from family. The findings also cast light on why some advantages of SIB learning were also perceived as problems in the questionnaire study: for example, external determination of time, place and pace of study is perceived as an advantage when seen as a factor for enabling persistence but it may be seen as a problem if it is perceived as a denial of control in these areas.

Participant	Time	Recorded	Place	Assistance
Group (1) ‘Early-starters, late-completers’				
1)	fixed (evening)	no	kitchen area	mother, sister
2)	fixed (evening)	no	kitchen area	no assistance
3)	fixed (evening)	no	kitchen area	mother
4)	fixed (evening)	yes	study	mother
5)	fixed (morning)	no	living-room	mother
6)	fixed (morning)	no	kitchen area	no assistance
Group (2) ‘Early-starters, late-non-completers’				
7)	fixed (evening)	no	kitchen area	sister
8)	fixed (evening)	yes	study	father
9)	fixed (evening)	yes	kitchen area	no assistance
10)	fixed (evening)	yes	living-room	no assistance
11)	fixed (morning)	no	kitchen area	mother, father
Group (4) ‘Non-completers’				
16)	fixed (evening)	no	study	no assistance
17)	fixed (evening)	no	study	no assistance
18)	unfixed	yes	study	no assistance
19)	unfixed	no	study	no assistance
20)	unfixed	yes	study	no assistance

Furthermore, an examination of the activities learners employed before, during and after attending to the programmes reveals some changes in their method of studying as they gain more experience in SIB learning. At the early ages (during junior high school), learners tended to report merely having read the textbook before, during and after listening to or watching programmes. In the later years (during university), however, learners reported more creative activities depending on their needs. For example, five out of the eleven 'late-completers' reported that they deliberately did not look at the textbook whilst listening to the radio series so as to improve their listening skills. Other activities reported include 'writing words to look up later', 'concentrating on the explanation', 'checking the phonetic transcription in the textbook', 'transcribing all the dialogues (without looking at the textbook)', and 'cutting out phrases from the textbook and sticking them in a notebook'. These activities are seen as learners' attempts to act upon the materials to make the most of the materials, indicating learners' active contributions in this seemingly passive mode of learning. They also indicate that the ways learners use SIB materials might be better captured by employing a developmental perspective. I shall discuss further in 2.6 below how the findings of the above two studies led me to carry out the main study reported in the rest of this thesis.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I began by defining key terms and developing a model that identified the features of SITV learning as a form of materials-centred self-instruction. Then I looked at two areas of previous research which are particularly relevant to my investigation. The first involves works considering the visual elements of television / video materials which can be exploited for L2 learning and teaching. Taken as a whole, these studies have contributed to an understanding of what visual elements might be salient for L2 teaching and learning. The early work of Corder established the significance of visual elements in contextualising target language use, and studies by Riley and Willis examined in more detail the roles and functions of these elements in L2 television and video materials. These studies did not, however, investigate empirically how these elements operate when learners use television or video materials. Then I reviewed studies looking into the use of self-instructional materials. The works reviewed are empirically-grounded, typically employing quantitative / structured methods (surveys), covering areas related to the audience and their reactions to materials. However, they fail to address what specific features of the materials learners

benefit from or find problematic in relation to L2 learning, and attempt to relate their findings to the more general characteristics of this mode of learning including how learners themselves might contribute in this area.

With the aim of shedding light on these issues and identifying other issues which need to be addressed in further research, I carried out two preliminary studies within the Japanese context. The two studies investigated characteristics of SIB materials and of L2 self-instruction involving such materials in general terms, rather than obtaining reactions to particular materials. These studies revealed the extent to which the learners in this sample used SIB materials for L2 study, what these learners perceive to be the advantages and problems of SIB learning, some ways they use the materials, and some factors which enable them to persist in the study with SIB materials. The studies also indicated learners' active contribution in studying with SIB materials. However, the approach taken in these studies needs to be further extended, for the following reasons. First, since these studies address cases of learning with SIB materials in general, they do not sufficiently take into account features specific to SITV materials, in particular, the visual elements. Secondly, although these studies provide insights into general advantages and problems of learning with SITV materials, the picture we gain is still vague. We still do not have a clear picture of how learners themselves attempt to make the most of such advantages or to overcome such problems. Thirdly, the insights gained from these studies were heavily dependent on learners' retrospective narrations of their past learning experiences. Although this was advantageous in that it introduced the very important developmental perspective of learning histories, I was not able to investigate how learning with SIB materials occurs in an on-going manner. In other words, these studies did not investigate how the features identified in the study manifest themselves from lesson to lesson. In order to understand these more specific aspects, a study was needed which looked more closely into a particular case of interaction between learners and particular material. Finally, in these two studies I partially employed open-ended formats which allowed me to gain richer data illuminating aspects which could not have been uncovered through more structured means. However, in order to look more deeply into learners' perspectives on SITV materials and / or their use, further qualitative methods seem to be required. In the next chapter, I shall discuss the methodology of the major study I carried out in order to further pursue the research directions justified in this chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY OF THE MAIN STUDY

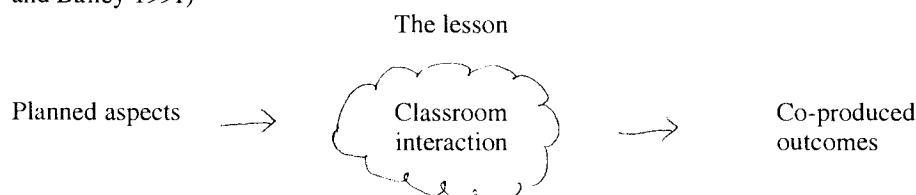
3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe the scope and the methodology of the main study of this thesis. After describing the aim and the scope of the study in this section, I move on to describe the overall design of the study (3.2). Then I discuss the methodological considerations underpinning this design, considering it in the context of the previous studies reviewed in Chapter 2 and identifying the innovative features of the research methodology adopted (3.3).

The main aims of the study correspond to the three aims of this thesis already described in Chapter 1. It aims to explore 1) how SITV materials can contribute to L2 learning; 2) the process of self-instruction involved in the use of SITV materials, in particular, learners' contribution to this process; and 3) new methodological approach for investigating the use of SITV materials.

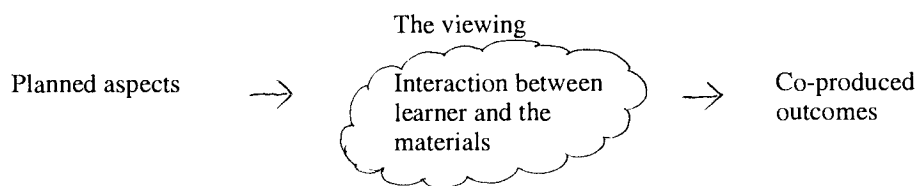
In setting the more specific research questions with a view to realising the above aims, I draw a parallel between SITV learning as a form of instructed learning (see 2.2.1 in Chapter 2) and classroom learning: I regard 'the viewing' of a lesson in SITV materials as an instance of a 'lesson' or 'instructional event' taking place between the materials and the learner and attempt to investigate what happened during these lessons. This perspective is adopted because* it is the interaction between learners and materials which leads to learning outcomes, not simply the materials themselves. This view can be justified with reference to work by Allwright and Bailey on classroom learning (1991): Figure 3.1 illustrates the relationship they posit between planned aspects, instructional process (classroom interaction) and outcomes. Allwright and Bailey argue that the middle part in the diagram, that is, what happens during a lesson (or what Long (1980:4) terms the 'black box'), has a more direct effect on the outcomes of learning than what has been *planned* prior to the lesson, including syllabus and method, and they stress the importance of investigating instructional *processes*.

Figure 3.1 The relationship between plans and outcomes in classroom learning (source: Allwright and Bailey 1991)



An analogy can be drawn with the planned aspects and the co-produced outcomes in SITV learning. (Fig. 3.2) Here, the planned aspects as manifested in the materials are presented to learners during the viewing (= 'lesson'). The materials themselves remain stable and yet the actual outcomes resulting from viewing will not be the same for all learners, since these are directly affected by how learners make sense of the materials. In sum, drawing on insights from classroom research, I consider a 'viewing' as an instance of a lesson and aim to investigate what happens during the instructional process involving interaction between learners and SITV materials.

Figure 3.2 The relationship between plans and outcomes in SITV learning (source: original)



The study consists of four phases. In the first phase, the primary aim is to discover features of SITV materials learners find to be salient during lessons presented via SITV materials, and how learners use such materials in relation to these features. In Phase 2, the focus shifts to what strategies learners use while viewing SITV lessons. In the course of investigation of these aspects, developmental changes are also considered. The specific research questions set at the beginning of Phases 1 and 2 are as follows:

Research questions for Phase 1:

- (1) What characteristics of SITV materials do learners perceive to be salient in the lessons presented via SITV materials?
- (2) How do learners use SITV materials for learning an L2 via self-instruction?
- (3) Are there any developmental changes in 1 and 2 above?

Research questions for Phase 2:

- (1) What strategies do learners use during lessons presented via SITV materials?
- (2) Are there any developmental changes over the period of Phase 2?

Phases 1 and 2 constitute the major part of the study, but the investigation was later extended to two more phases by request from the participants. These latter two 'sequel' phases were motivated by the learners' desire to study further rather than by the researcher's interest in extending the study and so there were no

specific research questions set for these phases. However, as the data from these two phases also have important implications for the aims of this thesis, they are regarded as supplementary data and are analysed in the thesis (see Chapter 7 for a more precise description of how the study was extended to these two phases).

3.2 The design of the study

3.2.1 Participants

The participants in the study are seven British adults who are learning Japanese in a private language school in London. They will be referred to by their pseudonyms: Dale, Robert, Sharon, Kris, Jane, Sally, and Anne. They all speak English as their first language. They had started learning Japanese at the school as complete beginners six weeks before I contacted them. They are all employed and are only able to attend a three-hour lesson in Japanese once a week at the school on Saturday afternoons. According to the teacher, the class started off with over twenty-five students but was left with only seven learners by the end of six weeks.⁵ The participants in the study were those seven who persevered and, therefore, represent the whole class in the school. They are generally highly motivated to learn Japanese, but more out of interest than for instrumental objectives; in other words, they do not have immediate needs to learn the language but want to learn it for pleasure. Table 3.1 gives details about the participants. The classroom-teacher's subjective evaluations of their performance in class are also provided in the table. These learners all come from the same class (level) but two were rated as performing well, two as average, and three as poor.

My first contact with them was through the teacher of their Japanese language class. The teacher, a fellow Ph.D candidate at the Institute of Education, knew that I had been involved in the production of television language materials, and had consulted me about problems her students had expressed to her. Since her students were learning Japanese in a foreign language context, they lacked naturalistic input of Japanese. Hearing her problems, I lent her video tapes of the SITV materials for learning Japanese ('Let's Learn Japanese') which I had helped to produce. After one lesson, she showed Lesson 1 of the materials to her students. A week later, she showed me some comments from them, saying that they would like to study with these video tapes if possible.

⁵ According to the teacher, the attrition rate is generally high with classes for adults in the school and Japanese classes are no exception.

Table 3.1 The participants

Learners	Sex	Age	Education	Occupation	Reasons for learning Japanese	Other languages studied	Previous use of SITV materials	Visits to Japan	Performance in class
Dale	M	32	O-levels	company employee	interest, travel, business	none	no	none	average
Robert	M	59	B.A.	accountant	travel, interest	Portuguese Afrikaans	no	once	average
Sharon	F	31	B.A.	sales	interest	French Hebrew	no	none	high
Kris	M	36	B.A.	accountant	interest	French Spanish	no	none	poor
Jane	F	25	B.A.	consultant	interest, study	French Spanish	no	none	high
Sally	F	45	O-levels	company employee	interest, business	Italian	no	none	poor
Anne	F	43	O-levels	company employee	interest	French Spanish Italian	no	none	poor

I visited the school at the end of their sixth weekly lesson. It was also the end of one course, and all seven had signed up for the following six-week course. I explained to all students that if they were interested in learning Japanese with the programmes that the teacher had shown to them, they were welcome to come to my house to watch tapes once a week but that they would be asked to complete a questionnaire and participate in interviews about the programme they watched. I explained that the data would be analyzed in order to understand how they go about learning with the series, but their privacy would be protected by the use of pseudonyms. I also explained that interviews would be recorded on video tape and / or audio tape and that these tapes would be seen / listened to only by me and possibly by other colleagues for research purposes. All seven students signed up, agreeing to these conditions. We at first set our goals for continuing this procedure for six weeks to run in parallel with their course at the school, but eventually this was prolonged to eleven weeks at their request. The sessions were later continued for eight more weeks after an interval (Phase 2). Surprisingly, when Phase 2 was finished, learners together did not want to stop and asked me to continue the sessions. We ended up having 16 more sessions which constitute 'Phase 3' and 'Phase 4' (see 3.2.2 below. Chapter 7 gives details of these two phases).

3.2.2 Session schedule and period

As I mentioned above, the initial sessions were originally planned for six weeks, but were extended to eleven weeks by request from the participants (Phase 1). When Phase 1 finished, four of the participants volunteered to continue further and after an interval we carried on for another eight weeks (Phase 2). These two

phases will be the major focus in this thesis. At the end of Phase 2, three learners remarked that they wanted to continue further so we had another eight sessions ('Phase 3') and after an interval, an additional eight sessions ('Phase 4') with the same three learners. (The latter two phases will be termed 'sequel' phases as they were not motivated by the researcher.) Thus there were thirty-four sessions altogether over a fourteen-month period. Table 3.2 presents a summary of all four phases. Since all learners continued to attend classes concurrently throughout the study, contents in some of the lessons had already been covered in class. These lessons in the materials were skipped so that the contents covered in the lessons would not be repetitive to those covered in class (for example, L 14-16 were skipped before starting Phase 2, and L25 and L26 were skipped in 'Phase 3').

Table 3.2 Summary of sessions in the four phases of the study

Phase	Session	Period	Lesson in the material	Participants
Phase 1	Session 1 – 11	11 weeks	Lesson 2-12 (Lesson 1 was shown as a sample by the class teacher in class.)	Robert, Jane, Sally, Dale, Sharon, Kris, Anne
Phase 2	Session 12-18	7 weeks	Lesson 17-24 (L 18 was skipped)	Robert, Jane, Sally, Dale
'Phase 3'	Session 19-26	8 weeks	Lesson 27-34 (L25-26 were skipped)	Robert, Jane, Sally
'Phase 4'	Session 27-34	8 weeks	Lesson 35-42	Robert, Jane, Sally

The sessions took place once a week at a fixed time. Since these learners all work, a time could not be found to fit in all seven learners at the same time. The learners and I agreed to split them into two groups, and hold two sessions, one for each group, during the week. Table 3.3 describes the session schedule. Attendance at the sessions was not always a hundred percent, although the participants were generally very keen to attend every session. Sharon could not attend the first session scheduled for Group A and so attended the session for Group B instead. One learner (Anne) dropped out after the first session. The teacher of the class informed me that Anne had also dropped out of her class and is thought to have abandoned learning Japanese altogether. The participants were all working adults whose attendance was sometimes impossible due to some urgent business or personal reasons such as illness. However, in my view, this type of irregularity of viewing is not a problem as it is likely to occur in a naturalistic setting for self-instructional use of television broadcasts as well. Also, since my focus was not on the interaction among the participants, absences were not problematic for the purpose of my study. At the end of each phase, all learners were interviewed individually.

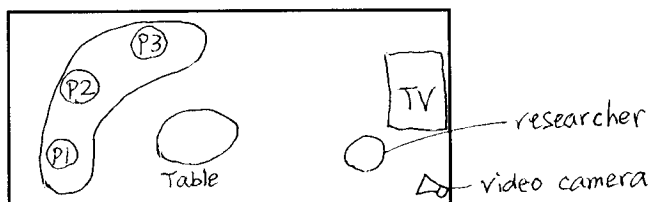
Table 3.3 The interview session schedule and participation

Session	Lesson	Group A		Group B	
		Date	Participants	Date	Participants
PHASE 1					
1	2	10/6	Dale, Robert, Anne	13/6	Kris, Sally, Sharon
2	3	17/6	Dale, Robert, Sharon	20/6	Kris, Jane, Sally
3	4	24/6	Dale, Robert, Sharon	27/6	Kris, Jane
4	5	1/7	Dale, Robert, Sharon	4/7	Kris, Jane
5	6	8/7	Dale, Robert, Sharon	11/7	Kris, Jane, Sally
6	7	15/7	Dale, Robert, Sharon	18/7	Kris
7	8	20/7	Dale, Robert, Sharon	25/7	Kris, Jane
8	9	27/7	Dale, Robert, Sharon	1/8	Jane, Sally
9	10	8/8	Dale, Sharon	22/8	Jane
10	11	10/8	Dale, Robert, Sharon	26/8	Kris, Jane, Sally
11	12	22/8	Dale, Robert, Sharon	1/9	Kris, Jane, Sally
Final interviews		2/9-8/9	Dale, Robert, Sharon	22/8-8/9	Kris, Jane, Sally
PHASE 2					
12 (practice)	17	21/10	Robert, Dale	9/11	Jane, Sally
13	19	28/10	Robert	12/11	Jane, Sally
14	20	4/11	Robert, Dale	20/11	Jane, Sally
15	21	18/11	Robert, Dale	26/11	Jane, Sally
16	22	25/11	Robert	3/12	Jane, Sally
17	23	2/12	Robert, Dale	10/12	Jane, Sally
18	24	9/12	Robert, Dale	17/12	Jane, Sally
Final interviews		17/12-23/12	Robert, Dale	16/12-23/12	Jane, Sally
'PHASE 3'					
19	27	18/1	Robert	13/1	Jane, Sally
20	28	15/2	Robert	20/1	Jane, Sally
21	29	22/2	Robert	27/1	Jane, Sally
22	30	1/3	Robert	3/2	Jane, Sally
23	31	8/3	Robert	10/2	Jane, Sally
24	32	15/3	Robert	17/2	Jane, Sally
25	33	22/2	Robert	24/2	Jane, Sally
26	34	29/3	Robert	3/3	Jane, Sally
Final interviews		29/3	Robert	10/3-17/3	Jane, Sally
'PHASE 4'					
27	35	22/4	Robert, Jane, Sally		
28	36	28/4	Robert, Jane, Sally		
29	37	6/5	Robert, Jane, Sally		
30	38	13/5	Robert, Jane, Sally		
31	39	27/5	Robert, Jane, Sally		
32	40	10/6	Robert, Jane		
33	41	24/6	Robert, Jane, Sally		
34	42	1/7	Robert, Jane, Sally		
Final interviews		1/7	Robert, Jane, Sally		

3.2.3 The setting

The sessions took place in my own home, a flat in central London. This was considered to be more appropriate than another setting, since it is mostly the case that learners watch SITV programmes at home. Also, the place was suitable since it was located conveniently for their workplaces or homes. Participants sat on a comfortable settee in front of a large TV screen, with some refreshments (Figure 3.3). A video camera set up in one corner of the room recorded them while watching the programme and during the interview. The researcher sat a little away from the settee during the viewing, then later joined them for the interview.

Figure 3.3 Setting in the study



The setting I have established for this study cannot be said to be completely naturalistic, that is, it is not the same as if learners were watching the series broadcast on television at home, and there are clearly differences in the two arrangements. However, as Jones (1996:165) notes, with reference to his own study, it is extremely difficult to establish contact with typical home-learners, not to mention going into their homes to research what they do in their own living-rooms. Therefore, efforts were made to make the setting as similar to a naturalistic setting as possible.

In a naturalistic setting of SITV learning, learners may be expected to watch the materials in their own home, alone or with others (for example, family members or friends), at a fixed time and according to the fixed pace of the broadcast (see Table 3.4). In this study, however, learners traveled to the researcher's home to watch the series, and so there was more pressure to watch the series than if viewing were left entirely up to each participant. The group arrangement is another factor adding to this pressure as the participants regarded each other as classmates. However, other features were kept so that the situation was as close to a naturalistic setting as possible. The sessions were held regularly at a fixed time on a fixed day of the week. The tapes were only played once. The accompanying textbooks for the series were provided to them beforehand so they could study them if they wanted to. And, the sessions took place in the living-room of the researcher's home with refreshments served. The relaxed atmosphere of the setting made for some similarity to the naturalistic setting of viewing the series in one's own home and rendered it different from viewing in other places such as a classroom or a self-access centre.

Table 3.4 Naturalistic setting and setting in this study

	Naturalistic setting	Setting in this study
place	one's own home	someone else's home
time	fixed	fixed
pace	fixed	fixed
alone / group	alone / group	group

3.2.4 Data collection instruments

In order to increase the credibility (see 3.3.4 for definition) of the study, I used multiple means of data collection (see Table 3.5 for summary. See also 3.3.4 for further discussion). The major means of data collection for Phase 1, 'Phase 3' and 'Phase 4' were the group interviews (see 3.3) carried out after the viewing of each SITV lesson, and verbal reports (see 3.3) during the viewing of each lesson for Phase 2. More precise descriptions of the actual procedures are provided in 3.2.5 (Phase 1), Chapter 6 (Phase 2), and Chapter 7 ('Phase 3' and 'Phase 4'). In addition to this, I had the participants fill out semi-structured questionnaires individually at each session as a form of a self-report except in Phase 2. This means of data collection was not used in Phase 2 due to a change in the session format as will be explained further in Chapter 6. A copy of the original sheets are provided in Appendices 3 and 4. The questions asked in the questionnaires will be presented when I present the results in Chapters 4 (Phase 1) and 7 ('Phases' 3 and 4).

1) Group interviews (Phase 1, 'Phase 3' and 'Phase 4')
2) Verbal reports (Phase 2)
3) Semi-structured questionnaires (Phase 1, 'Phase 3', 'Phase 4')
4) Individual interviews (end of each phase) (all phases)
5) Others
a) Learner information (Learner profile / Comments from class teacher)
b) Notes taken by participants during viewing
c) Research diary

During each viewing session, I observed the participants and made notes of the general atmosphere and significant behaviours. In Phase 1, video-recordings were also made of participants watching the programmes as aids for recording nonverbal behaviours and / or noteworthy interactions among the participants during viewing. At the end of each phase, individual interviews were conducted with each learner to get his / her overall reactions to each phase.

During the first session, demographic information on the participants was obtained by means of a learner profile sheet. A copy of the original sheet is provided in the Appendix 2. In addition to the profile, comments were collected from the class teacher in written form on students' performances in class. During the viewing of the programme, some participants were observed to take notes. The notes taken were collected and photocopied before being returned to the participants. As a means of documentation, I kept a research diary in which I entered an exact record of the events for each session and any thoughts which

occurred to me at the time. I did not use tests to measure learner achievement because the use of tests introduces an institutional control not usually present in self-instruction and may influence learners to study differently than they would without it.

3.2.5 Basic procedure for each session in Phase 1

The basic procedure for all sessions in Phase 1 consisted of the following activities:

- Participants watch the programme (30 min.)
- Participants answer the questionnaire individually (10 min.)
- Participants engage in a group interview about the programme (approx. 40 –50 min.)

In the first session, I explained the basic procedure, the fact that the programmes would be played only once, and that I would not answer any questions regarding the programme until after the session.⁶ I also went over the meaning of the questions on the questionnaire. During each session, participants always sat in the same place on the settee as a group. After all the participants had gathered, the programme was played. Immediately after the viewing, self-report (questionnaire) sheets were distributed and were filled in. When the sheets had been collected, I sat down in the midst of the group for the interview.

I prepared in advance a set of questions to be asked during the group interviews. Krueger's (1998) five question types for group interviewing provided a useful basis: opening questions (for establishing a sense of community in the group); introductory questions (for introducing the general topic of discussion and / or providing participants with an opportunity to reflect on experiences and their connection with the overall topic); transition questions (for moving the conversation toward the key questions); key questions (for driving the study); and ending questions (for bringing closure to the discussion). As the participants already knew each other well from their class, I did not prepare opening questions and went straight to the introductory questions. As my aim was to elicit what participants found salient during the SITV lesson, I decided to start by asking 'Please tell me what happened in today's lesson.' I thought this was a good way to start as it was a relatively simple and explicit task for the participants, and they would, at the same time, have an opportunity to recall the lesson. My aim was for the participants to start talking about the lesson in which they had just

participated, generating topics by themselves. In other words, the introductory question was used as a trigger for people to start talking and so their answers were not critical to analysis. I did not prepare the rest of the interview in as strict and definite a manner as Krueger (1998) suggests. I wanted to be flexible in order to elicit what participants themselves were interested in about the lesson. My basic attitude was to let participants bring up topics of interest to them, and I regarded my major role to be facilitating the discussion and probing for clarification. However, I prepared some key questions such as 'Which parts of the programme did you find most useful / least useful?' in case the participants had difficulties in nominating topics.

In reality, it turned out that I did not need to worry about getting participants to talk. The sessions soon followed a certain pattern, in which participants first recalled the lesson collectively, then brought up various topics regarding the lesson. By the third session, participants had become accustomed to the procedure, and they started speaking as soon as I sat down, without any questioning or prompting on my part. The interview normally lasted about 40 to 50 minutes. All interviews were both audio- and video- recorded. All procedures were conducted in English, which is the participants' mother tongue. The procedure was altered slightly in Phase 2 and in 'Phase 3' and 'Phase 4', as I will discuss in Chapters 6 and 8.

3.3.6 The SITV materials

Since the characteristics of the materials used have significance in the study, I will describe them in some detail. (Also see the attached video tape which contains the first lesson of the series.) The SITV materials used for this study were from the 'Let's Learn Japanese' (LLJ) series produced by The Japan Foundation. This is a television course designed for beginners learning Japanese as a foreign language. The first half, 'Basic I' (Lessons 1 ~ 26) was completed in 1985, and the latter half, 'Basic II' (Lessons 27 ~ 52) was completed in 1996. The series targets people learning Japanese outside Japan, and since its first broadcast in Australia in 1986 it has been broadcast world-wide. Each programme is 30 minutes long for Basic I, and 26 minutes long for Basic II. There are accompanying textbooks to supplement the lessons.

⁶ My role in the interviews was strictly that of an interviewer and not a teacher, which means that I did not take an active role in teaching with the materials or eliciting the participants' language-related questions.

There are three major reasons for selecting this particular series as the materials to be used in the study. First, this series was the first and is still the most widely-used SITV series produced for the learning of Japanese, and it has been broadcast world-wide since its production. Therefore the materials may be considered to be influential in terms of SITV learning for learners of Japanese as well as in relation to the production of future SITV materials. Secondly, it is assumed that the series holds a certain standard of quality. This is inferred from evaluations carried out by broadcasting companies (see Chapter 2) as well as from the amount of effort, time and cost spent for its production. The materials (including supplementary materials) for Basic I and II were developed over a period of ten years altogether, whereas many of the series produced by the NHK, for example, normally take a mere six months to one year for completion. This is because LLJ is supplied to countries which cannot produce this type of material by themselves and once distributed the programmes are broadcast repeatedly over the years. For this reason, the series was made with much consideration on the part of the materials-makers and so the product is worth investigating. Thirdly, this series is the one about which I am most knowledgeable, and also in which I am most interested, since I took part in the production of the latter half ('Basic II').⁷ Because of my knowledge of and interest in this series, it was considered ideal, particularly in terms of understanding how actual learning outcomes are affected by learner contributions independently of the planned aspects (of which I had 'insider knowledge').

With the aim of describing the characteristics of this series, I will present the principles governing its production as described by the designers. Below are the basic principles listed by The Japan Foundation (Sakata, 1991:47), in my translation:

- (1) We aim to present to the viewers, aspects of modern Japanese society and culture as realistically as possible.
- (2) We aim to present the Japanese language as used by ordinary Japanese people in everyday life. To this end, we aim to present the language in its naturalistic form, as used in naturalistic settings.
- (3) We set at the core a grammatical syllabus, with careful gradation of interrelated basic structural items. However, the selection of such items will not only be based on structural complexity but also on practical usefulness. We aim to present these grammatical items with functions within rich contexts of use.
- (4) We aim for the programmes to be enjoyable and interesting to viewers. We consider this aspect very important, in order, especially, to create or maintain the motivation on the part of the viewers to know more about the Japanese language and / or culture through viewing this series.

⁷ I was one of the materials-designers initially, but later I took on the role of presenter in the programmes as well.

Another characteristic of significance is that the series has an on-going drama or 'skit' embedded within each programme throughout the series.⁸ (Note that 'skit' here means a short, funny, complete episode, of an ongoing drama.) The drama has a story-line, with fixed characters, central to which is a man named Yan who experiences different aspects of Japanese life in Japan while interacting with various Japanese people. This drama forms the central core of each programme and includes a large part of the linguistic items and cultural aspects presented.

As described above, the syllabus comprises a core structural syllabus, with functions and situations later attached to match the structural components. It constitutes, therefore, a form of a hybrid syllabus (White, 1988). In addition, cultural items were selected for presentation in each episode of the drama. The full syllabus for the whole series will be found in Appendix 1.

3.3 Overall methodological considerations

Having described the design of the study, I now turn to overall methodological considerations in order to clarify the characteristics of this study in relation to studies previously carried out in the field, including my two preliminary studies reported in Chapter 2.

3.3.1 Overall approach

The approach taken in this study is exploratory (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). An exploratory research aims at discovering and describing patterns and / or relationships which have not previously been identified. In other words, it aims to build a hypothesis or theory from the given data. This contrasts with deductive research, which sets out with a preconceived hypothesis or theory, using data to verify the hypothesis or theory. Grotjahn (1987) argues that research traditions in applied linguistics can be further analysed on three levels: according to the method of data collection (whether the data have been collected experimentally or non-experimentally); the type of data yielded (qualitative or quantitative); and the type of analysis conducted on the data (statistical or interpretive). Using these variables, the research approach taken in this study can be described as an 'exploratory-interpretive' approach (Grotjahn, 1987), which utilizes a non-experimental method, yields qualitative data, and leads to an interpretive analysis.

⁸ See Sakuma and Umino (1995) for characteristics of these and other types of drama-based video/television materials.

In building a theory from data, it is important to consider the *etic-emic* distinction first proposed by Pike (1964), who extended the linguistic reference of the *phonetic-phonemic* distinction to the study of culture. *Etic* analysis and interpretations are based on the use of frameworks, concepts and categories from the analytic language of the existing literature. On the other hand, *emic* refers to culturally based perspectives, interpretations, and categories used by members of the group under study to conceptualize and encode knowledge and to guide their own behavior (Pike, 1964; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). Until recently, in the field of educational research, particularly L2 classroom research, there have been relatively few studies which take into account the *emic* views of the participants in the classroom (that is, learners and teachers). But as Bailey and Nunan (1996) argue, learners and teachers are the main actors of the 'play' and incorporating their views will surely contribute to an understanding of what goes on during the instructional process, possibly opening up new perspectives on instructed learning.

Strauss (1994) and Strauss and Corbin (1998) argue that the *etic* (outsider) perspective brought to bear on an inquiry by a researcher has no meaning within the *emic* (insider) views of the studied participants, and the researcher's task is to arrive at a framework which represents the participants' conceptions through a cycle of analytic induction from data. While it is important to attempt to represent the views and conceptions of the participants in the analysis phase of exploratory research, the problem with such an approach lies in the difficulty of relating such cultural-specific, context-bound categories to the findings of the existing literature. Thus, in my study, I attempt to conduct analysis which represents learners' *emic* views as much as possible while attempting to relate it to frameworks in the existing literature (see Chapters 4 and 6 for how I conducted the analysis).

This exploratory-interpretive approach has its grounding in naturalist research paradigm as contrasted to the positivist paradigm (in which experimental approaches are grounded). The basic premises of the naturalist paradigm are described by Lincoln and Guba (1985:37) as follows:

- a) The nature of reality: Realities are multiple, constructed and holistic.
- b) The relationship of knower to the known: The knower and the known are interactive and inseparable.
- c) The possibility of generalization: Only time-bound and context-bound hypotheses are possible.
- d) The possibility of causal linkages: It is impossible to distinguish causes from effects, since all entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping.

e) The role of values: Inquiry is value-bound.

These premises have several implications. First, in an exploratory-interpretive approach, one discards the view that reality is the same for all participants in a particular context. This means that subjectivity is not regarded as a problem which ought to be minimized but as something inevitable. Secondly, it recognizes the restrictions of context and time in any phenomenon and is not centrally concerned with whether the results are generalisable beyond temporal and spatial bounds. Thirdly, it recognizes that a phenomenon should be regarded holistically. It is not concerned with the certainty with which a cause is distinguished from effects. Fourthly, it recognizes that a researcher cannot be totally free of bias even if he / she tries to reduce it.

A researcher subscribing to the naturalist paradigm, therefore, needs different criteria for evaluating research to those subscribing to the positivist paradigm. In the positivist paradigm, the issues of validity and reliability are regarded as important in ensuring the rigour of an enquiry. In qualitative research, however, these issues are not given the same importance. Instead, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest the alternative criteria of 'credibility' and 'dependability'. I shall discuss this issue further in 3.3.4 below after having described in detail all of the data collection instruments to be used in the study.

On a more practical, methodological level, the degree to which a particular piece of research is exploratory can be considered in terms of two parameters: degree of *control* and degree of *selectivity* (van Lier, 1988). Degree of control is the degree to which the research setting is manipulated by the researcher, away from naturally occurring events. Degree of selectivity is the degree to which predetermined categories (or views of the researcher) are imposed prior to the collection of data (Fig. 3.4). Purely deductive research will employ highly controlling and selective methods such as experiments, whereas purely exploratory research is likely to employ less controlling and less selective methods such as participant observation. In between fall methods with low control but high selectivity such as structured observation, or those with high control but low selectivity, such as semi-structured interviews.

In terms of the above parameters, the present study displays unique features in the following two respects. First, it employed group interview as a major data collecting instrument at the initial stage (Phase 1). The group interview format I employed imposes relatively high control compared to observation or diaries (although less controlling than individual interviews as we will see below), but is of low selectivity, which means that I imposed less of a predetermined set of categories or focus prior to interviews: the group format made it possible for

the participants to nominate topics themselves rather than for the interviewer to set predetermined topics. This makes for a contrast with all of the studies reviewed in Chapter 2. Jones (1996), Rybak (1980, 1983), Ohkushi (1991a, 1991b), Hara (1992), Hara and Hattori (1995), Lyle (1990) and my own preliminary questionnaire study (Umino, 1999) all relied on highly to moderately selective and controlling methods ((semi-) structured surveys), and Flavell and Micallef (1995) used a highly structured and controlling method (test). Only Flavell and Fearn (1996) incorporated occasional group discussions in addition to structured questionnaires and tests, but not as a major instrument. My preliminary interview study (Umino, 2000) employed semi-structured interviews but these display higher control compared to group interviews (see 3.4.5 for further discussion).

The second point relates to the features of the setting concerned. The natural setting for SITV learning is difficult for researchers to access, since it is usually in people's homes, and the researcher's presence there would be even more intrusive than in a classroom setting. This is partly why previous studies mostly used survey methods or at best diaries to elicit learners' reactions. While imposing little control on the setting, these methods do not enable one to observe what actually goes on in the learning setting 'on the spot' or to elicit what goes on in learners' minds there and then. In order to overcome this problem, I created a situation which enabled me to investigate learning in a more or less naturalistic setting (that is, the setting of the learners' 'viewing'), as well as obtain self-reports and elicit immediately what learners perceived from a given lesson. This is a unique feature which is not found in any of the previous studies.

Figure 3.4 Types of research (based on van Lier, 1988:57)

+	selective
—	+ controlled
	—

There are two further characteristics to the present research approach. First, this research focusses on the process rather than the product, thus taking the process-focussed approach as opposed to product-focussed (Long, 1980:4). In a

product-focussed study, the focus of the research is on a comparison of the learning outcomes of different forms of instruction, which are measured by test scores, but often without documenting what actually went on in the classroom instructional process. It could also be said that the focus of this type of study is on measuring the effects of instruction. In a process study, on the other hand, the focus is on what goes on in the instructional setting rather than on its outcomes, and this is revealed by documenting instructional events carefully and systematically. In the previous studies on SIB learning, the process aspect has been almost entirely overlooked. The only study which sheds light on this aspect is Flavell and Fearn (1995), who incorporated diaries, observation and discussions in addition to tests. In the present study, I focus on understanding the process aspect rather than the product. The second characteristic of the present research which is related to the first is that the study takes a longitudinal approach rather than cross-sectional. The studies on SIB learning reviewed in Chapter 2 tended to rely on one-off questionnaire or interview, failing to take account of the developmental aspects of SIB/ SITV learning. But because the present study places importance on the process of SITV learning, it also placing importance on the developmental and/or accumulative aspects of it.

3.3.2 Means of data collection

Interview

As mentioned above, the major method of data collection used in previous studies of SIB learning was the survey method, using (semi-) structured questionnaires by mail and telephone. Questionnaires are advantageous in collecting data from a large sample with relative ease and are easily standardised to maintain reliability. However, structured surveys are highly selective, imposing predetermined views of the researcher upon the respondents, and are not modifiable once they are distributed (DeVaus, 1996; Foddy, 1993; Robson, 1993; Fife-Schaw, 1995; Newell, 1993). In these senses, questionnaires are not ideal for exploratory research or exploring learners' emic perspective. In this study, therefore, I chose to use interview as the major means of data collection.

The research interview has been defined as a 'conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation' (Cannel and Kahn, 1968:527, cited by Cohen and Manion and Morrison, 2000:269). However, the interview has been

conceptualised in different ways by different researchers. A traditional conception is to regard it as a means of pure information transfer where knowledge possessed by the interviewee waiting to be discovered is transferred to the interviewer. Kvale (1996:3) describes this traditional interview process using a 'mining' metaphor, where knowledge as 'buried metal' is dug for and found by the miner (interviewer). In this view, bias is either regarded as non-existent or as something which could be and should be 'handled by building controls into research design, for example by having a range of interviewers with different biases' (Kitwood, 1977). Kitwood (1977) further points out that in this conception, the interpersonal transactions inherent in interviews are regarded as if they were 'potential obstacles to sound research' and therefore 'ought to be removed, controlled, or at least harnessed in some way.'

Another opposing conception of interview is to regard it as 'an encounter necessarily sharing many of the features of everyday life' such as trust, curiosity, and naturalness (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000:257). Cicourel (1964) points out that each interview inevitably differs in terms of mutual trust, social distance, and the interviewer's control, and that many of the meanings which are clear to one will be relatively opaque to the other, even when the intention is genuine communication. The implication here is that no matter how hard an interviewer may try to be systematic and objective, the constraints of everyday life will be a part of whatever interpersonal transactions he / she initiates. Kvale (1996:11) more positively views interview as 'inter-view', an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest (Kvale, 1996:11). This view places emphasis on human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasises the social situatedness of research data.

Interviews differ in their degree of structure. A structured interview involves a fixed set of questions in a fixed order. This has been common in the context of survey research. On the other hand, in an unstructured interview, the researcher has a number of topics or themes to cover, but the precise questions and the order are not fixed and are allowed to develop as a result of the exchange with the respondent (Breakwell, 1995). Bogdan and Biklen (1992) add to this the semi-structured interview in which the interviewer has a set of questions but is allowed to develop them and / or change their order as a result of the exchange with the respondents.

Burgess (1984) argues that the difference between the structured and the unstructured interviews is not simply a matter of whether or not questions are pre-set, but also of the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee. In a structured interview, the interviewer is given a superordinate role to the

interviewee, having control in terms of the situation and the questions to be asked. Interviewers are warned against developing too much rapport with participants, and are encouraged to make every effort to eliminate all kinds of bias. This set-up has been criticised in that it puts the participants in an unnatural relationship with the interviewer (Oakley, 1981). In an unstructured interview, on the other hand, participants are given an opportunity to develop their answers more freely outside a given structured format. The interviewer is conceived not as a researcher with power, but as a friend who shows interest, understanding and sympathy. Trust and confidence between the two interlocutors are considered vital to the success of the unstructured interview.

The above discussion suggests that in recent conceptions of interviews there is a higher awareness of the effects of social aspects on the data yielded. Block (2000:758-759) points out that the data yielded by interviews should not necessarily be perceived as reflections of interviewees' memories of events (i.e. as cognitive phenomena) but as reflections of how they relate to the interview context as actors in a particular context (i.e. as social phenomena). Similar perceptions are presented by Freeman (1996:734) in his distinction between data as *representational* of real events, or as *presentational* of the individuals speaking, and by Kvale (1996:219) in his discussion of *veridical* and *symptomatic* readings of data, that is, whether the data are to be seen as reliable reports of events provided by the individuals or as reflections of interviewees' relationships to the topic and the interview context. We should be aware of the social aspects of interviews, which are expected to be even more salient in the group format adopted in this study. I return to this issue in Chapter 8.

Group interview

A group interview can be regarded as a form of interview in which the conversation in the interview takes place between an interviewer and more than two interviewees at a time. There are two ways of looking at the group interview. One view is to see it as merely an engagement in individual interviews conducted simultaneously with several people, as expressed in the following definition: 'the systematic questioning of several individuals simultaneously in formal or informal settings' (Fontana and Frey, 1994:364)

The other view is to see group interview as being 'more than the sum of the parts' (Watts and Ebbutt, 1987:25), that is, as something quite different from a collection of individual interviews. In this view, the primary task of the interviewer is to facilitate a comprehensive exchange of views in which all

participants are able to speak their minds and respond to the ideas of others (Hedges, 1985). The interaction between participants is considered to be as important as the interaction between interviewer and interviewees. Because of this, the interviewer's task becomes one of establishing and facilitating a discussion within the group and not 'interviewing' actively. This is why the term 'interviewer' is often replaced by 'facilitator' or 'moderator' for group interviews.

Millward (1995) argues that the success of the interview relies very much on the moderator, so he / she should understand the group processes both on the intrapersonal level, that is, the thoughts, feelings, attitudes and values of the individual, and on the intragroup level, that is, how people communicate and interact with each other within the group, and it is very important for the moderator to understand how the group processes work on these two levels. She then goes on to define different types of moderator style in terms of the amount of control the moderator has over the content and process of interview (Figure, 3.5). Segment 1 in Figure 3.5 shows the case where the moderator has high control over content and process, the typical case being that of structured interview. Segment 2 shows the high content control and low process control, which is seen in 'expert-mode' (such as doctor-patient or teacher-pupil cases). Segment 3 is when the moderator has high control over process but low control of content, and Millward argues that this is the ideal situation for the group interview. The moderator does not intervene too much regarding the content, but if for example some of the participants dominate the discussion at the expense of others, the moderator takes active steps to change the situation. Segment 4 shows low control of content and process, as in cases of self-managed groups. This is also advantageous in that one can observe how participants naturally organise their discussions of certain issues, but at the risk of absence of standardisation across groups.

Figure 3.5 Four types of moderator style (source: Millward, 1995:283)

High control of content	
1	2
High control of process 3	4 Low control of process
Low control of content	

The ways in which the group process can work advantageously in comparison with individual interviews are summarised in Vaughn, S., et. al. (1996:14):

- (1) Group interview produces the effect of synergism, whereby a larger amount of data emerges through the group interaction.
- (2) There is snowballing, that is, initiating by means of the statements of one respondent, a chain reaction of additional comments from other respondents. This adds a cumulative and elaborative dimension to data over and above individual responses.
- (3) Respondents are stimulated to talk more when the group discussion generates excitement about a topic, which adds flexibility.
- (4) There is more sense of security and comfort on the part of respondents, which encourages candid responses.
- (5) Respondents will be more spontaneous and genuine in their responses, since they are not required to answer every question (in cases where questions are pre-set).

Millward (1995) points out that the process of opinion formation in everyday life is generally determined not by individual information gathering but through communication with others (cf. Albrecht et al, 1993), and people will become more aware of their own perspective or are prompted to analyse their view more carefully when they are confronted with disagreement or hear other people's views. Fontana and Frey (1994) add the advantage that recall is aided, which is particularly useful when participants are interviewed on particular stimuli to which they have been previously exposed, as in my study. There is also the practical aspect of reducing cost.

The potential disadvantages of group interview mainly come from having more than two people in the interviews. Fontana and Frey (1994) point out that the emerging group culture may interfere with individual expression, the group may be dominated by one person, the group format makes it difficult to research sensitive topics, and group-think is a possible outcome. It is also true that the requirements for interviewer skills are greater than in the individual interviews because of group dynamics.

Being aware of the advantages and disadvantages of group interviews, I aimed to reduce the problems and make the most of this format by incorporating the segment 3 moderator style in Fig. 3.5. I basically kept out of the participants' conversation and only intervened occasionally if I noticed that any of them were not speaking, or to probe deeper to clarify what they were trying to express. Incorporating this style enabled me to reduce the selectivity of the topics to be discussed in each interview, that is, the participants had more control over what content they chose to discuss. This was particularly advantageous in Phase 1 of the study.

Verbal report

As I mentioned earlier, the procedure employed in Phase 2 would be referred to by some researchers as verbal reports (for example, Ericsson and Simon, 1987; Cohen, 1987, 1998; Poulisse, Bongaerts and Kellerman, 1987, etc.). These are similar to interviews in that they involve two individuals talking about a certain topic. What characterises verbal report is that it focusses on revealing mechanisms of people's mental behaviours through introspection. Introspection is defined as 'a process of observing and reflecting on one's thoughts, feelings, motives, reasoning processes, and mental states with a view to determine the ways in which these processes and states determine our behaviour.' (Nunan, 1992: 115) With verbal report, people attempt to verbalise their internal behaviours through introspection either concurrently or retrospectively to the occurrence of such behaviours.

There are various conceptualizations of verbal reports. McDonough (1995) defines them narrowly as 'asking people to tell us in language what they believe they are doing when they perform certain skills, learning tasks, etc.' (p. 100). Hayes and Flower (1983: 211-212) distinguish between *retrospective reports*, that is, what subjects report they have done after completion of the task, and *behavior protocols*, that is, what subjects report on their thinking processes during the performance of a task, and include them both under verbal report data. Faerch and Kasper (1987) make a similar distinction between *think-aloud*, in which report is made concurrently to the execution of task, and *retrospection*, in which report is made soon after execution of task while information in short-term memory is assumed to be still directly accessible. Cohen (1998) conceives verbal reports even more broadly as including the following: *self-report*, which is learners' descriptions of what they do, characterized by generalised statements about learning behavior; *self-observation*, which is the inspection of specific, not generalised, language behavior, either introspectively, i.e. within 20 seconds of the mental event, or retrospectively; and *self-revelation*, which is stream-of-consciousness disclosure of thought processes while the information is being attended to. *Self-report* as described by Cohen (1998), however, is no different from responses obtained via interviews or questionnaires or diaries which ask for generalised statements about learners' learning behaviours. Such a broad conceptualisation fails to capture the distinct characteristics of verbal reports. Furthermore, use of such terminologies as representing different types of verbal report does more to create confusion than bring about clarification. Thus, verbal

report procedure is better defined as asking people to report through introspection what they believe they are doing when they are performing learning tasks either during or soon after the completion of task performance.

Verbal report was used for many years in cognitive psychology but fell into disuse during the behaviourism era. According to Ericsson and Simon (1987; 1993), it has been revived in the investigation of cognitive processes and in research on L2 learning strategies in recent years. For one thing, it proved to be a fruitful means for discovering what learners know and do during the execution of a task, which is not easily accessible to researchers by means of other methods such as observation (Wenden and Rubin 1987). Recent focus on the roles of consciousness in language learning (Schmidt 1990; McLaughlin 1990; Johnson 1996) implies that learners can be aware of their learning processes, supporting the viability of procedures dependent on the learner's conscious introspection.

At the same time, many researchers question the validity of data obtained in such mentalistic fashion (for example, Nisbett and Wilson (1977); Seliger (1983); Goh (1998); Buck (1990)). The major criticisms of verbal report, as summarized in Nisbett and Wilson (1977) are as follows:

- (1) people's observation of their own behaviour is notoriously unreliable, and subjects may rely on their background knowledge and opinions of a topic to fill in gaps in their memory (Tomlinson; 1984);
- (2) there are obvious limits on the degree of depth of process and mental computation to which people have access by conscious attention, and the 'traces' of mental processes from which such inferences are made are not large enough (Dobrin; 1986);
- (3) the act of expressing these perceptions in language, in other words, actually making the verbal report, may considerably alter the performance of the task, compared with occasions when participants are merely performing the task without making a report.

The third point above is perhaps even more salient for L2 learners who often have to express their perceptions in their L2, a difficulty experienced by Anderson's (1992) learners. The above criticisms counter the naive assumption made by some researchers that the verbal reports obtained through the introspection carried out by their subjects accurately reflect the underlying cognitive processes giving rise to behaviour: this overlooks the discontinuity between what the subjects believed they were doing and what they were actually doing.

With these weaknesses in mind, Ericsson (1988), and Ericsson and Simon (1987) stress that there is a need to establish the limits of applicability of data obtained by verbal report, admitting that people can only report what they can pay attention to ('heeded processes'). We should be aware, therefore, that data obtained through verbal report is limited to the products of heeded processes, and that some processes are beyond the reach of introspection. Nevertheless, verbal reports can enable us to make inferences about mental processes better than other more indirect means such as questionnaires and observation.

At the same time, researchers can take steps to improve research design and write-up so as to avoid the pitfalls associated with verbal reports (Matsumoto 1993; Cohen 1996) Goh(1980) points out that many of the criticisms of using verbal reports as data were a response to design weaknesses in some early studies on learners' introspection. One improvement that can be made is to fulfill the 'immediacy condition' (Ericsson and Simon, 1984) which ensures that the data are collected as soon as possible after the task or event has taken place. Another step is the incorporation of a training stage to avoid confusion as to what to report. Skilful use of probe questions is another step. With improved research design, introspection can be used in both qualitative, exploratory and quantitative, hypothesis-testing research, as Grotjahn (1987) has convincingly argued.

Taking the above discussion into account, I adopted the following considerations in designing the procedures for Phase 2. I provided one practice session, in which learners had the opportunity to understand their expected role and try out the process. I stopped the tape several times during the lesson for learners to report their thought processes in order to meet the 'proximity' condition mentioned above. When the participants started speaking about something other than their thought processes, I used probe questions to get them back on track.

3.3.3 Triangulation

Triangulation is defined as 'the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000:112). It is the use of multiple methods as opposed to a single method and is considered to be useful in deepening understanding or explaining more fully the complexity of human behaviour, by looking at it from several different standpoints. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) argue that in educational research there is a tendency on the part of the researcher to use the same particular method or technique, such as attitude scales, for investigating a particular topic, and the exclusive reliance on a single method has a higher risk of

yielding bias and of providing only a limited view of the topic investigated. The use of multiple methods (that is, triangulation) helps validate the data and give confidence as to its validity by reassuring readers that the findings are not the artifacts of the method used. Thus, the use of triangular techniques will help overcome the potential problem of 'method-boundedness.'

Denzin (1970: 25-26) expands on the notion by adding other modes of triangulation such as space, time, subject, and researcher as well as methodology. Space-triangulation is carrying out a research in different geographical areas rather than in one area. Time-triangulation is carrying out a longitudinal study (in which data is collected at different points in time rather than in a one-off fashion.) Subject-triangulation is collecting data from different groups of subjects rather than one group. Researcher-triangulation is carrying out data collection or analysis by having more than one researcher. See 3.3.4 below for how I used triangulation in my study.

3.3.4 Issue of 'trustworthiness' in qualitative research

As I mentioned in 3.3.1, in the traditional positivistic paradigm, the issues of validity and reliability are important in ensuring the rigour of a piece of enquiry. In qualitative research, however, these issues are not given as much importance as in quantitative research because the former often relies primarily on the participant's own formulations and construction of reality (Ambert et al., 1995). Lincoln and Guba (1985) claim that what matters instead is the 'trustworthiness' of the study, that is, the extent to which an inquirer can persuade his or her audience (including self) that 'the findings of an enquiry are worth paying attention to' or 'worth taking account of' (p. 290). They suggest the notion of 'credibility' instead of validity, and 'dependability' instead of reliability. Thus, qualitative researchers can make an enquiry trustworthy by increasing 'the probability that the findings and the interpretations based upon them will be found to be more credible' (ibid p. 307).

In my study, I attempted to increase credibility in the following ways. First, I employed triangulation in various ways. Firstly, I employed a multiple method of data collection. Also, I designed the study in a longitudinal fashion, which is a triangulation between different time points rather than having a one-off data collection occasion (Denzin's 'time-triangulation'). I had two groups of participants participating in interviews, which may be interpreted as having multiple copies of one type of source (Denzin's 'subject-triangulation').

Secondly, I fulfilled what Lincoln and Guba (1985:301) refer to as 'prolonged engagement', which is 'the investment of sufficient time to achieve certain purposes' (p. 301). I was living in the cultural context in which the participants lived in and was engaged with the participants over a fourteen-month period, and met with them weekly. As a result, I had a good knowledge of the participants' culture and I succeeded in developing a rapport with them. As evidence of this rapport, I have already mentioned that participants themselves asked if they could continue to meet well beyond Phase 2. Indeed, some of them still correspond with me as 'pen-pals'.

Other factors which render my data collection and analysis credible are my knowledge of the materials used in the study (see Chapter 1 for my involvement with the materials used in the study), and the use of participants' mother tongue in data collection.

In order to obtain higher dependability, I kept the session format the same throughout the period of data collection: I had the same place, same time, same routine, and same questions. In addition, I kept a research diary, documenting as precisely as possible what happened in each session. I also transcribed the interviews as I collected the data while my memory of the interviews was still fresh. In the analysis of data, I checked the internal consistency within my coding of data over a period of time. I also had independent raters to cross check the consistency of data coding. Methods of data analysis will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 6.

3.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have described and discussed the methodology of my exploratory longitudinal study of SITV learning by seven adult learners extending over fourteen months. The methodology employed in this study is unique in several ways. First, in order to study the process of SITV learning in an on-going fashion, I created a setting in which the learners studied with the materials so that they could respond to the questionnaires and interviews immediately after viewing the videos. This enabled me to have direct access to the actual learning setting which has hitherto been inaccessible with this type of home-learning, and to collect data immediately after or even during the viewing of the SITV lessons.

Secondly, in order to decrease selectivity in data collection and to reflect learners' *emic* views in the data as much as possible, I employed group interviews as a major means of data collection. As I discussed in Chapter 2, the majority of previous works on SIB learning employed one-off structured surveys. Although

survey methods have their advantages, questionnaires are more likely to predetermine learners' responses and are not modifiable once they are distributed. For these reasons, they are not ideal for exploratory research. The use of a group interview format reduces selectivity, allowing learners to nominate topics of their own interest. Such a group interview format had not been used before in the study of SIB/ SITV learning or self-instruction, to my knowledge.

Thirdly, the study was carried out in a longitudinal fashion, tracking the process of SITV learning over a fourteen-month period. This enabled me to discover developmental aspects of the process of SITV learning which had not been identified previously whilst increasing the credibility (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) of the study.

Another unique feature of the study was that the sequel 'Phases 3 and 4' were actually motivated by the participants themselves rather than the researcher. And in 'Phase 4', the data collection was carried out without the researcher being there: learners interviewed each other and filled out questionnaires for themselves.

The implications of this overall research approach are further discussed in Chapter 8. I shall present and discuss the results of Phase 1 in Chapter 4, Phase 2 in Chapter 6, and 'Phases 3 and 4' in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 4

MAIN STUDY: PHASE 1

4.1 Introduction

As I mentioned in Chapter 3, I embarked on Phase 1 of this study with the following research questions in mind:

- (1) What characteristics of SITV materials do learners perceive to be salient in the lessons presented via SITV materials?
- (2) How do learners use SITV materials for learning an L2 via self-instruction?
- (3) Are there any developmental changes in 1 and 2 above?

To answer these questions, I present an analysis here of the data collected in the manner described in Chapter 3. I first present the analysis of the group interview data (4.3). Based on this classification, I pursued further analysis to uncover characteristics of the materials learners find to be salient (4.4), and looked at the developmental changes over the eleven sessions (4.5). In 4.6, I summarise the findings from learners' retrospective accounts of the eleven sessions in the final interviews. Finally, after reviewing the additional questionnaire results in 4.7, I discuss the findings of this phase and attempt to provide answers to the research questions above (4.8).

4.2 Method of analysis

My first step in analysing the data was to transcribe the interviews, which I did immediately after each session. By doing this I had the opportunity to listen to the interviews again and to reflect on features which seemed to characterise each session before collecting further data. I also kept a research diary in which I noted down the key topics which seemed to have occupied each interview session immediately afterwards. I used this when analysing the key topics in the interviews.

Each interview followed more or less the same pattern. The participants started by going over what happened in the lesson they had just seen. Then they spoke freely about what they wanted to discuss. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the interviews were conducted in such a way that the topics were generated by the

learners themselves rather than the interviewer and, as a result, a number of main topics emerged within the given period of time (thirty to forty minutes). Because my interest was in seeing what topics were generated by the learners themselves, I started my analysis by identifying the main topics generated in each interview session. The unit of analysis was a chunk of exchanges made around one topic, with its length varying from a relatively short to a lengthy discussion depending on the interest the participants showed in the topic. As Jones (1985a; 1985b) points out, such naturally occurring units or 'chunks of meaning,' which may vary in length, are relatively easily found and are assumed to be appropriate for qualitative analysis. Some researchers have suggested more precise units such as in Strauss's (1987) 'line by line approach', and Becker and Geer's (1982) 'middle-order approach' but as Marshall (1981) points out, the debate about the appropriate unit of analysis, whether it should be a word, phrase, sentence and so on, seems an unnecessary one in qualitative research whose objectives are considerably different to quantitative content analysis.

I first identified the naturally-occurring chunks of exchanges around a certain topic along with the topic discussed in each chunk. By going through the transcript in this way, I made a list of major topics discussed in the interviews. The topics were developed as categories by taking a key word from participants' words in order to represent as much as possible their emic views (see 3.4.1 above). For example, although the teacher figure in the series was regarded as the 'teacher' by the materials designers, learners used the term 'presenter' in the interviews. Thus, I used this term to represent this particular category. Similarly, the category 'explanation' represents what learners call their perceived explanation. Having made the list of topic categories, I went through the transcript again, assigning a category to each chunk.

To make the coding more consistent, the transcripts were put aside, and after a one-week interval I repeated the analysis, using unmarked, re-ordered transcripts (see White (1995: 213) for both this and the following procedures). Wherever the first and second analyses did not agree, I attempted to resolve any disparities to my satisfaction. I also had an independent rater cross-check the coding with a selected transcript. There were no differences in our coding of this transcript. Having done this, I finalised the list by grouping the categories under superordinate categories (see 4.3.1 for details).

On the basis of this categorization, I carried out further analysis from two angles: a frequency count of categories in order to understand what types of features (represented as topics of interviews) are perceived to be salient by learners, and a longitudinal look at the evolution of these topics over the eleven

sessions in order to understand the changes learners went through during the period.

4.3 Classification of topics emerging in the group interviews

As a result of the analysis described in 4.2, thirty-six categories of topics were identified, which were then grouped into those related to *materials*, and those related to *learning* (see Table 4.1). *Materials-oriented* topics are topics about ‘what there is in the materials.’ Included here are topics on *production* or the ways in which the materials are designed or produced, and on the explicit *content* treated in the materials and the ways in which this content is presented. *Production* topics include talk about people (such as presenter, actors) and props (such as board, subtitles) appearing in the series, the ways in which certain sections are presented (for example, how the explanation section was structured), and certain characteristics of these sections (for example, whether a certain section was superfluousness, lacked continuity, was too long, etc.). These all concern the ways in which the materials are produced. *Content* topics are about the explicit pre-planned content presented in the materials, such as grammatical content, explicit teaching of pronunciation (shape of mouth, position of tongue, etc.), and the writing system. Since content constitutes the subject of learning, these are closer to *learning-oriented* topics than *production* topics and reside more or less in between the two. What differentiates the content topics from learning-oriented topics, however, is that discussion of the former is concerned with what content is presented in the materials and how it is or should be presented, rather than what learners did with it or how they processed the information. For example, Extract 4-1 below from Session 1 shows an excerpt of a chunk of exchange whose topic was identified as ‘grammatical content’.

Extract 4-1

Dale: One of the least useful things I found was the introduction of *sono*, *kono* and *ano*?

Tae: Uh-huh.

Dale: Right at the very end? Um, all she said was that these are specific, and there was no further explanation, which I found a bit loose, and she's talking about something specific, I think she needs to be a bit more specific about what she's talking about.

Robert: Maybe, Lesson three, we'll have it. (Laughs)

- Dale: Maybe that should've been saved till Lesson three. If not, they should have been introduced in more depth, to understand the difference of ways we would use *kore* or *kono*.
- Tae: Uh-huh.
- Dale: Because, certainly for beginners, knowing where to use words at the correct time is one of the difficult things.
- Tae: The difference between *kono* and *kore*.
- Dale: Yeah.
- Robert: Yes.
- Tae: She didn't explain...
- Dale: No. She just said that the *kono* is specific, more specific. It's a, uh, not very useful. Bit confusing.
- Tae: It's better not to have had it.
- Dale: Yeah, it is better not to have any confusion in there.

Here, learners are talking about the grammatical content of *kono*, *sono* and *ano* (this, that) and suggest that they should have been explained more thoroughly in the materials. As in this case, discussions of content were mostly about 'what there was', 'how items were treated' or 'how they should have been treated'. In short, content is merely treated as something static which is 'there' in the materials rather than what learners process. This is why these topics are included under materials-oriented topics.

On the other hand, *learning-oriented* topics are about 'what learners did with' or 'how they dealt with' the content in the materials in the process of learning or comprehending it. They include topics regarding *cognitive* areas (for example, noticing, inferencing, remembering), *metacognitive* areas (for example, analysing problems, selective attention), and *affective* areas (for example, feeling pressure or confidence). Compare the following excerpt of an exchange from Session 6 about 'noticing different uses' with Extract 4-1 presented above:

Extract 4-2

- Sharon: There was also another phrase, when she says *kochira* which Ryoko (the class-teacher) has taught us as a phrase when you introduce somebody,
Kochira wa Dale-san
- Dale: That's right.
- Sharon: But he was using that as if to say 'This way'. I almost thought it was 'Come this way.'

Dale: Oh, when she, yeah, *kochira*, when she started to walk out to show him where the library was. Yeah. (Laughs.) It strikes you to hear the same word used differently though.

Sharon: But when he stopped, because you assume... Ryoko only talked to us as if (pointing to Dale) *Kochira Dale-san*.

Dale: Yeah, I'm introduced.

Sharon: (pointing to Robert) *Kochira Robert-san*.

Dale: So, *Kochira desu* is 'This is please.'

Sharon: This way please.

Robert: This way please.

Dale: So, it actually means, 'This way'. So, there is a slight difference in meaning, or use. It's got broader meaning which is scary. (Laughs) No, it's good.

Here, learners are discussing how they noticed and understood the use of an expression '*Kochira desu*' (It's this way), which they did not know before. '*Kochira desu*' was not the explicit content planned to be taught in the lesson but was something which learners noticed and worked out from the context. And learners are referring to how they worked it out rather than merely what content is presented in the material. In this case, the topic was analyzed as 'noticing different uses' and categorized under learning-oriented topics.

Table 4.1 shows all the topics identified and example excerpts classified under each topic (see Appendix 6 for more example excerpts). The classification reveals the types of issues learners were concerned with in learning with SITV materials, thus providing a basis for understanding salient features of the materials as well as the ways learners go about learning with the series, which will be discussed further below.

Table 4.1 Topics emerged from the group interviews

I Materials-oriented topics : topics regarding 'what there is' in the materials
I-1 Production area: topic regarding the ways in which the materials are designed / produced
1 Presenter : learners talk about the presenter (character / way of speaking / nationality) 'I found the presenter very formal, she was reading media board, she had lines she had been given, and she had to strictly adhere to those.'
2 Actors : learners talk about the actors (characters / acting ability) 'I think the actors now have more confidence and act naturally rather than being tense.'
3 Music : learners talk about the music used (quality, loudness) 'As soon as that silly music started, I just thought it was silly.'
4 Subtitles : learners talk about the subtitles (usefulness) 'Actually displaying the sentence gives you that clarity.'
5 Board : learners talk about the board being used (usefulness) 'The only thing that I kind of wondered about was, the boards with flashing lights was gone and we got a blackboard!'
6 Repeating of skit : learners talk about repeating of skits within a given lesson 'I wish they did not repeat again the film.' 'It's not necessary to show the film at the end, just the summary is sufficient.'
7 Explanation : learners talk about the presentation section (absence / manner) 'I did definitely notice the absence of the explanation.'
8 Exercises : learners talk about the exercises section (absence / manner) 'I found when they said, do you know the sentence, can you say this? I was so busy trying to think of the verb that I forgot the structure.'
9 Humour : learners talk about humour embedded within skits 'I don't agree about the humour, because humour is a, different people have different sense of humour. If you don't like it, you're more likely to switch off and not watch it.'
10 Superfluosness : learners talk about an aspect of (ir)relevance in a section or an activity 'If the padding on the scene was kept to a minimum, so you're not stretching it about, if you're delivering what it's about.'
11 Visual distraction : learners talk about instances when the visuals were distracting 'Sometimes, you get distracted by the visuals as well.'
12 Impact : learners talk about impact of a scene 'I understand the chair because he sat down. The paper, because it was upside down. The umbrella, it was opened. But the glasses and cigarettes, I would've forgotten them. It didn't have any impact on me.'
13 Reality of setting : learners talk about reality of a setting in a skit or an activity 'And I think the problem is, because it's so exaggerated, you don't know how much of this is just exaggerated to try to be educational, you know, it's like stressing it, or how much of this is real Japan.'
14 Pace : learners talk about the pace with which a section, activity or a whole lesson proceeded 'It seems like things that aren't so difficult, they actually spend a lot of time on, and things that are most difficult are flashed rather quickly.'
15 Participation : learners talk about degree to which a certain activity or a section encourages participation on the part of the viewer 'I liked the part when they actually make you think, and so they pose a question to you and you come up with an answer, because it does make you work and try to concentrate.'
16 Continuity : learners talk about continuity of scenes within a given lesson 'I felt that when clips changed too quickly from the main theme, I liked the theme to continue, I prefer to see the lesson with the same language or gestures, but somehow related.'
17 Length : learners talk about length of a given section 'I found it a little bit longer, without subtitles it's long, because if you don't know exactly what they're saying, you lose interest.'
18 Density : learners talk about amount of content treated within a programme 'I find an awful lot of information crammed into half an hour in that programme, and I find by the end it feels like a blur.'
I-2 Content area: topic regarding explicit teaching content and / or how content is treated in the materials
19 Grammar – treatment of explicit teaching of grammatical content 'The identification of the changing of the verb form, that was useful. The plain form. <i>Te ta, de da.</i> '
20 Pronunciation – treatment of explicit teaching of pronunciation 'One of the things I found really useful was about the shape of the mouth, which is something you don't get from a book.'
21 Writing system – treatment of explicit teaching of the writing system 'The only thing I felt I wasn't learning was the <i>hiragana</i> . I can't see the strokes, and I know there I got to sit down with the workbooks.'
22 Culture – treatment of cultural content 'I think things like that are also stimulating because probably people who are bothering to learn Japanese are more than happy to learn about the culture.'
23 Background scenes – background scenes used for presenting linguistic items 'I was absorbed with the home and the bath. I was intrigued. It was visually more pleasing than the previous one, the house, and garden. I wasn't really interested in the airport.'
II. Learning-oriented topics⁹: topics regarding 'what learners did and / or how they felt' in the process of learning and comprehension
II-1 Cognitive area : topic regarding learners' cognitive processes
24 Noticing linguistic items / features : learners talk about noticing features or items which have not been taught explicitly
24-1 Noticing rhythm : learners talk about noticing rhythmic features of the target language which they have not been taught explicitly 'I thought there was more of a rhythm to the language this time. I somehow picked it out especially when they were doing the directions. There

⁹ Some topics listed under here which actually represent strategies learners reported appear again as reported strategies in Chapter 6 but are represented by different categories. This is because the topics in this Phase are taken from learners' own words, whereas in Chapter 6 they are identified as strategy categories; 'guessing' corresponds to 'inferencing'; 'pre-guessing' to 'predicting'; 'focussing' to 'selective attention'; and 'breaking down into chunks' to 'decomposing'.

<p>was more of a rhythm to the words they were actually saying in the sentences, which was something we'd never really dealt with. There was a definite rhythm to the sentences'</p> <p>24-2 Noticing phonetic features 'What I noticed was the <i>ga</i> was actually pronounced as <i>nga</i>.'</p> <p>24-3 Noticing lexical items : learners talk about noticing a lexical item of the target language which they have not been taught explicitly 'When they said <i>Dekakemasu</i>, I remember seeing it in the last video. I must look it up. I was familiar with it, but I couldn't make out what it stood for.'</p> <p>24-4 Noticing grammatical items : learners talk about noticing a grammatical item which they have not been taught explicitly 'And there was another sentence that goes, <i>kore o soko, sore o koko</i>. And I kept thinking, it was like this is here. They were going <i>kore o koko</i>, and <i>sore o koko</i>. Put that there, put that here. I think the one was, there put here, and here put there. But I always thought <i>kore</i> was here.'</p> <p>24-5 Noticing different uses : learners talk about noticing use of an item different to that which has been taught previously '<i>Wakarimasen</i>, I've always understood it to mean, 'I don't understand.' So, it's nice to see the use in a situation where it can mean more than just 'I don't understand', but mean 'I don't know', not 'I don't understand'. So, it was nice. It was something I wasn't aware of at all.'</p>
<p>25 Discriminating sounds : learners talk about discriminating or not discriminating between sounds in the L2 'When they were going through speaking bits and pieces, the particles, I found it very difficult to identify them separately from words. It's almost like part of the word. That was interesting.'</p>
<p>26 Breaking down into chunks : learners talk about breaking down a target language sequence into chunks 'When it was played again, I still didn't catch all of it, but it was better. And the third time, I managed to catch all of it, so that was quite good. But I do find the fact that there are <i>Romaji</i> does help an awful lot to give me clues to where to listen and where it breaks off and identify words. That's one of the difficult things, to identify what's been said.'</p>
<p>27 Remembering : learners talk about retaining a target language item 'I don't know what the <i>-masu</i> forms are to all these verbs, they were new to me, but I could remember them, you know, <i>hайте</i>, you see putting on, <i>tatte</i> is standing up and <i>suwatte</i> is sitting, but I couldn't tell you what the <i>masu</i> form was, so it must be quite a good learning tool, because I can still remember the <i>-te</i> and <i>-de</i> forms even though I don't think in terms of the <i>-masu</i> form first.'</p>
<p>28 Guessing: learners talk about familiarizing an unknown item by using knowledge they already possess 'I always think this kind of leads me to just search for what's familiar. I can't understand certain words and cause it's not vocabulary because it may have <i>-te kudasai</i> at the end, and last week we were looking at the request, so okay this is the structure, whereas just looking at this, and noticing it having <i>ii desu ka</i> at the end, even if I didn't understand the words before, I would know, Oh, this is a request for something. And I think I look for what I consider most familiar and then I know what the context is even though I don't understand all the words, I can guess what's going on to some extent.'</p>
<p>29 Translating : learners talk about using L1 knowledge in order to make sense of target language 'What I was doing was I was noticing what the familiar words were and translating them into English so that I understand. I understand the Japanese but I'm still translating into English.'</p>
<p>30 Pre-guessing : learners talk about predicting in advance the target language item to follow 'I did find myself trying to pre-guess what the verbs are gonna be or what verb forms are gonna be.'</p>
<p>II-2 Metacognitive area: topic regarding learners' metacognitive processes</p>
<p>31 Identifying problem : learners talk analytically about his / her problem in learning and comprehension 'But there were lots of new words I was not familiar with. And, unfortunately, one of my habits is I tend to cling to those and try to work those out. If it's new, I need to understand it, so I try to figure out what it means. And by the time I'd thought about it, they'd gone to something else, and there are some other new words. So, I found it distracting.'</p>
<p>32 Focussing: learners talk analytically about focussing or attending selectively to a particular item 'If I picked up the few words at the end, when it comes back the next time, I try to pick up the words at the front, so I can narrow focussing, slowly to work out what is there, then it's coming to focus. Because otherwise, it's too much, so I'll focus on what I can. Each time I focus on different sections and put them together.'</p>
<p>33 Avoiding : learners talk analytically about deliberately avoiding a task 'If I would say the least useful, I would probably say the <i>hiragana</i>. I know I really got to learn it, at the moment, I got to concentrate on the language first. So, what I'm doing now is I'm blocking it out now. Even when it's coming up on the television, I'm blocking it out.'</p>
<p>II-3 Affective area: topic regarding learners' affective state</p>
<p>34 Motivation : learners talk about motivation for learning or using the target language 'That created a visual image and an attraction and reinforced why I'm doing this?'</p>
<p>35 Confidence : learners talk about confidence relating to learning or using the target language 'It throws your confidence. You don't feel on top of it, it's on top of you.'</p>
<p>36 Pressure : learners talk about pressure relating to learning or using the target language 'Personally speaking, here, I don't feel under quite as much pressure as I do in class. In the class, the question is directed at you, and you're expected to come back with it.'</p>

4.4 The features of SITV materials learners perceive to be salient

The topics presented in section 4.3 indicate the types of things or features learners find salient when they are learning with the SITV series. In order to further identify features which are found to be most salient, I analysed the frequency with which the materials-oriented topics appeared in the interviews. Table 4.2 shows the interview sessions in which these topics emerged (in all cases the topics emerged only once per session) and the total frequency of emergence.

Some topics were discussed repeatedly over more than two sessions whereas others emerged in one session only. Similarly, some topics appeared in interviews in both groups whereas others were discussed by only one group. The total frequency of emergence is used as one indicator of the degree of salience to be attributed to a particular topic.

Table 4.2 Sessions in which materials-oriented topics emerged

Topics	Sessions in which topics emerged		Total frequency of appearance
	Group A	Group B	
Production			
Presenter	1,3	1,2,3,4,5	7
Continuity	2,3,4,5,6,8	none	6
Humour	1,5,9	2,3,4	6
Repeating of skit	1	2,5,7,11	5
Explanation	none	6,7,8,11	4
Participation	3,4,8,11	none	4
Superfluosness	2,3,10	8	4
Density	4,10	4	3
Music	1,5	none	2
Subtitles	2,9	none	2
Impact	1,2	none	2
Actors	1	2	2
Board	8	8	2
Visual distraction	2	1	2
Reality of setting	2	2	2
Pace	4	11	2
Length	none	2	1
Exercises	none	7	1
Content			
Grammar	1,2,3,6,9,10,11	1	8
Background scenes	2,4,8,10	1	5
Pronunciation	3,9,11	10	4
Culture	2,8	1	3
Writing system	5	3	2

Regarding the production features, learners most frequently discussed ‘the presenter,’ which perhaps indicates the importance of the teacher-figure in the series. They also frequently discussed certain sections in the series such as ‘repeating of skit’ and ‘explanation,’ which is understandable. The short and long skits provide naturalistic input which take care of the ‘implicit’ side of learning. Explanation directs learners to focus on the ‘explicit’ side of learning. Together they form the core of the teaching procedure in the programmes. Learners in Group A were also concerned with certain characteristics such as ‘continuity’ of scenes within one programme, ‘humour’ embedded in the skits, the extent to which the learners are allowed to ‘participate’ in the programmes, and ‘superfluosness’ of skits. As for content, the learners in Group A frequently discussed ‘grammar’, ‘background scenes’ and ‘pronunciation’. Learners in Group B discussed content much less frequently overall. These findings show the types of features these learners were interested in viewing the series and are particularly relevant to my first research question on salient features of SITV materials.

In order to better find out how the learners perceived these features, I further analysed the comments learners made for the most frequently discussed topics. Table 4.3 shows the summary of comments learners made for the topic 'PRESENTER'. (Comments for the other frequently discussed topics are found in Appendix 5.) Learners' positive and negative comments provide a picture of the kind of materials learners perceive to be 'good.' Regarding the 'presenter', learners want her to be not too formal or patronizing but informal and friendly. The 'explanation' section is regarded as important and useful, particularly the combination of writing, sound, and picture. Learners generally like 'participating' and dislike having 'superfluousness' or irrelevant parts which drag on for too long. There was a disagreement as to whether it is better to have continuous scenes or to have a variety of scenes but the former was generally preferred. As can be noted in Table 4.3, the comments also generally changed from negative to positive as the sessions proceeded. 'Humour', for example, was regarded as 'silly' at the beginning but later was appreciated. Similarly, 'the repeating of skits' was regarded as 'off-putting' and 'unnecessary' at first, but later came to be perceived as beneficial. Such development reflects the changes learners have gone through in the learning process which will be discussed in more detail in 4.5.

Table 4.3 Positive and negative comments for the topic 'PRESENTER'	
POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Session 1 She gives me hope because she pronounces it so well (being a non-Japanese)	She is too formal. She is patronizing. She is wooden. She could preferably be Japanese. She should stop acting like she is reading the news.
Session 2 The presenter came across much better. She seems less slow.	
Session 3 She is less rigid. She seems more on the same level.	
Session 4 We see less of her so there is probably more content.	
Session 5 I like the way she reinforced it for me. She improves in every programme. She is settling down a lot more.	

4.5 Process of SITV learning

4.5.1 Evolution of topics in the group interviews

I now turn to the second area of concern in this study, that is, understanding the process by which learners go about learning with SITV materials by seeing how their talk about the series and learning evolved over time.

In order to address this issue, I employed a developmental perspective, looking at how the topics presented in Table 4.1 evolved over the eleven sessions. Tables 4.4 and 4.5, showing this evolution for Groups A and B respectively, indicate a similar gradual shift of dominant topics as the sessions proceeded. As an overall tendency, topics shifted from production to content and to process of learning. A closer look at the types of topics dominant in each session indicates three broad stages, although the transition from one stage to the next is not clear-cut. In the first three or four sessions, learners talk predominantly about materials-oriented topics, particularly the production features (stage 1). Then, from about the third or fourth session, learning-oriented topics start to emerge and gradually take over from the production topics (stage 2). From around the sixth or seventh session, increasingly more topics on metacognitive and affective areas emerge (stage 3). We might infer that this tendency represents some kind of change which took place in the learning process over the period of eleven sessions.

In the next section, I attempt to describe this change through qualitative analysis of the group interview data as well as by triangulating the results with the individual interviews carried out at the end of eleven sessions.

Table 4.4 Major topics in group interviews in Phase 1: Group A

Session	Materials-oriented topics		Learning-oriented topics		
	Production	Content	Cognitive	Meta-cognitive	Affective
1	Presenter Actors Humour Music Impact Reality of setting Repeating of skit	Grammar			
2	Subtitles Visual distraction Superfluosness Continuity Impact Repeating of skit	Background scenes Culture Grammar			
3	Continuity Presenter Superfluosness Participation	Grammar Pronunciation	Discriminating sounds Noticing lexical items		
4	Continuity Participation Pace Density	Background scenes	Noticing phonetic features		
5	Continuity Music	Writing system	Remembering Noticing phonetic features Noticing rhythm Translating		
6	Continuity	Grammar	Discriminating sounds Inferencing Noticing different uses	Focussing	Pressure
7		Non-verbal behaviour	Inferencing Remembering Noticing different uses	Identifying problem	
8	Board Humour Continuity Participation	Background scenes Culture	Noticing different uses	Focussing	
9	Subtitles Humour	Grammar Pronunciation	Noticing lexical items Noticing different uses	Identifying problem Avoiding	
10	Superfluosness Density	Background scenes Grammar	Breaking down into chunks Noticing lexical items Noticing grammatical items		Confidence Motivation
11	Participation	Grammar Pronunciation	Noticing different uses Translating Pre-guessing	Identifying problem	

Table 4.5 Major topics in group interviews in Phase 1: Group B

Session	Materials-oriented topics		Learning-oriented topics		
	Production	Content	Cognitive	Meta-cognitive	Affective
1	Reality of setting Presenter Visual distraction	Grammar Pronunciation Culture			
2	Length Presenter Actors Humour Repeating of skit				
3	Presenter Humour				
4	Presenter Humour Density		Inferencing		
5	Continuity Presenter Actors		Noticing phonetic features Remembering		
6	Explanation		Discriminating sounds	Identifying problem	
7	Exercises Explanation Continuity		Inferencing Noticing different uses		
8	Superfluosness Board Explanation	Culture	Breaking down into chunks		Pressure
9			Remembering		
10		Background scenes	Noticing phonetic features Discriminating sounds Inferencing	Identifying problem	
11	Explanation Pace Continuity		Discriminating sounds Breaking down into chunks	Identifying problem Avoiding	Pressure

4.5.2 Developmental changes during the eleven sessions

Drawing from the above results and from learners' retrospective accounts of the eleven sessions in the final interviews, I characterize the three stages identified above as follows:

Stage 1: Being critics (sessions 1-3)

Stage 2: Focussing on learning / identifying problems (session 4 –6)

Stage 3: Attempting to overcome problems (sessions 7-11)

I now attempt to describe these developmental changes in more detail by taking the case of Group A, where such changes were more noticeable than with Group B.

Stage 1: Being critics (Session 1 –3)

As we see in Tables 4.3 and 4.4, the interview sessions for the first few weeks are characterised by the emergence of topics relating to the materials and by the critical nature of the comments regarding these topics. The topics emerging in Session 1, for example, are exclusively materials-oriented: presenter, actors, music, reality of setting, repeating of skits, and grammatical content, and there is no talk on learning. Furthermore, the comments made for these topics are generally negative. Some examples are that the presenter is 'wooden', 'too formal'

and 'patronizing', the music and humour are 'silly', the repeating of the skit is 'off-putting', and the grammatical content is 'not specific'. If we examine the actual transcripts, the learners' way of speaking resembles that of TV critics, watching the programme to see whether or not it is good enough to satisfy the viewers. See, for example, how Anne criticizes the humour, the presenter, and the repeating of the skit in the following excerpt from Session 1:

Extract 4-3

Anne: I don't agree about the humour, because different people have different sense of humour. If you don't like it, you're more likely to switch off and not watch it. I think I really don't like the presenter. Not that she was diplomatic, I didn't mind that so much. She was very patronizing, and so she was speaking slowly in English, and it's not the English that we're learning, it's Japanese, and uh, I think all that driving about was unnecessary. I understand that they're showing the skit again to reinforce, but I don't really, if I were watching that on my own and it came on again and again and again, I'll just turn it off.

This is a stage at which learners view the materials as critics, making (often critical) remarks on how the materials are produced and how the content should be presented, etc. This kind of criticizing phase continues in Sessions 2 and 3, until learners gradually change their attitudes as the sessions proceed, as we shall see below.

Stage 2: Focussing on learning / identifying problems (Session 4-6)

As the sessions proceed, a gradual change is observed which becomes particularly salient between Sessions 4 and 6. After viewing the lesson in Session 5, Sharon notes this change and explains it in her own words in the following way:

Extract 4-4

Sharon: ... perhaps, because it's lesson six, and it's more advanced, and we've been learning for some time now, there just comes a point where it starts to go in, but it's not necessarily conscious to us, you know, just comes to a point where it starts to make more sense.

As observed in Sharon's remark above, this stage is characterized by the move from critic to learner, in which learners set their focus on learning with the materials rather than evaluating them. This change into the 'learning mode' is observed through changes in the types of topics emerging: the learners are concerned more by learning-oriented topics and less by materials-oriented topics. If we take the case of Session 6 in Table 4.3, for example, the interview was occupied by learning-oriented topics of not discriminating sounds, inferencing, noticing different use, focussing, and pressure, and there was only one topic on production, which was continuity.

In this second stage, learners talk predominantly about their cognitive processes, such as inferencing, translating, and remembering and start reporting problems they are facing. The most prominent problem they reported was coping with listening to Japanese spoken at natural speed. In the extract from Session 6 below, learners talk about how they cannot discriminate sounds in Japanese presented in the naturalistic skits:

Extract 4-5

Dale: Natural speed Japanese sounds extremely fast, but I'm sure that's because we're reasonably new

Robert: Sure.

Dale: in learning the language and the sounds are so different to the way we speak.

Sharon: And it's like they seem to lose bits of words. I really could not hear the - *temo ii desu ka*. You could only hear *ii desu ka*, but the *temo*, I could not hear. I was listening and listening and I could not hear it. It was almost like it was said so quickly that it's lost. So, when you saw it written, you know, 'Oh, yes, I know exactly what it means when it has this *temo* ', but when they speak it that fast, it's like, 'Hang on, I don't think I can hear it to make sense of it'. Yes, I hope that Dale's right, it's just the more you hear it, eventually it clicks.

The above problem of coping with naturalistic speech is dealt with under topics such as 'discriminating (or not discriminating) sounds', 'breaking down a sequence into chunks', and 'noticing rhythmic features' of the L2. Learners reported noticing phonetic, rhythmic and prosodic features of Japanese which they had not noticed in the classroom and reported how they struggled to discriminate among the individual sounds and break the sequence into chunks in such naturalistic speech. It is interesting that learners report this problem as if they

noticed it for the first time in this session when the actual speed of speech in the materials had not changed since Lesson 1. This means that the learners restated the problem of speed at this stage, not as a problem of materials to criticize but as their own problem in comprehending and learning Japanese.

Stage 3: Attempting to overcome problems (sessions 7-11)

From Session 7 onwards, some more changes are observed. First, topics in the interviews relate more and more to learning rather than production or content. In particular, there are now more topics on the metacognitive and affective aspects of learning in addition to the cognitive. We have seen that during Sessions 4 to 6, learners started reporting the problems they encountered. From about Session 7, they started to reflect and analyze their own cognitive processes in an attempt to overcome such problems. In the extract from Session 7 below, Dale makes analytical statements about how he tries to cope with comprehending the naturalistic speech presented in the materials:

Extract 4-6

Dale: ...I know the *kudasai*, but I was hanging on to the words I was familiar with and missing the rest out.

Tae: There were some bits which you were familiar with?

Dale: Yeah. But there were lots of new words I was not familiar with. And, unfortunately, one of my habits is I tend to cling to those and try to work those out. If it's new, I need to understand it, so I try to figure out what it means. And by the time I'd thought about it, they'd gone to something else, and there are some other new words. So, I found it distracting.

Similarly, in the same session Robert makes an even clearer statement about what he does in order to make sense of the visual and audio text:

Extract 4-7

Robert: (I am) listening to the pronunciation to words, trying to pronounce them, understand them which is reinforced by seeing them in Romaji so I can see what the word was. And of course they've been repeated so I can try to pick them up. So, sometimes, I closed my eyes and tried to listen to the sounds, more or less the sequence.

Tae: When?

Robert: Only in Yan's skit.

Tae: Why did you do that?

Robert: To see if I could identify the sounds without the visual aids.

Dale: And?

Robert: Yes (I could), because I could recall more or less where we were, and I was concentrating on distinguishing particular words because words do flow together in my ears. So, I just close my eyes just to try to pick out words.

Here, Robert shares with others his strategy of closing his eyes to shut out the visuals and to concentrate on the sounds. This was actually followed up by Dale in Session 8, in which he reported trying out Robert's strategy to overcome his problems:

Extract 4-8

Dale: Well, it was fast, but as Sharon said, the narration made it much simple for you. I closed my eyes to try and pick up the bits and pieces. And I could pick up most of it. Towards the end.

Tae : Was that useful?

Dale: Yes. Actually next time I would try it out at the beginning, cause it's more challenging. You wouldn't have the visual clues.

Robert: That's why I do it the second time round. I'm still trying to pick up the words. See if I can identify a few words.

As we see above, at this stage, learners not only shared their problems and strategies but also started imitating each other's strategies as models for overcoming their shared problems. In other words, in this case, Robert, by sharing his strategy of closing his eyes, incidentally demonstrated a model for Dale to perform in trying to overcome the common problem of being distracted by the visuals. This may be seen as a case of *scaffolding*, 'a process of supportive dialogue which directs the attention of the learner to key features of the environment, and which prompts them through successive steps of a problem' (Wood et al. 1976). We can observe Dale's growing awareness towards his own comprehension processes on the basis of this initial scaffolding in extracts such as the one from Session 9 below:

Extract 4-9

Dale: There are always new words introduced in the video. That could probably throw you a little bit. You might get stuck on the new word rather than try

to catch the whole thing. Cause I tend not to do what Robert does. Robert breaks it down and concentrates on the bits he can, and sort of pieces it together whereas I try to do it as I go along, kind of try to know the whole thing all at once. Try to understand it all together.

Robert: Well, initially, I'm watching the whole thing. I might understand or follow what the scenes are all about, but I can't necessarily distinguish the words. The second time round, I illuminate and concentrate on the words I understand, and that helps me understand the words I don't. And I can concentrate on picking up these when I watch the next time.

As we see above, Dale is now aware that Robert focuses on the familiar words and makes sense of the whole meaning through inferencing but that Dale himself tries to focus on everything at once. I shall return to this issue of collective scaffolding in Chapter 8.

4.5.3 Explaining the changes

When we consider what may have caused changes described above, there appear to be four possible factors: (1) learners' getting used to the medium as a learning tool, (2) development of learners' comprehension ability, (3) development of emotional attachment to the materials, and (4) effect of the group interaction.

The first factor, learners' getting used to the medium as a learning tool, was brought up by the learners in the individual interviews carried out at the end of the eleven sessions (see 4.6 for a more thorough discussion). In response to the question, 'Do you notice any change in relation to learning with these materials since the beginning of the past eleven sessions?', participants responded with the following remarks: 'I got adjusted to the video;' 'I am more aware of the programmes;' 'It feels more normal to talk back to TV:' 'It made me more aware of the programmes;' 'It highlighted the fact that we need to make use of all the materials to make the full benefit.' These all indicate the learners somehow got used to learning with the medium. In particular, Dale explained that he had gone through a change of focus a few weeks after starting:

Extract 4-10

Dale : Initially, the video was a new introduction to us. It was a new format. It was all very new. Visually, we found it quite distracting at first because we hadn't been using the video before. A video tape was very alien. And I

think after we got over that initial shock of seeing the video, of using the visual format, we actually started to focus on the language. So, I think that was when the change occurred. [Final interview]

Dale went on to explain what was happening when that change occurred:

Extract 4-11

Dale: When that change occurred, I found myself not so much focussed upon the acting whereas initially, I was looking at acting as I would with a TV programme. I actually started looking at the acting to give me visual clues as to the language. So, I think it's where the change occurred. So, rather than just watching it, I was looking at it, whereas before, I was just watching it like a comedy show on TV. And assessing the acting ability of the people, the scenery, the situation, whatever. But after a couple of lessons in the video, I actually started to use the visual clues to prompt me on the language front. And I think that's when the focus began to change, that the poor acting wasn't important. [Final interview]

These learners were obviously used to watching television itself. But we can see, from the above extracts, that because these learners had never before used this type of drama-based SITV material as a learning tool, they were initially watching the programmes as if watching ordinary TV programmes: they had a 'critic's attitude', evaluating how well or poorly the programmes were made.

In addition, the learners were also distracted by the multitude of information conveyed by this medium such as the visuals and the sound effects and could not focus on learning with it. But as they got over the 'initial shock' and got used to this medium, they started to focus on the teaching / learning purpose of the materials. And as they became used to the format of the programmes, they knew what to expect from each programme and could concentrate on the various components, using them as clues in comprehending the text or learning with the materials. Dale claimed in the final interview that such a change enabled him to obtain more benefits from the materials:

Extract 4-12

Tae: Did you start benefiting more when that change occurred?

Dale: Yes. Initially, I was just skimming the surface. I wasn't taking the full benefit of the videos. But once the focus changed to the language, and the visual clues were just something else, then you start getting deeper, and

trying to understand why the languages are used the way they are used. There was a definite change in my focus and the benefit I was receiving from the tapes. It was becoming more important.

The second factor which may explain the evolution of the topics in the group interviews is the increased ability on the part of the learners to comprehend what is presented via SITV materials. Sally explains in the final interviews that at first, because she had never had opportunities to be exposed to naturalistic speech before, she found it difficult to tune in to the speech sounds but as she got used to the medium she got better at tuning in and picking out the sounds of the Japanese language:

Extract 4-13

Sally: I think half-way through, maybe that's when the process starts feeling easier. Maybe that's when I started picking out words. I was adjusting to the videos. By the time we got to the eighth or ninth lesson, I was really starting to really enjoy them. The longer it goes, it gets better. So, if we had another twelve, that would be wonderful.

Tae: So, if you had to stop after three or four lessons, it wouldn't have worked.

Sally: I don't think so. I don't think so. In the first few lessons, I thought, oh, this is so good, but because in the first few lessons, I found it so difficult. If you'd given up after a few lessons, it's not enough. It seems to me the twelve had gone quickly. But when it's actually got to the twelve, I thought, Oh, yes, I know exactly what they're saying now. They're not speaking too fast or. I needed the twelve. I think the longer you go, the obviously the better.

Tae: So, it's important to continue.

Sally: Yes, definitely. You got to complete the course in order to benefit from it.

Becoming better able to tune into the language as well as regard the series as a learning tool, learners became better able to focus on learning with the series than when they started initially.

The third factor is the development of emotional attachment towards the series. Take the case of 'humour', for example. The series contains an abundance of humorous skits. See how Sharon reports in Session 10 the change in her perception of Japanese humour:

Extract 4-14

Sharon: And, the skits are really daft, often, you know, they are stupid, but that I realize it actually works, because I think the humour keeps you watching in a sense. You knew Kato-san's gonna go, 'Oh, it's eight, Oh my God! I should've been up earlier!', I knew that was coming. And with the puppet, you know. But actually, I really appreciated that! I remember when I first watched it, we all thought this was really patronizing and stupid. But now I think, no, no, actually, it says something about Japanese humour. I got used to it. You can get into it after a while. It's really funny.

On the other hand, Sally reported in the final interview that she developed an attachment to the actors and the teacher as she saw the same people every time:

Extract 4-15

Sally: I like having the same actors as well. You get used to them. The girl, the *Mine* (name of an actor). You see them everyday. You tend to adjust to their voices and the way they speak. *Mine*, sometimes I find it difficult.Also, I always liked the teacher. She got better as well. It didn't feel patronizing at all. I liked having the teacher on video. Because if you just have scenes all the time, I think you'd actually miss something. Whereas if you see the teacher and the board, that works very well.

As we see above, as learners became more attached to the series, their attitude towards the series changed from negative to positive. This was observed in the comments learners made for the topics in the group interviews as we saw in 4.2: 'Humour', for example, was regarded as 'silly' at the beginning but later was appreciated. The 'repeating of skits' was regarded as off-putting and unnecessary at first, but later became beneficial. All three of the factors so far discussed indicate the importance of continuing with SITV series for a certain period of time in order that learners can benefit fully from learning with this type of material.

The fourth factor which may account for the evolution of topics is the effect of the group interaction which took place in the group interviews. As we have seen, the learners' focus changed from the materials to their own learning process, suggesting a higher awareness of this process. The group interview format may have contributed in this awareness-raising in two ways. First, higher awareness was achieved through the process of reflecting and verbalizing reactions during the interviews. This awareness-raising effect of verbalization is also observed with other methods such as verbal report and stimulated recall but

becomes particularly salient in methods which involve on-going data collection such as diary and interviews as used in this study. Secondly, we have seen cases in which the group interaction worked as collective scaffolding through which the areas of learners' awareness were expanded. We have seen examples in which the participants in the study were sensitized to areas they had not been aware of through listening to another member's remarks. The newly sensitized topic was then pursued in the following interview. At other times, the strategy brought up by one learner was imitated by another who in turn brought up the topic in the following session. In this way, the generation of topics by one learner brought about higher awareness on the part of the others. Although this awareness-raising was a side-effect of the group interview format, that is, it was not the aim of this format, the results indicate that the group discussion format can be an effective means of awareness-raising, and may be recommended in learning with this type of material. I will discuss this issue further in Chapter 8.

4.6 The final interviews at the end of eleven sessions

To gain a clearer understanding of the learners' perceptions of what went on during the eleven sessions as a whole, I now turn to the results of the individual interviews carried out at the end of the eleven sessions. The questions asked were as follows:

- (1) How do you feel about the experience of the past twelve weeks?
- (2) Do you think you benefitted at all from this experience? If so, in what ways?
- (3) What aspect(s) of Japanese language do you think you have developed most?
- (4) Do you notice any change in relation to learning with these materials since the beginning of the past eleven sessions?
- (5) What did you do in relation to the videos?

Responses to questions (1), (2) and (3) provide answers to how SITV materials contribute to learning an L2 and will be discussed together in 4.6.1. The responses to question (4) have already been discussed in section 4.5 and will not be discussed here. Responses to question (5) reveal methods learners developed for studying with the SITV series and will be discussed in 4.6.2. Table 4.6 shows a summary of the learners' responses to all the questions.

Table 4.6 Summary of the individual interview after 11 sessions

	Sally	Jane	Dale	Robert	Sharon	Kris
Overall feeling	- I feel really happy to have done it. - It gave me a lot of inspiration to carry on.	- It's been very helpful. - It's a good teaching medium.	- It's been very valuable. - It kept me motivated.	- I'm really pleased. It gave me a better insight. - I found it interesting and challenging.	- It was valuable.	- It was impressive. - I enjoyed it.
How do you think you benefitted from the videos?	- It's not just the language. You start to understand the way of life. - It's helped me pick up on the pronunciation and the way the language is structured. - It gives me the confidence to speak. - Definitely better understanding of the language.	- You get a more contextual approach. - You get to see Japan, people of Japan. - You can remember the words. - We can hear different voices and different ways of pronouncing things. - You can pick up some conversational expressions not in the textbook. - Get used to Japanese spoken at normal speed. - Pronunciation.	- The listening skills improved a lot. - Noticing slight changes in the way things were said as to the ways we'd been taught.	- Getting a better understanding of how the language is put together. - Body language is a terribly important part. - How the words are actually pronounced. - It gives me a context.	- I benefit from exposure. - Pronunciation - The way they spoke to speed. - Overall comprehension - Speaking (by hearing people speaking)	- Listening to different accents of Japanese. - Grammar (more natural forms) - Pronunciation.
Has there been any changes since you first started?	- I feel happy with myself and more confident. - I got adjusted to the video. - I started understanding more and more.	- I am more aware of the programmes. - It feels more normal to talk back to TV.	- I found a change in focus. Before I was just watching it like a comedy show. But I started to use the visual clues to prompt me on the language front. - It highlighted the fact that we need to make use of all the materials to make the full benefit.	- It made me appreciate the Japanese language more.	- It made me more aware of the programmes. - I think I reassessed the Japanese sense of humour.	- No.
What did you do in relation to the videos?	- I'd read the notes before and afterwards.	- I find it helpful to read the notes before and after. I don't take notes because you miss things.	- I occasionally read notes. - Took lots of notes.	- I read the notes beforehand and see if the words are pronounced in the way I'd thought would be.	- Just watched.	- Just watch.
Other comments	- It is nice being in a relaxed environment - It is nice being in a small group rather than in a class.	- I thought the group format was good. I would've like to have had the opportunity to ask questions.	- The fact of watching the video with other people, and being questioned about it afterwards adds an extra dimension to it.	- I felt I was learning more doing this (than in class) although this wasn't a formal learning.	- I liked the topic-based textbook.	

4.6.1 How learners benefitted from SITV materials / SITV learning in learning Japanese

Learners' responses to the question, 'How do you feel about this experience of the past eleven weeks?' were all positive. Characteristically, learners made reference to affective states in their responses. Learners perceived the experience as 'happy', 'helpful' 'challenging' 'exciting', 'valuable', 'enjoyable', 'interesting', 'motivating' and 'inspirational'. See how Sally regards the SITV series enhanced her motivation to learn and to use Japanese:

Extract 4-16

Sally: I am really pleased that I made the effort, to carry on with it. It definitely made me feel that I want to carry on. (In what ways?) ... You can read about a place or people in a book. But until you see the people or place, it is different. I previously never thought about the sense of humour. I think the more you see, the more you want to know about the people, the country and the language. I enjoyed it very much. I always felt, after seeing one of the videos, I really felt happy about it. It does inspire you to do more.

In the extract above, Sally reports that actually seeing things in the video gave her a clearer image of the target country and the language and gave her the inspiration and motivation to carry on studying. This effect that the visual element of SITV materials can have on motivation was also observed in my preliminary studies in Japan and is one that should not be overlooked.

As the responses to questions (2) and (3) overlapped, I report them together here as representing how learners perceive SITV materials to be helpful or beneficial in learning Japanese. Through topic analysis of the responses to questions (2) and (3), I identified four areas in which learners felt they benefited from SITV materials: linguistic, cultural, cognitive, and affective. Table 4.7 shows the topics and examples of the actual responses.

Table 4.7 The areas in which SITV materials were beneficial for learning Japanese	
I Linguistic	
Pronunciation	'It's helped me pick up on the pronunciation and the way the language is structured.' 'Noticing slight changes in the way things were said as to the ways we'd been taught.' 'Listening to different accents of Japanese.'
	'We can hear different voices and different ways of pronouncing things.'
Speed	'Get used to Japanese spoken at normal speed.'
Grammar	'Getting a better understanding of how the language is put together.'
Conversational expressions	'You can pick up some conversational expressions not in the textbook.'
Nonverbal behaviour	'Body language is a terribly important part.'
Contextual use	'You get a more contextual approach.'
Listening skill	'The listening skills improved a lot.'
II Cultural	
	'It's not just the language. You start to understand the way of life.' 'You get to see Japan, people of Japan.'
III Cognitive	
Memory	'You can remember the words.'
IV Affective	
Confidence	'It gives me the confidence to speak.'
Relaxed atmosphere	'It's nice being in a relaxed environment.'

In the linguistic area, learners felt SITV materials were particularly beneficial for learning pronunciation, speed, conversational expressions, structure, nonverbal behavior, contextual use, and for improving listening skills. In particular, benefits for learning phonetic and prosodic features of the L2 were perceived as noteworthy. Before embarking on this study, the only oral Japanese input these learners had was the speech of their class teacher and their classmates. Thus, to hear Japanese spoken by various Japanese people of different sex, age and accents was a new experience. It was also their first time to be exposed to Japanese spoken at normal speed, and the difference found in sounds to their given 'classroom Japanese' was a big but important discovery. Because I did not

employ tests, we cannot triangulate the above results with other more objective measures. But these responses, being learners' subjective perceptions, enable us to infer albeit indirectly the areas of linguistic and / or pragmatic competence which might be fostered by SITV materials. Whether this is in fact the case ought to be investigated further in future research.

The second perceived benefit was in learning the target culture. SITV materials as 'audio-motion-visual media' (see 2.2) can evidently convey cultural information more vividly than audio only or written media. However, the learners are not necessarily referring to explicit learning of culture. To these learners who had never been to Japan, merely seeing places, things, events, and people in Japan, such as temples, festival scenes, food, high streets, etc. provides new images, giving them a perspective on why they are learning Japanese. In this way, this benefit also serves as source for motivation for continuing the learning.

In the cognitive area, learners reported that the materials were helpful as aids for remembering new vocabulary and grammar. The visual elements of SITV materials provide additional information about the language which can be used by learners to aid storage in their long-term memory. In particular, they provide visual 'contextualisation' (Corder, 1960) of a certain word or phrase.

Finally, in the affective area, learners reported the materials helped them develop their confidence for using Japanese. Learners reported that at the beginning, they did not have the confidence to use Japanese in real situations (such as at a Japanese restaurant) because they scarcely had any opportunity to observe Japanese being used in real situations. But having completed the eleven sessions, they now reported having a clearer sense of the situations in which certain phrases can be used, and the manner in which these phrases ought to be delivered.

In addition, some learners pointed out that this mode of learning is better than learning in a class since it enables them to learn in a relaxed atmosphere in a small group:

Extract 4-17

Sally : It's nice being in a relaxed environment, which is great. And also, it's nice being in a small group rather than in class. It's been great for me. Certainly encouraged me to carry on with it.

Robert also points out that he felt he was somehow learning better in this format and highlights the value of combining this format with a classroom format:

Extract 4-18

Robert: Yes. When we are at the school, the chairs are harder. It was slightly more formal. But then Ryoko [the class teacher] had a programme she had to get through. Here, it's different. We're watching the video, it's not just formal. But somehow, I felt I was learning more doing this, although this wasn't formal teaching. I just felt that the little bit I was learning, I was learning more. I'm sure that the combined effect of the formal structure and these informal ones must have helped the others with their learning.

There are assumed to be various differences between home learning and classroom learning. What these learners appreciate in home learning is the informality of being in a small group and the relaxed atmosphere coming from learning at home. Considering the negative effect of affective factors such as classroom anxiety and inhibition highlighted in the SLA literature (see for example, Bailey, 1983; Guiora et. al, 1980, and more recently, Erhman, 1996), being able to learn in a relaxed atmosphere is a noteworthy advantage of home learning which should not be dismissed. This benefit of home learning was also reported in my preliminary study with Japanese students (Umino, 1999, see also Chapter 2).

In addition to the benefits of SITV materials / SITV learning, the learners point out the effect of the group-learning format of the sessions. Dale reported that learning in a group rather than on his own helped him to maintain his motivation. The group interview session afterwards was also beneficial since it deepened his understanding of the programmes:

Extract 4-19

Dale: It's been very valuable to me. I know that as a group, it's been really really useful. This kept us interested and motivated. It kept us testing ourselves.

Tae: The video or the situation?

Dale: The video. But I think to a greater extent, the situation.

.....

Dale: It was a choice I made and I enjoyed it. And I look forward to it. It's good, something new, what's this week, you know? I think if it would've been a video at home, the motivation wouldn't have been quite as strong. It was the fact of watching the video with other people, and being questioned about it afterwards adds an extra dimension to it, become even more valuable. It's probably about fifty-fifty; fifty from the video and fifty from the situation.

Jane also comments she liked the group format although she would have liked to have had more opportunities to resolve the questions she developed while viewing. The group-learning format had not been planned intentionally for the enhancement of learning but was rather a side-effect of this form of interview. However, the learners' responses imply that a group format may be effective in SITV learning. I will discuss this further in 4.8 below.

4.6.2 Method of studying with SITV materials

In response to the question, 'What did you do in relation to the videos?', the reported activities were rather simple. Two learners said they simply watched the series. The other four reported reading the textbook before and / or after watching the programmes. One reported constantly taking notes. Only Robert reported developing a more creative use of the textbook in noting phonetic and prosodic features more clearly:

Extract 4-20

Robert: I read them (textbook sections) beforehand, and watch the video. If I wanted to check, I can very quickly refer to the notes. I could see how it fits together. If I'd thought the word was pronounced in a certain way and I hear it differently, fine that would be one learning lesson. I thought this was pronounced this way. Then, how was the body language? How was the face? Where did we have that close-ups? Did it lift at the end? What are we trying to emulate? Is it just a comment? Is it 'I'm surprised' or 'Oh, I'm sad'? That all comes through. The words are all the same. But the inflections change. So, I look at the text to see it might be, 'This is sad' and when I listen to it, and I can remember, and quickly refer to the text and 'Oh, it went down a bit.' That's why the notes are useful to me. Also go back again and I would remember how it was said, it sits in my memory, and then I go and look at the notes. And then, just learn from there. So, I think one should read the notes beforehand and read them again afterwards.

Here, Robert reported a creative use of the textbook for practicing pronunciation: he predicted the pronunciation of certain words in the textbook before viewing the video, and viewed the video to check if his predictions were correct. It was later

found that this type of use of the textbook was further elaborated in Phase 2, as we will see in Chapter 6.

4.7 Results from additional questionnaire

In addition to the group interviews, I had learners fill out an open-ended questionnaire (see Appendix 3) to elicit which specific sections of the materials learners found useful or not useful. Tables 4.8 and 4.9 summarize the results respectively.

In response to the question, ‘Which part of the programme did you find most useful, and why?’, learners tended to cite the section in the programme and not the reason. Table 4.8 shows the frequency of the sections described as being most useful. The most popular section was the ‘Explanation’ section, consisting of a skit from which certain expressions are picked out, displayed and pronounced, and explained by the presenter. In short, it is a combination of explicit teaching of form and implicit assimilation in context. The second and third most useful were short and long (Yan’s) skits which illustrate examples of the use of target expressions. This is no surprise since skits are the main source of exposure to target language.

Table 4.8 Parts in the programme which were most useful

Explanation	35
Skits	18
Yan’s skit	10
Review of previous lesson	10
Hiragana section	5
Exercises	3
Practice (of pronunciation)	3
Pronunciation	3
Use of verbs	2

Table 4.9 Characteristics of parts in the programme which were least useful

Parts which are;	
not explained enough	7
too slow	7
too difficult	6
too long	4
out of context (disconnected to the rest)	4
not explained clearly enough	3
too short	3
repetitive	3
silly	2
lacking in impact	1
superfluous	1
not reinforcing	1
other	
there are not enough variations	1
there was no chance to practice at home	2
it should have verbs to support the exercise	1

Turning now to the least useful, the responses indicated specific sections in the programme along with reasons for being least useful. Table 4.9 summarizes

the reasons and the frequency with which they were reported. The responses indicate that learners did not benefit from the treatment of items which were not thoroughly explained, parts which were too slow or easy, or parts which were too difficult with too much information. Skits which were too long were not appreciated as learners lost concentration. The insertion of scenes which did not connect to the rest of the programme was also unpopular. The results presented here match the findings of the group interviews and confirm the learners' perceptions of which aspects of SITV materials are good or bad.

4.8 Discussion and conclusion

Let us now return to our research questions and discuss the above findings in relation to these questions.

What characteristics of SITV materials do learners perceive to be salient?

The analysis of the group interviews above indicates that the learners are aware of features related to production and content of the materials when viewing the SITV series. Regarding production features, learners were aware of and were affected by various features and characteristics of the materials themselves. The perception of such features was also observed to change over time, generally from negative to positive, as learners became accustomed to the programmes and developed an attachment to them.

Elements frequently discussed in the group interviews were 'presenter' 'repeating of skit', and 'the explanation section'. As a materials designer of the series, I was surprised at the extent to which the learners were affected by the people who appeared in the series. Initially, learners were very bothered by the presenter (the 'teacher-figure') who appeared to be too 'rigid' or 'patronizing'. Later they were happy that she appeared to become more friendly. They favoured the actors who appeared friendly from the beginning. This shows these learners' preference that the people appearing in this kind of material should be friendly rather than 'authoritarian' or 'teacher-like'. Learners also seemed to have benefitted from having the same set of people in the series both in terms of learning and affect. This indicates the benefits of having the same set of people over the series. Music was another element which affected the students' feeling towards the materials. Although these elements do not have direct relevance to the teaching content itself, they have a large influence on the affective aspect of

learning, that is, whether or not students enjoy learning with the series and consequently their motivation to carry on.

Learners also frequently discussed the effectiveness of repeating the long skit (Yan's story) at the end of each programme. From the materials designers' point of view, the repeating of the long skit at the end was seen as an opportunity for learners to absorb or reinforce the expressions which were presented. But learners at the initial stage viewed the long skit as if watching a soap opera, rather than a review of the target expressions; therefore, seeing the same episode once again was found to be tiresome. In the later stages, when they began focussing on learning, they started to appreciate the repetition, saying it helped reinforce the lesson. Learners also made specific suggestions regarding how explanation sections in the programmes should be presented.

Learners paid attention to the humour which was embedded throughout the series, initially disparaging it but later appreciating it. They also showed concern about whether the scenes in the mini skits and the drama had impact, were superfluous, visually distracting, had reality, or had continuity with one another. As a whole, learners liked scenes with impact and reality, and disliked scenes which were too obviously unreal even if they were for educational purposes. They wanted to see how language is used in real situations. They also liked to have opportunities to somehow take part in the programme by responding with a correct answer.

The above findings suggest special considerations necessary for future production of educational materials. The findings also indicate that the quality of production for educational materials should not be overlooked. When learners view this kind of materials, they may, at least initially, see it as they see ordinary programmes on television or video and are highly aware of the music, the acting ability of the actors and many other things which are important in television production. Learners may not tolerate poor-quality production just because it is educational material.

Learners showed as great an interest in the cultural content and scenery as in the linguistic content. Particularly to learners like these who had never been to Japan, actually seeing examples of Japanese culture and various scenes of Japan visually had a strong impact, and aroused their interest in continuing. This function is a characteristic of the 'audio-motion-visual media' which cannot be provided by other means such as textbook, audio tape and teacher.

Finally, the questionnaire results indicate what sections in the programmes learners found useful or not useful. It was found that learners benefit from exposure to the naturalistic speech they get from the skits, confirming the role of

SITV materials as a source of L2 input in the foreign language context. It was also found, however, that learners benefit even more greatly from the 'explanation section', indicating the importance of combining explicit teaching of form and implicit learning through exposure.

How do learners use SITV materials? / Are there any developmental changes?

As the group interview sessions proceeded, learners started to talk more about their learning and comprehension processes rather than about the materials. Learners described their learning behaviours in attempting to learn with SITV materials. In many instances, learners reported 'noticing' specific phonetic and / or prosodic features of Japanese which they had not noticed before. They also reported noticing grammatical and lexical items which they had not previously learned, or uses of previously learned items different to those which were already familiar. They reported uses of comprehension strategies (see Chapter 5 for definition and discussion) such as breaking down into chunks, inferencing and translating, and metacognitive strategies such as focussing, avoiding, and identifying problems. Learners also reported the affect involved in SITV learning, making references to how this mode of learning works better for enhancing motivation, confidence and lowering pressure, compared to classroom learning.

Another important finding of the study was the dynamic change which learners experienced during the eleven sessions. This was observed in the evolution of topics emerging in the group interviews as well as the learners' accounts in the final interviews. Initially, the learners focussed on the materials features and it was only after a while that they shifted to a focus on content and / or learning. Not having had any previous experience of learning with 'audio-motion-visual media', the learners were not sure how to handle the materials initially. They regarded them as entertainment rather than a learning tool. They had a 'critic's attitude' and were concerned with and / or distracted by various production features. They were bewildered with the amount and types of information conveyed by the materials. Gradually, learners acquired a 'learners' attitude', in which they regarded the series as a learning medium, attempting to use the visuals for learning and comprehension rather than for criticizing. This also seems to relate to getting accustomed to the medium itself as well as to hearing naturalistic speech since they had never had such opportunities previously. To these learners who had never been to Japan and had very limited exposure to Japanese spoken by Japanese people, this material had a great impact and served as an important opportunity for such exposure. This parallels the role

of SITV materials for learning English in Japan as reported in Chapter 2. Having got over the initial shock of fast speech, learners' ears gradually became accustomed to the naturalistic speed and could tune in after several weeks. Furthermore, the learners gradually developed an attachment to the characters in the series and perceived the material as a whole more positively.

The above findings have important implications for teaching with materials conveyed through 'audio-motion-visual media'. Teachers and materials designers should be aware that learners who are not experienced in using such materials will need to be reminded that these are not simply entertainment and that they will need to select and make active use of the multitude of audio and visual information conveyed through the medium in order to gain full benefit from the materials. It is important also to be aware that initially learners may find it difficult to adjust their ears to the sudden presentation of naturalistic speech and that it may take a while before such an adjustment can be made. This also indicates the importance of using this type of materials regularly and continuously for an extensive period of time.

Finally, the evolution of types of topics discussed in the group interviews also indicated that the learners became increasingly aware of their learning and comprehension processes as the interview sessions proceeded. In considering this, the role of the group interaction cannot be dismissed. Through reflecting on the lesson and verbalizing such reflections in a group, the learners developed a higher awareness of their own learning process. Furthermore, the group interaction worked as collective scaffolding through which the areas of learners' awareness was expanded. By listening to other member's reflections on their learning processes, other members were sensitized to these areas and in turn brought up these issues in the succeeding interviews. At other times, the strategy brought up by one learner was imitated by another in the proceeding session. In this way, the generation of topics by one learner brought about higher awareness on the part of the others. Although this awareness-raising was a side-effect of the group interview, that is, it was not the aim of this format, the results indicate that group discussion can be an effective means of awareness-raising, and may be recommended in learning with this type of materials. I shall discuss this issue further in Chapter 8.

At the end of the eleven sessions and the final interviews, the learners indicated that they were willing to continue with the sessions as they felt they had benefitted greatly from this experience. After a five-week break, the investigation therefore continued with eight more sessions. In the second phase, I wanted to focus more on the learners' learning and comprehension processes in which they

themselves seemed to be interested. In particular, learners were increasingly discussing the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies towards the end of Phase 1. In Chapter 6, I discuss Phase 2 findings in relation to the learner strategies employed. However, before this discussion, it is necessary to consider relevant previous research done in this area; this I shall do in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

REVISITING THEORY: PREVIOUS WORK ON LEARNER STRATEGIES

5.1 Introduction

As indicated previously in Chapters 3 and 4, in Phase 1 of the study, I focussed on understanding the characteristics of SITV materials which are found to be salient by learners, and the ways in which learners use SITV materials. Considering these issues from a developmental perspective, I found that the learners' focus, as revealed in the interviews, shifted from materials-oriented features to learning-oriented features, showing a development in their awareness of the process of their own learning. Learners started to talk about the strategies they were using, and it became apparent that in order to understand the process whereby learners made use of the SITV materials, it would be necessary to investigate learners' use of such strategies in more detail. In Phase 2 of the study, therefore, I decided to focus more specifically on the strategies learners were using while engaging in the lessons presented via the SITV materials.

Before presenting the results of Phase 2 of the study, however, it is necessary to consider previous relevant research done in this area. Thus, in this chapter, I review previous work on L2 learner strategies (see below for definition), as a bridge between Phase 1 where learners began increasingly to describe their learning experience in terms of learning and comprehension processes, and Phase 2 (reported in the next chapter), which was deliberately designed to investigate this area of emerging importance further.

The existing research on strategies is categorised by McDonough (1995) according to two dimensions, being grouped into (1) *descriptive* studies, which aim to describe what types of strategies there are, and (2) *interventionist* studies, which aim to discover the effects of teaching such strategies to learners. Adding a third dimension of describing the *application* of strategies, that is, how individuals use learner strategies for different tasks or under different circumstances, the body of strategy research may be divided into the following three areas:

- (1) Describing what types of strategies learners use for L2 learning
- (2) Strategy application: how learners use these types of strategies according to different tasks / differences between successful and unsuccessful learners / changes in strategy use over time, etc.

(3) Strategy training: whether or how strategies can be taught and the effect of such training

As the aim of the present research is to discover the types of strategies used by learners in learning with SITV materials (area 1 above) and how they are used by each learner (area 2) and does not concern the teaching of such strategies (area 3), I will limit my review to areas (1) and (2) above and review the existing relevant work accordingly (in 5.3 and 5.4). Strategy training will not be discussed as it is outside the focus of the study although implications will be discussed in Chapter 8. In this chapter, I first consider the characteristics of learner strategies by reviewing various definitions (5.2). Then, I review the major taxonomies of strategies presented in previous work (5.3) which might be relevant for pursuing Phase 2 of the study. Finally, I review the studies on strategy applications for transactional listening to and viewing L2 materials (5.4). Reviewing these works will provide a basic understanding of strategies and strategy taxonomies, and insights into carrying out further research on strategy applications.

5.2 Concepts and definitions of strategy

5.2.1 Concepts of learner strategies

Before examining the definitions of learner strategies, let us consider the concept of learner strategy and the scope of the types of strategies considered in this chapter. 'Strategies' in the literature on L2 learning have been described in various areas, ranging from 'learning a L2, learning to learn a language, performing in and using the language, communicating in the language, compensating for lack of knowledge or breakdown of communication, the exercise of language in different macro-skill areas such as reading, writing, talking, and listening, to coping with difficult elements of language instruction such as taking tests' (McDonough, 1995: 2). This diversity has motivated the increasing use of the umbrella term '*learner strategies*' (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Cohen, 1998) rather than '*learning strategies*'. 'Learning strategy' has also been used as a cover term for strategies of various types (for example in Oxford, 1990) but this can lead to confusion due to the variety of meanings with which the term is used by different authors. In this thesis, the term 'learner strategy' will generally be used, being conceived as the steps or actions consciously selected by learners either to improve the learning of a L2, or the performance of language-learning-related tasks, or both.

Of the various types of strategies subsumed under learner strategies, the major focus here will be strategies relevant for learning the L2 and / or for performing language-learning-related tasks in the L2, particularly in dealing with listening / viewing materials. The question of whether a particular strategy is being applied to 'learning' or to 'using' a language will not be a major issue here even though some researchers have attempted to make such a distinction (as in Tarone's (1977) 'learning' and 'production' strategies). As Ellis (1996) points out, it is not always possible to make such a distinction clearly and there may be instances in which the use of a strategy for using the language in fact results in learning the language and vice versa. For example, a learner may use the 'repeating' strategy in order to perform a speaking task smoothly which in fact results in storing a linguistic item to memory. Making such a distinction therefore, does not appear to be very productive and many researchers simply do not make this distinction (for example, O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990).

Furthermore, our review here will not include 'communication strategies' or strategies used in interactional communication, since SITV learning does not involve direct interaction with native speakers. Of course, there may be cases in which learners report trying out using pieces of language they picked up through the materials in outside authentic communicational situations, but such use is not the central focus of the study. Studies on strategies for interactional communication are associated with a tradition different to that of strategies for learning although they are related. In the former, the concept of 'strategy' has usually been perceived as functioning to compensate for the deficits of learner's L2 competence in interactional communication, although more recently there have been attempts to encapsulate both areas as part of more general strategic competence (for example, Little 1996; Bialystok and Kellerman, 1987; Bachman and Palmer, 1996). In the 'learning strategy' tradition, which has been largely influenced by strategy research in the general educational field, the focus has not been on a compensatory function for strategies (as will be reviewed below). Thus, the definitions of strategies considered here are those associated with the 'learning strategy' tradition.

5.2.2 Definitions of strategies

As briefly mentioned above, strategy research in the general educational field since the beginning of the twentieth century (Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986) has had great influence on identifying and understanding strategies specific to

language learning problems (see, for example O'Malley, Russo and Chamot, 1983). But as Bialystok (1983:100) points out, there has been 'little consensus in the literature concerning either the definition or the identification of language learning strategies'. Some other researchers also point out the difficulty of defining the concept in an agreed fashion (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978; Bialystok, 1983; Ellis, 1994). Table 5.1 shows the definitions of strategies by major researchers in the field. As can be seen learner strategies have been described in different ways by different researchers or even by the same researcher at different times. Let us understand the major characteristics of what 'strategies' are by examining these definitions.

First, the concept of strategy has been described on different levels of generality and abstraction. Stern describes a strategy as 'a general approach' to learning as distinguished from the more specific 'technique,' which is an observable form of language learning behaviour. Seliger (1984:4), on the other hand, defines 'strategies' as 'basic abstract categories of processing by which information perceived in the outside world is organized and categorized into cognitive structures as part of a conceptual network' and distinguishes them from 'tactics' which are 'variable and idiosyncratic learning activities, which learners use to organize a learning situation, respond to the learning environment, or cope with input and output demands' (ibid.). Similarly, Schmeck (1988) uses 'strategy' to refer to 'general approach' and 'tactic' to refer to 'specific action or step' and observes that this is consistent with military usage that 'tactics are the observable activities that imply that certain strategies are in use' (Schmeck, 1988:171). Although these researchers use different terminologies, we can understand from distinctions such as these that there are at least three levels of generality encompassed by the term strategy:

- (1) Basic approach: the principle around which specific learning behaviours are organised (e.g. active task approach)
- (2) Specific action as generalised category (e.g. 'repetition')
- (2) Specific action as idiosyncratic manifestation (e.g. 'listen to an audio tape in a car and repeat the expressions', 'memorise words to a song and sing repeatedly to memorize words and sentence patterns')

Rubin's, O'Malley's and Oxford's definitions in Table 5.1 all seem to define strategy as specific action, either as generalised category or idiosyncratic manifestation, though they do not make such a distinction explicitly. Cohen (1998) suggests calling all three processes 'strategy', but in this thesis, I define

strategy as a specific action, while being aware of the fact that it has also been used to refer to 'basic approach to learning'.

Secondly, strategies are described both as observable 'behaviours' and as unobservable 'thought' or mental processes. Oxford (1989; 1991; 1993) appears to perceive them as essentially behavioural whereas others seem to see them as both. Ellis (1994:531) sees this ambiguity as problematic. This ambiguity may be solved by considering strategies as essentially mental activities, with some manifested overtly and others covertly, as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) point out. An observable strategy such as 'taking notes', therefore, should equally be captured at the mental level, taking account of the mental processes taking place concurrently as the concrete action takes place.

Table 5.1 Definitions of learning strategies / learner strategies
[1] Stern's definition 'In our view strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour more or less consciously employed by the learner.' (Stern, 1983:405)
[2] Seliger's definition 'strategies are abstract categories of processing by which information perceived in the outside world is organized and categorized into cognitive structures as part of a conceptual network.' 'Tactics are 'variable and idiosyncratic learning activities, which learners use to organize a learning situation, respond to the learning environment, or cope with input and output demands.' (Seliger, 1984:4).
[3] Rubin's definition [3-1] 'learning strategies' are defined as 'strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly. (Rubin, 1987:23) [3-2] 'learning strategies are the behaviours and thought processes that learners use in the process of learning. They include any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information (after O'Malley et al. 1983; Brown et a. 1983) that is, what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning.' (Rubin, 1987:19)
[4] O'Malley et al's definitions [4-1] 'Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information.' (Chamot, 1987:71) [4-2] 'special thoughts and behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990:1)
[5] Oxford's definitions [5-1] 'Language learning strategies are behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable.' (Oxford, 1989: 235) [5-2] 'steps taken by students to enhance their own learning' (Oxford, 1990:1) [5-3] 'specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students employ- often consciously - to improve their progress in internalizing, storing, retrieving, and using the L2' (Oxford, 1993:17)
[6] McDonough's definitions [6-1] Language learning strategies are those strategies which 'serve as a means for the student to increase his knowledge of the language by some manipulation of the language data presented' (McDonough, 1995:80) [6-2] 'Learning strategies are learners' active participation in the learning process, not simply as a performer, as in audio-lingual methods of teaching, but as a problem-solver and reflective organizer of the knowledge and skills on offer in the language exposure and required for effective language use.' (McDonough (1999:2)
[7] Cohen's definition 'Language learning and language use strategies can be defined as those processes which are consciously selected by learners and may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language.' (Cohen, 1998:5)

Thirdly, the purpose of strategies, in other words, what learners use them for, is typically described as to 'improve', 'enhance', 'facilitate', or 'help' their learning and / or use of an L2. Thus, Rubin (1987:7) characterises strategies as 'problem oriented', in other words, they are seen to occur in response to a certain need.

Fourthly, strategies are seen as 'conscious' or 'deliberate' by Stern (1983),

Chamot (1987), Oxford (1993) and Cohen (1998), while others do not address this issue. Seliger's distinction between strategy and tactic also seems to relate to consciousness, the former being 'subconscious' and the latter being 'conscious,' but others do not make such a clear distinction and use 'strategy' to refer to both conscious and subconscious activities. Bialystok (1990:4) states that the children in her study seemed to behave strategically without being conscious of their strategising (Bialystok 1990:12). Oxford and Leaver (1996) and Sutter (in Oxford et al. 1990) provide examples of strategy instruction in which learners are not conscious of their strategy use. It seems better to assume that strategies are either conscious or subconscious although our focus will be on conscious or at least potentially conscious actions.

5.3 Taxonomies: what kinds of learner strategies have been identified?

On the basis of the above understanding, I now review the major taxonomies of learner strategies for L2 learning developed so far in the previous work. For reasons stated above, I do not consider taxonomies of strategies for communication here.

5.3.1 Early taxonomies

The earliest taxonomies were developed in attempts to understand behaviours of so-called 'good language learners'. Stern (1975), on the basis of Rubin's (1975) empirical work, presented a list of ten strategies good language learners tend to use, defining 'strategy' as a general approach which a learner takes in pursuing the language learning task rather than a specific technique. Aiming to validate Stern's taxonomy, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco (1978) investigated the strategies used by 34 very successful secondary school pupils learning French in Canada by using individual difference questionnaires, embedded figures tests, interview tests, class observation, language proficiency measures, retrospective interviews and case studies. As a result, they identified major approaches (referred to as 'strategies') taken by these learners which are shown in Table 5.2, and more specific techniques used by these learners. Through this work, these researchers succeeded in validating Stern's list of strategies, obtaining at the same time much greater detail of strategy use, and were able to determine to a degree the extent to which these learners' success was associated with their use of strategies. However, the strategy evidence was based on learners' retrospection of their past learning experience and was not collected while they

actively performed a learning task. Also, the validity of the proficiency measures used (an international educational assessment test) has been questioned (McDonough, 1995:86).

Later, Rubin (1981; 1987) and Wenden (1984; 1986) contributed to developing more general categories of strategies. Rubin (1981), through her study of young adult L2 learners, made a distinction between strategies which contribute directly to learning (direct strategies), and those which 'permit' learning but only indirectly contribute to learning (indirect strategies) (see Table 5.3)¹⁰. More recently, Rubin (1987) refers to the former as 'learning strategies', consisting of 'cognitive' and 'metacognitive' strategies, and the latter as consisting of social and communication strategies. (This distinction between direct and indirect strategies is continued in later works by O'Malley and his associates as we will see in 5.3.2)

<p>Table 5.2 Five strategies identified by Naiman et al (1978)</p> <p>Strategy 1) Active learning approach [Stern's no. 1, 2, and 7] : Good language learner (GLL)s actively involve themselves in the language learning task.</p> <p>Strategy 2) Realization of language as a system [Stern's no. 4, 5, 10] GLLs develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system.</p> <p>Strategy 3) Realization of language as a means of communication [Stern's no. 6, 8] : GLLs develop and exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication (i.e. conveying and receiving messages) and interaction (i.e. behaving in a culturally appropriate manner.)</p> <p>Strategy 4) Handling of affective demands [Stern's no.3] : GLLs realize initially or with time that they must cope with affective demands made upon them by language learning and succeed in doing so.</p> <p>Strategy 5) Monitoring of progress [Stern's no.9] : GLLs monitor the language they are acquiring by testing their inferences; by looking for needed adjustments as they learn new material or by asking native informants when they think corrections are needed.</p>

Cognitive strategies are defined as 'steps or operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials'(Rubin, 1987). On the other hand, 'metacognitive strategies' are those which oversee such steps or operations. Wenden (1984; 1986) elaborates the metacognitive category as having the following two dimensions; (1) 'knowledge about cognition, which is relatively stable and storable information that human thinkers have about their own cognitive processes and those of others'; and (2) 'regulation of cognition which encompasses those processes used to regulate and oversee learning, that is, planning, monitoring, and checking outcomes or evaluating others' (Brown et al, 1982:87). Wenden later elaborated

¹⁰ Rubin (1987:26) states that in the process of clarifying meaning, learners may uncover new information which they then store in their language system and in this way communication strategies may lead to learning. But in her view the relationship between the two is not always clear and so the purpose for the use of communication strategies is better defined as communication. Whether or not this is the case is still under debate (Kellerman and Kasper, 1997).

the (2) above into five further categories: planning, evaluating, task analysis, monitoring, and transfer of learning (Wenden, 1998). Wenden's major contribution was to highlight the importance of metacognition in language learning and add this dimension into the taxonomy of strategies, raising at the same time awareness of the link between strategies and self-regulation.

Table 5.3 Taxonomy of cognitive strategies by Rubin (1981)

1. Processes which may contribute directly to learning (direct strategies)
 - Clarification / verification
 - Monitoring
 - Memorization
 - Guessing / inductive inferencing
 - Deductive reasoning
 - Practice
2. Processes which may contribute indirectly to learning (indirect strategies)
 - Create opportunity for practice
 - Production tricks: related to communication focus / drive, motivation and opportunity for exposure (this includes communication strategies)

5.3.2 The taxonomy of O'Malley and his associates

Based on the earlier works, O'Malley and his associates attempted to develop a more general and comprehensive taxonomy of strategies by drawing from Anderson's cognitive learning model (Anderson, 1983, 1985). In doing so, they carried out two large-scale projects with high school and college students. From the first project involving interviews with 70 ESL high school students, they identified 26 strategy types which were categorized into metacognitive, cognitive, and social strategies. In the second project involving 101 high school and college foreign language students, they added the *affective* category and presented a more comprehensive taxonomy (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Taxonomy of learning strategies by O'Malley et al (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990)

- Metacognitive strategies:** involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning and are for managing and supervising their strategy use
- 1 Planning : previewing the organizing concept or principle of an anticipated learning task; proposing strategies for handling an upcoming task; generating a plan for the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language function to be used in handling a task
 - 2 Directed attention : deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters; maintaining attention during task execution.
 - 3 Selective attention : deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in performance of a task; attending to specific aspects of language input during task execution.
 - 4 Self-management : understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish language tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions; controlling one's language performance to maximize use of what is already known.
 - 5 Self-monitoring : checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a language task.
 - 6 Problem identification : explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task or identify an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.
 - 7 Self-evaluation : checking the outcomes of one's own language performance against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy; checking one's language repertoire, strategy use, or ability to perform the task at hand.
- Cognitive strategies :** involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task

- 1 Repetition : repeating a chunk of language in the course of performing a language task
 - 2 Resourcing : using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries, textbooks and prior work.
 - 3 Grouping : ordering, classifying, or labeling material used in a language task based on common attributes; recalling information based on grouping previously done.
 - 4 Note taking : writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form to assist performance of a language task.
 - 5- Deduction / Induction : consciously applying learned or self-developed rules to produce or understand the target language.
 - 6 Substitution : selecting alternative approaches, revised plans, or different words or phrases to accomplish a language task.
 - 7 Elaboration : relating new information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other; making meaningful personal associations to information presented.
 - 8 Summarization : making a mental or written summary of language and information presented in a task.
 - 9 Translation : rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner.
 - 10 Transfer : using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to facilitate a language task.
 - 11 Inferencing : using available information to guess the meanings or usage of unfamiliar language items associated with a language task, to predict outcomes, or to fill in missing information.
- Social / affective**
 Social strategies : involve interacting with another person to assist learning
 Affective strategies : involve using affective control to assist a learning task
- 1 Questioning for clarification : asking for explanation, verification, rephrasing, or examples about the material: asking for clarification or verification about the task; posing questions to the self.
 - 2 Cooperation : working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
 - 3 Self-talk : reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.
 - 4 Self-reinforcement : providing personal motivation by arranging rewards for oneself when a language learning activity has been successfully completed.

There are three major components in this taxonomy. *Cognitive* strategies involve ‘interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task’. They have an operative or cognitive-processing function and include strategies such as ‘repetition’, ‘resourcing’, ‘grouping’, ‘note-taking’, etc. *Metacognitive* strategies make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning such as by means of planning, monitoring, and evaluating. These categories correspond to Rubin's (1987) ‘cognitive’ and Wenden’s (1986) ‘metacognitive’ respectively. The third category is composed of *social* and *affective* strategies. Grouped under social strategies are those strategies involving interacting with another person to assist learning. The affective strategies involve using affective control to assist learning.

As this taxonomy was developed within a cognitive framework, it places emphasis on the cognitive and metacognitive components. The data was collected within a formal learning situation which perhaps involves less use of social and affective strategies than in naturalistic learning situations. As a result, it tends to dismiss the importance of social and affective components. Secondly, the term ‘social’ here merely means involving a person other than oneself and the two

strategies listed here do not necessarily require the use of L2 in social situations. And, apart from the fact that these strategies involve a person other than the learner, they seem to have functions which may just as well be incorporated into other categories. For example, 'questioning for clarification' can be done in learners' L1 and might be better integrated with 'resourcing' if the intention is simply acquiring information from a human resource. 'Cooperation' might be better included under 'self-management' if the aim is to manage one's learning. The conception of 'social' here is completely different from that of Wong Fillmore (1979), who regards social strategies as primarily means for engaging in interaction in L2 so as to have an exposure to L2 input. Furthermore, there is very little mention of communication strategies and it is unclear how or whether communication strategies fit into this framework.

Despite such limitations, this taxonomy, grounded in a cognitive framework, seems to provide a reliable description of the major types of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. It is also advantageous in that it captures all strategies equally at the mental level whether or not they are manifested overtly as observable behaviours or covertly as mental. Hence, this elaborate taxonomy provides a solid basis on which further research can be based.

5.3.3 Oxford's taxonomy

A more comprehensive taxonomy was developed by Oxford (1985; 1990) who intended to subsume virtually every strategy previously reviewed in this chapter. The taxonomy was initially used as a basis for constructing a questionnaire on learning strategies known as The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which has been widely used for investigating strategies since then. The refined taxonomy presented in Oxford (1990) consists of two major classes: *direct* strategies which 'directly involve the target language' in the sense that they 'require mental processing of the language' (1990:37) and *indirect* strategies which 'provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means (1990:151). The subcategories of direct strategies are *memory*, *cognitive* and *compensation* strategies. Indirect strategies comprise *metacognitive*, *affective* and *social* strategies. Each subcategory is broken down into one further level. The whole taxonomy is shown in Table 5.5.

In this taxonomy, 'metacognitive', 'affective' and 'social' categories correspond to O'Malley's 'metacognitive', 'affective', and 'social' respectively.

However, O'Malley's 'cognitive' is divided by Oxford into 'cognitive', 'memory', and the comprehension part of 'compensation' (that is, 'guessing intelligently'). The production part of 'compensation' (that is, 'overcoming limitations in speaking and writing') overlaps with what is referred to by some authors as 'communication strategies' (such as Rubin, 1987). Furthermore, the major distinction between direct and indirect types contradicts that made earlier by Rubin: Oxford's 'metacognitive' is included under 'indirect' and 'compensation' under 'direct'.

Table 5.5 Oxford's Taxonomy

Direct strategies : strategies which 'directly involve the target language'

- 1 Memory strategies :
 - a. Creating mental linkages
 - b. Applying images and sounds
 - c. Reviewing well
 - d. Employing action
- 2 Cognitive strategies
 - a Practicing
 - b Receiving and sending messages
 - c Analyzing and reasoning
 - d Creating structure for input and output
- 3 Compensation strategies
 - a Guessing intelligently
 - b Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

Indirect strategies : strategies which 'provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means

- 1 Metacognitive strategies
 - a Centering your learning
 - b Arranging and planning your learning
 - c Evaluating your learning
- 2 Affective strategies
 - a Lowering your anxiety
 - b Encouraging yourself
 - c Taking your emotional temperature
- 3 Social strategies
 - a Asking questions
 - b Cooperating with others
 - c Empathizing with others

The advantage of this taxonomy is its comprehensiveness and the range of strategy types it covers. It also organizes specific strategies into a hierarchy of differing levels in a systematic fashion. Despite its comprehensiveness, however, this taxonomy has some limitations. First, even though Oxford tries to include communication strategies in her taxonomy, a rather limited role is given to them under the category 'compensation strategies'. This is also reflected in Oxford's definition of 'learning strategies' simply as 'steps taken by students to enhance their own learning' (Oxford, 1990:1) without any mention of issues of language use. Such a conception goes counter to the recent trend to view communication strategies, not merely as a means for overcoming deficits in L2, but as 'intentional attempts to cope with any language-related problem of which the speaker is aware during the course of communication' (Dornyei and Scott, 1997: 179). Secondly, Oxford, unlike Rubin (1981; 1987), distinguishes between 'direct' and 'indirect' types based on whether or not the strategy 'directly involves the target language'.

Such a distinction, however, seems valid only in describing strategies for L2 learning, and is not consistent with taxonomies for strategies for learning more generally. Finally, 'memory' strategies constitute an independent category from 'cognitive strategies' but no rationale for this is provided.

5.3.4 Summary

As observed in this section, much of the earlier research (for example, Stern 1975; Naiman et al. 1978; Rubin 1975 and 1981; Wenden 1984, 1986) focussed on compiling inventories of the learning strategies that learners reported using and little attempt was made to classify the strategies into more general categories. The more recent taxonomies of O'Malley (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) and of Oxford (Oxford 1985; 1990) succeeded in establishing a set of more general categories, subsuming and organizing the more specific strategies in a systematic fashion. The specific strategies identified in O'Malley's and Oxford's taxonomies overlap to a great degree, though the two differ in the classification of more general categories. O'Malley's major division into cognitive, metacognitive and social / affective has been influential in the field and Oxford's division is a variation on it. These taxonomies are theoretically motivated and much more comprehensive and multi-leveled than the earlier ones. However, both follow Rubin (1975) and Naiman et al. (1978) in emphasizing the cognitive and assigning a rather limited role to the social and affective domains. Also, the strategies listed as a single type vary in their specificity. For example, 'repetition' is more specific than 'self-management' (in Oxford, 1990). And it is not yet clear if the range of strategies identified is exhaustive. Thus, the categorisations of learner strategies summarized above ought not to be perceived as received knowledge but rather as working tools for reflection, practical experimentation and further investigation.

5.4 Learners' strategy application to transactional listening / viewing

5.4.1 Introduction

Having reviewed the types of strategies identified in previous work, I now review studies looking into how learners use these different types of strategies in carrying out language-related tasks. Researchers have looked at different aspects of strategy application. Many studies have focussed on differences between successful learners and unsuccessful learners (for example, Rubin, 1975; Abraham and Vann 1987; Vann and Abraham, 1990; Reiss, 1983; O'Malley et al, 1985;

Chamot and Kupper, 1989, Kaylani 1996); differences and / or similarities among learners of different ethnic backgrounds (for example, Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Oxford 1996); between learners of different proficiency levels (for example, O'Malley et al, 1985; 1989, Oxford, 1993, Chien and Wei, 1998), and according to different tasks such as vocabulary learning, test-taking, and the four skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Although the concern of the present study is learners' strategy application for learning through *listening plus viewing*, empirical works in this area are few. Consequently, the research covered here will be largely on listening, as it proves to be most relevant although work in this area is also relatively limited compared to other skills (Bacon and Swaffar, 1993; Rubin, 1994). The works selected here are limited to those which are empirically grounded (see 2.3 for definition) and which concern listening / viewing in a '*transactional*' mode (Brown and Yule, 1983), in other words, within one-way transmission of information rather than an interactional or two-way exchange. Rost's (1990) theoretical work on listening indicates that the strategies listeners use differ according to different discourse types and suggests some strategies characteristically enacted in transactional discourse. Thus, the review will focus on the refinement of strategy taxonomies for listening / viewing tasks, and the identification of important or commonly used strategies for listening / viewing, along with other noteworthy findings.

5.4.2 O'Malley's study (O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper, 1989)

O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper used a think-aloud procedure to study the listening strategies of 11 high school ESL students including successful and unsuccessful listeners. They investigated students' strategy use in relation to the three phases of listening, that is, perceptual processing, parsing and utilization. In the study, students listened to three non-authentic¹¹ passages of academic lectures with pauses inserted and verbalized their thought processes at each pause in their L1 (Spanish). Using the taxonomy already developed in previous studies (O'Malley et. al., 1985; Chamot and Kupper 1989), the researchers coded the verbatim transcripts for appearance of each strategy.

The frequency count of strategies indicated that learners applied a range of strategies during listening, but that elaborating, inferencing and comprehension monitoring appeared to be most important as they were reported most by the

¹¹ Some authors whose works are reviewed in this chapter specify that the materials they used contain 'authentic' input, meaning texts which were not originally produced for the purpose of teaching. I use the term 'non-authentic' to specify when this was not the case.

successful learners. Also, some qualitative differences were observed between the successful and the less successful learners in the ways they applied the strategies in relation to different listening phases. For example, during parsing when ‘words and messages are used to construct meaningful mental representations’ (O’Malley et al, 1989:420), the successful listeners tended to listen for larger chunks like phrases or sentences but the unsuccessful listeners listened on a word-by-word basis and relied on bottom-up strategies. Bottom-up strategies involve constructing meaning by building up from the lower-order information such as vocabulary and syntax and correspond to strategies such as translation, transfer and segmenting. These are often contrasted with top-down strategies which involve deconstructing the meaning from higher-order knowledge such as world knowledge, content and context, corresponding to strategies such as inferencing, predicting, and contextualisation. The results as a whole indicate that key features of the successful learners may lie in the awareness of their strategy use, the choice of effective strategies and reliance on the more top-down rather than bottom-up strategies. The authors did not develop any new strategy category but refined the knowledge sources connected with elaboration into world knowledge and personal knowledge.

5.4.3 Bacon’s studies (Bacon et. al. 1990, Bacon 1992a, 1992b, Bacon and Swaffar, 1993)

Bacon set up a study to elicit the reactions and strategies of a group of 50 university students learning Spanish. She carried out immediate retrospective interviews where the students listened to two passages on familiar and unfamiliar topics from authentic Spanish radio broadcasts and were interviewed afterwards about their thought processes, their comprehension of the passages and their affective responses to each passage. The quantitative analysis of the coding and counting of strategies shows that the most favoured strategies were bottom-up strategies and monitoring. In addition, the qualitative analysis of difficulties most students faced during listening revealed that students were concerned with speed rather than intonation or context, relied on bottom-up rather than top-down strategies with the more difficult passage, and found difficulty in evaluating their inferences.

The categories Bacon presented in her taxonomy, however, lack precision of definition and vary in their levels of generality. For example, her ‘bottom-up processing,’ which represents a form of linear processing leading from details to the general picture seems to include cases which may be broken down further into

different strategy types. 'Hear a word and repeat it' may be coded as 'repetition' whereas 'relate to known words' may even relate to elaboration or inferencing. Such imprecision casts doubts on the validity of the results of her qualitative analysis. And as the definitions for each strategy are not stated, it is hard to distinguish the categories newly developed from the categories already developed in the previous literature. However, the addition of 'express interest' and 'express lack of interest' in the metacognitive strategies is noteworthy as this 'interest' or motivational aspect had not been touched upon in previous taxonomies.

5.4.4 Vogely's study (Vogely, 1995; 1998)

Vogely investigated 83 university students' perceptions of their strategy use for L2 listening tasks and compared the results with their actual performance. The instruments used were a listening test, a questionnaire of perceived strategy use (addressing the areas of confidence, effectiveness, difficulty and repair), and a recall task using three authentic video programmes. The results showed that the strategies learners reported using most came in the following order: (a) getting the gist, (b) relating to background knowledge, (c) understanding each word, (d) focussing on the details of the text, and (e) sounding out the words and phrases. The results are interesting in that top-down strategies such as (a) and (b) and bottom-up strategies such as (c) and (d) are equally perceived as popular strategies. But Vogely also came up with an interesting finding that although most learners perceived that what she identified as top-down strategies such as 'anticipating what would come next' or inferencing were important for effective listening, a significant number of students did not report actually using those strategies. The same relationship surfaced with bottom-up strategies in that more learners recognized them as effective than reported actually using them. This suggests a gap between learners' perceptions or beliefs and their actual strategy use.

Although Vogely identifies strategies on a relatively specific level, she does not relate them to the existing taxonomies except in making a brief distinction between top-down and bottom-up strategies. But her findings provide an important warning that learners' perceptions or beliefs may not always represent their actual strategy application. This also casts doubt on the validity of static approaches (see Chapter 3 for definition) and / or reliance on a single method such as questionnaire for researching strategy application.

5.4.5 Vandergrift's study (Vandergrift, 1996; 1997)

Vandergrift's study, which took place in Canada, looked at the strategies used by 36 high school students learning French selected from among four different levels. The study had two phases; in the first phase, retrospective structured interviews were administered to all the students regarding their strategy use. Then, with 21 of the 36 students (10 successful, 11 unsuccessful) who were chosen based on the number, variety and sophistication of the reported strategies and teachers' comments, Vandergrift employed a think-aloud procedure to elicit their strategy application during the execution of listening tasks on at least three different non-authentic texts. The verbal report data were recorded, transcribed, and later coded according to the predefined classifications by O'Malley and Chamot (1990).

Results showed that learners were using summarisation, elaboration, and inferencing most frequently, which is consistent with O'Malley et al's findings. The study did not contribute greatly in the refinement of strategy taxonomies, but it showed some interesting potential differences between learners of different groups. The intermediate listeners used more of what Vandergrift calls 'deep-processing' strategies such as 'monitoring' and 'problem identification' whereas the novice learners tended to use 'surface-processing' strategies such as 'translation', 'transfer' and 'repetition.' This may indicate that learners start using deeper-processing strategies as their proficiency increases.

There is, however, a circularity in Vandergrift's definition of success because he determined the 'success' of learners according to the number, variety and sophistication of the strategies they reported. Further studies should use an independent measure of success. The study, on the other hand, highlighted the usefulness of think-aloud procedure as a methodology, as well as qualitative methods of analysis of such protocols in obtaining insights into the differences between successful and less successful listeners.

5.4.6 Goh's study (Goh, 1997; 1998)

Goh investigated the listening strategies and tactics of 16 Chinese university ESL students in Singapore including high and low ability learners. On the basis of data collected by immediate retrospection and 'listening diaries' kept over an eight-week period, Goh identified six cognitive strategies used by high-ability learners: 'inferencing', 'elaboration', 'prediction' (anticipating the next part of a text, such as a word, a phrase or an idea), 'contextualisation' (relating new information to a wider context or situation in order to produce an acceptable

general interpretation of it), 'fixation' (paying close attention to one small part of the spoken text in order to understand it) and 'reconstruction' (using words from the text and sometimes background knowledge to construct the meaning of the original input). Goh claims she newly developed all but the first two categories, although 'fixation' appears equivalent to O'Malley et al's 'selective attention'. Goh also identified the following metacognitive strategies: 'selective attention' (paying attention to specific aspects of the input); 'directed attention' (concentrating on the input and avoiding distraction); 'comprehension monitoring' (a process of checking and confirming how well one understand the input during listening); 'real-time assessment of input' (enables the listeners to decide whether a particular part of the input is necessary for achieving their comprehension goals); 'comprehension evaluation' (determining the accuracy and completeness of their comprehension). 'Comprehension monitoring' and 'comprehension evaluation' are Goh's original development. Furthermore, the analysis of the concrete 'tactics' (specific actions) for each strategy revealed that the high-ability learners used a greater number and greater variety of tactics.

In short, the study indicated that the high-ability listeners used a wider range of strategies and tactics and tended to engage extensively in top-down strategies. The analysis of 'tactics' contributed in developing a better picture of information sources learners employ for each strategy. However, Goh's classification is not completely plausible since the strategy types identified are not always clearly distinguished. For example, 'fixation' and 'selective attention' are distinguished as separate strategies but seem to represent the same strategy. 'Comprehension monitoring' and 'comprehension evaluation' cannot be clearly distinguished from their definitions. Furthermore, although the strategies Goh identified are specific to comprehension, no discussion is provided on how these strategies are put to use in comprehension. More research is needed in order to validate these newly developed strategies.

5.4.7 Umino's study (Umino,1993a, 1993b)

In 1993, I carried out a study looking into L2 learners' use of the inferencing strategy in listening to and viewing video materials. In the study, I focussed on how learners try to infer meaning by using linguistic and non-linguistic clues provided in video materials, basing my approach on earlier research into reading (Carton, 1971; Haastруп, 1985, 1987).

'Inferencing' is defined as a process of recognizing what is not familiar by utilizing attributes and contexts that are familiar (Carton, 1971:45), and is

considered to be an important strategy in comprehension (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Haastrup (1985, 1987) had built on the work of Carton (1971) and developed the following taxonomy of sources for inference: (1) intra-lingual cues (cues within the target language); (2) inter-lingual cues (cues involving relations to other languages known to the learner); and (3) contextual cues (cues concerned with the text and / or the learner's knowledge of the world). Sources (1) and (2) correspond to Widdowson's (1983:46) 'systemic knowledge' and (3) to 'schematic knowledge'.

In the study (Umino, 1993a, 1993b), 20 adult learners of Japanese whose L1 was English were asked to infer the meaning of an unknown element or elements within a given text from L2 video materials and to report immediately after completion of the task what information sources they had used. Learners reported having used various nonverbal cues relating, for example, to background, participants, actions, posture, facial expression and eye contact, as well as linguistic cues, to infer the meaning of unknown linguistic elements. Learners with lower proficiency in the target language were found to use a greater number of cues with a greater number of non-linguistic than linguistic cues. This study also suggested that the effectiveness with which learners can infer meaning using the contextual cues deliberately provided on television is affected by features such as naturalness in the delivery of speech, and naturalness of situation.

While inferencing may be an important strategy in comprehension, it is but one aspect of the overall process of learning using television. These studies (Umino 1993a, 1993b) did not investigate the role of other strategies and these need to be investigated further. They did, however, contribute as a new understanding of the role of visual information in viewing in relation to one particular strategy: inferencing.

5.4.8 Chien and Wei (1998)

Chien and Wei carried out a study looking into the listening strategies of 15 Chinese university students studying English in Taiwan. The aims of their study were to identify a causal relationship between the range of students' strategy uses and their performance and also to observe any differences between successful and less successful learners. Unfortunately, the study has enough serious methodological problems that the validity of the findings is in doubt. In the study, Chien and Wei employed a standardized English test and a recall task to measure the students' performance, and an attitude questionnaire and a structured interview to identify the range of strategies used for task performance. However, it is not at

all clear whether they had a predetermined set of categories in constructing the interview items or if not, how they derived the resulting categories from the structured interview results. Therefore, it is unknown how the three categories of linguistic, cognitive and extralinguistic strategies which they identified were derived or how 'the most effective strategies' (p. 76) were determined. The purpose of the questionnaire and the interpretation of the results are also obscure.

5.4.9 Wolff's study (Wolff, 1987)

Wolff's concern was to test the hypothesis that top-down processing is equally important in L1 and in L2 comprehension and the differences would be a matter of degree and not of kind. To do this, he investigated the use of top-down processing in the L2 listening of 350 secondary school German students learning English using the same procedure as used in previous studies of L1 comprehension. He implemented a recall task of listening to texts of different levels of difficulty followed by an interview. In the recall task, two video-recordings were prepared: one of a native speaker reading the text aloud and a copy of the same recording with an illustration inserted. Students listened to the recording of one specific text either with or without a visual aid and then recalled the story afterwards in their L1, which was audio-recorded. The transcribed protocols were first parsed into propositions which were then grouped into three categories: (a) propositions identical to those of the original text, (b) inferences and elaborations, (c) propositions not related to the original text. The quantitative analysis of the frequency of type (a) propositions reveals that informants exposed to difficult text with illustration recalled significantly better than those without illustration. Furthermore, the number of inferential and non-related propositions were significantly higher for the difficult texts than for the easy texts. These results indicate that informants exposed to the more difficult text, where bottom-up processing was impeded by language deficiencies, made increased use of top-down strategies. This implied the importance of such processing in L2 comprehension as well as in L1. The work also highlighted the effect of text characteristics in relation to learners' strategy applications.

5.4.10 Phase 1 of the present study (revisited)

It is now possible to interpret Phase 1 of my own main study as a contribution to the research literature on learner strategies. Even though not intended specifically as strategy research, Phase 1 did provide important insights into

learners' strategy use in transactional viewing through topics discussed in the group interviews. Firstly, it emerged that the learners were using various strategies while viewing SITV lessons. The strategies seemed to relate to the problems they found, in particular, in coping with the amount of information and with the speed of speech presented in the materials. As examples of the former case, the learners discussed deliberately focussing on particular aspects of the input, or on the contrary deliberately avoiding paying attention to the input. At other times, instead of trying to make sense of every single linguistic item, they guessed the overall meaning from context. As examples of the second case (coping with speed of speech), the learners reported paying attention to particular phonetic features, or breaking down streams of sounds into chunks. The implication which emerged was that in order to understand more precisely what types of strategies are used to cope with such problems and the manner in which such strategies are put to use, it would be necessary to design Phase 2 to focus specifically on these areas. Secondly, in the course of on-going group interviews, the learners were observed to scaffold one another in the use of their strategies. For example, after Robert discussed his way of focussing on certain aspects of input, in the next session Dale was observed to use the same strategy. The emerging implication here was that it may be possible to observe developments in learners' strategy use if a longitudinal approach is taken to investigation. More precise indications of the way these insights informed Phase 2 will be provided in Chapter 6.

5.4.11 Summary

In this section, I have reviewed empirical works on strategy application for transactional listening / viewing. Table 5.6 shows a summary of the empirical studies reviewed in this section. Let us first summarise what we have understood from these studies and what areas still need further investigation.

Table 5.6 Summary of the studies on strategy application for transactional listening / viewing

Study	Focus	Material	Informants	Method	Main findings
O'Malley (O'Malley et al 1989)	Strategy use -effective and less effective listeners - According to different phases of listening	7 passages on various topics (lecture, dictation, short story) in English (it is not stated where they were taken from) Audio only	11 high school age Spanish speaking students	Think-aloud	-Effective listeners (EL) used monitoring, inferencing and elaboration more often. -EL were aware of managing their attention, listened for larger chunks and used world knowledge effectively.
Bacon (Bacon et al 1990; Bacon 1992a, 1992b, 1992c)	Strategy application -listening to authentic input - between effective and less effective listeners.	2 authentic short passages from radio broadcasts ('Voice of America') in Spanish. Audio	50 university students learning Spanish	Immediate retrospective interviews	-Learners reported more cognitive than metacognitive strategies. -More bottom-up strategies than top-down. -Effective listeners were more flexible in their strategy use, made good use of background knowledge and were realistic in their self-evaluation.
Vogely (Vogely, 1995; 1998)	Comparison of students' perceptions of strategy use and their actual performance	3 episodes of cable TV program in Spanish ('America Portada') recorded off-air Audio / Visual	83 university students learning Spanish	Listening test/ Questionnaire of perceived strategy use/ Recall task	-Most often reported strategies were getting the gist, elaboration, understanding each word, focussing on the details, sounding out the words and phrases. -Gap between perceptions and performance: top-down strategies were considered important but were not reported as being used. -Gap was observed between strategies employed for fostering effectiveness and coping with problems.
Vandergrift (Vandergrift, 1996; 1997)	Strategy application for listening/ -between learners of different proficiency levels/ -between successful and unsuccessful learners	4 authentic oral passages of different levels taken from teaching materials Audio	Phase 1: 36 high school students learning French Phase 2: 21 high school students learning French (10 successful; 11 unsuccessful)	Phase 1: structured retrospective interviews Phase 2: think-aloud on 3 different texts	-Summarisation, elaboration and inferencing were reported most frequently. -The intermediate learners used more metacognitive strategies; more 'deep-processing' strategies such as monitoring and problem-identification. Novices used more 'surface-processing' strategies such as translation, transfer, and repetition.
Goh (Goh, 1997; 1998)	Listening strategies of successful and less successful learners	2 passages ; transcripts of recordings made of individuals talking about common topics. The researcher read the passages aloud. Audio	16 Chinese university students learning English in Singapore (8 successful; 8 unsuccessful)	Retrospective verbalization after listening to authentic texts Diary	-Successful learners used 6 cognitive strategies: inferencing, elaboration, prediction, contextualisation, fixation and reconstruction and 5 metacognitive strategies: selective attention, directed attention, monitoring, real-time assessment of input, comprehension evaluation. -The unsuccessful reported fewer strategies. -The successful listeners used a wider range of strategies and engaged extensively in top-down strategies as well as some bottom-up strategies.
Umino (Umino, 1993a, 1993b)	Learners' use of inferencing strategies -in listening to video materials/ -between learners of different proficiency levels	10 extracted scenes from JLT video material 'Yan and the Japanese People' Audio/Visual	20 adult learners of Japanese whose L1 is English	Immediate retrospection	-Learners with lower proficiency relied more on non-linguistic cues than linguistic. -Higher proficiency learners made more effective use of fewer numbers of cues.
Chien and Wei (Chien and Wei, 1998)	Strategy application -in listening -between successful and less successful learners -causal relationship between the range of strategies and performance.	-3 types of audio tapes : unrehearsed spontaneous speech taken from radio English-teaching program. -3 types of video tapes taken from ELT video 'Album Family' and 'Success' which contain informal conversation Audio/Visual	15 Chinese university students of English in Taiwan	Test/ Questionnaire/ Interview	-Successful listeners used a greater number and wider range of strategies -The most effective strategies were inferencing and elaboration.
Wolff (Wolff, 1987)	To test the hypothesis that L1 and L2 comprehension are the same processes and the differences would be of degree and not kind.	8 texts used in L1 comprehension research read aloud by native speaker and video-taped ('Rupert the Bear' and 'Balloon Story') Audio/Visual	350 German students learning English between the age of 12 and 18.	Recall task/ interview	-Informants exposed to easy text could recall better. Informants exposed to difficult text made more use of the context to recall better. Informant exposed to the more difficult text, whose bottom-up processing was impeded by language deficiencies, used top-down strategies instead. Top-down processing plays an important role in L2 comprehension.
Umino (Phase 1 of the present study)	To understand 1) what features of SITV materials learners perceive to be most salient in each lesson presented via SITV materials 2) How learners use SITV materials? 3) if the above change over time and if so, in what ways?	11 lessons from an SITV series ('Let's Learn Japanese')	7 British adult learners learning Japanese in Britain by self-instruction	Group interview Questionnaire	-Features perceived to be salient by learners in each lesson and how these features evolved over time. -Learners' focus shift from materials to their own learning process. -The topics of the group interviews indicated that the learners used various strategies in coping with SITV materials.

First, the studies uncovered what *types* of strategies are applied in listening / viewing, and several classifications were suggested to better understand which types are best used for effective listening. The classification most widely adopted was O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) into cognitive, metacognitive and social / affective strategies (as seen in the studies by O'Malley et al, Bacon, Vandergrift, and Goh). Metacognitive strategies, such as 'comprehension monitoring', and 'selective attention', and cognitive strategies, such as 'elaboration', 'inferencing', and 'summarisation,' have been identified as the most important strategies for L2 listeners. A distinction between strategies which involve 'bottom-up processing'

and those involving 'top-down processing' has also been highlighted. Wolff suggests that the top-down strategies are more important but that learners' application of such strategies is also affected by text characteristics. Bacon confirms this finding in that her students used more top-down strategies with familiar texts but used more bottom-up strategies with less familiar texts. O'Malley et al's discovery that effective listeners tended to listen for larger chunks and use background knowledge also harmonises with this finding. However, these authors all dealt with listening to audio, not audio-visual materials. In my (1993) study which dealt with video materials, it was found that less proficient learners relied more heavily on non-linguistic cues provided in the materials in other words top-down strategies. This indicates the need to take into account the effect of visuals, which may affect learners' choice between top-down and bottom-up strategies in listening. Another distinction suggested is Vandergrift's 'deep-processing' and 'surface-processing'. Vandergrift suggests that learners with higher proficiency used more 'deep-processing' strategies than the lower group, but the concepts need further clarification.

Secondly, the studies addressed differences between the strategy use of effective and less effective listeners. The studies seem to suggest overall that effective listeners use certain types of strategies (as summarised above), use a greater variety of strategies, and are more flexible and effective in the way they combine different strategies. Regarding the number of strategies, however, although Chien and Wei suggest that effective listeners are associated with a greater variety of strategy use, my study (1993) which dealt with the visual mode indicated that the higher-proficiency learners were more focussed and inferred more effectively with fewer cues than the less proficient learners. This again suggests the possibility that with materials consisting of as varied sources of information as with video, learners may need to employ different strategies to cope effectively with them. This area needs to be investigated further.

Thirdly, these studies contributed to refinement of strategy taxonomies, although this tended to involve a refinement of the lower-level substrategies or tactics (Goh) rather than development of new basic categories. Areas refined in particular were knowledge sources of elaboration and inferencing strategies (O'Malley et al, Vandergrift, Umino, Goh). Bacon also added an 'express interest' category in the metacognitive category which had not been indicated in other studies.

Turning now to insufficiencies of the studies reviewed, the biggest gap found is their failure to consider the role of visuals and how they shape learners' strategy use. All except my own studies (Umino (1993) and Phase 1 of the present study)

give limited attention to the role of visual information in listening. Vogely, Chien and Wolff do include visuals (video and picture) in the materials but do not discuss their role in any depth. There is an excessive emphasis on the aural mode in listening relative to the visual in general, despite the latter's indispensable role in most forms of spoken communication. In my studies (Umino (1993) and Phase 1), there was an indication that the inclusion of the 'visual' mode affects learners' strategy use. Whether and how this is the case needs to be researched further in order to get a fuller picture of learners' strategy use in listening plus viewing tasks.

A second gap found in the studies reviewed concerns their research design. None of the studies except Phase 1 of my study employed a longitudinal approach to investigating strategies even though their actual engagement in language instruction is most likely to continue over a length of time. There has been an indication that learners' strategy use is amenable to change over time (Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) and this question needs to be addressed further.

The majority of the studies tended to rely heavily on quantitative means of analysis, such as frequency counts of types of strategies reported by different types of learners or on different text types. As Vandergrift suggests, the qualitative analysis of learners' reports may provide greater insight into different aspects of strategy application, and this possibility should be pursued further. The studies reviewed, on the other hand, made extensive use of qualitative means of *collecting* the data, in particular, introspective methods, and this seems to have borne fruitful results. Listening is one of the more difficult skills to investigate as it is not directly observable (Rubin, 1994), and the studies confirm the advantages of using introspective methods in researching strategies for comprehension.

Finally, all studies except Phase 1 of my own main study were carried out in decontextualised settings, in other words, 'experimental' tasks were performed in detachment from actual instructional sequences within which they would more normally occur. Therefore, even though sets of strategies were identified, it is still unclear if or how these strategies are used within actual instructional sequences: whether the same set of strategies is always used to perform similar tasks, for example, in what sequence or in what combinations these strategies are used, and so on. Further research which takes into account such contextual factors is needed in order to understand learners' strategy application in instructed learning.

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have reviewed the literature on learner strategies as a basis for carrying out Phase 2 of my study. In Phase 1, learners started talking more and more about their learning and comprehension processes as they pursued their studies with the SITV materials. This motivated me to engage in Phase 2 of the study with a greater focus on the strategies learners use to cope with SITV learning.

Reviewing work on learner strategies, I first identified different characteristics of learner strategies by examining different definitions. Then, dividing the literature into descriptive studies, strategy application studies, and interventionist studies, I reviewed the descriptive studies which concerned the development of major and specific classifications of strategies. Finally, I looked at the area of learners' strategy application to transactional listening / viewing tasks, which appears to be most relevant to SITV learning, and I surveyed the major findings and insufficiencies of previous studies. In the next chapter, I shall describe the manner in which I carried out Phase 2 of the study and I shall report its major findings.

CHAPTER 6

MAIN STUDY: PHASE 2

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present results and the analysis of Phase 2 of the main study. As indicated previously in Chapters 3 and 4, in Phase 1 of the study, I focussed on understanding the characteristics of SITV materials which are found to be salient by learners during SITV lessons, and the ways in which learners go about learning with such materials. As one of the results, we found that learners' focus as revealed in the interviews shifted from the materials-oriented features to learning-oriented features, showing a development in their awareness of the process of their own learning. Accordingly, in Phase 2 of the study it seemed necessary to investigate learners' strategy use during SITV lessons in order to understand the process of SITV learning more thoroughly. Thus, having consulted previous work in this area (see Chapter 5), I set the following research questions for Phase 2:

- (1) What strategies do learners use during lessons presented via SITV materials?
- (2) Are there any developmental changes over the period of Phase 2?

I will first describe the manner in which I collected and analysed the data in this phase (6.2). Then I discuss the types of strategies reported to have been used by the learners (6.3), and the learners' use of these strategies during individual lessons (6.4). Then finally, I discuss the developmental changes regarding the use of these strategies over the period (6.5).

6.2 Procedure of data collection and method of analysis

6.2.1 Procedure of data collection

Of the seven learners who participated in Phase 1, four (Robert, Dale, Jane and Sally) volunteered to take part in Phase 2. These four learners remained in their original groupings, Robert and Dale in Group A, and Jane and Sally in Group B. Phase 2 comprised of seven interview sessions conducted separately for the two groups of participants, resulting in fourteen sessions altogether (see Table 6.1). Session 12 (for Lesson 17) was used as practice to familiarize the

participants with the verbal report procedure and its data was not used for analysis. After all the sessions were finished, participants were interviewed individually about the seven sessions they had experienced.

Table 6.1 The interview sessions for Phase 2

Session	Lesson	Group A		Group B	
		Date	Participants	Date	Participants
12 (practice)	17	21/10	Robert, Dale	9/11	Jane, Sally
13	19	28/10	Robert	12/11	Jane, Sally
14	20	4/11	Robert, Dale	20/11	Jane, Sally
15	21	18/11	Robert, Dale	26/11	Jane, Sally
16	22	25/11	Robert	3/12	Jane, Sally
17	23	2/12	Robert, Dale	10/12	Jane, Sally
18	24	9/12	Robert, Dale	17/12	Jane, Sally
Final interviews		17/12-23/12	Robert, Dale	16/12-23/12	Jane, Sally

In order to obtain answers to the specific research questions described in 6.1, I modified the manner of data collection by employing a verbal report technique (see Chapter 3 for discussion of this technique). Instead of having the interviews after viewing the whole lesson as in Phase 1, I stopped the tape at several points during the lesson to elicit the learners' reports of their thought processes at these particular points. The points at which the tapes were stopped were decided in advance based on the basic structure of the lesson (see Table 6.2). The lessons generally followed a similar pattern being structured around the skit about Yan. All odd-numbered lessons started with the showing of the whole episode of Yan's skit, and continued with 'teacher'-presentation of the new linguistic item from it, then short example skits. (Note that 'skit' here means a short, funny, complete episode in an on-going drama, as I explained in Chapter 3.) Then, at the end of the lesson, some scenes from Yan's skit which include the newly learned items are shown again after a short period of instruction in the writing system and pronunciation. In the even-numbered lessons, the same pattern is followed except that the initial showing of the episode of Yan's skit is replaced by a review of the previous lesson. The places where the tapes were stopped were at the end of the major sections of the lesson, resulting in seven to nine pauses per lesson. See also the sample lesson on the video tape attached to the thesis.

Table 6.2 Major sections of the lessons

- (1) The first showing of the whole of Yan's skit (for odd-numbered lessons)
or (1) Review (for even-numbered lessons)
- (2) Presentation of a new item
- (3) Example skit which illustrates the new item
(2) and (3) above are repeated for each new item)
- (4) Writing and pronunciation
- (5) The showing of a part of Yan's skit

At the first session, I explained to the participants that the video tapes would be stopped at certain points during a lesson and they were expected to report what they were thinking during the viewing of the section prior to that point. The first session (Session 12) was used as a practice to make sure the participants understood the procedure. Although learners did generally attempt to describe their immediate thought processes in the interviews, there were times when they started talking about things other than what they were thinking or doing, such as what they thought *about* the programme (for example, if they liked / disliked what they saw) or what *happened* in the programme. In such cases, I asked probe questions such as 'What were you thinking?' or 'What were you doing?' to focus on the participants' strategy use. Only the parts of the interview which represented answers to these questions were used for the analysis. (Learners' responses which did not directly relate to these questions, however, were used for the analysis of how learners' understandings developed over a particular lesson, as will be discussed in 6.4.) The interviews were all conducted in English, the participants' L1. Each session lasted for approximately 60 to 70 minutes.

At the end of the seven sessions, I carried out a 40-minute final interview with each individual learner to obtain learners' overall reflections on the seven sessions. (The questions will be described in 6.4.) All interviews were recorded onto audio tapes and later transcribed for analysis.

6.2.2 Method of data analysis

I conducted the analysis of the transcribed interviews from two angles. The first angle was to identify the salient learner strategies and their use. This corresponds to the first research question stated in 6.1. For this part, I used only the parts of the transcript which represented learners' descriptions of what they were thinking or doing during the viewing of the sections, as has been explained above. Also, as the main aim of each lesson was the teaching of grammatical items and their use in context, I excluded from the data learners' responses regarding the writing and pronunciation section in order to limit the focus.

Using this data, I first identified the units in the learners' responses which represented a particular strategy. I examined if the unit could be represented by any of the strategies already identified in the studies reviewed in Chapter 5. If it did, I assigned the strategy to the unit. If it did not, I assigned a new category, representing it by a keyword appearing in the learners' words or adapting

categories from previous works but revising their definitions. In this way, I developed a list of strategy categories. To ensure intra-rater consistency, the transcripts were then put aside and after a one-week interval, I repeated the procedure with new transcripts. Then I compared the first and the second coding and resolved the discrepancies, and then determined a final set of categories. I also had an independent rater cross-check the coding with a selected transcript. There were no differences in our coding of this transcript.

The strategies identified in this way were then grouped into three superordinate categories of metacognitive, cognitive, and affective (see Table 6.3). Furthermore, the types of strategies reported in each session were identified to see which strategies were more commonly reported over different sessions. The results for the above analysis will be presented in 6.3. The results were also triangulated with the final interview administered to individual learners to see if there were any salient developments regarding learners' strategy use over this period (see 6.5).

The second angle from which the data was analysed was by means of case studies of how learners' understanding developed within selected lessons and how strategies were used in relation to the instructional sequence. As the aim of this analysis was to understand the learners' strategy use within a lesson in relation to their understanding of the lesson, I selected lessons which seemed to represent different cases in this regard based on my observations recorded in the research diary. In other words, I selected both cases in which learners seemed to find difficulties in understanding the lessons and those in which they did not. I also analysed different lessons attended to by the same learner.

For the purpose of this analysis, I used all of the 'while-viewing' interview transcripts for the learners and lessons in question. I first summarised the content of each learner's report for each of the sections of the lesson to which it corresponded. For example, for the analysis of Robert's responses to Lesson 19 for Group A, I first summarised Robert's reports when he had seen the first showing of Yan's skit, when the new language item had been presented, and so on. Then, I attempted to build up a picture of how a participant followed that particular lesson, what strategies he / she used during that lesson, and what he / she had managed to understand or had not understood by the end of it. The results for this second analysis will be presented in the form of three case studies in 6.4.

6.3 Overall strategy use

As a consequence of the analysis described in 6.2, a list of categories was developed. Table 6.3 lists the strategies according to the basic distinction of metacognitive, cognitive and affective strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1989) and presents example excerpts for each strategy. Not surprisingly, as the task in this case was limited to learning with SITV materials, no social strategy was reported.

The strategy categories numbered 1 to 14, 19 and 20 in the table were basically adopted from the previous works reviewed in Chapter 5, although *predicting*, *getting the gist*, and *decomposing* received relatively little attention in these studies. In this particular context of SITV learning, *predicting* refers to when learners predict what is going to come next in the programme so as to be ready and to receive the upcoming content with greater ease. *Getting the gist* was used in relation to viewing the naturalistic skit (Yan's skit) for the first time. This is a sensible strategy to use in viewing these skits for the first time as they contain many unknown items for the learners. It is also the opposite of 'selective attention', which is focussing attention on a particular item rather than distributing attention. *Decomposing* here means deconstructing a sequence into chunks so as to understand the structure of a language item. The affective strategy of *tolerating ambiguity* was included under the general label of 'handling affective demands' in Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern and Todesco's (1978) classification, but is identified as a specific strategy in this study. It refers to when learners make a deliberate effort not to worry about the uncertainty they experience in relation to contents of the material. As the naturalistic skit often contained unknown items, this strategy was required to avoid frustration. *Lowering anxiety* is when the learners try to reduce anxiety by using mental techniques that make them feel competent to do the learning task. This was used when learners got into a panic state related to not understanding the language in the materials, often the naturalistic skits.

Table 6.3 Reported strategies, with example excerpts

<p>Metacognitive strategies : strategies learners use to oversee and manage their learning. Relates to the planning, monitoring and evaluation of a learning task.</p> <p>1 Selective attention - Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in performance of a task; attending to specific aspects of language input during task execution. R: I started concentrating on the <i>mashou</i> because that's what they were saying. 'Look for <i>deshou</i> form.' So I ignored the <i>kara</i>. I was aware it existed as they came down on the escalator. I picked that up at that stage but I wasn't concentrating on it. I could identify them say, '~ so let's do ~.' <sentence ending></p> <p>2 Self-monitoring - Checking, verifying or correcting one's comprehension or performance or use of learned or self-developed rule in the course of a language task. R: So I was thinking about what was the exercise, focussing on the listening to what was being said, and the answer as it came up on the screen, did I get it right? What did I get it wrong? All thoughts were directed at what we were doing.</p> <p>Cognitive strategies - strategies that learners use to process linguistic content</p> <p>3 Translating- Rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner. R: I was concentrating very hard on trying to listen. My thoughts were trying to rapidly translate words into English</p>
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because I still think in English and I try very quickly to get the equivalent which I suppose is natural at this stage of learning.

4 Inferencing - Guessing the meanings or usage of unfamiliar language items associated with a language task to fill in missing information by using available information.

J: Obviously knowing the context, I can guess what the sentence meant before they translated it and there were quite a few words I'd never seen before. I'd seen *sukoshi* and the *kara*. (Laughs.) And I knew the *mashou* ending meant 'Let's do something together.' And from the context I could guess the meaning and it was right.

5 Inducing - Consciously looking for and / or developing a hypothetical rule from given input material.

R: What I picked up now is, not only the words but *deshou*. And so, now I am alerted to the fact that *deshou* is probably something put at the end instead of *desu*. Instead of 'it is', I think 'it will be'. 'It will be sunny tomorrow.' So *deshou* is something new for me. So, that's coming in to the structure.

6 Summarising - Making a mental or written summary of language and information presented in a task.

R: I could follow that. The direct comparison between *desu* and *deshou*. I could see that the *deshou* is a question to an individual. But *doushita n deshou ka* is something that is a supposition.

7 Taking notes - Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form to assist performance of a language task.

R: I wrote '*Mada -- miemasen ka?*' And '*ie, sorosoro mieru*' and '*Hora miemashita yo.*' The short sentences. Trying to make a quick note on what the English for 'sorosoro' was so that I can just understand. These are all aid memoirs, just for my mind.

8 Resourcing - Using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries, textbooks, and prior work.

D: Initially I was focussing on relating what has been said to the page of the skit we had (on the textbook) so I could identify the words. I think without that, it would have been very difficult.

9 Elaborating - Relating new different parts of new information to one; making meaningful personal associations to information presented.

D: There was something I've done in the previous lessons about the *katta* I was trying to remember that. I think it's to do with past negative. 'Was the water cold?' And then I was trying to get down about how the past negative of an adjective ended.

10 Repeating - Repeating a chunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a language task.

D: I was actually trying to go through and pronounce the words in my head because some of them are quite long and your tongue seems to dance a little so it's difficult. And the sounds are also not quite what you would expect sometimes. And I repeated it a couple of times as well.

11 Transfer - Using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to facilitate a language task.

R: I see that *nai* is the unknown future, the negative, so *nai* I can understand that. Also in Dutch *ni* is a negative form so I can (remember), my mind is going into another language. I can understand that. It is very similar.

12 Predicting - Making predictions about language content which learners have not come across yet.

J: I was thinking when they were doing the 'Can't you swim?' No, I can't swim.' I just wondered why they left the other way of saying that, *oyogemasen*. They probably will in the next ten minutes. And my guess will be that this is the ability and the other one is no I don't swim.

13 Getting the gist - Getting the general idea of a material rather than a specific item.

D: I was working on trying to understand the gist because there were lots of words in it.

14 Decomposing - Deconstructing the sequence into chunks so as to understand the structure of a language item.

R: Just putting the sentence, *itai n desu*. And the first time I thought it was the word *itai*, then I separated it. Also the *ga*, I've identified it, not *wa* or *o*. Again, a tooth *ga* I have *itai n desu*. So, that's toothache, *ga itai*. *Ha ga itai*, my tooth is sore.

15 Warming-up - Tuning one's ears so as to be ready for a language task.

J: I was just listening to make sure I understood everything. I haven't forgotten them. I have reread the notes for last week. So that's fine really. Just warming up.

16 Recalling - Remembering what has been learned previously.

D: I was trying to remember what we learned in the last lesson. And I picked up a few of these words we covered.

17 Absorbing - Simply listening to or reading the learned material in order that it is absorbed.

J: I was trying to see if I could get all the words. Especially the parts from last week. I was trying to remember. And also when the family was at home. I wouldn't mind watching it again.

18 Developing a question - Developing a question and attending to the material with it in mind

R: I'm not sure if *tsumetakatta* is a question mark and if his answer is a negative form, saying it's not too cold. So, I will wait for the next clip to see. So the learning experience was, I've been enquiring as to the structure of the sentence and how it was put together. Can I understand it? It has to be a question, because it was rising, *deshou?* even though there was no *ka* at the end. I have to wait till the next clip.

Affective strategies - strategies involving using affective control to assist a learning task

19 Tolerating ambiguity - Making a deliberate effort not to worry about the uncertainty in relation to contents of the material

R: I wasn't sure where my learning was going to come from. So I adopted probably a sensible thing; I just let it happen and hoped that it will be repeated or I would go back and pick it up again.

20 Lowering anxiety - Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.

R: I was panicking about how much I still need to learn. And then, I stopped panicking saying, 'So what?' It doesn't matter, I can do it slowly.

On the other hand, some new categories were developed which had not been identified in previous studies. These may be strategies which are necessary to the particular task of learning by means of SITV lessons. These new categories are numbered 15 to 18 in the table. *Warming up* is used at the beginning of the lesson to tune one's ears in order to be ready for the task of listening to naturalistic speech. As the learners normally have no exposure to Japanese in their daily lives, they often reported they need to 'tune in' before learning from the programmes. This strategy was often used at the beginning of the programme. *Recalling* also typically happened at the beginning of a lesson where learners attempted to remember what they learned in the previous lesson. The difference between this and *elaborating* is that the former is simply remembering what has been presented previously whereas the latter is linking new information to prior knowledge. Thus, *recalling* could be a step leading towards *elaborating*. *Absorbing* is simply listening to or reading the learned material in order that it should sink in or be absorbed rather than setting a focus on a particular item. This often happened at the end of the programme when learners viewed the skit for the final time. *Developing a question* was a way of viewing the lesson with a certain focus in mind. Learners searched for a particular answer as they attended to the programme.

A further look into learners' strategy use in each session, however, indicates the complexity with which those strategies are put to use in actual task performance. Table 6.4 shows the number of types of strategies reported in each session: '13 A' represents Session 13 for Group A, '13 B' Session 13 for Group B, etc. The table shows that some strategies are commonly reported over different sessions whereas others are reported in only some of the sessions. We may infer that the strategies listed at the upper part of the table are the more useful strategies in SITV learning. Selective attention was reported in every session and seems to be the most commonly used strategy overall. As SITV materials convey a multitude of visual and audio information at once, deciding on which aspect of the input to attend to is an essential strategy in order to learn effectively, more so than with audio or written materials. The second common strategy was resourcing, that is, referring to the textbook material, dictionary, and / or the notes learners took during viewing. This was also reported as an important strategy in the final interviews as we shall see in 6.5. Strategies such as developing a question, recalling, absorbing, and predicting were commonly used even though they have not been highlighted in previous strategy research. These are all strategies which become of importance when participating in a lesson. This indicates that the types

of strategies needed in actual instructional settings may not necessarily be the same as those commonly used in decontextualised settings for task performance (as in the typical settings for strategy research). I shall discuss some of the more important strategies further in 6.5 after triangulating with final interview results.

Furthermore, we see that the range of strategies reported varies in each session. In some sessions, learners reported only a limited range of strategies whereas in others they reported a wider range. For example, in Session 16 for Group A and Session 15 for Group B, the learners could for some reason use or report only a limited range of strategies. This indicates that learners' strategy use is not always stable but varies depending on the lesson. Furthermore, a comparison of Groups A and B indicates that the choice of strategy use varies depending on the learner. Learners in Group A reported a wider range of strategies (11.1 on average) than Group B (6.6 on average) even though they are both learning with the same SITV materials. Also, the range of strategy use was not always the same for both groups. For example, in Session 16, the range of strategies reported by Group A was exceptionally low, but this was not the case with Group B even though they were attending the same lesson. This means that the ways in which the learners employ strategies is largely affected by how the learner interacts with the materials. I shall investigate this issue further in 6.4 below.

Table 6.4 Number of type of strategies reported in each session

Strategies	13A	13B	14A	14B	15A	15B	16A	16B	17A	17B	18A	18B	Total
Selective Attention	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	12
Resourcing	X	X	X	X			X	X	X		X	X	8
Developing a question	X		X		X		X	X	X	X		X	8
Inducing	X	X	X		X		X		X	X			7
Recalling			X	X				X		X	X	X	6
Absorbing	X			X			X	X			X	X	6
Taking notes	X		X		X			X	X				5
Predicting	X			X		X		X				X	5
Inferencing	X				X				X			X	4
Elaborating			X		X				X		X		4
Summarising	X	X			X				X				4
Self-monitoring	X				X	X		X					4
Translating	X		X								X		3
Decomposing				X					X		X		3
Tolerating ambiguity	X				X						X		3
Repeating			X						X		X		3
Warming up			X	X									2
Getting the gist		X	X										2
Lowering anxiety	X	X											2
Transfer			X									X	2
Total	13	6	12	7	9	3	3	8	11	4	9	8	93

In sum, the above results indicate that learners' strategy use (or learners' choice of strategies) is not always stable but varies according to a given lesson even though some strategies such as selective attention are constantly used

regardless of the lesson. Secondly, for the same lesson in the materials, the types of strategies used vary depending on the learner. To shed light on such complexities of strategy use, I shall now present some case studies of how learners perceived particular lessons.

6.4 Case studies of the individual lessons

As we have seen above, learners' strategy use is not always stable: the same learner may use only a limited range of strategies for certain lessons but not in others. Similarly, for the same lesson, certain learners may use a limited range of strategies but not others. To investigate such complexities of strategy use, I examined each learner's verbal report for each lesson more closely. I shall present three cases by means of which such complexities may be illustrated and further discussed. The first is the case of Robert in Session 18 (Lesson 24) in which he employed an average range of strategies. Then we examine the case in which the same learner, Robert, reported an exceptionally limited range in Session 16 (Lesson 22). Finally, we examine the case of Jane at Session 15 (Lesson 21) in which she reported only a limited range of strategies due to factors different to the case of Robert.

6.4.1 Case 1

Let us take a look first at Robert's verbal report for Session 18 (Lesson 24) in which he reported an average range of strategies. The target expressions for this lesson are *~kara ~naide kudasai* (~, so please do not ~) and its variation, *~kara ~mashou* (~ so let's ~).

Lesson 24	Robert's comments
Section 1 [Review] Scenes from Yan's skit which contain expressions presented in the previous lesson.	R: I was able to distinguish some of the words, being more focussed on it having seen it a several times. So I could pick that up. It was interesting to see if I can now pick up those words without the script.

This first section shows some scenes from Yan's skit as a review of what had been presented in the previous lesson. Robert reports here that he was able to understand the expressions studied in the previous lesson without looking at the

script. In this section, he used recalling strategy to bring back what he learned in the previous lesson [recalling]¹².

<p>Section 2 [Presentation of a new item] Skit about Yan and his friend shopping. A woman says to the shop attendant, <i>Okurimono desu kara todoketekudasai</i> (Please deliver this because this is a gift).</p>	<p>R: <i>Kara todokete kudasai</i>. Trying to see the sentence structure and listening to that and trying to imitate it. Listening to the pronunciation so that I can get my tongue into the right place.</p>
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Section 2 is a presentation of a new linguistic item through scenes from Yan's skit followed by explanations with the written form on a blue background. Here, Robert reports he was focussing on the new expression, *todokete kudasai* ('please deliver') [selective attention] and trying to repeat it [repeating]. This means he was focussed on the main point of the lesson.

<p>Section 3 [Example skits] Skits showing the use of the pattern, <i>~naide kudasai</i> (Please don't ~), an example of which is <i>shimenaide kudasai</i> (Please don't shut it).</p>	<p>R: I was noticing the negative <i>-nai</i>, in the word <i>shinaide</i>. Whenever I see that, I know it's going to be a negative form. Again, at the beginning, I was trying to follow the pronunciation. Then as it went on, I was beginning to lose that. Too many words coming through, I was trying to remember them, repeat, watching and looking at the negative form at the end.</p>
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Section 3 shows another example of the target pattern through short skits. They include expressions for making a negative request, *~naide kudasai*. Robert reports paying attention to the negative form and the pronunciation, [selective attention] then trying to repeat it [repeating].

<p>Section 4 [Example skits] Skits showing the pattern, <i>~kara ~naide kudasai</i> (~ so please don't ~), an example of which is <i>Atsui kara shimenaide kudasai</i> (It's hot so please don't shut it).</p>	<p>R: One thing crossed my mind is the <i>shimenaide</i> and <i>shimashou</i>. That's the song, 'If you're happy, then you know, you clap your hands.' And I'm not sure, if that's the same word, <i>shimashou</i> with the negative word. It looks the same. The <i>kara</i>. Well, the <i>kara</i> is just added, like <i>atsui kara</i>, and then, please open the window. It means, 'It's very hot, therefore, would you please open the window?'</p>
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Section 4 shows the examples of the target pattern, *~kara ~naide kudasai* (~, so please do not ~). Robert was linking the word *shimenaide* to the familiar word *shimashou* which he heard in a Japanese song he knew [elaborating]. He also pays attention to the position of *kara* in a sentence [selective attention].

¹² In the analysis here and below, strategy labels from the classification scheme in Table 6.3 above

Section 5 [Presentation of variation of the item presented in Section 2] Scenes from Yan's skit about Yan's friend saying to Yan at the station, <i>Sukoshi osokunatta kara isogimashou</i> (It's late so let's hurry).	R: <i>Sukoshi osokunatta kara, isogimashou</i> . So I was able to pick that up. I was paying attention to <i>sukoshi, sukoshi, sukoshi</i> , because it sounds good. I was able to pick that up after the second.
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Section 5 is a presentation of a variation using the item, *~kara, ~ (~, so ~)* presented in Section 2. Robert reports paying attention to the pronunciation of the word *sukoshi* [selective attention] and has little awareness of the newly introduced form, *mashou* (let's ~).

Section 6 [Example skits of the expression presented in Section 5] Skits including expressions such as <i>Tsukareta kara yasumimashou</i> (We are tired so let's take a break).	R: I started concentrating on the <i>mashou</i> because that's what they were saying. 'Look for <i>deshou</i> form.' So I ignored the <i>kara</i> . I was aware it existed as they came down on the escalator. I picked that up at that stage but I wasn't concentrating on it. I could identify them say, '~ so let's do ~.'
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In Section 6, example skits are presented for the expression introduced in Section 5. Here, Robert finally pays attention to the *mashou* and ignores the *kara* which was the newly introduced form of the earlier sections [selective attention].

Section 7 [Example skits] Skit about a runner during his training who wants to take a rest. A trainer rides on a bicycle after him as he runs.	R: I was just watching. I was listening to the sentence structure and trying to pick up the short form. He kept saying <i>Ichi ni, ichi ni</i> , like 'one, two, one, two.' I was beginning to catch some of the words. And then, first one was just there. Something visual. They didn't tell me anything about them.
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Section 7 shows another example of the pattern, *~kara ~ mashou* (It's ~, so let's ~). By this time, Robert seems to have begun losing concentration, so he reported he just watched the skit and attempted to catch some of the words [absorbing].

Section 8 [Yan' skit] Showing of some scenes from Yan's skit as consolidation.	R: I just let it wash through me because I was beginning to feel tired. Again, I was picking up more of the words and sentences. I couldn't pick up where the musician came but I just let it run through me.
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In this final section, scenes from the Yan's skit were played once again. By then, Robert was tired so that he just let what he listened to / viewed run through him without making much effort.

are presented in square brackets.

In this session, Robert generally followed the programme even though he attended to the lesson with his own agenda. He reported a range of strategies depending on the purpose of each section. At the beginning of the lesson, he uses recalling to bring back what he learned in the previous lessons. Then at the presentation of the new items, he selectively attends to the newly introduced items. He repeats the new items in an attempt to register them. In watching the example skits, he elaborates the newly introduced items by relating them to his prior knowledge. And at the end of the lesson, he simply absorbs what he learned in the lesson. Using different strategies depending on the purpose of each section in this way seems to be a reasonable approach to cope with SITV lessons. If we look at Case 2, however, we see that such strategy use is hindered and Robert finds himself in total chaos.

6.4.2 Case 2

We will now examine Robert's verbal report in Session 16 in which his strategy use seemed to have been somehow restricted: he reported only three types of strategies. The previous lesson (L 21) had presented the potential form for saying 'I can / cannot ~' with one type of verb. This lesson (L 22) follows the previous one in presenting the potential form for another type of verb. In the previous lesson, the potential form has been presented as expressing 'ability or potential to do something'. Robert finished off the previous lesson confused about the difference between the two meanings.

Lesson 22	Robert's comments
Section 1 [Review] Scenes from Yan's skit which were covered in the previous lesson.	R: I could follow. There is a cultural thing I couldn't understand. What is the difference between ability and potential in Japan? There is something and that I'm beginning to understand from this but there isn't in English. I am battling why it's important. Because it's so unusual to me, it may need some form of explanation.

Section 1 shows scenes from Yan's skit which include the expressions covered in the previous lesson. Robert says he could generally follow the skit but he is thinking about the difference between ability and potential and not really focussing on the language presented in the skit. He developed a question regarding the difference between ability and potential [developing a question].

<p>Section 2 [Presentation of a new item] Presentation of a new item based on some scenes from Yan's skit about Yan at a construction site and trying on uniform. The man asks him <i>Kiraremasu ka?</i> (Can you wear it?).</p>	<p>R: I don't understand yet. One level, 'Can you wear a suit?' But the word <i>kiraremasu ka</i> is the same word and it doesn't distinguish, to me, ability and potential. Do you have the potential to wear this suit? Is this too small? I don't see any difference. So, again, I'm not sure why there is a distinction. I need more examples. Also, I don't understand why there is the longer form, from <i>ikemasu</i> to <i>kiraremasu</i>.</p>
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Section 2 is a presentation of the potential form for Type II verbs which is different to the form for Type I verbs presented in the previous lesson. But because Robert is so worried about the difference between ability and potential, he misses that explanation and is simply confused as to why there is another form [developing a question (continued)].

<p>Section 3 [Example skits] Skits contrasting the ordinary form <i>tabemasu</i> (<i>eat</i>) and the potential form <i>taberaremasu</i> (<i>can eat</i>).</p>	<p>R: I still haven' got the difference between ability and potential. I don't have the ability to eat it, I don't have the potential to eat it. There is no difference. I was concentrating on distinguishing the difference and I am not distinguishing.</p>
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Section 3 shows example skits using the ordinary form and the newly introduced potential form. But Robert is still looking for the answer regarding the difference between ability and potential and missing the point [developing a question (continued)].

<p>Section 4 [Example skit] Scenes from Yan's skit once again showing the use of the potential form. Explanation about the form. Practice.</p>	<p>R: I could see the <i>arimasu</i> and <i>arimasen</i> so I could see that coming through. Still don't understand the difference between ability and potential. Maybe they are the same things. Maybe I misled myself in thinking there is a distinction between the two. Everything which have come, I am not distinguishing and maybe I psyched myself into believing there is a distinction but maybe there isn't. Maybe I'm looking for something which isn't there. It's a red herring. Confusion and intrigue is ruining the day. What is this all about? I'm gonna find out.</p>
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Section 4 shows more example skits of the potential forms. And yet Robert is still thinking of the ability and potential although slowly realising that perhaps the difference never existed. He pays little or no attention to what the examples are meant to illustrate [developing a question (continued)].

<p>Section 5 [Presentation of a new item 2] Scenes from Yan's skit where Yan and his friends are in a car on a highway. They are talking about if they can see Mt. Fuji. This introduces the new form <i>miemasu</i> (can be seen) as contrasted to <i>miraremasu</i> (can see) and <i>mimasu</i> (see).</p>	<p>R: I could see <i>miemasu</i>, <i>mimasu</i>, <i>miraremasu</i>. Still can't follow the example of potential because there was always a potential to see it except at the end she said, the clip was shown and she said <i>miemasu</i>, meaning 'I can see bits of it but I can't see all of it quite clearly. We have a potential to see all of it.' Was a contrast between not having a tiny screen and we couldn't see any of it because then you will have not potential and ability. It reinforces my previous thought that there is no distinction.</p>
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In Section 5, another relevant but slightly different concept, *miemasu* is introduced which expresses that 'something comes into sight' rather than 'one can see something'. Here again Robert misses the point of this concept as he is still worried about the ability and potential difference although his doubt regarding the existence of such a difference is becoming stronger.

<p>Section 6 [Example skit] A skit using another relevant expression <i>kikoemasu</i> (can be heard) as opposed to <i>kikemasu</i> (can hear) and <i>kikimasu</i> (hear).</p>	<p>R: I can see <i>kikimasu</i>, <i>kikemasu</i>, and <i>kikoemasu</i> means you can hear it without trying. Difference between <i>kikimasu</i> and <i>kikemasu</i> has come up before but I am not getting further. I'm still battling.</p>
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Section 6 shows uses of the word *kikoemasu* (can be heard) which expresses a concept similar to *miemasu* (can be seen) introduced in Section 5. But as Robert did not fully comprehend the concept in Section 5, he cannot quite follow.

<p>Section 7 [Yan's skit] Showing of some scenes of the previously shown Yan's skit as consolidation.</p>	<p>R: Total chaos. I don't understand what's happening then. I can see the words coming up, I remember where they were used before, the <i>hanashimasu</i> and <i>hanasemasu</i>. And she was saying, notice we drop the <i>i</i> and come the <i>e</i>. But I see <i>shi</i>. So, what happened to the <i>sh</i>? It disappeared. And that threw me. Why? Because again I'm looking for patterns. Then she said, <i>miemasu</i>, <i>kikoemasu</i>. I could understand that. And then I just let my total confusion flood in. I'm lost. Somehow I will find the shore again.</p>
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Finally in Section 7, Yan's skit, which includes all the expressions covered in this and the previous lesson was played once again, but Robert finds himself in 'total chaos', missing the form, meaning and use of the target items.

As we have observed, Robert could not follow the lesson simply because he was worried about the difference in form between 'ability and potential' when

in fact the difference had no significance. At the end of the interview session, Robert made the following comment:

Extract 6-16

Robert: Help! Can I start this over again? What have I misunderstood? I missed something very important. So what I would then do is to go back over the last two lessons and figure out what have I misinterpreted. I hadn't had problems with any other lessons. But this, I'm on the wrong track somewhere. So when you take the wrong road, go back to the last point where you knew you were and start again. That's what I need to do at this stage. This thing about ability and potential is blocking me from picking up the rest. I keep thinking that ahead of anything else and it keeps stopping me from the next thing. It's a block. I've got to overcome this. It's stopping me from moving on.

As Robert himself comments in the above remark, being worried about one thing blocked him from any other streams of thought. And because of this, he reported a very limited range of strategies. Observing the above two cases, we can infer that when there is confusion and the learners become particularly worried about one thing, it becomes difficult for them to employ strategies effectively or at least be aware of the strategies they used and report them.

6.4.3 Case 3

We are now going to examine the case of Session 15 in which Jane, who is an active reporter of strategies in other sessions, reported only a limited range of strategies. Jane is the learner whom I perceived to be most advanced in Japanese ability in the group. Her Japanese class teacher also evaluated her as having the highest ability in Japanese of the seven participants in this study (see Chapter 3). Unlike Robert in Case 1 who could not report strategies because of his confusion regarding the content, Jane in this case could follow the content quite easily. It seems as though in this case that is precisely why she could not concentrate as much on the learning content, with her mind wondering off to irrelevant features, and reporting a limited range of strategies. Let us examine her verbal report for each section.

Lesson 21	Jane's comments
Section 1 [Yan's skit] Running of the whole of Yan's skit in which there is a scene at a Japanese condominium.	J: It was a nice flat. I think I was too busy looking at the condominium. (Laughs.) I was thinking 'Oh, that's a nice bathroom.' I thought it was funny that the man automatically starts speaking to Yan in English and the other man said <i>Yan-san wa Nihongo ga dekimasu</i> which means 'Yan speaks Japanese'.

This first section is the first showing of the new episode of Yan's skit. Jane reported that she was so busy observing the Japanese condominium presented in the skit that she forgot to pay attention to the language. Because of this she did not report any strategy.

Section 2 [Presentation of a new item] Skit showing a small boat sinking and the people discussing whether or not they can swim.	J: I was thinking when they were doing the 'Can't you swim?' 'No, I can't swim.' I just wondered why they left the other way of saying that, <i>oyogemasen</i> . They probably will in the next ten minutes. And my guess will be that this is the ability and the other one is 'No, I don't swim'.
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Section 2 shows examples of the target pattern through short skits. The target item is the potential form, *oyogemasen* (cannot swim). Jane developed a question in her mind as to why the presenter only explained the potential form and not the regular form [developing a question]. And yet she does not panic because she also predicts that it will be explained in the succeeding sections [predicting].

Section 3 [Example skits] Scenes from Yan's skit showing the use of the potential form in which a sentence ' <i>Watashi wa eigo wa hanasemasen</i> ' (As for English, I cannot speak.)	J: I was actually thinking about something related but not at all in this. Is it wrong to say <i>Eigo ga hanasemasen</i> ? And I don't think I have learned the changing of the syllable <i>i</i> to <i>e</i> . That's new to me.
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Section 3 shows examples of the potential forms. Here, Jane's attention wanders away from the question she developed in Section 2 and onto the use of particle *wa* instead of the *ga* in the sentence.

Section 4 [Example skits] Skits showing the contrast between the regular <i>-masu</i> form and the potential form.	J: I don't think it was very clearly stated what they wanted to get across. If you're not talking about ability, it's the <i>i</i> vowel that you use but if you are, it would change to, <i>oyogimasu</i> to <i>oyogemasu</i> , and <i>hanashimasu</i> to <i>hanasemasu</i> . But they don't really talk about when you use the first form or whether it's just a regular <i>masu</i> form or what. And there seems to be lots of examples without really showing what the examples were trying to prove first. It seemed to be the wrong way around.
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Section 4 shows some more example skits of the potential form. Jane could follow the difference between the potential form and the regular form but was not satisfied with the way it was explained.

<p>Section 5 [Example skits] Skits showing the contrast between –masu form and the potential.</p>	<p>J: It just seems to me that if all that they're trying to show is this difference, they're really doing it in a round-about way. They could have just said, to make a polite potential form, all you do is just change this to this and show some examples. That would have been much more straightforward. I feel like, isn't there something else?</p>
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In Section 5, some more example skits of the *-masu* and the potential form are shown. Jane who already understands the difference starts criticising the way in which explanation is made. Her comments here resemble those made at the beginning of Phase 1 when she was criticising the production features of the materials. And because her attention wandered off to production features, she did not report any strategy use.

<p>Section 6 [Example skits] Scenes from Yan's skit to illustrate the use of other potential forms.</p>	<p>J: I was just listening out for the e-form. Also I was listening to the particles this time. Listening to the <i>wa</i> and the <i>ga</i>, which particle goes where.</p>
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Section 6 shows another example of the potential form in Yan's skit. Here, Jane simply pays attention to the potential form [selective attention]. She also remembers her earlier concern regarding the particles and pays attention to them [selective attention].

<p>Section 7 [Yan's skit] Showing of some scenes from Yan's skit as consolidation.</p>	<p>J: I actually found it quite useful to see it the second time. I could understand quite a bit more of that office scene. I was also trying to listen out for the potential forms and I heard some although there doesn't seem to be a huge difference between those verbs, it's just with <i>i</i> or <i>e</i>.</p>
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In Section 7, some scenes of Yan's skit were shown as consolidation. Jane paid attention to the potential forms and the regular *-masu* forms to see how they were used in the scenes [selective attention].

In this session, Jane did not have any problem in following the lesson, and the question developed at the beginning was resolved by the end of it. But because Jane found that the content of the lesson was much lower than her level, her attention started to shift away from the focus of the section onto production

features as in the very beginning of Phase 1. Also, the visuals in the materials sometimes distracted her attention away from the learning content. We may infer that when learners find the level of the lesson is very much lower than their current level their attention very easily shifts away from the focus of the lesson onto other materials-oriented features, affecting their strategy use.

6.4.4 Summary of this section

Examination of the above three cases indicates that learners' application of strategies for a task is not always stable. The range of strategies reported varied considerably depending on the lesson. In cases in which the level of the lesson was appropriate and the learners could follow the lesson smoothly, the learners reported a range of strategies accordingly to the purpose of each section. But in cases in which the learners had difficulty in following the lesson, the strategies reported were limited. This may be because the learners' mental activities were so fully occupied with figuring out a certain problem that they could not make effective use of strategies, or report the use of strategies even if they could. On the other hand, in cases in which the level of the lesson was perceived as being too low, the learners similarly reported only a limited range of strategies even if they did not have any problem in following the lesson. This seems to be because their focus shifted away to features other than the learning content. Because of the lack of interactivity within this mode, such variability depending on each lesson may be even more salient than in classroom learning.

We can argue further that learners' strategy use is affected by whether they correctly understand the purpose and the content of each section in a lesson, and that such understanding or lack of understanding affects their subsequent strategy use in the same lesson. If they get confused at one point during a lesson, then their strategy application for the rest of the lesson may become restricted. Such contextual factors should be taken into account in the future when considering learners' strategy application for tasks in actual instructional settings (in classroom as well as self-instructional settings).

Furthermore, in previous works, there was no discussion of variability of strategy use within a single learner. Generalisations were made on the performance of successful or unsuccessful learners as if their performance was always uniform. But this study suggests that any learners' strategy application is affected by the perceived level of a lesson or a task. This kind of variability has not been discussed in detail in previous works, but is an issue which needs to be investigated further.

6.5 The final interviews: developmental changes over seven weeks

We now shift our attention to learners' developmental changes over the seven-week period by examining the final interview results. The questions asked in these interviews were as follows:

- (1) How do you feel about this experience of the past seven sessions?
- (2) Do you think you benefited at all from this experience? If so, in what ways?
- (3) What aspect(s) of your ability in Japanese language do you think has developed most?
- (4) Do you notice any change in relation to learning with these materials since the beginning of these past seven sessions?

The responses to questions (1), (2) and (3) are related and are discussed together in 6.5.1. The responses to (4), concentrated on how the learners used the materials, will be discussed in 6.5.2. See Table 6.5 for the summary of the learners' responses to all the questions.

Table 6.5 Summary of the individual interview after 20 lessons (20 weeks since first contact)

	Sally	Jane	Dale	Robert
Overall feeling	-Much better. Interesting. I can hear much better.	Extremely helpful. It sinks in more because you hear it over and over again. Happy that I did it.	It's been important. This kept me motivated to learn Japanese. Helpful. I enjoyed it. It's not pressured.	-I found it very interesting, challenging. Exciting, encouraging. Helpful.
How do you think you benefitted from the videos?	-I benefitted much more than in class. -It made learning interesting. -The verb forms.	-I learned lots of vocabulary and grammar structures. -Benefitted from seeing the pictures - they help you figure out things from the context. -More entertaining than learning with a book or in class. Good to see it in context.	-It's given me better understanding of Japanese. It's become more interesting.	-More vocabulary, more verb forms, the rhythm of the language, nonverbal behaviour.
What aspect of Japanese did you learn most?	-Grammar -Pronunciation	-Verbs. -Grammar. -Vocabulary. -Listening. -The rhythm of speech. -Guessing more intelligently.	-Verb forms. -New words. -Situations. -Not so much on sentence constructions.	
Has there been any change since you first started?	-I feel happier. -I feel more confident. -I read the text after seeing the video as well as beforehand. I pay more attention to the pronunciation. -You get to know the people in the programmes.	-Guessing more intelligently. -I read notes every week before this. Before, it was 50%. -Now I know the patterns to the programmes. I watch with that expectation. -I read the textbook before watching. Reference the textbook as I watch the video.	-I've developed a process of learning. 1st viewing- I rely on the visuals. 2nd viewing- I try to pick up the familiar items, fill in the gap by context and put it all together. -I use the script and find it invaluable. -I don't scribble down quite as much. I write brief, specific things. -I am more familiar with the sounds.	-I read the material beforehand so that I can mentally and physically cross-reference it. -I predict the pronunciation of words, hear them being pronounced. If it was different, I look at that word and see why I think it was pronounced in one way. e.g. yoroshiku

6.5.1 How learners benefitted from SITV materials / SITV learning in learning Japanese

Learners' responses to the question, 'How do you feel about this experience of the past seven sessions?' were all positive, saying it was 'helpful', 'motivating', 'challenging but exciting' and 'interesting'. These responses are no different to the responses to the same question in final interviews in Phase 1. However, this time, all four of the participants mentioned that they experienced ups and downs during the process. Dale contrasts the ups and down using the metaphor of 'getting off at Charing Cross train station' and 'hiring a cab':

Extract 6-1

Dale: Sometimes, it's a bit like getting off at Charing Cross train station in the rush hour and trying to get to an exit. It's bodies everywhere, trying to push through. You can't see where you're going but you know the general direction. That's when it tends to be most confusing. When something is not clear, you tend to go one way and then you have to go back another way. It's a bit like a maze, trying to find your way out. When things are clear, it's like hiring a cab. You just stick your hand up to them and you go and off you go. And you arrive there. Simple, straightforward, clear. Not stressful. The other situation is stressful. There're all these people in line, all these things you don't understand, you don't know where you're going. You have no control over. You're trying to adapt all the time.

Similarly, Sally describes the process using a diving metaphor as follows:

Extract 6-2

Sally: You're taking in so much more and there're so much depth, and so much getting deeper and deeper. So, everything becomes bigger or brighter. It becomes more because you start off with very small and it opens up so much more. And I have a happy feeling. And the sea has got layers. And it makes me feel quite good because there're so much still to learn.

Tae: Do you feel like you discovered the depth more and more?

Sally: Oh, yes. Not just the language but everything. It's all started off by wanting to learn the language, but when you start learning more and more, you want to go that deep to find out more. You want to discover all the time. It's quite exciting. It could get frustrating sometimes.

These precise descriptions of their learning process illustrates the extent to which the learners had become focussed on their learning compared to in Phase 1 overall.

Learners' responses to questions (2) and (3) overlapped and are discussed together here. The theme analysis of the responses using the same general categories as in Phase 1 (See Table 4.7 in Chapter 4) revealed that the reported benefits of SITV materials were generally the same as in Phase 1 (See Table 6.6). Just as in Phase 1, the learners mentioned the affective advantages of relaxation and entertainment. Sally reported again that SITV learning is fun and relaxing as it imposes less pressure than classroom learning. Interestingly, Sally added her insight that one reason for this relaxed feeling comes from having a continuous story in the drama played by the same actors. She became familiar with these people, developed an emotional attachment and felt at home when she watched the series. This is an interesting aspect of drama-based materials which should be taken into account in the production of future materials:

Extract 6-3

Sally: And I think it's a good idea as well, that the story about Yan have gone right from the beginning. So now, we've got a whole story. It's a different story every week so therefore we've got to know the characters. And it also makes it easier for the teaching and the students because every now and then it would go right the way back so you're recapping all the time on what you've done. And you get to know the people. I think it's good that they haven't actually changed the actors. I think it's quite important. I think it's actually what makes you start relax into it, because you get to know them. You also get to pick up on the way they speak so you get used to their voice, their speed of speech, their accent. So that's good, that they kept the same actors because I noticed whenever they brought anyone new in, it's very difficult again to start picking up on their speech because it's a different sound. So, I think when you're actually learning, to have the same actors all the time, plus Yan, is good, even though I can't understand him.
(Laughs)

Table 6.6 Aspects for which SITV materials were reported as helpful in learning Japanese

I. Linguistic
Pronunciation 'When you've got the video, and you're hearing it over and over, you do pick up much quicker on the pronunciation.'
Prosodic features 'You get used to hearing it, the rhythm of the speech and how the words fall.'
Vocabulary 'A lot more vocabulary than we'd done in any other class.'
Grammar 'Even if you're not focussing particularly on the verbs, you always learning new verbs.'
Nonverbal behaviour 'And how certain phrases are said; with a smile or more seriously. That's what the visual side is telling you.'
II. Cognitive
Memory 'Quite often, you could actually remember, a scene would suddenly pop in your mind anyway.'
Inferencing 'It's helpful in making the educated guesses.'
III. Affective
Entertaining 'I think the videos are fun and they make you feel quite relaxed about it.'
Relaxed atmosphere 'I look forward to it. I don't worry about it, whereas if it's a class, I worry. There's too much pressure.'

A new advantage reported in the cognitive realm was development of inferencing strategies. Jane reported that she used more and more 'educated guesses' (inferencing strategy) as the sessions proceeded and the ways the materials were structured enabled her to do that. In particular, she liked having both the 'blue screen' with the expressions written in Roma-ji-writing (the explicit teaching of form), and the highly contextualised naturalistic skits (implicit learning), the former relating to explicit linguistic knowledge and the latter to implicit linguistic knowledge (Bialystok, 1987):

Extract 6-4

Jane: (With the blue screen,) even if I don't recognise a certain word, I can recognise the ending. If I didn't hear it properly when it was first shown in the skit, a particle attached to it, I thought it was something else, but when you see it, okay, I know that that's the verb, and I'll know what that means in a minute. So, you understand the structure of it, even if you don't understand the content straight away. It's helpful in making the educated guesses. And then if I look up the words in the text, it makes sense much more quickly.

This implies that providing both explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge is necessary in fostering learners' ability to infer. Learners also reported that the visuals in the materials worked beneficially for remembering and retrieving linguistic expressions:

Extract 6-5

Sally: Quite often, you could actually remember, a scene would suddenly pop in your mind anyway. I found as well that I could be walking down the road and you keep getting certain words and sentences going through your mind and it drives you mad (laughs), and then you get one of the scenes coming to your mind. Like, I remember the one when they went to the friend's house and the person wasn't there and all that sort of thing, and you try to put the words to it. So, the videos are very good, because you can actually see the faces in your mind. It works quite well that way.

6.5.2 Method of studying with SITV materials

Since learners' responses to the question, 'Do you notice any change in relation to learning with these materials since the beginning of this past seven sessions?' mostly concerned their own way of studying, I discuss them in relation to what methods they have developed in order to learn more effectively. The discussion also provides some explanations as to why some strategies were more commonly used than others overall (cf. 6.3 above).

The first most frequently reported changes were in the strategic areas of selective attention, resourcing (increased use), and note-taking (changed use). These were all commonly-reported strategies (see Table 6.4) and so learners' reports in final interviews are consistent with findings from within-lesson verbal reports. If we examine more closely, the use of these three strategies seems to have been developed as a means of coping with the multitude of information conveyed simultaneously by SITV materials. Let us take each strategy one by one.

Selective attention deals with choosing a certain item to focus on at a time. Dale and Roger both described how they coped with multiple pieces of information presented via the SITV series by using this strategy:

Extract 6-6

Dale: Initially, I was focussing on what was being said so that I can understand the sentence. And then I was focussing on trying to get the sounds right. And then towards the end, I was focussing on the placement of the words in the sentence so that the sentence construction came up at the end. So, initially, I was trying to understand, then I was trying to mimic, and then actually building up a picture of how it was put together.

Extract 6-7

Robert: First time, I was focussing on each word and how it was written in Roma-ji so that I can see if I can identify whether it is a question, which tense, etc. And then I look at the sentence itself afterwards to see is there any pattern coming through in the structure of the sentence which will help me at a later stage. Like, *ka* is a question marker.

Here, both Dale and Robert report that they focussed on different aspects of the input each time the skit was shown. Overall, learners do not seem to have experienced as much confusion as in Phase 1. Aside from increased use of selective attention, this may also be because they have developed a better understanding of the pattern of the programmes as Jane reports below:

Extract 6-8

Jane: Also, there is more of a pattern to the programmes. Each programme starts with a skit, has an explanation, has mini skits, has variations along that central theme or different ideas introduced, has the writing and then goes back and shows us the skit from beginning to end again. And it's gotten easier because now we know, here comes the skit, here comes the explanation. We tend to watch and not think, Oh no! We know that the explanation is coming.

The second salient strategy is resourcing. Both Sally and Jane report that they came to read the textbook much more than at the beginning of this phase or in Phase 1:

Extract 6-9

Sally: When we first started out back in June, I would try to read them [textbook materials] before the lesson. Then I probably wouldn't have read them after the video. Now I always read the paper before the lesson, watch the video, and then during the week I will read the paper work again. I find that really confirms everything and it brings back everything you'd actually seen. So, my memory of what I'd seen on the video and then going back to the paper work has actually improved as well because I'll immediately think, I can just look at it, read it and think, 'Oh, yes, I remember that scene.' And I know what they're saying. So, I suppose that's changed.

Extract 6-10

Jane: I also make sure I read the notes every week before coming here so that I know what's coming. Otherwise I find myself always looking at the notes as I watch the programmes and I found it quite useful. Rather than being glued to the notes during the actual programmes and missing parts of it, looking at it before I can pay more attention to the programme while it's going on. And also it's a bit easier to understand if you had an idea of what's coming.

Tae: When did you start?

Jane: October. Before that it was fifty-fifty.

The reason Sally gives for reading the textbook before and after watching the video is that it helps with recall. On the other hand, the reasons Jane gives are (1) it provides schemata for the new lesson and (2) it enables her to pay more attention to the video rather than looking at the textbook during viewing. In other words, through more effective use of the textbook, the learners were able to pay better attention to the lessons.

The source of the learners' reference was not limited to their textbooks. Dale reports that he refers to his own notes to effectively adjust his focus as he views the video. In the extract below, Dale explains how he managed to learn the word *tanonda* (past form of 'ask') while paying attention to the video, by combining note-taking and resourcing strategies:

Extract 6-11

Dale: And the fact that I was able to pick out some words, I know I've written them down and I was referencing that, but I could actually pick up sounds to reference that. So I found that really useful.

Robert: Could you pick up the words 'to ask'?

Dale: 'Ask'? It's *tanonda*.

Robert: Okay.

Dale: It's when she came back.

Robert: Yes. I'm impressed with that.

Dale: It's only because I've written it down and I made a conscious effort to look out for sounds and tried to relate that to the words I jotted down, and that gave me the reference. Then it took away the weight for me to think about exactly what the word means. So I heard the sound, I knew what it meant and I could move on to the next bit. Whereas if I hadn't had it written

down, I would have to listen to the sound, understand what it meant, and then from there, listen to something else. So it kind of happens in a much shorter time frame so which helped it.

In the above extract, we can see that Dale took notes of the significant words and referenced them as he viewed the skits, which 'took away the weight' to think about the meaning of these words. As a result he succeeded in remembering the new word which is recorded in his notebook.

The above point relates to the third strategy reported to have changed: note-taking. The coexistence of an increased use of selective attention and an emphasis on note-taking may at first sight seem paradoxical, because, as Lindsay and Norman (1977) have pointed out, note-taking is a decision to defocus away from the text, and to focus on the act of writing. Thus, in order that learners can achieve a compromise between the need to attend to the video and the need to record selected information, they need to somehow minimize the time focussing on writing. Interestingly, the learners report that they use less of this strategy compared to Phase 1 but that the quality of their note-taking has improved. Dale, for example, reports that initially he took a lot of notes and missed visual aspects as a result. Now he notes down only the key words and concentrates more on the visuals as described below:

Extract 6-12

Dale: Another thing I noticed, I don't scribble down quite as much as I did about mid-way through the sessions. I didn't do that at first, then mid-way through, I started to write quite a lot and missed quite a lot of what was going on. Now, I scribble some things down, I miss something while I'm doing that.

Tae: Why aren't you scribbling down so much now?

Dale: Because I look at the script a lot more, I understand a lot more. And the fact I'd done this and missed quite a lot. That's a lesson learned. And also, as I've gone on, what I write down has improved.

Tae: In what ways?

Dale: I never really wrote down notes on what I'd been told. And what I write tends to be briefer and more specific. I'm not writing copious amount of general info. I write brief, specific things. My note-taking is more efficient. Much more selective. Much more focussed in the way I use this material.

As we see in the above extract, Dale’s use of the note-taking strategy is linked to his use of the textbook (resourcing). By reading the textbook in advance, he had a better idea of what is already written in the textbook and because of that wrote down only the information missing in the textbook, which eventually allowed him to pay more and more appropriate attention to the video.

Table 6.7 Number of note entries and type of notes taken during the video-lessons

Phase	Lesson	Jane	Robert	Dale	Type of note
Phase 1	3			9	Word / sentence-translation / explanation
	4	28	18		Word / sentence-translation / explanation Word / sentence only
	6	19			Word / sentence-translation / explanation Word / sentence only Question
	7	11		8	Word / sentence-translation / explanation Word / sentence only Pattern-translation / explanation
	8	6	10		Word / sentence-translation / explanation
	10	5	3	3	Diagram Pattern-translation / explanation Notes made in relation to the text
	11	11			Pattern-translation / explanation Word / sentence-translation / explanation Linking with previous knowledge (elaborating)
	12	15	17		Pattern-translation / explanation Word / sentence-translation / explanation Notes made in relation to the text
Phase 2	19	6		5	Pattern-explanation Word / sentence-translation / explanation
	21	1		1	Pattern-translation / explanation Word / sentence-translation / explanation
	23	5		3	Pattern-explanation Word / sentence-translation / explanation Question
	24	2		3	Pattern-explanation Word / sentence-explanation
	25	4			Pattern-explanation Word / sentence-explanation

To triangulate this point, I analysed the actual notes the learners took while viewing the lessons. Unfortunately, I could only collect notes from three of the learners at the end of Phase 2. However, the analysis shows that these learners’ quantity of notes decreased. Table 6.7 shows the lesson during which the learners took notes, number of entries made, and the types of notes which appeared in the notes taken by Jane, Robert, and Dale. As can be seen, all learners took fewer notes in Phase 2 than in Phase 1, which is consistent with Dale’s remark above. Furthermore, at the beginning of Phase 1, the notes the learners took were simply a word or a sentence and its translation or explanation for its use (such as ‘*oishii*-good tasting’ or ‘*Kono saki n migigawa* – up ahead on the right’). But as the sessions proceeded, rather than simply transcribing the word and its translation / explanation, the learners started to write diagrams to summarise the content, questions (for example, question about the pronunciation of particle *ga* to be nasalised), and information to link a new item to previously learned items. An example of the latter is in Lesson 23, when Jane wrote down the two sentence patterns (Doushite - desu ka (Why~?) Doushita n desu ka (What’s happened?))

along with the newly learned pattern, *Doushita n deshou ka* (What might have happened?) to consolidate her knowledge regarding the relevant expressions. The learners also made notes in relation to what was written in the textbook (with arrows coming from them or by highlighting them). Rost (1987) points out that such concept-ordering notes (for example, sequencing and relating items) and focussing notes (highlighting or dehighlighting) are regarded as more efficient than the mere transcribing or copying of the speaker verbatim. In this light, the learners became more efficient at taking notes, which allowed them to pay more attention to the video.

The second noteworthy change in relation to the learners' strategy use is the development of fixed routines of a combination of several strategies. As we have seen above, the three strategies of selective attention, resourcing and note-taking could be effectively combined to cope with the problem of high information load. Such combinations were reported by some learners as becoming routinized into a set of sequential activities. For example, Dale describes the method he developed as follows:

Extract 6-13

Dale: I've developed a process, when I'm going through the skits, I would look and listen first, then I try and match it up with what's in here (the textbook). I still get stuck on words occasionally. I'm still not focussed too heavily on sentence construction. I tend to be more focussed on meaning, the individual words. And I still try literally to translate and compare that with the meanings in the script. The translation there and try and identify why the difference is and where it is. I find I'm doing that more and more. And at times, I'm switching from,... I'm not relying so heavily on the visual now. The first skit, I probably watch, rely heavily on the visual. The second time the skit comes up, not so concentrate on the visual and try to pick up things that are very familiar to me and identify with the skit exactly what's going on to fill in the gaps. Revisiting it, going through it again and try to put it all in place. So, now, I'm much more structured in the way I was doing it. And now I could see myself doing it now whereas before, I hadn't thought about the way I was learning, I just sat there and however the information happened to go in. So I had no particular pattern that I was conscious of.

Dale's method described above can be summarized as follows:

- (1) First viewing of Yan's skit : Get the gist of the skit, relying on the visuals. [Getting the gist]
- (2) Second viewing: Concentrate on the language rather than the visuals. Look at the textbook and match the language with the written script, focussing on the familiar words. [selective attention / resourcing]
- (3) Translate the Japanese into English. [translating]
- (4) Compare the translation with the translation given in the textbook. Identify the difference and why. [translating / resourcing]

By developing a fixed routine, Dale's use of these strategies became more efficient, leaving more room to concentrate on the learning content rather than on the process itself.

Similarly, Robert also reports a specific method he developed for improving his pronunciation using the textbook and the SITV materials. In Extract 6-14, Robert describes his use of the textbook material but in a way different to Dale:

Extract 6-14

Robert: I read the material beforehand so that as the video would play, I will be able to mentally or physically cross-reference it. If a word came up and I had thought it was pronounced in one form and I hear it pronounce it. I then try to look at that word and see why did I think it was pronounced in one way. Like *yoroshiku* for a long time I thought it was *yoroshiku* but it's actually *yoroshku*. It's squashed a little bit. So I would look at the written form and then look and listen to it again. So that it would help with the pronunciation. I thought that was particularly effective. I have to read first and try pronouncing how I thought it would be pronounced. And very often it would be completely different.

Tae: Then what would you do?

Robert: I then go back and work again on pronouncing the word until it sticks in my memory. The way it was pronounced. And just see why I was doing it differently.

A summary of Robert's method of practicing pronunciation using the SITV materials is as follows:

- (1) Read the script of the skits in the textbook material at home. [resourcing]
- (2) Predict how the words in the script might be pronounced. [predicting]

- (3) Watch and listen to the skits, paying attention to the pronunciation. [selective attention]
- (4) If the words were pronounced differently to how they were predicted to be, listen to the pronunciation in the skits carefully, look at the word in the script and try to figure out why the prediction was wrong. [self-monitoring / resourcing]
- (5) Afterwards, practice pronouncing the word in the way it was pronounced. [repeating]

This development of routines of a certain combination of strategies observed among the participants is a noteworthy feature of their strategy use. This form of routinization in strategy use is an under-researched area but it is a phenomenon which should be investigated further. I will discuss this issue in greater depth in Chapter 8.

6.6 Discussion and conclusion

Here, I discuss the findings in this phase in relation to the research questions presented at the beginning of the chapter.

What strategies do learners use during a lesson presented via SITV materials?

In this chapter, we first identified a range of strategies used by learners when they are engaged in SITV lessons. The strategies identified were partly captured by the taxonomies found in previous work, but some new strategies were also identified. The newly identified strategies may be particularly relevant to taking part in a lesson or series of lessons, such as warming up, recalling, absorbing, developing a question, tolerating ambiguity, and lowering anxiety. For example, warming up and recalling are used at the beginning of a lesson to tune in and to remember what one learned in previous lessons. Developing a question is done during a lesson as the learner listens to teacher's explanation. Absorbing is used at the end of a lesson to absorb what he / she learned in that lesson. Also, some affective strategies such as tolerating ambiguity and lowering anxiety were found to be used to cope with naturalistic material. In previous work on strategy application, particular tasks were frequently investigated in decontextualised settings, that is, not in actual instructional settings, and this is probably why such lesson-related strategies had not been identified. The study suggests the need to take into account such contextual factors in investigating learners' strategy application.

We also identified types of strategies which are commonly used in SITV learning. Commonly used strategies were selective attention, resourcing, inducing, developing a question, taking notes, inferencing, recalling and translating. The use of some of these strategies seems to have developed as the learners gained more experience in learning with this SITV material. I shall discuss this issue further below.

The range of strategies reported varied considerably depending on the lesson. Close examination of the learners' verbal reports for each lesson indicated that the learners' strategy application may be affected by learners' understanding of the lesson. If the learner could follow the lesson smoothly without difficulty, the learner could employ a range of strategies depending on the purpose of each section. But if the learner get confused during the lesson, the use of strategies and / or the ability to report strategies is hindered. On the other hand, if the lesson is perceived as being too easy, the learner's attention can easily shift away to materials-oriented features. The above findings indicate that strategy application for a task is not always uniform or stable. In instructional settings in particular, when the tasks or activities are in sequential order, confusion in one task may lead to confusion in the next, and learners' strategy application may be hindered accordingly. Such contextual factors should be taken into account in future investigation of strategy application. Furthermore, in previous work, there has been no discussion of variability of strategy use within a single learner. Generalisations were made on the performance of successful or unsuccessful learners as if such performance was always uniform. But the present findings suggest that any learners' strategy application is affected by factors such as the perceived difficulty of a lesson or a task and how they succeed in developing understanding of each section in the lesson. More research is needed to fully understand factors which may cause such variability.

Are there any developmental changes observed during Phase 2?

The most salient developments in this phase were in the method learners employed for studying with the materials. The learners seem to have developed more effective use of some strategies for the task of SITV learning. Of particular salience is the strategy to attend to specific aspects of the input appropriately, according to the focus of the section of the lesson. As the information provided through this type of medium is multiple, this strategy is particularly important in order to benefit from it. Another salient strategy was resourcing. Even though participants were provided with the textbook material from the beginning, it is

only during this phase that they started to make active and effective use of it. Because of the diversity and the amount of information provided through this medium and the fluidity of such information, the role of the textbook material becomes of particular importance for studying before, during or after the viewing of these materials. Finally, the role of the note-taking strategy has also been highlighted. Although the importance of effective note-taking is undoubtedly not specific to this type of learning, it becomes of particular salience here as it is related to the extent to which the learners can distribute their attention. Intense note-taking may distract learners' attention from the video, and might prevent them from following the lesson even though the fluidity of the medium requires the individual learner to take note of information found to be particularly relevant.

Another noteworthy phenomenon was the development of routines of strategies. By combining a particular set of strategies, the learners developed more or less fixed and systematic ways of studying with the materials. Frequently, the strategies such as selective attention, resourcing, and taking notes were combined within such routines. Such combination and routinization of strategy use has not been discussed in previous work but appears to be an efficient way of economizing learners' limited capacity. In this sense, the learners have become more skilled at SITV learning. I shall discuss this issue further in Chapter 8.

From the above discussion, we may conclude that in order for SITV materials to work as a useful means for developing learners' L2 proficiency, simply discussing what constitutes 'good' materials is not enough. In addition, it seems to be an indispensable condition that the learners understand the characteristics of the materials and are able to use and combine appropriate strategies at appropriate times during the lesson. The study reported in this chapter contributed as a basis for considering how such learner training might be promoted.

Although, with the end of Phase 2, I had initially considered my main study to be over, at its end, the learners in the study expressed their wish to continue with the sessions. As a result, I ended up carrying out 16 more sessions which consisted of two 'phases'. I shall discuss the findings from these two additional 'phases' in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

SEQUEL TO THE MAIN STUDY ('Phase 3' and 'Phase 4')

7.1 Introduction

As I already mentioned in earlier chapters (Chapter 3, for example), although my major data collection was regarded as being completed by the end of Phase 2, some of the participants said they wanted to carry on further. As a result, I ended up carrying out 16 more sessions altogether, consisting of two 'phases' (although I did not literally *carry out* the last 'phase' as we will see below). Because the findings from these two 'phases' proved to add an important dimension to understanding of the process of SITV learning, I will report what happened in them and discuss some of the significant findings. The data from these two 'phases' are regarded as additional and I will not devote as much detailed attention to them as to Phases 1 and 2. Instead, I simply point out the findings which are significant in adding answers to my overall research questions before discussing the results from the four phases all together in Chapter 8.

7.2 'Phase 3'

At the end of Phase 2, the participants asked me if it was possible for them to somehow continue studying with the materials even though I had made it clear that for me the data collection was finished. They said they found the sessions beneficial for their learning and wanted to carry on as long as the situation allowed. Taking the participants' schedules into account, I agreed to continue with eight more sessions under the arrangements described below. This period will be called 'Phase 3' (see Table 7.1). The same two groups as in Phase 2 were kept for reasons of convenience of schedule, although Dale withdrew just before the first session started. Thus Robert attended on his own, and Jane and Sally together.

As usual I had participants come to my house for viewing of the video-lessons and afterwards, at the end of each session, had them complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire had the same set of questions as in Phase 1. This time, I did not stop the tapes while viewing the lessons (as in Phase 2) but instead, gave participants the video remote controller and allowed them to stop and / or rewind the tapes as they wished, although in fact they scarcely used the controller. At the end of eight weeks, I carried out individual interviews with the three remaining participants, having them reflect back on the eight weeks overall.

Table 7.1 The session schedule for 'Phase 3'

Session	Lesson	Date	Participant	Date	Participants
19	27	18/1	Robert	13/1	Jane, Sally
20	28	15/2	Robert	20/1	Jane, Sally
21	29	22/2	Robert	27/1	Jane, Sally
22	30	1/3	Robert	3/2	Jane, Sally
23	31	8/3	Robert	10/2	Jane, Sally
24	32	15/3	Robert	17/2	Jane, Sally
25	33	22/2	Robert	24/2	Jane, Sally
26	34	29/3	Robert	3/3	Jane, Sally
Final interview			Robert		Jane, Sally

The most salient developments reported in the final interviews were in the method learners followed in studying with the materials. Generally, they became more active in relation to their learning activities. For example, learners reported consulting sources other than the textbook for the SITV series. In the extract below, Robert reports that before this 'phase' he was heavily reliant on the SITV series and the textbook. Now, he uses other sources such as reference grammar books and dictionaries:

Extract 7-1

Robert: I'm actually going to other sources. I'm looking through the dictionary.

I'm spending a bit more time looking at the grammar, which I wasn't at the beginning. I am using the material to a much better form now. Just crossed a little threshold and now I can see the huge mountain ahead of me. Before, I didn't even know there was a mountain.

Robert notes that during this 'phase', he feels he has crossed some kind of 'threshold' and after this point, he feels more in control of the materials and what he is doing. As a result, Robert has become less dependent on the SITV series and is now actively choosing from and combining various sources to meet his own goals. In other words, Robert's self-instruction has become closer to what Dickinson (1987:5) terms 'learner-centred self-instruction' rather than 'materials-centred self-instruction'. This shift is a sign that Robert is more self-directed than before.

Furthermore, the learners now have a better sense of the purpose for each of the activities they choose to do. For example, Robert reports he now uses what he terms a 'top-down approach' and describes it as follows by using a 'gardening' metaphor:

Extract 7-2

Robert: The last eight (sessions) gave me the ability to do it top-down. I wanted to know. I needed to know a bit more about it. ... The approach is like model-making. When I go to my garden, I look at the garden and take photographs. When I am finished, I try to get a perspective. I try to get a feel of what I am trying to make. I try to get the shapes by using measurement of the area and make myself a model. Then I go to look for plants that look like these shapes and do some research. Could I put that all in there? Then if I make a mistake, I take it out. I want to learn Japanese and I am trying to understand what it is. In the form of getting books of gardens, I started to get a picture of what I am trying to achieve. Learning the shape of the language. I try to get a general skeleton of it.

Here we observe that Robert is actively attempting to plan, execute, and evaluate his own learning. He now locates a learning activity within his overall plan, executes it, and examines how the activity worked within this plan. As a result of this examination, Robert seems to have found good reasons to put effort into reviewing and does it accordingly:

Extract 7-3

Robert: I am now a bit more conscientious about the reviewing. Preparation, I've always done but not necessarily with any aim or direction because I didn't know what I was preparing for. Now, I have an idea of where the lesson is going to go. I've got the transcript, I got the notes to read through. I can, then, review it afterwards because it's the same episode used for two lessons. Reviewing it, I pick up more words, I can see more examples. I start picking up how they're being used. And I'm still digging a bit further into it, trying to figure out have I got it wrong? Why did I get it wrong? Does it mean this? Why is it structured in this form? Looking at the English translation and trying to get an association of, trying to see where the difference is. Where are these little polite nuances? Where do they come in and what is the message behind it?

Jane, on the other hand, says she now has a stronger sense of reasons for preparing for the upcoming lesson by reading the textbook in advance:

Extract 7-4

Jane: Now I make sure I read the notes either over the weekend or at the beginning of the week and do the exercises, and on the Wednesday, I reread the notes. And then I watch the programme (on Thursday) and it's clearer if I had any questions and things. It's more rewarding and I look forward to it. Because I know it's going to be an enjoyable experience whereas before it may have been confusing and I would have walked out thinking 'Oh, I didn't understand that bit properly.'

Extracts such as the above indicate that these learners now have a better sense of why they are doing what they are doing and in this sense have obtained more control over their learning decisions.

The second noticeable change with regard to methods of learning is that the learners have now developed fixed routines for time, place, and pace of studying with the SITV series. If we take a look at Extract 7-4 once again, here Jane reports setting a particular time for studying with the materials, that is, reading the notes and doing the exercises on the weekend or at the beginning of the week, reading the notes again on Wednesday, and watching the video on Thursday. Sally and Robert also report a similar kind of routine. The routinization of strategy use observed at the cognitive level in Phase 2 (see Chapter 6) has now been extended more generally to the level of learning management. It is also interesting that this kind of routinization was also observed with the experienced learners in the Japanese context who were successful in their persistence (see Chapter 2). These results indicate that fixing some kind of routines can be effective in self-instruction. I shall discuss the above two issues further in Chapter 8.

Another noteworthy issue discussed in the final interview was having the video controller to themselves. Until Phase 2, learners did not have control over stopping, rewinding or fast-forwarding the video tapes. In this phase, learners were given the video controller for the first time. All of the participants liked having the controller although they in fact scarcely used it. Robert and Jane explained that this is only because now they prefer to run through the whole lesson without stopping and then study the details with the textbook later. The learners now seem to have a clearer purpose for viewing the lesson and studying the textbook. Interestingly, Sally also reported that even though she liked the freedom of having the controller, she would not have liked it to be given at earlier stages:

Extract 7-5

Sally: I think I didn't need to stop all that often. If we had that control earlier, that wouldn't have been good because prior to Christmas, I don't think I was ready to just go through and watch the whole thing and probably understand it as well as now. So in a way it was done at the right time. Any earlier, we might just sat there and thought we were doing okay whereas prior to Christmas you were stopping the tape and asking if we understood it and questions and everything which was good but if we had the control, we wouldn't have stopped the tape and missed quite a lot of the stuff. So I wouldn't have wanted to be given control too early.

Remarks such as the above imply that self-instructing learners need some kind of guidance regarding the use of the materials until they have acquired the skills to study on their own. It is also interesting that Sally found the interview format in Phases 1 and 2 helpful for her learning, suggesting that the format used in the study, that is, stopping the tape and discussing its content in a group, may be an effective method applicable to the classroom use of SITV materials, or indeed self-instructional use in 'learning groups'.

Turning now to the questionnaire results, an interesting finding was observed regarding the most and least useful parts of the material. The results of the analysis of the same questionnaire used in Phase 1 showed that the most useful part of the programme to these learners was the 'Explanation' section, followed by 'short skits (in studio)' and 'Yan's skit (naturalistic drama)'. In the results in 'Phase 3', the same order of preference was found and 'Explanation' remained the most popular part. On the other hand, for the question asking the least useful part of the programme, there were scarcely any responses. There were 3 responses giving a particular scene in the short skits, 3 a scene in Yan's skit, and 14 responses said 'Nothing was not useful'. This shows that the learners are no longer negative towards the materials as they sometimes were in Phase 1. This at the same time also indicates that the learners are now preoccupied with trying to learn the language rather than evaluating the material itself.

In summary, by the end of 'Phase' 3, the learners were observed to be active users of the SITV series, combining it with other learning resources. They had a clearer sense of purpose for the activities they employed and developed routines for the use of these activities at a fixed time, place, and pace. As a result, the learners reported they benefited from all parts of the materials. This indicates that the learners were now better at exploiting the potentials of the SITV series compared to earlier stages.

Table 7.2 Learners' responses to the questionnaire

Q1 Parts in the programme which were most useful
-Explanation (skits plus blue screen) 7
-Short skits 6
-Yan's skit 5
-Others 2
Cultural explanation
Summary at the end
Q2 Parts in the programme which were least useful
-Nothing was not useful 14
-A particular scene in Yan's skit 3
-A particular scene in short skit 3

7.3 'Phase 4'

When 'Phase 3' was finished, the three participants were still unwilling to stop and said they wanted to continue with the sessions. By this time, I could no longer continue to be present at the sessions myself because I had to leave the country in order to go back to my work in Japan. But since the participants were so eager to continue, I made the following arrangements. All of the three participants lived in north London, and so I suggested they get together in one of their houses to do the sessions, and I assigned Jane to be the leader of the group as she was ahead of the rest. When they all agreed, I lent them the video tapes and the textbook and told them they could study with the materials in any way they liked. I asked them to do the interviews by themselves at each session, telling them they could ask each other and/or discuss whatever they wanted to, and gave them some empty audio tapes for recording. I also asked them to interview each other in a final interview when they terminated the sessions. In addition, I asked them to fill out a questionnaire which asks them to describe what they did at each lesson (session), and what they did at home between the previous session and the current session (see Appendix 4 for the actual questionnaire sheet).

The participants met at Robert's house once a week and carried out the sessions for eight weeks, adding an extra review session on their own initiative as a group. This period will be called 'Phase 4' (see Table 7.3). As Jane was assigned the role of the leader, she kept contact with me by e-mail. The collected data was kept at Robert's house until they were delivered to me later when I returned to England. A schedule of the sessions in this phase is in Table 7.3 below.

In this phase, even though I made the basic arrangements, many of the decisions regarding the management of the sessions were left up to the learners. This is firstly because I was not going to be there, and secondly, I was interested in finding out how they would manage the sessions themselves and how that

would be different from the ways I had been organising them. Therefore, there was opportunity for the learners to invent their own ways of planning and executing the sessions.

Table 7.3 The session schedule for 'Phase 4'

Session	Lesson	Date	Participants
27	35	22/4	Robert, Jane, Sally
28	36	28/4	Robert, Jane, Sally
29	37	6/5	Robert, Jane
30	38	13/5	Robert, Jane, Sally
31	39	27/5	Robert, Jane, Sally
32	40	10/6	Robert, Jane, Sally
33	41	24/6	Robert, Jane, Sally
34 plus review	42	1/7	Robert, Jane, Sally
Final interviews		1/7	Robert, Jane, Sally

As a result, some drastic innovations were made with regard to the ways the sessions were carried out. The first such innovation was a change of the session format. Soon after the start of 'Phase 4', the learners talked about the problems they found in the ways the sessions had been carried out previously, then made changes in order to solve these problems. The group interviews reveal how the learners came to create the new format. In Session 29 (L 36), Robert expressed his frustration at not having enough opportunity to pronounce words and not getting any feedback on his pronunciation. He was never sure if he was pronouncing correctly and if not, what his problems were. Sally agreed. Taking these complaints into consideration, Jane suggested a new format according to which anyone who found a word or phrase they were unsure about could stop the video tape at that point, try pronouncing it along with the others, and then replay the tape to see whether it was pronounced correctly. In this new format, Jane took on the role of correcting the others' pronunciation and answering the questions they had. This format allowed them to monitor and practice their pronunciation, as is evident from the following extract from the interview in Session 30 in which Robert raises a question regarding the pronunciation of *ka* (question marker) put at the end of a sentence:

Extract 7-6

(Robert stopped the video because he found a word he was unsure about.)

Jane: Robert has stopped the tape and let's find out why.

Robert: Oh, my God. I stopped the tape! (They laugh.) The word *kaimashou ka* (Shall we buy?). It's like the *ka* is not pronounced.

Jane: Yes, it is. *Kaimashou ka*. (Jane pronounces the *ka* with a short cutting sound.)

Robert: My ear is picking up *kaimashou kuh*.

Jane: That's it. It's not *kaimashou kaa*. It's just *kaimashou ka*. It's more of a gutter.

Robert: But it's not a stop like *ta*.

Jane: Well, it's pretty close.

Robert: But normally, it's sort of, *desu ka*.

Jane: Well, it's after a *shou* as well which is gonna make it sound a little bit different being after *desu*. *Shou* is like a closing sound whereas if it's *desu* you gonna have to go up, shhhh.

Robert: Up.

Jane: Your tongue has to do something a little different.

Robert: Yeah. And normally, the inflection that is rising implies it's a question but this is...

Jane: This is more of a 'Let's change the towel' but it translates into 'Shall I' because the *mashou ka* is 'Shall I do something?' form but it's more of a 'Let's change the towel' because he (a character in Yan's skit) is taking care of him (Yan).

Robert: Okay, so it's really not a question. It's almost an order. 'I am changing the towel.'

Jane: Yeah, it's like 'Let's change that towel.' It's the 'Let's', is the only English equivalent.

Robert: Okay, so why did I stop it? Because I was curious about it. Thank you.

Jane: That's fine. (Jane stops the interview-tape.)

It is noticeable that in this new format, Jane plays a particularly important role. In response to the problem Robert raised, Jane shared her own strategy for pronouncing *ka*, demonstrating her theory regarding why *ka* is pronounced differently after *-shou* and *desu*, and why in the scene in the drama there was no response to the utterance with *-mashou ka* even though it has the rising intonation of a question. Her explanations are correct except that the difference between *shou* and *desu* is in the length of the vowels as well as the consonants themselves. However, it is impressive that Jane could provide such an explanation even though it is not provided in the textbook. In fact, Sally and Robert later reported that they actually benefited much more from this non-expert knowledge than explanations from textbooks or teacher because Jane, who is also a learner, could provide strategies which they could follow quite easily. I shall come back to this issue later.

Secondly, learners spontaneously added an extra review session at the end of the eighth session, inventing also the way to carry out this review session. In this review, learners first read out loud the review section of the textbook and corrected each other's pronunciation. Then, they shared and discussed what they each brought up as issues to be reviewed. In the interview afterwards, they discuss the effectiveness of this activity:

Extract 7-7

Robert: I'm pleased we read it out loud and for my pronunciation to be corrected.

Just to get a few tips on how to do it.

Sally: I liked reading it aloud and having the pronunciation corrected. That's been really helpful. It is possibly what we should have done in the other lessons and then watch the video.

Jane: I would agree with that because then you can read through it beforehand and then when you do hear on the video you could say 'Oh, I got it wrong' or 'That's how it should sound like'

Sally: Yeah. So that would be useful way of learning.

Jane: Yeah. I think this review worked quite well, reading the things out loud. It was a nice refresher. Good to get some practice in reading out loud again.

In this interview, learners sound empowered to find that the activity they invented turned out to be so effective. Here as well, Jane took an active role of monitoring and giving feedback for the others' pronunciation.

Thirdly, as I already pointed out above, a change was observable in Jane's role as the leader in the sessions. Jane's original role was to facilitate the sessions and the interviews afterwards. But in fact, in the new format, Jane took on a more active role. In Extract 7-6, Jane not only facilitated the discussion by asking questions, but she also gave answers to the others' questions, provided a model for the others to repeat and gave feedback on the others' pronunciation. Furthermore, she shared her own strategy to help the others overcome their learning difficulties. An example of such activity is to be found in the following extract from Session 27 (Extract 7-8) in which Sally started by sharing her problem in remembering the plain forms of verbs and Robert commented upon this that he frequently mixed up different plain forms. In response to these problems, Jane shared her problem in remembering the past negative plain forms of verbs, the strategies she employed to cope with this problem, and then went on to answer other questions about the language:

Extract 7-8

Sally: I thought grammatically it was easy but the only thing that was nagging away was that I cannot remember my plain forms well enough when it comes to the past and the past negative, and I get the *kunai* and the *kunakatta*, etc. I get all mixed up. When they say 'plain form', I go 'Oh, no! Which form?' I kept going back into the lesson not because I can't understand but I can't remember the plain forms, what is what. I know that that's practice.

Robert: I had a problem at the Japanese restaurant. My friend said *Oishii* (It's tasty) and just for some reason I said *Oishikunakatta* (It was not tasty) and that's not completely what I meant by it! I meant to say the positive past which was *Oishikatta* (It was delicious). Because I thought I got it wrong, I remembered because I was embarrassed by it.

Jane: My problem is not with the affirmative, negative or past. It's the past negative. That is the one I always get confused but with adjectives and adverbs the endings are similar. I can figure out if I see it written out.

Sally: I still can't make out what they are saying if I don't have the transcripts.

Jane: Yes, transcript helps. Particularly with new words which run together, (Robert / Sally: Yeah.) and compound words and verb forms that sound vaguely familiar but you're not exactly sure what they mean, I'm looking down at the transcript a lot more. That's why I try to read this thoroughly before I get here so I can concentrate on what's going on here.

Sally: Yeah.

Jane: But there are all these little words that run together which don't enunciate. I think there comes a time. Um, would anyone like to check the pronunciation of words?

Sally: Yes. On page 194, right here.

Jane: Okay, so and what do you think it is?

Sally: *Mo shiremasen?*

Jane: It's actually pronounced more than that. It's *kamoshiremasen*.

Sally: Oh, *kamoshiremasen*.

Jane: All the vowels are pronounced. Do you want to go back and listen to the video?

Sally: No. The other one is this.

Jane: *Ame ga futta*.

Sally: But it doesn't sound like how it writes at all.

Jane: They are. It's one of those sounds that's close to the Chinese sounds? So it's somewhere between *fu* and *hu*. It's like the 'tough' at the back.

Sally: When I pronounce the *FU*, it's more like

Robert: *Huu*.

Jane: *Hu*.

Robert: *Hu*.

Sally: *Hu*.

Jane: Okay, that's fine. That's it! Any questions, Robert?

Robert: No.

It is remarkable how Jane's utterances resemble very much those of a teacher in the above extract. How could she suddenly take on such an active role? There are two potential explanations. First, Jane was ahead of Robert and Sally so she had already encountered the problems Robert and Sally were facing. Therefore, it was relatively easy for Jane to share the strategies that she had developed, which were then modelled by Robert and Sally. This kind of collective scaffolding was already observed in Phase 2 when the learners shared and imitated each other's strategies. However, it was done more explicitly in this phase.

Secondly, it could have been the case that Jane somehow internalised my role as the interviewer by participating in the interviews for over a year. Extract 7-9 shows a group discussion about the effect of showing the long skit and the listening exercises after viewing the whole lesson in Session 30. Observe Jane's performance as an interviewer in the following extract:

Extract 7-9

Robert: I found it rather long. Repeating the whole skit at the end, I didn't get much of a learning lesson out of it. What I did like was the listening exercises. We were forced to listen. I thought that was actually quite good. I could understand the content.

Sally: I hadn't seen the skit last week so I had problems with picking up the pronunciation.

Jane: When you were watching the skit at the end, were you following what was going on?

Sally: Oh, yes. I knew exactly what was going on.

Jane: At the end.

Sally: At the end. And with the listening exercises, I'm not sure that I was really listening.

Jane: For the listening exercises, in the past, we had something similar. We had to guess how to make a sentence. Do you think these were more successful?

Sally: Yeah.

Robert: I do remember them. But as a learning, I think I like this one.

Sally: I think because you actually have to listen. It made me listen.

In the underlined lines, Jane skillfully asks questions and clarifies the meaning of Sally's utterance. Jane had not done any kind of research interviews before but she asks questions in the way in which I had been conducting the group interviews. Furthermore, in the final interview for this 'phase', Jane asked exactly the same set of questions as I had done in previous phases even though I had told her that the group could discuss whatever they wanted to discuss. We can observe here that my previous performance in the interviews provided a model or scaffolding for Jane to take on this role as a facilitator in the succeeding sessions. Thus, it might be argued that the previous three phases prepared Jane to take on the role of interviewer and facilitator.

Having gone through these transformations, the group as it is now resembles what has been called an 'autonomous learning group' (Tough, 1971) or 'a self-directed learning group' (Riley, 1982; Riley and Sicre, 1985). The former is a phenomenon naturally observed within people's everyday learning activities, and refers to a spontaneously formed group consisting of members who share a common purpose of carrying out a learning project of their own interest. Tough (ibid.) considers a wide range of activities such as book clubs, bible study groups, science clubs, literary and philosophical groups, and so on, as examples of autonomous learning groups. 'Self-directed learning groups', on the other hand, have been deliberately set up in the context of autonomous teaching/learning schemes by members of the C.R.A.P.E.L., University of Nancy II, so that adult learners are enabled to learn English while also becoming better *at* learning English. A common characteristic shared by these two types of group is that in both cases the group members accept responsibility for the planning and the running of the learning projects instead of relying on an outsider (or a teacher) or a set of materials to guide its learning.

The practice of the group in this study is less autonomous / self-directed than that of the groups reported in Tough (1971) and Riley and Sicre (1985), and I will therefore refer to it as a 'semi-autonomous learning group'. It was initially set up by an outsider (me), and the planning and the running of the sessions was done by me up to 'Phase 3,' based on the materials I chose. Even in this fourth 'phase',

the initial planning and role assignment (leadership to Jane) was done by me, and the learning relies heavily on one SITV series rather than on materials brought in by the members. However, in this 'phase,' the learners had freedom and responsibility to carry out the sessions in the ways they liked and as a result they took initiatives in inventing new activities, taking on new roles and, in general, becoming more self-directed. Engagement in such a semi-autonomous learning group might be seen as a stepping stone towards learner autonomy, even when many of the decisions about the learning process appear to be built into the materials (see our discussion of 'materials-centred self-instruction' in Chapter 2).

In what ways, then, is this kind of semi-autonomous learning group beneficial to learners? The first apparent advantage perceived by these learners was overcoming the problem of lack of external monitoring and feedback which is inherent in self-instruction. Robert reports, in his final interview conducted by Jane, that he actually benefited more from this 'semi-autonomous group' format than from having a teacher:

Extract 7-10

Robert: ... we benefited by having you (Jane) around. In a way you were leading it and you were asking questions and we will try and work out the answer. I thought that was useful. I don't think it would necessarily be better with a teacher or tutor there. We were working together on this theme. I think it helped because you have a greater command with the language, particularly with pronunciation. And that certainly helps us to move forward, so I don't think I needed anything more formal than that.

Jane: How about if you were to study with the video by yourself.

Robert: No, it's better to do it with someone else. It's much better.

Jane: So you liked the feedback.

Robert: I liked the feedback. Listening to what somebody else is doing and perhaps giving *them* feedback. That helps *you*.

Secondly, Sally reports an affective benefit. She believes the benefits of this format to be in the informality and the relaxed atmosphere which come from just being with 'study buddies'. The other side of the coin is that the pressure for discipline, which had come from my presence, is absent:

Extract 7-11

Jane: Do you think you benefited more from this format?

Sally: I wouldn't say I benefited more. But having studied on our own, it's been really good for me, although I found it difficult to discipline myself to put effort into it. With Tae, I suppose I would really make the effort to at least get through the next lesson but doing it on our own, it's been nice to sit and talk. May be that's the change. This seven week block, I'm not afraid to try to pronounce it and discuss it with you or Robert whereas before when I've been with Tae I was very very quiet. So this past seven weeks have been very good in that sense.

Jane: Do you think if you went into class now, you would be relaxed.

Sally: Yes, I'm more confident.

Thirdly, Jane gives another advantage from the point of view of the leader. See the following extract from the final interview in which Jane interviewed herself:

Extract 7-12

Jane: I think it's been a really good experience. A different experience because I was sort of leading the group and it's been motivational because it pushed me to make sure I'd read the notes and do the exercises and to be a bit more organised about it. I think it's been a positive experience. As a learner, I learned a lot from these programmes. Particularly the grammar, the verb forms, the vocabulary, the pronunciation, new ways of expressing ourselves, more complex sentences, how to combine two verbs and things like that have been very useful. Change in myself in relation to the programmes, yes because I had a different role. I was a bit more organised and I actually enjoyed it.

Jane reports that because she was playing the role of the leader, she was more active in her participation and was more motivated and organised. This shows that the semi-autonomous group format is not only beneficial for the participants but can also be beneficial for a leader, in different ways.

The findings discussed above provide insights into the potentials of group self-instruction. Working in groups such as the one observed above, learners can overcome some of the limitations of self-instruction such as lack of external monitoring and feedback, and lack of interaction. In such groups, learners can organise activities based on their own needs in an informal and relaxed atmosphere. This has important implications for the benefits of group self-

instruction as well as for learner strategy development. I shall come back to these issues in Chapter 8.

Finally, I discuss the questionnaire results in relation to the learners' learning activities at home. Table 7.4 presents a summary of the learners' descriptions of what they did in between the previous and the current sessions. If we examine these results, we see that the learners had a more or less fixed routine of activities for each week. Robert and Jane in particular studied at a fixed time and place: Robert on Wednesday evenings at home, and Jane on weekend afternoons at home. Robert explained that it was better for him to do the review and the preparation just before the 'lesson' (on Thursday) whereas Jane found it better to review earlier so that she did not lose touch with the language for too long. This finding confirms that the routinization observed in 'Phase 3' generally still held in this phase and worked well for these learners.

Table 7.4 Learners' descriptions of activities at home

	Robert	Jane	Sally
L 36	Read transcript aloud. Read L 35 to review. Read L 36. Studied on Wednesday night.	Read transcript thoroughly.	Read through the notes for L 35 for five minutes.
L 37	Read transcript. Read L 37. Did exercises. Studied on Wednesday night for 30 minutes.	Read L 37. Did exercises. Reviewed L 36 (read and did exercises.)	Read transcript. Read L 37. Practised pronunciation.
L 38	Read the transcript for L38 and pronounced some sentences aloud Picked up phrases (<i>ocha demo iremashou ka?</i>) Reread L 37 Read L 38 / did the exercises Noted that I need to spend more time on verb conjugation. Did them on Tues and Wed for 1/2 hour on each occasion.	Read the text on Saturday afternoon for 1/2 hour. Focussed on the pronunciation and new verb forms.	Read the transcript aloud and L 38. Took note of each new word. Read through the exercises. Studied on Sunday afternoon.
L 39	Read the transcript and lesson on Wednesday night for 15 minutes. Spent reading other Japanese textbook for 1 1/2 hours.	Read the notes on Wednesday. Focussed on the grammar and pronunciation and read aloud the compound words. Reviewed L 35.	Data missing (Sally missed this session.)
L 40	Read through L 40. Focussed on verb conjugation. Studied on Wednesday evening for 15 minutes.	Read the text. Reread the transcript paying close attention to new vocabulary and the new verb tense. Did the exercises. Studied on Sunday afternoon for 1 hour.	Read through L 40 on - Thursday afternoon
L41	Read the transcript. Read L 41 aloud. Tuesday and Wednesday, 30 minutes for each occasion.	Read the text very thoroughly concentrating on the new vocabulary and the new compound words and new verb forms / phrases. Did exercises. Sunday afternoon for 1 hour.	Read the script and the lesson, reading the Japanese first and then the translation paying particular attention to the new words. Read aloud with a focus on pronunciation. Early morning on Thursday for 45 minutes.
L 42	Read L 42 silently and aloud. Did the exercises and got 50%. Scanned through previous lessons. Wednesday evening for 2 hours.	Read through the lesson, concentrating most on the grammar. Did the exercises. Saturday afternoon for 1 hour.	Did not do anything.

In summary, in this phase, the learners took on more active roles in the planning and the running of the sessions, and introduced new activities invented by themselves, with Jane taking on the role of the leader. The group has turned into a 'semi-autonomous learning group' with sessions turning into group learning occasions. Through their innovations, participants managed to overcome some problems inherent in SITV learning, that is, lack of external monitoring and feedback, and lack of opportunity for practice of productive skills. Also, in the new format, Jane took on an active role as a leader and through sharing her strategies provided scaffolding for the others to overcome shared problems. Robert and Sally benefited from such learner-generated strategies, while Jane benefited by adopting a more organised approach in relation to her own learning. With regard to outside-group activities, the learners generally kept a more or less fixed routine of study habits, which seems to work well for effective exploitation of a SITV series.

Having added the two sequel 'phases' to the scene, in the next chapter I shall look back and reflect on my whole journey of investigation and discuss what I have achieved in relation to the aims I set at the beginning.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Reviewing my 'journey of investigation'

In this chapter, I discuss the contributions of the investigation reported in this thesis within a broader context of second language learning and teaching literature. In Chapter 1, I set out the following three aims for investigation:

- (1) To contribute, for practical purposes, to understanding how SITV materials can contribute to L2 learning and how materials can be improved.
- (2) To contribute to understanding the process of SITV learning / self-instruction in general.
- (3) To establish new methodology for investigating SITV learning / self-instruction in general.

Thus the three major areas addressed in this thesis are the nature of SITV *materials*, the *process* of SITV learning / self-instruction, and the *methodology* of investigating SITV learning / self-instruction.

To provide answers in these three areas, I carried out a longitudinal study of adult learners learning Japanese using SITV materials over a fourteen-month period. The study was carried out in an exploratory fashion in which the execution of the first phase led to the execution of the next. We also had two sequel 'phases' at the end by request from the participants. Therefore before proceeding to discuss the overall findings, let us review our 'journey of investigation' as we construct a story of what happened throughout this journey.

Before embarking on the main study, I had carried out two preliminary studies in the Japanese context in which the use of self-instructional broadcast materials is very prominent (see Chapter 2). The studies revealed general perceptions of SIB learning by learners who were already experienced in this mode, and how the materials were used by these learners, based on the retrospection of their past learning experiences. The studies, however, did not investigate the process whereby these learners came to develop such methods. Also, because the studies did not focus on the SITV materials, they did not investigate features specific to SITV learning.

In the main study, therefore, I studied a group of learners in Britain who took up SITV learning for the first time. I documented the process whereby these ordinary or inexperienced (in terms of SITV learning) learners embarked on

SITV learning and developed as they gained more experience in SITV learning. To examine this process closely, I set up a setting in which learners gathered to study with an SITV series, capturing the viewing of each lesson presented via SITV materials as one instance of instruction or a 'lesson', and did a 'classroom' research of what went on during each 'lesson' and the sequence of such lessons. The study had two phases, but was extended to four by addition of two extra sequel 'phases' with request from the participants. My role in all of these phases was a researcher observing the process of SITV learning and I did not act as a language mentor or a teacher of any kind during the study. I now summarize what happened in the four phases below.

Phase 1

In Phase 1, I began with the following research questions;

- (1) What features of SITV materials do learners perceive to be most salient in the lessons presented via SITV materials? [related to Aim no. 1]
- (2) How do learners use the SITV materials for learning an L2 via self-instruction? [related to Aim no. 2]
- (3) Are there any developmental changes observed in (1) and (2) above? [related to Aims no. 1 & 2]

Question (1) above addresses the features of SITV materials which potentially influence learning either positively or negatively. The study was exploratory in nature and was intended to be theory-building, taking into account learners' *emic* views. To this aim, I employed group interview as the major means of data collection, which enabled me to gather data of low selectivity. The analysis of the interview data showed the emergence of the features in the materials perceived to be salient by learners and how these perceptions evolved over time. The results indicated that the learners' focus shifted away from materials-oriented features towards learning-oriented features, in other words towards their own learning process. At the end of the eleven-week period, I decided to continue with a second phase, with the same group of learners in the same format, but narrowing down the focus, as we shall see below.

Phase 2

In Phase 1, I discovered that the learners' focus was shifting from materials towards learning and that, towards the end of the phase, the learners

were reporting the use of strategies during the SITV lesson. In order to understand the process of SITV learning more thoroughly, it seemed necessary to investigate more precisely what strategies learners were using during each lesson. The unique characteristic of lessons provided via SITV materials made possible a 'micro-analysis' of the learners' thought processes during a lesson, providing even more detailed data on the process of SITV learning. This enabled me to investigate the process of learning in a *micro* sense (within a particular lesson) as well as in a macro sense (over 8 lessons). Thus, I set the following research questions for this phase:

- (1) What strategies do learners use during a lesson presented via SITV materials? [related to Aim no. 2]
- (2) Are there any developmental changes observed over the period? [related to Aim no. 2]

The results indicated the types of strategies learners reported using, how these strategies were used and combined, as well as how the use of strategies developed as they gained more experience in SITV learning. The study also cast light on the learners' strategy use during an instructional sequence highlighting at the same time the variability of such use depending on the lesson. These findings reveal that strategy use is not stable but may be influenced by the perceived difficulty of a lesson, or other factors.

Sequel- 'Phase 3' & 'Phase 4'

At the end of Phase 2, the participants said that they wanted to continue the video-interview sessions and as a result we had sixteen more sessions which consisted of two periods ('Phase 3' and 'Phase 4'). As this part of the study was motivated by the participants rather than by me, I did not have specific research questions for these 'phases'. Therefore I decided to observe how the ways in which these participants studied developed during this time, and was in fact able to observe some important developments. In both phases, learners developed a fixed routine of activities in learning at home, showing a better understanding of what they were doing. As a result, they became less dependent on the series and started integrating it with other materials that met their particular needs. The learners moved from the 'materials-centred' realm towards the 'learner-centred' end of self-instruction (Dickinson, 1987:5) in this respect. In 'Phase 4', the group became a 'semi-autonomous learning group' and invented creative activities of

their own to fulfill their needs and shared their strategies. Under one relatively advanced learner's leadership, the group as a whole managed to overcome the fact that normally there is neither external monitoring nor feedback on their progress in this mode of learning. These sequel 'phases' reveal even more clearly how learners have come to take more control over learning with SITV materials.

At this point, I shall attempt to construct a story of what happened during these 34 sessions from the learners' point of view (or *emic* view) based on data analysis from the previous chapters. At the beginning, when learners first started studying with the SITV series and the textbook, they were at a loss as to what to do. They had not studied with this type of medium which presents a multitude of information of both static and moving pictures, sounds, and letters at once and they in fact missed much of the important information. The language presented at natural speed was so different to what they had been exposed to in classrooms that they were overwhelmed. Because the programmes initially seemed like entertainment programmes on television, they did not make full use of them as a learning tool. It was only after they got over the initial shock and got accustomed to this type of materials that they realised they needed to make special effort to make the most of the materials. By the end of Phase 1, learners were no longer criticizing the materials like TV critics but were rather focussing on using the materials in order to learn Japanese. This all happened during the first eleven weeks.

In Phase 2, learners started trying out different activities to make the most of the materials and developed the use of strategies such as selective attention, resourcing and note-taking. They also started to combine strategies which had proved to be effective, developing fixed routines. In 'Phase 3', this tendency was further enhanced. They were also observed to have a better sense of why they were doing what they were doing. They also became less reliant on the SITV series and used other sources more globally. In short, they were developing skills for learning with a SITV series.

In 'Phase 4', when learners were left on their own, they created activities which suited their particular needs: they 'created' opportunities for practice and ways of monitoring their pronunciation and getting feedback. These learner-generated activities were perceived by them to be effective, even more than teacher-generated activities. Towards the end, learners scarcely made any criticisms of the materials. If they made any remarks, they were positive ones regarding how good or useful the materials had been. It is almost as if the criticisms of the materials which learners made at the very beginning were a reflection of their inability to make full use of the materials. It seems reasonable to

conclude that at the end of these 34 sessions, the learners had become more skilled and more autonomous in learning via self-instruction with SITV materials.

Having reviewed the overall development of my own journey of investigation, I now discuss the major findings in relation to the three aims I established at the beginning. In 8.2, I discuss what contributions I have made to the understanding of roles of SITV materials in L2 learning / teaching and then discuss the implication for future production of SITV materials. In 8.3, I discuss the contributions I have made to the general understanding of the process of SITV learning and self-instruction, before discussing practical implications. In 8.4, I discuss issues of the methodology, clarify the contributions made in this area, evaluate their limitations, and make implications for further research. Then, finally, I state the conclusions of this thesis and make suggestions for future research.

8.2 Overall aim (1): To understand how SITV materials can contribute to L2 learning and how materials can be improved.

In this section, I attempt to synthesise our understanding of how SITV materials can contribute to L2 learning. We first focus on the features of SITV materials perceived to be advantageous by learners. Then by examining learners' preferences and perceptions of salient features in an SITV series we attempt to construct a picture of what 'good' SITV materials would look like in learners' eyes as we make proposals for future production of SITV materials.

8.2.1 Advantages of learning with SITV materials

Let us consider how SITV materials can be of particular benefit to L2 learning as compared to other types of materials. In relation to the learning of languages, the SITV materials were found to be beneficial in five ways in particular. First, they provide an opportunity for exposure to the speech behaviour of native speakers, constituting an effective basis on which learners can improve their ability to comprehend and / or produce L2 speech. This is particularly salient in FL learning environments where access to target language input is limited. The British learners in the main study, who had only been exposed to Japanese spoken by their class-teacher especially appreciated being exposed to a variety of Japanese spoken by native speakers of different sex, age group, social status and geographic areas. They also benefited by being exposed to colloquial expressions which are often ignored in class, and non-verbal behaviours which are

not observable in textbooks or audio tapes. These findings also confirm the findings of the previous work on visual elements of television/ video materials reviewed in Chapter 2. Because of the above characteristics of SITV materials, learners were concerned with the naturalness of the speech behaviors presented via the materials, expecting them to represent as much as possible the real native speaker speech. Producers of SIB / SITV materials, thus, need to be aware of these learners' needs, and give careful consideration to the quality of the linguistic material they provide in the materials.

Secondly, the learners pointed out that the ability of SITV materials to present language in both visual and audio modes simultaneously was effective for remembering vocabulary and grammatical forms of Japanese. The specific format they are referring to is the combination of the presentation of a linguistic item in context (a skit) and then seeing it in written form and hearing it in modified pronunciation. The skit provides a contextual effect (or Corder's (1966) contextualisation) for the item in question. In this way, the language is registered through the visual and the aural modes simultaneously. These various clues work as effective means of elaborating, helping learners to retain the target items.

Thirdly, the above characteristics of SITV materials as 'audio-motion-visual media' was also seen to be beneficial for keeping learners interested in learning: it makes it possible to present a variety of content in ways that are appealing to learners. Such content includes presentation of target culture, scenery, drama and songs. The learners in the main study developed an attachment to the presenter and the actors, enjoyed the humour in the drama, and claimed that this enjoyment actually motivated and enabled them to carry on. For those learners who are studying in FL learning environments, in particular, merely seeing pictures of the country or people of the TL is fascinating. Thus, exploring ways to create enjoyment appropriate for the targeted audience is an important task for materials producers. This entertainment aspect of SITV materials, however, can be a drawback when it is perceived as distraction. I will come back to this issue later in 8.3.

Fourthly, related to the interest and enjoyment factors is that learners found themselves more relaxed in SITV learning than in the classroom. Studying at home, they are free from peer pressure and risk of embarrassment they might experience in class. But certainly, the entertainment elements in the materials, such as music, drama, humour, and scenery all contribute to reducing tension. A learner in the study reported that having the same characters throughout the series created a sense of attachment to the series and made her relaxed.

The final advantage to this mode of learning is the way in which the materials are organised. Because the SIB / SITV materials are made to be broadcast, each lesson is kept relatively short (15 to 30 minutes long on average for materials produced in Japan) with usually well focussed and selected teaching content per lesson to avoid confusion and enable learners to continue listening and viewing. The relative shortness of the lessons makes them convenient for daily study, and the strong focus is appreciated. The breaking down of the content in this way frees learners of the burden of deciding on the pace of learning. This aligns with Jones's (1996) findings with self-instructional textbook materials and emphasises the usefulness of having concisely segmented structures in self-instructional materials rather than long.

The above benefits may be seen as counterbalancing what might be seen as disadvantages of this mode of L2 learning, such as lack of interaction and lack of monitor (see below for further discussion), and explains for the popularity of such materials in Japan and in other contexts.

8.2.2 Characteristics of 'good' SITV materials as perceived by learners

I shall now attempt to construct a picture of 'good SITV materials' in learner's eyes by synthesising the findings of this study (see Table 8.1 for a summary). First, I consider the most and least useful parts found in the programmes. The 'Explanation' section was generally found to be most useful. This consists of a skit from which some expressions are selected, displayed in writing, pronounced and explained. The same skit is played once again for learners to absorb the expressions just taught. Such a combination of explicit teaching of form and absorbance from context is found to be very useful and full use of it is recommended in future production of materials. The short and long (Yan's) skits illustrating the examples of the use of target expressions were also found to be very useful. This is not surprising since the skits are the source of exposure to target language. Learners also liked having reviews of the previous lesson at the beginning of a new lesson.

On the other hand, some features learners did not find useful were also identified. First, learners did not benefit from the presentation of items which were lightly touched upon but not treated thoroughly enough, because they were left confused and with unanswered questions. This suggests that such treatment of items should be eliminated completely unless the items are fully explained in the written materials. Secondly, learners did not find it useful if too much time was given for an item relative to the information provided. If time is wasted on

irrelevant scenes or actions, learners tend to find it too slow and get bored or frustrated. Thirdly, if the skits were too long or were shown without being broken down into shorter sections, learners could not benefit from them since they lost concentration. This threshold for concentration ought to be considered when employing dramas in future production. Finally, the insertion of scenes which did not connect to the rest of the programme was also unpopular. This shows that coherence of parts in a programme is considered to be important.

Next, if we examine the features of SITV materials which are perceived to be salient by learners when viewing each lesson, we see that three topics emerged in the group interviews carried out after each lesson: *production features of the material*; *content*; and *learning and comprehension processes*. Examination of the first group provides insights into features of SITV materials that might affect L2 learning.

Learners seemed to have paid considerable attention to *elements* appearing in the materials, such as 'presenter' 'repeated skit', 'explanation section', 'music' and to *characteristics* displayed in the materials, such as 'continuity', 'impact', and 'superfluousness', particularly at the initial stage. Learners had a lot to say about such features based on their criteria of what they considered to be 'good' materials. The perceptions of such features were also observed to change over time, generally from negative to positive, as learners got accustomed to the programmes and developed attachments to them. I shall put together the above findings to construct a picture of 'good' SITV materials from learners' views.

In learners' eyes, SITV materials should ideally provide naturalistic speech in realistic situations allowing them to get accustomed to listening to and comprehending this type of speech. On the other hand, learners may not benefit as much from mere exposure if they do not receive explicit focus on form at the same time. The section in the programme which learners perceived to be most beneficial was the combination of a naturalistic skit with the showing of the expressions in written form and hearing them in modified pronunciation, followed by explanations. This suggests the effectiveness of combining the explicit teaching of form and functional practice. Learners also benefited from seeing the many short skits which illustrate how language is used in different situations. If the skits are realistic and have impact, they help learners remember the language. Such skits should be kept to a minimum length but contain just enough context to illustrate the language use. If too many unnecessary details are added, learners may feel their time is wasted and they may lose concentration. The skits are preferably related to one another, but some variations are appreciated. Learners like to have sections in which they can participate. Repetition of the same skit

may not be appreciated when the learners are not focussed enough on learning and merely watch them as entertainment or if the level of the language used is too high or too low. But once learners are focussed on the learning and view the skits as a way to reinforce what they have learned, the repetition may be worthwhile.

People appearing in the programmes such as the presenter and the actors have great importance to learners. The desired figure for the presenter for adult learners is not that of an authoritative teacher but a friendly moderator who speaks on an equal level with the learners. Learners like having the same set of people throughout the series as they develop attachments to them and get accustomed to their voices and particular variations. Use of humour may not be appreciated at first as the sense of humour is culturally bound. However, this should not put off materials designers from including humour as it is the part of the cultural experience and may be appreciated later on. The pace with which the programmes proceed is a factor which may cause difficulties for learners. The right pace differs for each learner; learners have to learn to adjust the pace by recording the programmes, repeating them or skipping them. We will come back to this issue again in section 8.3 as we discuss the process of self-instruction.

Table 8.1 Summary of features of SITV materials recommended by learners

- (1) *Naturalistic skits* should be included as exposure to L2 as they are beneficial. They should be as realistic as possible.
- (2) *Short skits* should be kept to minimum length. They should not drag on too long with unnecessary acts or with too many details. Skits should preferably relate to one another but slight variations are appreciated. Skits with impact help reinforce the language.
- (3) *Explicit explanations + skits* are the most effective part of the programmes. Combination of illustration of language use in context (skits) with explicit focus on form (explanation and written + sounds) is more effective than mere exposure.
- (4) *Repeating of skits* is appreciated if learners view the skits with focus on the language. If the focus is on the drama, they may get bored and may not appreciate it.
- (5) *Opportunities for participation* are largely appreciated.
- (6) *Presenter/Actors* should be friendly, but not patronizing. They are very important elements in the materials. Learners like having the same people as they develop attachment and get accustomed to certain linguistic variations.
- (7) *Humour* may be perceived as negative at first as the sense of humour differs by culture. But this should not necessarily put materials designers off from including humour as it may come to be appreciated later.
- (8) *Pace* is difficult to control as it varies for each learner. If the pace becomes a problem, learners should learn to control it by recording the series and repeating, stopping or skipping.

The above findings also indicate that the quality of production for educational materials ought not to be overlooked. People are constantly exposed to high-quality programmes on television and aware of the music, the acting ability of the actors and many other things which are important in popular television production but may seem at first irrelevant in language teaching. Learners do not tolerate or let pass poor-quality production just because it is educational material.

Furthermore, materials designers need to take into account the developmental aspects of the use of the materials. Even though the production of all the lessons may be done at one time, learners who watch the lessons will be constantly developing. This developmental accumulative aspect was something

that was not in my experience thoroughly taken into account in the process of production of materials.

8.3 Overall aim (2): To understand the process of SITV learning / self-instruction

In this section I aim to synthesise our understanding of the process of SITV learning and self-instruction through the study reported in this thesis. In my preliminary study reported in Chapter 2, we have seen what experienced learners of SIB materials do to learn from SIB materials in the Japanese context. Those learners who managed to persist over an extended period of time seem to have developed their own strategies to continue with their SIB learning until they reached their goals. In the main study, we observed the process whereby the novice learners (in terms of SITV learning) embarked on and continued with their SITV learning for fourteen months. During this process, we observed that the learners' development was not limited to the acquisition of L2 but to the skills for SITV learning: in other words, they eventually became better users of SITV materials.

By putting results from the above studies together, we can construct a picture of the process by which learners acquire skills to be better pursuers of SITV learning. This process may be interpreted as one by which learners acquire *task knowledge* (Wenden, 1998) for SITV learning. Task knowledge is defined as 'what learners need to know about the purpose of a task, the task's demands, and implicit in these considerations, a determination of the kind of task it is' (p. 185). It is understood as part of metacognitive knowledge *contextualised* within the task at hand and includes knowledge about which strategies learners need to use on which occasions in order to best carry out and complete the task. Below, I describe the process by which learners acquired more control over SITV learning in three areas: in the cognitive area (8.3.1), in the management of learning (which belongs to the metacognitive area) (8.3.2), and in the affective area (8.3.3). In 8.3.4, I attempt to provide some explanations for the development observed in these areas as well as discuss some implications for strategy development.

8.3.1 Cognitive process and SITV learning

The results of the study seem to reveal in particular the process in which novice learners find a focus in learning, face and identify problems, attempt to overcome these problems, and eventually take more control in coping with these problems. In Phase 1, I investigated what features learners find salient in viewing

lessons presented via SITV materials. Three groups of topics emerged in the group interviews administered after each lesson: *production features of the materials*, *content*, and *learning and comprehension processes*. From the evolution of these topics during the eleven sessions, we observed that the learners' focus gradually shifted from production features to content and to learning.

We understand this change as a process in which learners got accustomed to the medium, found their focus on learning, identified the problems they encountered, and finally made attempts to overcome their problems. Initially, they watched the series as if they were watching a regular TV programme. They paid attention to production features and criticized them as an audience. Their attitude towards the materials was closer to that of a *TV critic*. These learners had never before studied with this type of materials and initially found it difficult to focus on learning. But after a few sessions, they began to orient towards the series as something designed for language learning and started to take it more seriously. Once they acquired a *learner's* attitude rather than a critic's or an audience's, they started to focus on the learning content and eventually on the process of learning. The visuals were then used as clues to support comprehension of the language. This change in their attitude was important if learners were to make any success with SITV learning. They needed to first get accustomed to the materials before they could learn anything with them.

There were mainly two aspects of the materials which learners needed to get accustomed to: first they needed to get accustomed to the flow of naturalistic speech to which they were exposed for the first time. Because these learners had never been exposed to Japanese spoken at such a speed, they were initially overwhelmed and got into a panic. Once they got over the initial shock and were able to listen to the skits repeatedly, they were gradually able to tune their ears in, and started to identify certain phonetic and prosodic features, such as nasalisation of [g] as in the particle 'ga' and devoiced vowels at the end of sentences, as in 'ikimasu'. These were not taught explicitly in the materials but were noticed by learners through mere exposure. This indicates that if SITV materials are to have any effect, they must be used regularly and constantly over a certain period of time.

Secondly, learners needed to get used to coping with the multitude of information conveyed by this medium. Learners who had never studied with this type of materials were bombarded constantly with overwhelming amounts of sensory and cognitive information provided in the video and in the textbook. Their focus was easily distracted away from the language by the visual and sound effects. The naturalistic skit contained many unknown linguistic elements which

further burdened their cognitive load. But as they gained experience, they developed ways to adjust their focus to one thing at a time as we will see below.

In Phase 2, we investigated the strategies learners used in studying with the SITV series, in particular with regard to the problems identified above. Twenty strategy types were identified as being used while following a lesson given via SITV materials, four of which were newly identified. Investigation into the range of strategy use revealed some strategies which were particularly important for SITV learning. Selective attention, resourcing, developing a question, inducing, taking notes and inferencing were among the more commonly reported strategies and were assumed to have greater importance for this task than others. I shall now discuss these strategies in relation to the two problems identified above: coping with the characteristics of this medium as a learning tool, and coping with naturalistic speech presented in the materials.

The strategy of primary importance is attending selectively to the massive amount of provided input. In coping with so much information, the learners need to set a certain focus when viewing the materials, rather than paying attention to all aspects. The reverse strategy for this is 'getting the gist', in which learners deliberately do not pay attention to specific aspects of the input but instead try to get the overall picture. Adjusting the distribution of their attention by using these strategies is an important way of coping with masses of information. The second strategy is resourcing or in this case, use of textbook. Because the information conveyed via this medium is constantly flowing (or 'is hard to hold onto' as learners put it), use of the written materials becomes crucial. In the initial phase, learners did not make much use of the textbook. But in Phase 2, learners started to use it before, during and after viewing the lessons. The resourcing strategy also helped learners to pay attention to the video during the lesson. The multiplicity and amount of information conveyed at once via this medium often did not allow learners to have a look at the screen and the textbook simultaneously. For this reason, it is important that learners read the textbook in advance and be prepared for the coming lesson in order not to be overwhelmed at what is presented. The third strategy learners reported they developed is note-taking. At one point during Phase 2, learners spent too much time taking notes and missed out a lot of the information in the video. At a later stage, they learned to take brief and efficient notes. This was tied to their resourcing strategy in that because learners read the lesson in the textbook beforehand, they could always refer back to it if they needed to, so there was less need to take detailed notes during the lesson. These strategies all relate to control of attention as we discuss further below.

Strategies were also reported to have been used in relation to the particular sequence in the SITV lesson. Warming up, getting the gist, predicting, and developing questions tended to be used at the beginning of a lesson whereas summarising and absorbing were used towards the end. In dealing with the second problem identified above, which is listening to the fast flow of naturalistic speech, resourcing the script in the textbook was used to help decompose segments into chunks. Attending only to selected segments at once was also an effective way of coping with this problem. Another strategy was inferencing by which learners made active use of the available linguistic and nonlinguistic clues to figuring out the meaning of unknown items rather than trying to understand every item.

What we also observed at this stage is that some learners *routinized* certain sequence and combinations of strategies in order to cope with a particular problem. For example, Dale combined the use of selective attention, resourcing and translating into a routine in order to cope with the overload of information conveyed at once via SITV materials. Robert, on the other hand, routinized the combination of predicting, selective attention, resourcing, and repeating in order to improve his pronunciation. This routinization is one aspect of efficient strategy use which is worth investigating further.

Two further directions were observed in learners' strategy use. First, it became more purposeful. For example, at the end of the second phase, Dale reported that he started to set a purpose for each viewing of the long skit: the first viewing for getting the general picture of the skit, and the second viewing for focussing on just the familiar items to identify the unfamiliar. Also, Dale reported that he took brief notes in order to focus on the visuals in the scenes presented. As we see here, learners began to describe not just what they did but also why they did what they did. Secondly, the focus became more specific. Robert's method to improve his pronunciation is an example of how learner's purposes of strategy use became more specific. The above examples indicate some of the ways in which learners' ways of using strategies developed. This casts light on new directions for strategy training as we see below.

Furthermore, we investigated how the strategies are put to use in a developmental fashion. The study revealed that the types of strategies used are not always stable but may vary considerably depending on the lesson to which the learners are attending. One factor which may explain such variability is the perceived difficulty of the lesson in question. If the lesson is too difficult, learners' thoughts are blocked by the source of their confusion and cannot employ their strategies fully. On the other hand, if the lesson is not difficult enough to employ strategies, learners' focus may start to wander away onto other less

relevant issues such as production features. This confirms Rubin's (1987) insights that the appropriate level of difficulty is necessary in order that the strategies may be fully executed for a task. At the same time this indicates that learner's strategy application should not be captured as stable. A learner who successfully employs strategies in one lesson may not do so in others. This casts doubts on the stable conception of 'successful or unsuccessful users' of strategies and implies a need to investigate this variability if we are to understand learner's strategy use .

The above findings raise two issues of importance which are relevant to the task knowledge significant in SITV learning: attentional control, and routinization and restructuring of strategy use. I will discuss these issues with interpretations from the cognitive theories of learning.

The issue of control of attention came up continuously in the process of this study. The role of attention in L2 learning is discussed in the cognitive approaches to SLA which broadly assume that learning is dependent on the learner's active mental engagement with the incoming information. One of the most widely discussed is Schmidt's (1990) 'noticing hypothesis' which holds that learners must first have a conscious awareness of a particular linguistic form before any processing of it can take place. Tomlin and Villa (1994), on the other hand, argue that mere noticing is no more critical than other attentional processes, such as 'orientation,' which is 'the direction of attentional resources to a type or class of sensory information at the expense of others,' and 'detection,' which is defined as 'the process that selects, or engages, a particular and specific bit of information within a type' (p. 185). The basic premise here is that L2 learners are always bombarded with overwhelming amounts and types of L2 input and the attentional system is crucial to 'sort out that input and to bring order to the chaos threatening to, and sometimes succeeding in, overwhelming the learner.' (Tomlin and Villa, 1994:184) In the case of SITV learning, in particular, having control over the attentional process becomes crucial due to the nature of 'audio-motion-visual media', much more than with cases of textbook and / or radio materials. This is assumed to hold for other multi-media materials as well. Thus, learning how to control one's attention is one area which learners need to develop in learning effectively with SITV and other multi-media materials.

The second issue is organization of strategy use, in particular, routinization and restructuring of certain patterns of strategy use. These are notions understood in the context of skills acquisition in information processing models developed by cognitive psychologists which have then been adapted to the treatment of language processing, most notably in McLaughlin's model (McLaughlin et al. 1983; McLaughlin 1987; McLeod and McLaughlin 1986; McLaughlin, 1990;

McLaughlin and Heredia, 1996; Levelt 1978; Hulstijn 1990). In this framework, acquiring task knowledge (Wenden 1998), including tasks of communication and language acquisition, is seen as acquisition of certain skills and integration of such skills necessary for a fluent performance of a task. And because human capacity is limited, a mechanism is assumed through which such integration of a number of different skills is practised and automatized. The cognitive scientists Schneider and Shiffrin (Schneider and Shiffrin, 1977; Shiffrin and Schneider 1977) long ago identified two processing procedures in this process: *controlled processing*, which requires attentional control for the activation of informational elements stored in long-term memory, and *automatic processing* in which activation of stored informational elements is a learned response that has been built up through the consistent mapping of the same input to the same pattern of activation over many trials. Once the controlled processing becomes routinized, controlled processes are freed to be allocated to higher levels of processing. In this way, the development of complex cognitive skills involves building up a set of well-learned, automatic procedures so that controlled processes will be freed for new tasks. The process by which the above control processing becomes automatic is also seen to play central role in language learning in Anderson's ACT (Adaptive Control of Thought) model. Anderson states that practice leading to automatization enables *declarative knowledge* or knowledge *that* (which is not unlike controlled processes) to become *procedural knowledge* or knowledge *how* (not unlike automatic knowledge). And when task knowledge becomes proceduralized, they are accessed automatically, without having to resort to the working memory which is limited in its processing capacity. Therefore, new declarative knowledge can be attended to and thereafter proceed to the autonomous stages.

The notions of automatization or proceduralization of knowledge and their assumed role in the above models are plausible if we consider the limitations of human capacity to process new information. However, some researchers argue that learning is not simple automatization of the same subskills applicable only to the situation that gave rise to them. On the contrary, it inevitably involves a constant modification of organizational structures. McLaughlin calls such modification as *restructuring*. Restructuring is a coordination and integration of components of a task which are then reorganised into new units, thereby allowing the procedure involving old components to be replaced by a more efficient procedure involving new components. Karmiloff-Smith (1986) treats the restructuring process in three phases: a data-driven phase, in which components of the task are mastered; an organizational phase during which organization is

imposed resulting from the learner's attempt to simplify and gain control over the internal representation; and an integration phase, in which the data-driven processes and organizational top-down processes are integrated. Karmiloff-Smith (1986) argues that this integration results from restructuring in the second phase. Similarly, Rumelhart and Norman (1978) long ago identified restructuring as a process that occurs 'when new structures are devised for interpreting new information and imposing a new organization on that already stored (p. 39). They state that learning involves (a) accretion whereby information is simply incremented, and (b) tuning (or restructuring) whereby there is a change in the categories used for interpreting new information. Unlike Karmiloff-Smith, who regarded automaticity and restructuring as different phases in a single process, Rumelhart and Norman argue that learning is not a unitary process and that there are different kinds of learning, one of which is restructuring.

Researchers subscribing to the cognitive theory capture 'routinization' and 'restructuring' in a narrow sense, in relation to organization of information into long-term memory. However, this notion can be extended into a more general mechanism whereby learners acquire skills to execute a certain task. Seen in this respect, the process of self-instruction as observed in the main study can be understood in terms of the extended views of routinization and restructuring.

The initial stage is understood as a data-driven phase, or accretion phase, whereby learners encountered the new medium for learning, gained experience in this mode, identified their problems and made trials of various methods to cope with the new medium and the new format of learning. In the second phase, learners come to routinize certain patterns of strategy use, automatizing controlled processes in order to free them for more complicated learning content. When their method of coping with the new medium was automatized, they were freed of the burden of coping with the medium itself and could concentrate on the content and learning. In 'Phases' 3 and 4, when learners had accumulated a substantial amount of experience in this mode and when they were placed in a situation where they faced the challenge of learning by themselves, a restructuring took place in the way they organized their strategy use.

This process by which learners acquire skills or task knowledge for SITV learning is a process whereby learners gain more control over their learning at the cognitive level. In this sense, we may even assume that the learners in the study have become more autonomous in terms of SITV learning. As we mentioned in Chapter 2, autonomy has often been described in terms of capacity for detachment, critical thinking, creativity, and so on. However, we may argue that

autonomy in relation to learning may be described also as the capacity to control cognitive processes central to the learning process.

8.3.2 The management of SITV learning

I shall now turn to the area of learning management. In Chapter 2, we attempted to understand SITV learning as a type of materials-centred self-instruction in which learners execute self-instruction by relying on particular materials. We have seen that in this mode, learners' choices will be limited in various areas of learning. Choice of content and its segmentation will be made by the materials designers and the method of learning will be embedded in the materials. In the case of default use of SITV materials (see 2.2), that is, not using any supporting materials and only watching broadcasts themselves, without making / using recordings, learners' choices in the pace, time, and place of learning will be more restricted than with other types of self-instructional materials (see Table 2.1).

As we discussed in Chapters 2, these characteristics of materials-centred self-instruction can work either as advantages or problems in how learners manage their learning. While external determination of content, pace, time and place of learning was seen as helping learners in pursuing their learning, lack of control in these areas at times caused problems and hindered learning. Another problem discussed in the literature of self-instruction is the difficulty of persisting (Rybak, 1987, Jones, 1996). Because it is not an institutionalised form of learning, learners study at home without external pressure and frequently find it difficult to manage their learning as planned. A third problem was lack of feedback, in particular, feedback from a teacher for correcting pronunciation and answering questions.

In the preliminary study carried out with the Japanese students (Umino, 1999; 2000), we observed some of the ways in which these experienced learners overcame these problems. One way was deliberately to use the limitations of default use of SITV learning. In other words, learners deliberately let go of freedom in the areas of time, pace and place of study to impose upon themselves external pressure to study. Some deliberately did not record the programmes so that they were forced to listen or watch at the time of the broadcast. Some made use of timer switch-on functions of their radios and televisions so that the broadcast came on regardless of their will. Another, perhaps more effective means was studying together with their family or friends, which created the external pressure to study at the determined time. These various means created

the regularity which was skillfully incorporated into a fixed routine. The persisting learners had a fixed time, pace, and place of learning and a fixed set of activities to go with it. The routinization as discussed earlier at the cognitive level is thus also observed at the metacognitive level.

Such acceptance of external determination and regularity may be seen as submissive, simply accepting external determination rather than taking control for themselves. But in fact, learners are seen to be using this as a strategy for managing their learning. They deliberately did not take control in these areas in order to be able to persist in self-instruction that would otherwise be difficult. In other words, they institutionalised this non-institutional form of learning, that is to say, by letting go of their freedom. The same phenomenon was observed with the novice British learners in the study who initially did not have any fixed routines (except for the externally determined fixed time, place and pace for viewing the SITV lessons, of course) or method but eventually incorporated their other at-home activities and SITV lessons into a fixed routine. In doing so, they appreciated setting the fixed time, pace and place of learning. In contrast, Japanese learners who did not manage to persist did not use such a strategy. The above results indicate that even if learners of materials-centred self-instruction may on the surface appear to be passive and 'supine' (Holec, 1985), they are making deliberate efforts to overcome management problems and, by succeeding, they are in fact taking control in this area. This kind of routinization is seen as an effective way for managing one's learning in this low-pressure mode of self-instruction. This role of routinization had not been addressed in the previous literature of SIB learning and is one that ought to be pursued further.

At the same time, strategies to cope with lack of control of time, place, and pace of learning were also observed. The Japanese students in the preliminary study made recordings of programmes to allow for greater flexibility in time and place of learning, and listened to the recordings on the train to work or while having baths, etc. The pace was adjusted to some degree by stopping, rewinding, or playing the programme repeatedly. But even when creating flexibility by making recordings, the persisting learners maintained regularity as discussed above.

Ways of coping with the third problem of lack of feedback were also observed. One strategy was to combine self-instruction with classroom learning. Japanese learners in the preliminary study often combined SIB learning with class learning and found them to be complementary to each other. The SIB materials were used to complement the lack of exposure in the TL but when learners had questions or wanted their pronunciation to be corrected, they consulted their class

teacher. The second strategy observed was to study within a group, such as family members or friends. This strategy was observed with the British learners working in a semi-autonomous learning group in 'Phase 4', monitoring each other's pronunciation, giving feedback to each other, and sharing their own strategies for overcoming problems. With this need in mind, materials designers should make a greater effort to increase aspects of interactivity and feedback within the materials themselves¹³. In sum, through development of the above strategies, these novice learners gradually found ways of coping with their problems in managing their learning. In this regard, these learners gained more control over their SITV learning management.

The preliminary studies in Japan indicated, however, that the ways in which strategies are used may vary according to the learners' age, past experience of learning with SIB materials, and their goals. For example, school children may be better off listening to or watching the broadcasts at the time of broadcast whereas adults might want to use recordings to allow more flexibility. Or school children may benefit from simply listening or watching whereas the adults may need to employ creative techniques of their own to benefit from SIB learning. More research needs to be done to investigate such differences between different group of learners.

8.3.3 The affective aspect of SITV learning

Finally, I shall discuss various affective areas of SITV learning in relation to learners' reactions to the materials themselves, and to the features of this mode of learning.

Throughout the four phases of the main study, learners provided insights into their affective reactions to aspects of the SITV materials. Aspects which learners reported liking tended to relate to characteristics of the materials as 'audio-motion-visual media', in particular their ability to present target language and culture items in an appealing way, as already mentioned in 8.3.1 above. Learners also reported the development of an attachment to these particular materials which added to the interest factor and also worked as a motive for persisting with their study. Thus, affective factors reported in relation to materials tended to relate to needs for creation and maintenance of interest and motivation for learning the L2.

¹³ Use of the internet is an area which can be explored for this purpose. For example, the BBC uses their website to provide support services to the users of their language programmes.

With regard to strategies for coping with problems of SITV learning, we identified affective strategies of tolerating ambiguity and lowering anxiety which seemed to be used when the learners were overwhelmed by or met with ambiguities in the information presented in the materials. These strategies also relate to features of SITV materials already identified in 8.3.1 and 8.3.2.

In relation to features of this mode of learning, a notable advantage reported was relaxation or relative lack of pressure in comparison with classroom learning. Some factors which contribute to this are the informal atmosphere of studying at home, studying in a small group rather than in a large class, and freedom from the fear of being made to speak (that is, interact with the teacher or peers or respond to questions). The pressure would be even smaller in individual self-instruction than in group self-instruction. However, a drawback of such lack of pressure which was also mentioned by learners in the study was lack of (external) discipline. This is a potential cause for 'drop-out', which has been identified as a notable problem in this mode of learning, and this risk is likely to be greater in individual self-instruction than in group self-instruction. Thus, studying in small to medium-sized groups might be a preferable form of self-instruction if we consider keeping the advantage of low pressure while maintaining some external discipline.

Another dimension highlighted as a consequence of the group-based research format adopted in the study was the social aspect of group self-instruction. As Riley (1982) points out, need for social contact should be identified as one motive for pursuing L2 study in adult education and the findings of the present study suggest that it may be of significance also in self-instructional settings. The three learners who persisted for fourteen months developed a strong rapport with their peers and with the interviewer, thus creating a sense of 'community'. Such rapport is believed to have played a role in maintaining the learners' motivation, enabling them to persist over fourteen months. I shall discuss this aspect of community further in 8.4 in relation to the social aspect of group interviews as a research tool.

8.3.4 Interpreting the process

Throughout the 34 sessions of the main study we observed that the learners came to develop strategies for learning more efficiently with SITV materials. In other words, they gained more control over some areas of SITV learning as discussed above and became more autonomous in these regards. Such development of control was not the original intention of the study, nor was it

expected at the outset in this exploratory study. Researchers of learner autonomy, however, have pointed out that engagement in self-instruction provides *opportunity* for learners to develop autonomy but does not in itself guarantee autonomy. How, then, did this development take place in this group of learners? There are three factors which seemed to have played a part in this development.

The first two potential factors are increased experience in SITV learning and conscious collective reflection on that experience. As a first condition, learners needed to have the opportunity to gain experience in SITV learning before they could develop any skills for it. As they gained more and more experience, they became more skilled at the task of SITV learning. On top of such accretion of experience in SITV learning, they also had the opportunity to *reflect* back on their experiences, mostly collectively through discussing them in the group interviews, and this is the second factor which seems to have played a role in this development. Reflection has been seen as a key to the control over learning, hence autonomy, by many researchers. Little (1997) states that reflection on the learning process is a distinctive characteristic of autonomous learning. In this sense, he follows Dewey (1933:9) who describes reflection as: 'active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it.' It is also seen as 'a generic term for those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to a new understanding and appreciation' (Boud et al. 1985:19), and 'a mental process which takes place out of the stream of action, looking forward or (usually) back to actions that have taken place' (Louden, 1991:149). In the light of learning, it has been conceptualised as one important phase within cyclical processes of learning. Kohonen (1992) captures learning as a cycle involving experience, reflective observation, and abstract conceptualisation leading to further reflection on experience. In his experiential language-learning model, he argues that knowledge does not become part of the individual's frame of reference until it has been experienced meaningfully on a subjective level. Reflection plays an important role in this process by providing 'a bridge 'between experience and theoretical conceptualisation' (p. 17).

The British learners in the study had the opportunity to reflect back upon their learning experience collectively in the group interviews. Such collective reflection is also reported in Dam (1995:49), in which a collective reflection exercised an influence on the future organisation of the learning experience in her autonomous language-learning classrooms. By regularly having discussions in a group, our self-instructed learners went through a cycle of accumulation of

experience in SITV learning and conscious reflection, which led to modification of their knowledge structures. As Benson (2001) points out, we still know little about how language learners go about reflecting on their L2 learning. The tools for reflection which had been suggested in SLA literature tended to be individual means such as diaries and verbal report. However, on the basis of our study we can now suggest that group interviews can also be an effective means for collective reflection. As Candy (1991:389) points out reflection is even better enhanced when done collectively because it has a social as well as an individual dimension.

The third potential factor which advanced restructuring of learners' strategy use towards higher control over their learning is internalisation through social interaction. Such social interaction is discussed in sociocultural theory by Vygotsky (1978) and has been introduced to SLA over the past two decades' by authors such as Lantolf (2000). In this theory, learning is seen as essentially a social process, with social interaction itself seen as a mechanism for individual development. In problem solving situations, the unskilled individual (or the child) learns by carrying out tasks and activities under the guidance of other more skilled individuals (e.g. parents, teachers, etc.) typically mediated through language. That is, the learner is inducted into a shared consciousness through collaborative talk, until eventually they take over (or appropriate) new knowledge or skills into their own individual consciousness, a process described as shift from inter-mental activity to intra-mental activity. Such a process of supportive dialogue which directs the attention of the learner to key features of the environment, and which prompts them through successive steps of a problem come to be known as *scaffolding* (Wood et al. 1976). This process has also been described as one in which a novice learner, initially through a process of other-regulation becomes self-regulatory with the guidance of other more skilled individuals who are capable of autonomous functioning (or self-regulatory). In the application of sociocultural theory to SLA, such scaffolding has been seen to play a crucial role in the linguistic development within an individual learner (see studies in Lantolf and Appel, 1994, and Lantolf, 2000). On the basis of my study, however, we can argue that such scaffolding also plays an important role in the development of learner strategies. In our group interviews, we observed cases in which more advanced learners in terms of strategy use talked about their use of strategies which functioned as scaffolding for other learners who imitated such strategies and eventually came to internalize them. For example, Dale initially imitated Robert's strategy of closing his eyes during viewing of the long skit so as to shut out visual information. He was eventually seen to develop his own suitable

strategy combination based on it. Similarly, Sally imitated Jane's strategy of reading the textbook beforehand and eventually internalized it as her own strategy. And in 'Phase 4', Jane, who was more advanced than the others (expert), gave guidance and shared her own strategies, which were imitated and internalized by the others. This interaction between the expressing and imitating of strategies became a conscious and deliberate process as the learners realized the benefit of this activity. Furthermore, they also seem to have internalised the interviewer's ways of interviewing. In 'Phase 4', Jane took on the role of facilitating the group interviews after each lesson. These discussions, though initially interviews, incidentally worked effectively as a learning experience, and Jane, who imitated my performance as a facilitator, internalised it and later took on a more active role as teacher.

The above three factors were inherent in the format of the study. Thus, we can argue that a cycle of accumulation of task experience and reflection upon that experience restructures the organization of knowledge structures (including strategies), eventually leading to more control over cognitive and metacognitive processes. Such restructuring is more easily accomplished in a social context. In this sense, it could be argued that the group interview format taken in the study may be used as an effective means of fostering learner autonomy.

The above discussion has implications for ways of developing learners' strategies. First, the uniqueness of the approach described above supports a discovery-oriented approach to strategy development rather than prescriptive approach. As Holec (1980) argues, the basic methodology for learner training should be that of discovery, whereby the learner may 'with or without the help of others, discover the knowledge and the techniques which he needs in order to find answers to the problems with which he is faced.' It would be, as Holec argues, counterproductive to teach learners how to be self-directed since learning would by definition no longer be self-directed. In this study, even though it was not the intention of the research to develop learners' strategies, learners developed the use of strategies which they themselves originally generated. This situation stands in marked contrast to some approaches to strategy training where the strategies are treated prescriptively. In such models, choice of which strategy to use for a certain task is specified in advance by the teachers before learners carry out the task (see for example, Pearson and Dole, 1987; and strategy-based instruction model described in Cohen, 1998). Such an approach unfortunately does not align with their rationale for strategy training, which is encouraging learners to be self-regulatory. The discovery-oriented approach discussed above is a more promising perspective for enhancing learner autonomy.

Secondly, we can suggest that the collective approach to strategy development is advantageous over an individual approach, either in self-instruction or in classroom. Provided that learners are given opportunity to express and share in a group their own strategies and techniques overtly either based on a specific experience or more generally, a collective approach gives learners chance both to express and to observe each other's strategy use. Such social interaction may also provide a scaffolding through which learners can internalise other's strategies to perform a task more effectively. Learners in fact may find such learner-generated strategies expressed in learners' words more accessible and applicable than theory-generated strategy categories.

We may also suggest that in pursuing the collective approach, employment of group interviews produces effects which work advantageously for awareness raising and collective scaffolding. In expressing one's strategy in a group, learners may be more stimulated to talk than when asked individually by a teacher: learners may reflect deeper upon their strategies in order to express themselves more convincingly to other learners. This may develop *strategy awareness*, that is, knowledge about some of the factors that influence the learning process (Oxford and Cohen, 1992:13). Furthermore, group discussions create synergism where a wider bank of responses emerges than in individual talks (Vaughn, S., et. al. 1996). Through such synergism effects, a variety of options of learner-generated strategies may be disclosed for other learners to internalise. If such a group format is applied in self-instructional settings, learners can either decide on one learner as moderator or take turns to interview each other. This study suggests that by leading the discussion, learner-moderators can benefit as much as those participating. If this procedure is applied in a classroom setting, teachers by playing the role of the moderator can help learners to reflect upon their experiences and / or to imitate other learners' strategies as well as understand learners' problems and ways of coping with the problems.

Thirdly, the above discussion implies the need for a longitudinal perspective on strategy development. We have seen in the study that in order for learners to generate and develop their own appropriate strategies, they needed first to gain experience in learning with the SITV materials. This is particularly so in cases in which the nature of the tasks and/or the materials are new to them. Learners should be given opportunities to get used to the characteristics of the materials, to engage in the tasks, explore, test out and repeat different approaches before arriving at those strategies which best suit their learning styles or the nature of the task in which they are engaged. This also implies support for integrated

approaches to strategy development rather than non-integrated approaches such as the one-off strategy workshops mentioned in Cohen (1998).

8.4 Overall aim (3): To develop new research approaches for investigating SITV learning / self-instruction

8.4.1 Contributions of this research approach

Finally, in this section, I would like to discuss issues of research methodology. The present study was *exploratory* in nature and aimed to reflect learners' *emic* views as much as possible. It aimed to look at the *process* rather than the product of SITV learning, thus employing a longitudinal approach. In this section, I once again review the uniqueness of the methodology and clarify my contributions in this area before evaluating its shortcomings and potential criticisms.

The methodology employed in this study is unique in several ways. First, in order to study the process of SITV learning, I created a setting in which the learners studied with the materials so that they could respond to the questionnaires and interviews immediately after viewing the videos. This enabled me to have direct access to the actual learning setting which had hitherto been inaccessible with this type of home-learning and to collect data immediately after or even during the viewing of the SITV lessons. In Phase 2, by eliciting verbal reports after each segment, I managed to reveal interesting aspects of strategy use in progress during a lesson. This method used for Phase 2 can be applied for researching strategy use in classrooms by employing a stimulus recall procedure based on the audio or video-recordings of a lesson.

Secondly, in order to decrease selectivity in data collection and to reflect learners' *emic* views in the data as much as possible, I employed group interviews. As I discussed in Chapter 2, the majority of previous works on SIB learning employed one-off structured surveys. Although survey methods have their advantages, questionnaires are more likely to predetermine learners' responses and are not modifiable once they are distributed. For these reasons, they are not ideal for exploratory research. By using a group interview format in this study, I managed to reduce selectivity, allowing learners to nominate topics of their interest. Such a group interview format had not been used before in the study of self-instruction or learner strategies and opened up a new arena into researching these areas.

Thirdly, the study was carried out in a longitudinal fashion, tracking the process of SITV learning over a fourteen-month period. This enabled me to discover developmental aspects of process of SITV learning which had not been addressed previously whilst increasing the credibility (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) of the study. It is also a pioneering study in the sense that it employed group interviews in a longitudinal fashion.

Another unique feature of the study was that the sequel 'Phases 3 and 4' were actually motivated by the participants themselves rather than the researcher. In 'Phase 4', the data collection was carried out without the researcher being present: learners interviewed each other and filled out questionnaires by themselves.

As a result of these above features of the study, several issues emerged which have implications for research methodology in general. First, on the basis of the study, we can suggest that the practice of group interviews can substantially be different from individual interviews, particularly in terms of degree of selectivity (van Lier, 1987). In group interviews, the discussion of a topic supplied by the researcher can be left up to the group rather than the researcher. The participants' agenda can dominate rather than the researcher's, and the data can emerge from the interaction of the group. As we have seen, in the interview sessions in Phase 1, my role was simply to take a lead with the discussion and to facilitate interaction among the group. In this sense, this method is suitable for eliciting respondents' emic views. It is also better suited than individual interviews for use in exploratory research in which researchers do not have a predetermined set of foci or hypotheses.

Secondly, the study showed that the topics nominated by the participants in group interviews inevitably evolve when interviews are carried out repeatedly in a longitudinal fashion. This seems to result from interaction at two levels: a deeper reflection brought about on the intrapersonal level, and internalisation of this reflection through social interaction. For example, in the group interviews at the initial stage of Phase 1, the topics nominated were mostly production features of the materials. But once learning-oriented topics were nominated by one participant, the other participants in the group reflected upon them and then nominated these topics in the succeeding interview. This reveals an aspect of group interview which needs to be taken into account when conducting them.

Thirdly, the second point mentioned above also reveals the feature of the interview as a learning experience. Block (personal communication) suggests that interviews can be a learning experience for individual learners. The present study supports this with evidence that it is particularly so when done in a group. To the

learners in the present study, the interview was an occasion for learning itself and for developing as learners. It seems to be particularly beneficial in raising awareness and fostering reflection. We have also observed that the learners essentially collectively scaffolded one another to new understandings of their experiences. This issue of collective scaffolding occurring in longitudinal group interviews had not been pointed out in the literature and one worth pursuing further.

The above point leads us to discuss the final issue to be raised in the study which is a 'creation of community' in research settings. As briefly touched upon in 8.3.3, the participants in the study did not want to stop the research because they had developed a rapport with the other participants in the group, including the interviewer, thus creating a 'community'. As a result the participants eventually ended up as what we might call a 'semi-autonomous learning group'. In the sequel phases of the interviews, the participants were not simply cooperative for the interviews, but were helping each other in carrying out learning. Such a relationship is important because it will affect the credibility of the data derived. In the discussion of interviews in the literature on research methodology, the issue of rapport tended to be discussed in relation to the interviewer and the interviewee. The present study, however, shows that establishment of rapport among the interviewees in a group interview is equally important. This is another aspect overlooked in the previous literature on interviews.

This issue can be discussed further in relation to the concept of 'community of practice' (Wenger, 1997), that is, an informal 'social configuration of shared historical and social resources, frameworks, and perspectives that can sustain mutual engagement in action' (p.5). Wenger proposes that people's engagement in such informal 'communities of practice' as they pursue shared enterprises over time constitutes the fundamental process through which they learn. We can argue that the formation of and the engagement in a 'community of practice' (in the sense of the shared enterprise of taking part in this study) constituted an essential part of the learning experience for this group of learners. This study therefore provides a small-scale but interesting confirmation of the value of a 'community of practice' in supporting learning experience.

8.4.2 Limitations of the present approach

Finally, I shall evaluate the limitations of the present research approach for carrying out research in the future.

First, while the creation of a pseudo-self-instructional setting in the study allowed me to have direct access to a learning setting normally inaccessible in researching home-learning, the setting is still different from naturally-occurring home-learning settings. Therefore, we cannot deny that learning in such a setting would not be the same as learning in one's own home. One of the participants commented that learning in his own home would involve interruption by family, children, telephone, etc. and would not be as focussed on learning as it was in this setting. In this sense, we should be aware that the present study is not exhaustive in pointing out issues involved in the process of self-instruction at home.

Secondly, the study did not include attempt to measure learners' achievement in Japanese. This was because I wanted to avoid the possible effect of a test on how the learners engaged with the series. A drawback of proceeding in this manner is that we do not know precisely to what extent and in what areas the use of SITV materials enhanced learners' Japanese proficiency. Also, even though we observed the increase in learners' control over SITV learning, we do not know to what extent this affected their achievement in their L2 if any. We inferred from the learners' subjective accounts that the SITV materials contributed to L2 learning particularly in sensitizing the learners to different varieties of Japanese pronunciation, and in helping them register to memory vocabulary and grammatical items. In order to identify more precise effects of the SITV materials, we need to investigate this area with more controlling research methods. At the same time, the learners' accounts suggested that the SITV materials are largely beneficial in enhancing motivation for learning, indicating that the usefulness of materials ought not to be measured simply in terms of linguistic achievement but should be discussed in relation to affective areas as well.

Thirdly, the method employed here has practical shortcomings. The group interviews are time-consuming both for the interviewer and the interviewees. They require high skills on the part of the interviewer, including a high command of the learners' L1. Using the researcher's home as a research setting is not always possible. Furthermore, establishing and maintaining rapport with the participants in a study as long-lasting as this involves human relations skills and may not always work with all participants. We cannot deny the effect of such human relationship between the researcher and the participants in this study.

8.5 Conclusion

This thesis aimed to understand L2 learning through self-instructional television materials produced for L2 learning. In this concluding section, I would like to summarise once again what we have understood throughout this thesis, clarify its major contributions and finally suggest some directions for future research.

In Chapter 2, I started by deepening our understanding of the basic features of self-instruction and SITV materials. I consulted the literature related to the visual elements of television / video materials which throw light on their significance for L2 learning, and studies looking into the use of L2 self-instructional materials as a whole. This revealed a lack of works which directly investigate the use of SITV materials particularly within the Japanese context, and some limitations in terms of the methodological approaches employed.

The above understanding motivated me to execute my two preliminary studies on the use of self-instructional broadcast (SIB) materials in Japan. The first study involved administration of an open-ended questionnaire to 138 Japanese university students on their use of SIB materials. The findings enabled me to understand the extent to which SIB materials are used in Japan, advantages and problems of SIB materials as perceived by learners, and some ways in which learners use SIB materials. In the second study, I gained a deeper understanding of the ways in which individual learners used SIB materials. Even though it may be regarded as a case of materials-centred self-instruction in which many of the decisions are already built into materials, the findings of these two studies provided insights into learners' active contributions in this type of learning. However, these findings did not uncover the features specific to SITV materials which contribute to L2 learning. Furthermore, these studies did not focus on the process of SITV learning and how learners themselves contribute in this process. This led me to carry out the main study which focusses on the process of SITV learning with a group of novice learners.

In Chapter 3, I considered the theoretical underpinnings and practical considerations with regard to the research methodology employed in the main study. The previous studies on SIB learning (reviewed in Chapter 2) were almost always confined to the use of structured and quantitative surveys and tests in a one-off rather than a longitudinal fashion. My own studies summarised in Chapter 2 employed open-ended questionnaires and interviews, but still failed to address aspects of process adequately. Furthermore, the previous work on SIB learning did not reflect learners' emic views in the collection and analysis of data.

In the main study, therefore, I employed an exploratory-interpretive approach (Grotjahn, 1987), in which I combined a multiple means of qualitative data collection in a longitudinal fashion.

The main study carried out on the above basis focussed on a specific case of adult learners of Japanese. It closely documented the process in which these inexperienced (in terms of SITV learning) learners embarked on SITV learning, reacted to the bulk of information presented via SITV materials and developed as they continued this process. The results in this phase brought to the fore the material features perceived to be salient by learners and how learners' perceptions of such features evolved over time. They also indicated that learners' focus shifted away from materials-oriented feature towards learning-oriented features.

Before proceeding to Phase 2 of the study, I considered the literature on learner strategies. The previous studies in this field uncovered the *types* of strategies applied in listening comprehension and addressed differences between the use of the strategies of effective and less effective listeners. However, they tended to dismiss the place of visuals and how they shape learners' strategy use. The studies also overlooked the developmental aspect of strategy use, using cross-sectional methods rather than longitudinal.

In Phase 2 of the main study, I narrowed the focus onto learners' use of their strategies during a lesson via SITV materials, breaking down the lesson into smaller segments and asking learners to report their thought processes after each segment. The findings revealed the types of strategies employed during viewing of SITV lessons, as well as highlight some of the more commonly used strategies. They also captured the learners' use of strategies within the instructional sequence, whilst indicating the variability of such strategy use depending on the lesson.

In 'Phases' 3 and 4 which were motivated by the learners themselves, I had the chance to observe what they would do if left on their own. By the end of 'Phase 4', learners had formed a semi-autonomous learning group and together invented creative activities of their own to fulfill their needs and share their strategies to overcome their common problems. By spontaneously assigning the role of teacher to one advanced learner, they managed to overcome the lack of monitor and feedback in some areas. These 'phases' illustrate how learners may come to take more control in learning with SITV materials.

Finally in this chapter, I have discussed the overall findings of the study in the context of general SLA literature in relation to the three aims which I set off at the beginning. First, the investigation revealed features of SITV materials perceived by learners as contributing to L2 learning. From such perceptions, the

study cast some implications for future production of SITV materials and materials involving 'audio-motion-visual media' more generally. Secondly, the study shed light on the process whereby adult learners pursued self-instruction by using SITV materials. It highlighted how learners contribute in this process in the cognitive, metacognitive, and affective areas through interaction with the SITV materials. Thirdly, the investigation, through employment of a new research approach, provides implications for future research in this area and in applied linguistics or educational research more generally.

Finally, I suggest four directions for future explorations. First, the present investigation was limited to the learning process of a particular group of learners, namely, adult learners in Britain. The study I carried out in Japan suggest, however, that learners of different age groups may take different approaches, and that such approaches are likely to develop as learners gain experience in learning with the materials. The study did not take into account the effect of learners' cultural backgrounds either. Extending the study with different groups of learners will reveal different aspects of approaches to SITV learning, and to L2 self-instruction more generally.

Secondly, the current investigation centred on the type of self-instruction in which learners rely heavily on SITV materials. In order to obtain a more comprehensive picture of L2 self-instruction, we need to relate this type of self-instruction to other types of self-instruction. For this purpose, we need to expand our scope to self-instruction using other types of materials such as textbooks, audio materials, and computer-mediated materials.

Thirdly, in this study, as stated above, I did not examine the relationship between achievement and the process of SITV learning. However, from my judgement through conversing with the participants in Japanese informally after sessions I observed a clear progress in at least two of the learners (Jane and Robert). At the beginning of the study, the participants had only taken eighteen hours of instruction in Japanese and could barely say words of greetings. But having studied with the SITV series over fourteen months, Jane in fact visited Japan shortly after the termination of the study to do art conservation work for six months. She reported to me that by then her Japanese was good enough to get by with daily activities such as travelling by train, shopping, chatting with friends, and following simple instructions at work (in a museum). Robert's progress was not as noticeable as Jane's but he became good enough to get by in Japanese restaurants in London and chat with his Japanese neighbour in Japanese. On the other hand, I did not observe any such noticeable progress with Sally. This observation indicates the need to examine in more detail what causes such

differences among the learners. To do this, we need to combine a measure of achievement and ways of investigating individual differences affecting the process of learning.

Finally, the study shed light on some issues worth pursuing in the area of learner strategy research. In particular, it was observed that the types of strategies learners employ for a given lesson are not always stable but seem to vary according to their understanding of the lesson and its perceived difficulty. Further investigation is required into the factors which affect such variability in learners' strategy use. Furthermore, it was indicated in the study that the types of strategies employed are affected by what comes before and after in the instructional sequence. More research on the effects of contextual factors on strategy use is needed in order to understand learners' strategy application within instructional settings.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Basic sentence structures for 'Let's Learn Japanese'

1. Basic I (Lessons 1 to 26)

Lesson	Basic sentence structures	English translation
1	Watashi wa Yan-desu. Douzo yoroshiku. Kore wa Yan-san no nimotsu desu ka. Hai, sore wa watashi no desu.	I'm Yan. Nice to meet you. Is this Yan's baggage? Yes, that's mine.
2	Are wa nan desu ka. Kore wa watashi no dewa arimasen. Kore mo kamera desu ka.	What's that? This isn't mine. Is this a camera, too?
3	Ike ga arimasu. Neko ga imasu. Furoba ga arimasu ka. Iie, arimasen.	There is a pond. There is a cat. Does it have a bath? No, it doesn't.
4	Neko wa doko ni imasu ka. Neko wa asoko ni imasu.	Where is the cat? The cat is over there.
5	Sumimasen, kitte o kudasai. 60-en no kitte o 15-mai kudasai.	Excuse me. I'd like some stamps. Fifteen 60-yen stamps, please.
6	Namae o kaite kudasai. Massugu itte kudasai. Tsugi no kado o hidari e magatte kudasai.	Write your name, please. Please go straight. Turn left at the next corner.
7	Kore o mitemo ii desu ka. Ee, kamaimasen yo. Kono tegami o posuto ni irete kudasaimasen ka.	May I take a look at this? Yes, of course. Would you please put this letter in a mailbox for me?
8	Kono shorui ni juusho to shimei o kaite kudasai. Enpitsu de kaitemo ii desu ka.	Please write your name and address on this form. May I write with a pencil?
9	Ima nan-ji desu ka. Ni-ji han desu. Katou-san wa maiasa 6:30 ni okimasu.	What time is it now? It's two thirty. Mr. Kato gets up at 6:30 every morning.
10	Katou-san wa gyuunyuu wa nominasen. Koucha o nominasu. Katou san no okusan wa mainichi uchi de hatrakimasu. Daidokoro no shigoto mo shimasu. Heya no souji mo shimasu. Sentaku mo shimasu. Tsuru o orimasu.	Mr. Kato does not drink milk. He drinks tea. Mrs. Kato works at home everyday. She works in the kitchen and she cleans the room. She also does the washing. I'm going to fold a crane.
11	Kuruma de ikimashita. Nikkou e wa itsu itta n desu ka.	I went by car. When did you go to Nikko?
12	Keeburukaa ni wa norimashita ka. Iie, norimasen deshita. Sono shashin wa ryoushin ni okuru tsumori desu.	Did you ride the cable car? No, I didn't. I'm going to send that picture to my parents.
13	Ima yakyuu no shiai o miteimasu. Mou hajimarimashtia ka. Iie, mada desu.	I am watching a baseball match. Has it already started? Not yet.
14	Katou-san wa biiru o nominagara shiai o miteimasu. Yan-san to miteimasu.	Mr. Kato is watching the match while drinking beer. I'm watching with Yan.
15	Mainichi atsui desu ne. Yoru mo atsukatta desu yo.	I is hot everyday, isn't it? It was hot in the evening, too.
16	Ofuro wa nuruku arimasen ka. Iie, nuruku arimasen. Kochira no hou ga yasui desu.	Wasn't the bath lukewarm? No, it wasn't lukewarm. This is cheaper.
17	Tsumetai biiru ga nomitai desu ne. Okada-san wa osake ga suki desu ka.	We want to drink cold beer, don't we? Do you like sake, Ms. Okada?
18	Tanaka-san wa youji ga aru sou desu. Watashi wa osakana ga ii desu. Ja, kono mise ni hairimashou.	I heard that Mr. Tanaka has errands to run. I prefer fish. Then, let's go into this shop.
19	Douro wa suiteiru deshou ka. Ee, kousoku douro wa suiteiru deshou. Fuji-san wa mada miemasen ka.	Will the road be empty? Yes, the highway will be empty. Hasn't Mt. Fuji appeared yet?
20	Ashinoko atari de tabeteiru kamo shiremasen ne. Ua, oishisu desu ne.	They may be eating around Lake Ashi. Oh, it looks delicious.

21	Yan-san wa nihongo ga dekimasu. Eigo wa hanasemasen.	Yan can speak Japanese. I cannot speak English.
22	Kiraremasu ka. Ee, kiraremasu. Watashi wa kaemasen.	Can you wear it? Yes, I can wear it. I cannot buy it.
23	Doushite kono toori, kukuma ga tooranai n desu ka. Hokouisha tengoku dakara yo. Anoko doushita n deshou ka. Kitto maigo ni natta n deshou.	I wonder why cars don't pass by on this street? Because it is 'Pedestrian's Paradise'. I wonder what happened to her. She probably got lost.
24	Okurimono desu kara todokete kudasai. Sukoshi osoku natta kara isogimashou.	It's a gift, so please deliver it. It's a little late so let's hurry.
25	Donna kaban desu ka. Chairo no kaban desu. Daiji na shorui ga irete arimasu.	What kind of bag is it? It's a brown bag. I put an important document inside.
26	Review of Lesson 1 to 25	

2. Basic II (Lessons 27 to 52)

27	Yo-ji ni wa ikeru to omoimasu.	I think I can be there by four.
28	Mou shouyu wa irenai hou ga ii yo. Sorosoro mukae ni itta hou ga ii n ja nai desu ka.	It is better not to put in any more soy sauce in. I think it is better if you go and pick her up now.
29	Kyou wa Nagasaki e iku n desu tte.	He said he is going to Nagasaki today.
30	Yan-san ni keeki o itadaita n desu yo. Tomodachi ni moratta n desu.	You got a cake from Yan. I got it from a friend.
31	Dai-ku o utaou to omotteiru n desu.	I am thinking of singing Beethoven's nine's symphony.
32	Nihongo o yonde mite kudasai. Yondemimashou.	Please try reading the Japanese. Let's try singing it.
33	Kirei ni narimashita ne. Akaruku natta.	It has become clean. It has become bright.
34	Terebi no oto o mou sukoshi shite kudasai. Shizuka ni shite.	Could you turn up the volume of the television a little? Be quiet.
35	Heya o deru toki ni, sutoobu o keshite kudasai ne.	Turn off the stove when you leave the room.
36	Taikutsu de komatteiru n desu. Kore, atsukute motenai.	I am so bored I don't know what to do. It's so hot, I cannot hold it.
37	Ocha demo iremashou ka.	Shall I make some tea or something?
38	Terada-san ga kanbyou shite kudasatta n desu.	Mr. Terada looked after me.
39	Moshi kore ga saiyou ni nattara, boku wa kuni e karimasu.	If this is accepted, I will go back to my country.
40	Okada-san no koto, Yan-san ni iccha dame desu yo.	You must not tell Yan about Miss Okada.
41	Inai mitai desu ne.	It seems like he is not there.
42	Sasottemo dame nan desu.	Even if I invite him, it is of no use.
43	Isoideita node kaenakatta n desu.	I was in a hurry, so I could not buy it.
44	Umi o mitari, furui ie o mitari shiyau to omotteiru n desu.	I am planning to go to a seaside, and visit old houses, and so on.
45	Yuki ga futteiru noni taihen desu ne.	It is hard, working in the snow.
46	Kore, nan to iu sakana desu ka. Kore wa tara to iu sakana desu.	What is this fish called? It is a fish called 'tara'.
47	Sumida-gawa no sakura wa mada saiteimasen ka. Ie, mou saiteimasu yo.	Isn't the cherry blossoms by the Sumida in bloom yet? No, it is already in bloom.
48	Mou ippon shika arimasen yo.	There is only one more bottle left.
49	Yan-san to aenaku naru no wa sabishii desu ne.	Not being able to see you is sad.
50	Watashi mo gaikokuryokou o shita koto wa arimasen yo.	I have never travelled abroad.
51	Nihon n kita toki wa kanarazu yotte kudasai yo.	You must pay us a visit whenever you come back Japan again.
52	Review of Lesson 27 to 51	

Appendix 2: Learner Profile Sheet

About yourself

(1) Name _____ (Male / Female)

(2) Year of birth _____ (3) Occupation _____

(4) Nationality _____ (5) Native language _____

(6) What is the highest academic qualification you've ever attained (e.g. O-levels, A-levels, B.A. degree)?

(7) What foreign language(s) other than Japanese have you studied?

(8) Have you used television or radio language courses for studying any of the languages above?

YES / NO

If YES, which one(s)? _____

(9) Have you been to Japan? YES / NO

If YES, how long for? _____

(10) How often do you use Japanese outside class?

a) very often b) occasionally c) seldom d) never

(11) What are the major reasons for your learning Japanese?

(12) What are the major reasons for your participating in this project?

Appendix 3: Questionnaire sheet (for Phases 1 and 3)

Date ____ / ____ Lesson _____ Name _____

(1) Which part(s) of the program did you find most useful, and why?

(2) Which part(s) did you find least useful, and why?

(3) What do you think you learned by watching today's program?

(4) In what ways was the program helpful in learning thing(s) you mentioned in (3) ?

(5) Is there anything else worth mentioning?

Appendix 4: Questionnaire sheet (for Phase 4)

Date _____ Lesson _____ Name _____

A. Record of what you did in preparation for the lesson

Please describe precisely what you did to prepare for the lesson. (e.g. which part you read in the text, what you focussed on, anything you noticed in particular, etc.)

When you studied

For how long you studied

B. About each session

What you did:

Overall impression:

Appendix 5: Positive and negative comments for major materials-oriented topics
(Phase 1)

Session	Comments	
	Positive	Negative
Presenter		
1	She gives me hope because she (being a non-Japanese) pronounces it so well.	(1) She is wooden. (2) She is too formal. (3) She is patronizing. (4) She could preferably be Japanese. (5) She should stop acting like she is reading the news.
2	The presenter came across much better.	
3	(1) She is less rigid. (2) She seems more on the same level. (3) She seems less slow.	
4	We see less of her so there is probably more content.	
5	(1) I like the way she reinforced it for me. (2) She modifies in every programme. (3) She is settling down a lot more.	I noticed the absence of explanation.
Explanation		
5		I would liked to have the formal introduction at the beginning.
7	I like it when we are told beforehand what to do so we know what to look for.	
8	(1) I think they did it better with the voice and the screen. (2) It is more useful to see the words on the screen.	
11	(1) I think they did it better with the voice and the screen. (2) It is more useful to see the words on the screen.	
Repeating of skit		
1		It is off-putting to see it repeated.
2		It is not necessary to show it again.
5		The skit from last week was not necessary.
7		They were still going over the last skit. I think it is too much.
11	(1) They balance was right between skits from last week and this week. (2) This time I benefited from seeing the same skit from last week.	
Continuity		
2		There is no continuity among the scenes.
3	(1) It is more interesting to have variety. (2) It is more interesting to have different perspectives.	I prefer the theme to continue.

4		(1) Some scenes were not adding to the learning. (2) It jumps about and are irrelevant.
5	It was constructive.	
6	(1) It is related to the general theme. (2) It is much more focussed.	
8	(1) It stuck to a central theme. (2) It did not deviate.	
Participation		
3	(1) It is very good to participate. (2) It feels good to feel good enough to be tested.	
4		It should have given more time.
8	I liked the practice.	
11	It helps put things into context.	
Superfluosness		
2		(1) It is irritating. (2) It is too slow. (3) It was unnecessary to drag on like that.
3		(1) When you feel you have been taught stuff quickly and immediately, then it works. (2) The pedding on the scene should be kept to a minimum.
8	I liked it for the pronunciation.	When they did the time, it felt like too much time was spent on that.
10	There was a strange relief in it (the photograph scene). I did not have to try to learn anything.	I would have eliminated (the scene with) a lot of photographs.
Humour		
1		That humour is silly.
2	There were really nice humour there that makes you laugh and remember.	
3	I think it gives humour in a good way but does not go over the top.	
9	I think the humour keeps you watching. I appreciate that.	

Appendix 6: Example excerpts from group interviews (topics)

Excerpts are presented below according to the topics which emerged:

Key= R:Robert, D:Dale, Sh:Sharon, J:Jane, S:Sally, K:Kris, A:Anne, T:Tae

1 Materials-oriented topics

1.1 Production

PRESENTER

R: And the other thing I found, not so useful, but a bit distracting was, I found the narrator very wooden.

D: The presenter.

R: The presenter.

T: The, ...Althaus.

R: Yes. Yes, I found that she was very wooden. Not enough expression compared to the others. They

had a lot of life, lot of vitality, and it was much more going and actually much more fun to see their

expression, they were very nice.

REPEATING OF SKIT

A: I just found it, I wouldn't watch that. You'd already seen that skit three times in the past. I would've

gone by that.

T: You didn't like the drama,

A: I didn't like the fact that it was,

T: repeated

A: Yeah.

T: Three times.

EXPLANATION

J: I thought [it would be better] if the narrator would come on first and said, 'Last week we learned the

te kudasai and *de kudasai*, the instruction for asking, this week we're going to learn how to ask permission to do something.' And that'll use *temo* and *demo*. Here's Yan's skit, see if you can pick them up. So you already know what you should be listening for and it's similar to what you learned from last week but it's slightly twisted. Maybe some introduction like that wouldn't take more than five seconds.

K: That's what I was saying. If we had formal introduction like that at the beginning.

MUSIC

D: One of the things I did find difficult when they were going through the last skit in the taxi was there was background music in the last one and there wasn't in the other two that we were watching for the last two. I found that really distracting, because I was really trying hard to listen to the words that have been said, and the music was blurring it away.

Sh: I didn't even notice there was music. How bizarre!

R: I didn't focus on it.

D: Because I was trying exceptionally hard to listen to the words and this music kept getting in my way.

T: In the programme when they were broken down, there was not music, and

D: when they took you through at the end, there was. 'Cause I was trying exceptionally hard to listen, and it was almost like semi-jazz music in the background.

SUBTITLES

R: A series of magician scenes, which I didn't find very educational presuming this time which she was going through *ga arimasu/ ga arimassen*, the words like *megane* was put there though I would've liked to try it first, then see the word.

Sh: But if you're a brand new learner and you had an object, how else will you know it?

R: It's better not to have the word written initially, to give you the opportunity to try out whether you're right or wrong.

D: I was quite happy with it.

ACTORS

R: They had a lot of life, lot of vitality, and it was much more going and actually much more fun to see their expression, they were very nice.

T: Are you talking about everything else except the presenter?

R: Yes.

T: The actors in...

R: The actors in ,

T: And also the drama.

R: The drama, well, little skits in order to learn.

BOARD

Sh: The only thing that I kind of wondered about was, the boards with flashing lights was gone and we got a blackboard!

D: Yeah, but I thought that was really good. 'Cause it gave you the comparison each time. It seems to have been very logical. When they have the blue screen, it doesn't break it down as well.

Sh: I prefer the blue screen. There is something about the blackboard, it's like being seven, being in school.

R: No. I thought it was fine. I just tried to analyse it as a teaching medium. If somebody takes down the cardboard, the image still stays the same. It doesn't have to be done electronically.

EXERCISES

J: ...what made me question was when we had the little bubble skits, the cartoon skits, that was part of the review at the beginning and that was fine, but I found when they said, do you know the sentence, can you say this? I was so busy trying to think of the verb that I forgot the structure. It threw me a bit. It could've been helpful if they said this is the verb and can you conjugate it in the right way.

T: They didn't give you the verb?

J: No.

K: They introduced the verb one by one but

J: No, that was just for the exercise. Because when they said, 'could you please sit down?' I knew the verb. But some of them were, like, 'could you open the door?' I couldn't remember the verb.

So, I was so busy trying to remember the verb that I forgot about the structure. So I thought it was a little bit nearly counterproductive in some way.

CONTINUITY

T: Why did you think it was good?

R: Because it stuck to a central theme. We saw the skit, we saw the clock. Couldn't necessarily follow all the words. But then going through clocks, telling the times, repeating it. All the time repeating on the central theme. It was more constructive. I thought that was much more beneficial. I should remember and hopefully be able to tell the time.

D: It didn't deviate.

R: No. It didn't go all over the place. It stuck to the central theme.

PARTICIPATION

D: I liked the part when they actually make you think, and so they pose a question to you and you come up with an answer, because it does make you work and try to concentrate. It does help put things in context, because if you get it wrong, they may put up the answer and it gives you better understanding of where you put what, so I think it's very useful because it gives you feedback. And

on the video it's always difficult, isn't it? Because it's a one-way interaction. I think posing the question and getting you to answer then giving you the answer gives you that kind of feedback.

SUPERFLUOUSNESS

Sh: The magician one didn't get to the point, it could've done much better. When you feel you've been taught stuff and quickly and immediately, then it works. When there is not somebody running around with a torch, you're losing so much of time when you're walking around.

D: If the padding on the scene was kept to a minimum, so you're not stretching it about, if you're delivering what it's about. He doesn't have to be rapid, but timely. The magician scene wasn't because he darts about, and we were waiting for something to happen, whereas here, things were happening all the time and it was at much better pace.

Sh: No wasted time.

D: Probably because there's a lot more information there, and they feel they have to get moving on.

HUMOUR

J: And I think the first skit was a lot more cornier. This has silly humour as well but this is more up-to-speed and I think it gives humour in a good way but does not go over the top like the first one. The dropping of the bag and the falling over each other.

IMPACT

D: Another example of something that stands out is where they were with the cameras? on the table? And she's picking up, *Kore wa nan desu ka* (What is this?) and saying camera, camera, another camera, and she picked up a radio and, Bang! the music bursted out. Because you just expected it to be another camera and it wasn't. And that was nice because it made you think. Automatically, we were thinking, 'Oh, that's a radio' and trying to work out the sentence construction. So that was good as well.

T: So, something unexpected.

D: Something unexpected. It's an impact.

T: Did it help you remember the word?

D: Yeah. In a crowd of people wearing black and if somebody wears orange, it sticks out.

VISUAL DISTRACTION

Sh: Sometimes you get distracted by the visuals as well. I think, I always used to think I'm somebody who learned best from writing things. Until I started Ryoko's class, I realised I took it most orally by listening. That's how it went in most. It's partly because it's quite hard in the written,

S: Yeah.

Sh: but um, I think, to some degree, perhaps with the visuals I think actually distracted me slightly. I think when it's just oral, then I hear. It's like it goes in almost like some mantra or something into my head.

REALITY OF SETTING

D: ... And I thought it was nice at the end when she was walking around the studio, asking things.

R: Yes.

D: Using *sono, kono*. That was quite nice when she was walking around the studio.

T: Why was it nice?

D: Because it's a different setting, people are doing other things and not concentrating on what she was doing. So, it's a more realistic environment.

R: Yeah.

Sh: You can learn better, because you're shown something, rather than just told.

D: Yeah, it just seemed much more natural. Like, she just actually found the people doing the film, asking 'Is this yours?'

PACE

J: I thought the pacing was good. The only thing that was a little bit fast was the writing. That was very quick. It was almost like they were trying to fill out thirty seconds.

T: Pacing means...

K: The speed.

J: Like the past negative and the past forms. Even though she was sitting there asking 'What is *nomimasu*?' polite past, and does it four or five times, and by the end of it you're getting a little bit bored with it and you wanted to move on, but it wasn't overly slow.

T: How does pace affect your way of looking?

J: Like I said, if it's too slow, we get bored. If it's too fast, we get overwhelmed.

K: It's important that the timing is right.

LENGTH

K: The film at the estate agent, it's interesting but it's little loose ends to me, which could be improved.

T: Like what?

K: I found it a little bit longer, without subtitles it's long, because if you don't know exactly what they're saying, you lose interest. It was interesting, they showed Japanese houses, well-acted, but without subtitle, it could have been broken into sequence. Like when they went out to the estate agent, Act 1 they should have stopped there and explained what's happened before going on to when they went out to look at the houses, which is Act 2 and then the Act 3 when they started moving in. So, break them into 3 different scenes, and explain what happened.

DENSITY

Sh: It was just the quantity of information seemed enormous. And it also had that *mae*. It said that quite quickly. I felt like it was teaching me a different way of talking about time and it was teaching me two verb forms and it just seemed so much.

1.2 Content

GRAMMAR

D: So, the good things were the use of positive and negative use of *masu*. It's always nice to know how to say I DON'T want it. It's good to have both sides of coin. It'll be silly to learn just the positive. It also reinforces it, the situations. Even in class, we were using more *masu* than the *masen*. In the skit, there was only one *nomimassen* and that was the Kato-san doesn't drink milk.

BACKGROUND SCENES

R: I was absorbed with the home and the bath. I was intrigued. It was visually more pleasing than the previous one, the house, and garden. I wasn't really interested in the airport.

Sh: Just seeing the house.

D: It's a bit more of a flavour.

Sh: Yeah, of Japan.

R: It's very nice to see what it looks like.

PRONUNCIATION

D: I thought the explanation of how to pronounce the characters is very good. I always found it useful. Apart from being useful, it's entertaining as well, especially when you try. (Laughs.) It's fun. You don't think of it otherwise, what your mouth does and what your tongue does. If you concentrate on what your tongue does, it's much more entertaining.

CULTURE

Sh: I also liked very much the metal man.

S: Oh, yeah.

Sh: I think things like that are also stimulating because probably people who are bothering to learn Japanese are more than happy to learn about the culture.

S/K: Un.

Sh: And so I think the more you can bring in the better. I thought also the comment about the fireworks was very good, (K/S: Un.) because I saw the Hiroshige or something on a river and

there're lots of fireworks (K: S: Yeah.) and I thought this must be really traditional in Japan in the art work, and I thought, you know, things like that I think are very interesting to know.

WRITING SYSTEM

R: The only thing I felt I wasn't learning was the *hiragana*. I can't see the strokes, and I know there I got to sit down with the workbooks.

Sh: I felt that because there were so much information, the *hiragana* part almost felt like it was irrelevant. It almost felt unnecessary this week. There was too much there, we don't need this, but also because so much of it is visual and it almost seemed irrelevant.

2 Learning-oriented topics

2.1 Cognitive

NOTICING LINGUISTIC ITEMS/FEATURES

Noticing rhythm

D: I thought there was more of a rhythm to the language this time, I somehow picked it out especially when they were doing the directions. There was more of a rhythm to the words they were actually saying in the sentences, which was something we'd never really dealt with. There was a definite rhythm to the sentences.

Noticing phonetic features

S: What I noticed was the *ga* was actually pronounced as *nga*.

J: I think it's just sometimes, not always.

S: But today, it was pronounced as *nga* and I thought before I heard it as *ga*. And I thought why is that?

J: I think sometimes in general the *g* sound is pronounced more like *nga* because in *migi* when we heard in the taxi, it sounded like *mingi*, and I don't know whether it's a regional accent but I think it's just that sound in general.

Noticing lexical items

D: I heard the *tokidoki*. When they said *Dekakemasu*, I remember seeing it in the last video. I must look it up. I was familiar with it, but I couldn't make out what it stood for. I was aware it's been introduced before, but I didn't remember what it meant. That's because I haven't revised. I didn't remember the approximation.

Noticing grammatical items

Sh: And there was another sentence that goes, *kore o soko, sore o koko*. And I kept thinking, it was like this is here, and. They were going *kore o koko*, and *sore o koko*.

D: *Sore o koko ni* and.

Sh: Put that there, put that here. I think the one was, there put here, and here put there. But I always thought *kore* was here.

T: What about that?

Sh: I don't know any more. I may be more confused than I thought I was.

D: I thought it was interesting, because I noticed the fact that the *kore* is followed by *o* and *sore* is followed by *o* no matter where it's found in the sentence. I presume it's worth knowing when you're applying it to something.

Noticing different uses

D: I thought it was nice to have these kids. They said *Wakarimasen* at the end. They didn't know the time. *Wakarimasen*, I've always understood it to mean, 'I don't understand.'

Sh: Umm. That's what I thought too.

D: So, it's nice to see the use in a situation where it can mean more than just 'I don't understand', but mean 'I don't know', not 'I don't understand'. So, it was nice. It was something I wasn't aware of at all.

Sh: No, I wasn't either.

D: But it's quite a big thing, isn't it?

Sh: We need to use both of them.

D: Absolutely! (Laughs)

D: So, that was quite nice. Did you pick that up, Roger?

R: Yes. I picked up, I wasn't sure they said 'I don't understand' or 'I don't know the time.' But I understood as they didn't know.

D: So, that's something we have been made aware of. It's strange. All the tapes are focused on different things, but there is always something on the outside, just on the outrage of whatever is going on it's new. and gives you a different slant to something that you thought you understood already. Which is quite nice, and which is quite important, really.

DISCRIMINATING SOUNDS

Sh: I think when it's spoken, the words run into each other, so it's almost like *Itta n desu ka*, not *itta n desu ka*. So it becomes much harder to know what was said. Because you're not used to it, it's actually very hard to pick out what was said. You hear something completely different to what you see.

T: Even after seeing it on the blue screen?

Sh: Yes! That's why it's so terrifying. That's exactly what happened. They showed it on the blue screen, and then she said it, and I was listening hard and I thought, 'No way!'

R: That happens quite often.

BREAKING DOWN INTO CHUNKS

D: Then, she started talking about what Yan was saying, going through the small portions of it, breaking it down. That was interesting, because again the speed was normal speed, and the words were joining together, but once the breakdown has happened with the blue background, that was helpful to identify where the sounds stand, and when the tape was played again, you could pick out individual pieces much easier. It helped to identify the sounds. It's funny, because if someone speaks, I might have an idea of what they're talking about, but I wouldn't understand it. But when they actually breakdown and put them in Romaji, it becomes clearer. It's because I'm more familiar with some of the Romaji form of the verbs, so I can identify exactly what's going on in the construction, so it start to fit in a little bit better.

REMEMBERING

Sh: When she [the presenter] breaks down the verbs, you see them in visuals. I find that was a superb way 'cause I can see now it's *haitte*, I couldn't remember what it was but in my head, H-A-I-T-T-E, I can see it in my head. I really find that very useful, the way it goes between the skits and the boxes with the written stuff.

T: When you saw the written stuff, you could remember?

Sh: It reinforces it. It's a really good way to reinforce, going between the two, back and forwards.

INFERENCE

Sh: I always think this kind of leads me just search for what's familiar. I can't understand certain words and cause it's not vocabulary because it may have *-te kudasai* at the end, and last week we were looking at the request, so okay this is the structure, whereas just looking at this, and noticing it having *ii desu ka* at the end, even if I didn't understand the words before, I would know, Oh, this is a request for something. And I think I look for what I consider most familiar and then I know what the context is even though I don't understand all the words, I can guess what's going on to some extent.

TRANSLATING

D: But I still think too much, I look for words that in Japanese aren't there but in English are.

T: For example?

D: I was converting into English, everything, (Laughs) which is probably why it takes me so long to actually to vocalize it.

Sh: When I'm out of class if I try constructing sentences, then it's hard, because they're constructed differently. I was aware of that even in this (programme), 'towel, show me, please', whereas in English it will be 'Please show me the towel', so it's actually all back to front.

PRE-GUESSING

D: I did find myself trying to pre-guess what the verbs are gonna be or what verb forms are gonna be.

T: In Yan's skit?

D: No, not in Yan's skit. When we were being asked what certain forms of verbs were. I was trying to pre-guess those.

2.2 Metacognitive

IDENTIFYING PROBLEM

S: But the only problem with me, missing the last programme, the only problem I had was not getting into the skits or drama, you can get straight back into that. It's the speed of the language. Trying to get your ears adjusted again and concentrate. Because sometimes, you can concentrate so hard that you lose altogether. Trying to concentrate, listen so hard that you end up just losing, you're not taking anything in, because you're trying too hard to pick out words, you know.

J: It's the same thing I was saying.

FOCUSSING

R: I try to figure out the words that before I did not understand. So maybe I can identify. If I picked up the few words at the end, when it comes back the next time, I try to pick up the words at the front, so I can narrow focusing, slowly to work out what is there, then it's coming to focus. Because otherwise, it's too much, so I'll focus on what I can. Each time I focus on different sections and put them together.

D: That's an interesting technique. I might try it the next time.

R: You got to put the pieces together. I mean, that's the way it happens. I pick up the first word, the next time a bit at the back, then slowly it'll come together.

AVOIDING

Sh: I think I sort of start thinking about other things. I know I should be concentrating. But my mind sort of starts wandering off.

T: Why is that?

Sh: Maybe because I know it's hard. (Laughs) Because I know that even if I listen very hard, I still can't get it. I don't really know, but I'm aware. If you don't understand, your mind switches off. I think there is a level up to where you sort of concentrate hard and if it seems to be swimming away, and you don't get it, then you just sort of wander off.

2.3 Affective

MOTIVATION

T: You said earlier that despite all the difficulty, you felt it was a good programme.

R: I liked the visual scenes. That created a visual image and an attraction and reinforced why I'm doing this? Because one day I wanna be able to actually go to these places and see if I can survive and cope and ask questions and understand the answers everybody talks about. And that encourages me to go on, not that I do need a lot of encouragement but it's just nice to know that it's one of the reasons I'm doing it. I wanna be able to go to Nikko, where is this place, I don't know it. I have to find it.

CONFIDENCE

Sh: It throws your confidence. You don't feel on top of it, it's on top of you. I remember there was a programme on time. And that's all there was in one programme and that's what I would say as very self-contained. There you have, you have a subject, we have it gone over and over and over, because when it's more contained you get more examples and this is very contained. Oh, I've learned the time today. But I do think as a beginner, it does make you feel more confident if you can watch something or have a lesson and you feel 'Oh, look, I've learned that today and I understand that.' Even though you know that you haven't learned a masses but what you have learned you feel you got.

PRESSURE

D: Personally speaking, here, I don't feel under quite as much pressure as I do in class. In the class, the question is directed at you, and you're expected to come back with it.

Sh: But I find this, far greater pressure than learning in class. Because if I have a teacher, if I go 'Oh, I don't understand', I know there is a person who can help me. If I feel that I've only got a video and a tape and no teacher to explain it, that to me will be intolerable pressure. Everything will rely on me, understanding and getting it.

D: I suppose, when you're in class, you have to move at a certain speed. You have to get on with what everyone is doing. With the video, you come in and you learn something, there is no such pressure from anybody else. It's not like a question and answer session.

