Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

A Study of College Students' Attitudes toward English Media and the Lexical Learning Opportunities Afforded by Streaming Media

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(영어미디어 시청에 대한 대학생학습자들의 태도와 온라인 스트리밍 미디어 제공에 의한 언어학습 기회에 관한 연구)

Advisor: Prof. Junil Oh

by
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A Study of College Students' Attitudes toward English Media and the Lexical Learning Opportunities Afforded by Streaming Media

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Abstract

The emergence of English streaming media offers additional avenues for language learners to encounter English language input outside of the classroom. This is important because extensive learning outside of the classroom is an essential part of a language learning program (Nation, 2012) and is beneficial for reinforcing language that is being learned inside the classroom (Ellis, 2006). Furthermore, viewers of streaming media now commonly practice narrow viewing of media which is conducive to vocabulary learning (Webb, 2011).

In order to explore what students think of English media and what language learning opportunities media provides, 275 college students at a university in South Korea were surveyed in regards to their attitudes toward English media and their views toward learning vocabulary from extensive viewing of English media. An attempt was also made to investigate how categories of perceptions toward English media are related to one another and to explore the possible effects of gender, experience with English media, and proficiency on perceptions toward English media. Furthermore, in order to explore the lexical learning opportunities afforded by streaming media, a total of 90 scripts were compiled and analysed for the purpose of this study. Three genres were selected for analysis and, within each genre, episodes from two television series were analysed. The genres that were utilized were comedy, action/superhero, and horror. A fourth corpus consisting of random television shows was compiled for comparison with the three genres of this study.

In regards to college students' attitudes toward English media and vocabulary learning from extensive viewing, it was found that the participants were interested in English media, considered extensive viewing of English media to be useful for language learning, were familiar with streaming media, and regarded media to be somewhat difficult. The results also

showed that the participants considered unknown vocabulary, speed of speech, slang, and a lack of subtitles to be particularly difficult aspects of extensive viewing, while they deemed English media to be particularly useful for raising interest in language learning, learning about culture, improving listening speed, learning vocabulary, and learning slang. The participants did not find English media to be useful for learning grammar. Furthermore, learners tended to believe that there was a high potential to learn vocabulary from watching media. In regards to the relationships that exist between the four constructs of students' attitudes toward media viewing, there was found to be statistically significant correlation between perceptions of interest and perceptions of usefulness of media for language learning, between interest and familiarity with streaming media, and between perceived usefulness and familiarity with streaming media. There was found to be a negative correlation between perceived difficulty and interest in English media and between perceived difficulty of English media and familiarity with streaming media. In regards to the effect of individual differences on perceptions toward English media, there was an indication that females are more familiar with streaming media than males, and there was evidence that more proficient students and those with more experience with English media were more interested in media, perceived it to be more useful, were more familiar with streaming media, and considered media to be less difficult.

Pertaining to the lexical learning opportunities afforded by streaming media, in terms of lexical coverage, the horror genre was found to be relatively easy, and the comedy and action genres were found to be relatively difficult genres for extensive viewing of English media. As for lexical recycling and lexical spacing, there was found to be more lexical learning opportunities of mid-frequency vocabulary for both within genre viewing and within series viewing of streaming media than for random viewing of television. All three genres analysed were found to have a greater number of mid-frequency word families that were repeated 10 or more times, and a higher percentage of mid-frequency word families that were repeated 10 or more times to the total mid-frequency word families in the corpuses. Furthermore, all of the genres analysed had a higher number of mid-frequency words that exhibited lexical range and opportunities for spaced encounters of mid-frequency vocabulary than the random genres corpus.

The aim of this study was to provide teachers with insights into how they can motivate their students to practice extensive viewing of English media. Pedagogical implications and research implications are presented based on the findings of this study.

영어미디어 시청에 대한 대학생학습자들의 태도와 온라인 스트리밍 미디어 제공에 의한 언어학습 기회에 관한 연구

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요약

온라인 스트리밍 영어 미디어의 출현은 언어 학습자들에게 교실 밖에서 영어 입력을 접하게 하는 추가적인 수단을 제공한다. 교실 밖에서의 폭넓은 학습은 언어학습 프로그램에 중요한 부분이며 (Nation, 2012), 교실환경에서 학습된 언어를 강화하는 데 도움을 주기 때문이다 (Ellis, 2012). 나아가 현재 온라인 스트리밍 미디어 시청자들은어휘 학습에 유리한 협의의 미디어 시청을 한다 (Webb, 2011).

학습자들이 영어 미디어에 대한 어떤 태도를 가지는지 또언어 학습을 어떻게 증진시킨다고 생각하는지 조사하기 위해 한국 대학생 275 명을 대상으로 설문 조사를 하였다. 영어 미디어에 대한 태도와 영어 미디어를 봄으로써 어휘를 습득하는 것이 가능하다고 믿는지에 대한 관계에 대하여 물어보았는데 영어 미디어에 대한 인식의 수준, 그리고 성별이나 영어 미디어 사용 경험, 영어 미디어 사용에 대한 능숙함 등과의 관계도 조사하였다. 나아가 스트리밍 미디어에 의해 어휘 습득 기회가 제공되는지 조사하기 위해 90 개의 대본들을 엮고 분석했다. 3 개의 장르(코미디, 호러, 액션)가 그 대상이 되었고 각 장르 마다 2 개의 TV 시리즈가 편집되었다. 위의 3 개 장르와 비교하기 위해 네 번째 코퍼스는 무작위한 장르의 TV 쇼로 구성되었다.

광범위한 영어 미디어 시청에 대한 대학생들의 태도와 어휘 습득 간의 관계의 결과는 연구 참가자들이 영어 미디어에 관심을 지녔으며, 폭넓은 미디어 시청이 언어학습에 도움이 된다고 인식했고,

스트리밍 매체를 알고 있었으나 영어 미디어에는 다소 어려움을 느끼고 있었다. 또한 결과는 학습자들이 모르는 어휘와 발화의 속도, 자막의 부족이 광범위한 영어 미디어 시청을 더욱 어렵게 만든다고 생각하고 있다는 것을 보여 주는 반면 미디어 시청이 어휘학습에 대한 동기 부여를 해주고 문화를 배우는 것과 듣기 속도 향상, 은어 학습에도 큰 효과가 있을 것이라고 믿는 경향이 있었다. 그러나 문법 학습에 유용할 것이라고 생각하지는 않았으나 어휘 습득에 잠재적으로 도움이 될 것으로 믿고 있었다. 영어 미디어에 대한 학생의 태도를 구성하는 4 가지 항목 중에 흥미와 유용성 사이에 그리고 흥미와 익숙함 사이에, 그리고 인지된 유용성과 익숙함 사이에 통계적으로 상관관계가 있었다. 반면에 인지된 어려움과 흥미, 인지된 어려움과 익숙함 사이에는 부적 상관관계가 있었다. 그리고 개인적 차이에 따라서도 영어 미디어에 대한 태도의 경향이 달랐는데 예컨대 여학생들이 스트리밍 영어 미디어에 더 익숙하였다. 그리고 영어에 능숙한 학생, 그리고 영어 미디어 경험이 많은 학생들이 더 흥미를 갖고 유용하다고 인식하며 어려움을 덜 느끼는 것으로 나타났다.

스트리밍 미디어가 제공하는 어휘 학습 기회를 어휘 범위 측면에서 볼 때, 공포물에 등장하는 어휘 수준은 비교적 낮았고 코미디, 액션 장르는 비교적 높았다. 같은 어휘의 재사용도와 어휘 간의 간격의 측면에서 볼 때, 중간 빈도 어휘가 학습될 가능성이 가장 높았다. 그리고 무작위로 TV 를 보는 것 보다 시리즈물을 보는 것이 어휘 학습에 유리하였다. 모든 3 개 장르의 대본들 에서는 중간 빈도 어휘들이 모두 최소 10 회 이상 반복되었고 코퍼스의 전체 중간 빈도 어휘들에 비해 10 배 혹은 그 이상으로 많이 반복되었다. 나아가 3 개 장르의 대본들은 무작위로 선정한 장르의 코퍼스에 비하여 훨씬 다양한 중간 빈도 어휘들을 제공하였다.

이 연구의 목적은 교사들에게 학생들이 어떻게 광범위한 영어 미디어를 시청하게끔 동기부여 할 수 있는지 통찰력을 제공함에 있다. 교육과 연구의 함의는 이 연구의 결과에 제시되어 있다.

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Learning a language is an extremely difficult task that requires a tremendous amount of time and effort. Despite years of study, students often find that they fall short of utilizing the target language in authentic circumstances. This is especially true for those in EFL environments since students will rarely be exposed to the target language outside of the language classroom. Thus, in order for students to achieve communicative competence, learning must extend past the classroom. This has led researchers to point to extensive learning as a fundamental part of any language program (Krashen, 1982; Nation & Yamamoto, 2012; West, 1955).

Researchers have recognized the importance of extensive learning and have primarily looked to reading. There is now a wealth of research that has explored the role of extensive reading in developing students' lexicon and grammar. Several studies have demonstrated the importance of extensive reading in maximizing student learning outcomes (Krashen, 1982; Nagy, Herman, Anderson, & Pearson, 1984; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006). Alongside the emergence of corpus-based research that has initiated the production of leveled reading materials, reading has received the most attention since it is relatively easy to produce materials that are tailored to the needs of students.

When compared to reading, extensive media viewing has not received the same level of attention as a source of language input for learners, since media is often regarded as being too difficult for learners. Unlike reading materials that can be leveled to the needs of students, the utilization of media as a form of input for language learning presents a significant initial

hurdle for learners. It can also be challenging to cope with the speed of media, whereas students can reduce their reading speed when a written text becomes problematic.

Despite its inherent difficulty, media is a vital resource for preparing learners for the reality of language use. Though there is certainly a role for simplified language learning materials, it is essential that learners are also exposed to authentic language. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018), for example, warn against overprotecting learners from authentic language and remind researchers and practitioners of the need to prepare students for authentic language use.

Furthermore, mid-frequency vocabulary plays a significant role in the comprehension of media. Corpus-based research has demonstrated that vocabulary sizes of approximately 6000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words are necessary to achieve optimal coverage for incidental language learning from watching movies (Webb & Rodgers, 2009) and television (Webb, 2011). Thus, knowledge of a significant amount of mid-frequency vocabulary is necessary for learning language from media.

Media also presents an opportunity to learn mid-frequency vocabulary. Unlike high-frequency vocabulary which will be encountered with high regularity in language to support acquisition, mid-frequency vocabulary is not always encountered enough in order to facilitate acquisition. Thus, extensive viewing can be used to provide learners with lexical recycling of mid-frequency vocabulary to assist acquisition and the building of lexical knowledge. In fact, lexical recycling has been shown in research to play an important role in the learning and retention of vocabulary (Vidal, 2011), and lexical spacing and opportunities for spaced retrieval of vocabulary from memory has been shown to support lexical retention (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick, & Bahrick, 1993; Carrier & Pashler, 1992).

Media has the potential to provide several other language learning benefits. Since speaking and listening are the primary modalities of communication, media can serve a

valuable role in demonstrating authentic language in use. Media is also highly entertaining, and thus it has been shown in research to play a motivational role (Bada & Okan, 2000; Chapple & Curtis, 2000) by allowing learners an opportunity to have fun while learning language. Research has also demonstrated that extensive viewing of television and movies can be used for vocabulary learning (Ina, 2014; Rice & Woodsmall, 1988; Rodgers, 2013), for improving listening comprehension (Qiu, 2017; Safranj, 2016), and for learning sociopragmatic functions of language in use (Abrams, 2014). Furthermore, Ellis (2006, p. 102) suggests that meaning-focused learning can provide opportunities for learners to have "extensive treatment of grammatical problems." In other words, extensive viewing has the potential to play an important role in reinforcing language that is learned explicitly in the classroom and implicit, incidental learning of new language.

1.2 Definition of Terms

There are several terms that need to be defined that will be used throughout the course of this study. Extensive viewing refers to uninterrupted L2 viewing that occurs primarily outside of the classroom. Key characteristics of extensive viewing is that it requires autonomy of the learner to choose to participate, it is done for pleasure, and it includes large amounts of viewing input in the target language. Extensive viewing was proposed with the aim of increasing EFL learners' exposure to meaning-focused spoken input (Webb, 2009).

Streaming media is anything that can be found on a streaming media website (platform), such as Netflix, Hulu, Amazon Prime, etc. Most pertinent to the context of this study is that streaming media includes original content series (typically dramas or sitcoms) produced for streaming media websites. Such series produced for streaming media websites have some advantages over movies and traditional television series. A whole season of a series is

typically released at one time on streaming media platforms, a series usually has more content than a movie, and a streaming series on a streaming media platform can be accessed from any location that has an internet connection. Furthermore, streaming media series usually have tools which can aid in comprehension, such as subtitling and playback options.

Mid-frequency vocabulary refers to a vocabulary band that exists between high-frequency vocabulary (words that are commonly used in "daily" speech) and low-frequency vocabulary (words that are not commonly used). Mid-frequency vocabulary is important for language learning due to its high payoff. Such words have been shown to be significant in aiding learners to comprehend authentic language texts. Mid-frequency vocabulary has also been shown to play a significant role in the comprehension of media. This study will utilize Schmitt and Schmitt's (2014) definition of mid-frequency vocabulary as that which occurs between high-frequency (3000) and low-frequency (9000+). Mid-frequency vocabulary will be referred to as "useful" vocabulary for the rest of this dissertation.

Lexical coverage is the percentage of words known in a text to the total words of a text. For optimal incidental vocabulary learning from media, viewing needs to be done with proper levels of coverage.

Lexical recycling refers to the repetitions of a word throughout a text. Unlike high-frequency vocabulary, "useful" vocabulary would not be expected to be encountered frequently in daily speech. Thus, greater quantities of recycling of "useful" vocabulary will help to reinforce word learning and aid in acquiring various aspects of word knowledge. In the context of extensive viewing, the chances of learners acquiring a new word will diminish if not encountered frequently.

Lexical spacing refers to the distribution of words throughout a text. Spaced repetition of words will allow learners opportunities to recall learned vocabulary from memory. In media, spaced encounters of vocabulary will prevent learners from going long periods without

encountering a word that is being learned and will help protect against lexical knowledge decay.

1.3 Research Questions

While research has demonstrated the potential role that media can play in developing the language learner, the growing popularity of streaming media platforms further necessitates a focus on extensive viewing as an important source of language input. Streaming media platforms provide easy and convenient access to popular movies and television shows that have the potential to play an important role in motivating students to use English. Furthermore, these platforms offer tools, such as subtitling, speed adjustment, and playback options, which can help learners to combat difficulties when viewing media.

The cultural phenomenon of the rise of streaming media has even entered the vernacular as the term “binge viewing” has accompanied a new type of viewer. Streaming media programs are usually uploaded to streaming sites full seasons at a time, whereas in the past viewers had to wait a full week for succeeding episodes. Thus, fans are more likely to practice narrow viewing of media, which has been shown to be beneficial to lexical development (Gardner, 2008).

Since streaming media has had such a significant impact on the viewing of media globally, it is important to evaluate the impact it has had on foreign language learners’ attitudes toward English television and movies, and to examine how those attitudes relate to the learning potential of using media distributed on streaming media platforms. This is important because attitudes will have an effect on whether students decide to engage in extensive viewing. Furthermore, knowledge regarding students’ attitudes toward media can aid teachers in facilitating and motivating out-of-class extensive viewing. This study explores students’

attitudes toward extensive viewing of media in regards to their interest in English media, their familiarity and experience level with streaming media, as well as students' perspectives regarding media's difficulty and usefulness for language learning.

Furthermore, this study will conduct a corpus-based analysis of current streaming media programs to investigate whether a narrow viewing approach to viewing streaming media provides more lexical learning opportunities of "useful" vocabulary. This study will then compare the results of the corpus analysis with students' attitudes toward language learning from media. The results of this investigation will hopefully provide teachers with insights into the role they can play in motivating student viewing of media and facilitating extensive viewing as a means to supplement the lack of exposure to authentic English input in their students' daily lives.

This study explores students' attitudes toward extensive viewing and the lexical learning of "useful" vocabulary afforded by streaming media. The research questions are as follows:

(1) What are college students' attitudes toward the use of English media for language learning purposes in terms of interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media, and how are these attitudes related to one another?

(2) What effects do gender, proficiency, and experience with media have on interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media?

(3) What are college students' attitudes toward learning vocabulary from media in terms of lexical coverage, narrow viewing, lexical recycling, lexical spacing, repeat viewings of a show, and the facilitative effect of the story and visuals?

(4) How many word families do you need to know in order to reach 95% and 98% coverage of streaming media, and is there a difference between the vocabulary size necessary to reach 95% and 98% coverage of different genres and series of streaming media?

(5) Does a within genre and within series narrow viewing approach to viewing streaming media provide more lexical learning opportunities of "useful" vocabulary in terms of lexical recycling and lexical spacing?

1.4 Chapter Summary

In order to answer the research questions outlined in this introductory chapter, chapter 2 will explore relevant literature. Chapter 2 will discuss and define as well as present research pertaining to the utilization of extensive viewing for incidental language learning. Chapter 2 will also examine the various aspects of lexical acquisition, discuss relevant issues in extensive learning, and review corpus-based research that analyse vocabulary for extensive viewing purposes.

Chapter 3 will explain and justify the research methodology that was utilized for this current study. The participants, corpuses, and instruments will be clarified in this chapter, and data collection procedures and data analysis procedures will be outlined.

Chapter 4 will display the results of the analysis and discuss these results as they inhere with the five research questions. This chapter will be organized in such a way that subchapter one will pertain to the first, second, and third research questions and subchapter two will pertain to the fourth and fifth research questions.

Chapter 5 is the concluding chapter of this dissertation and will be utilized to summarize the findings as they relate to the research questions. This chapter will also discuss the pedagogical implications, limitations, and research implications of the findings of this study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Extensive learning

2.1.1 Overview

While the primary scope of this current research is to explore the role that extensive viewing of authentic materials such as movies and television plays in foreign language acquisition, this current section will explore the origins of extensive learning in order to set the stage for extensive viewing of media that will be discussed in the following section. The primary focus on the role of extensive learning began with reading and has incurred the majority of the focus over the years from both researchers and practitioners.

2.1.2 Defining extensive learning

A surge of research into the role that input, and more specifically, the role that reading plays in building a learner's lexicon and grammar began with Stephen Krashen's Input Hypothesis of the 1980's. Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis postulates that input helps advance a learner's interlanguage when the learner understands and focuses on the message of the text where the language is a little beyond their current ability rather than focusing on the form of the text. Krashen (1982) describes this as "i+1" where "i" represents the learner's current ability. Krashen (1982) goes on to explain that "i+1" will take place in any case where understanding of a text or successful communication occurs. This has been described as comprehensible input and has been supported by others (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006) as essential for maximizing learner outcomes.

Extensive reading has been described as "uninterrupted sustained silent reading" (Hunt, 1967, as cited in Debbita, Ambigapathy, & Paramaswari, 2018, p. 352). Furthermore,

Krashen (1982) describes extensive reading as something that is "completely voluntary" (p. 163) and is characterised by autonomy of the learner to make decisions regarding the book choice, skipping uninteresting or difficult sections of the book, and stopping the book completely to move onto another book if desired. It is clear that Krashen views the interest level and motivational force of extensive reading as being of primary importance. Similarly, Waring and Nation (2004) argue for the "need to provide materials at the right instructional levels both for intensive and extensive reading" (p. 19) and state that "readers must be exposed to text that is accessible if they wish to read and learn with ease" (p. 19) in order to maintain learner interest and to provide opportunities for incidental language acquisition.

Researchers have also highlighted the importance of being exposed to large amounts of comprehensible input for fluency development in extensive reading (Bell, 2001; Lao & Krashen, 2000). Robb and Susser (1989) include the reading of "large quantities of material or long texts" (p. 165) as an integral part of their definition of extensive reading. Furthermore, Jeon (2008) argues that extensive reading has the potential to expose learners to "a great deal of language input necessary for the development of English reading ability" (p. 52). Grabe and Stoller (2002, as cited in Pigada & Schmitt, 2006) refer to extensive learning as exposing learners to "large quantities of material within their linguistic competence" (p. 259).

2.1.3 The role of extensive reading in language acquisition

Many have pointed to the importance of extensive reading as an integral part of a language program. Krashen (2003) claims that "free voluntary reading may be the most powerful tool we have in language education" (p. 15), highlighting its effectiveness in strengthening reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and writing, as well as being enjoyable. Furthermore, within the context of Nation's (1996) four strands of a well-balanced language program, Nation and Yamamoto (2012) argue that extensive reading should make

up approximately 7/32s of a language learning program, and that a "reasonable proportion" (p. 171) of this time should take place outside of class time.

According to Krashen (1982), language acquisition is facilitated through a supply of comprehensible input in low anxiety situations, and learners "acquire by going for meaning" (p. 20). Krashen also describes the relevance of affective variables and how they relate to success in acquisition. Krashen's affective filter hypothesis describes these variables as either hindering or promoting second language acquisition. Krashen (1982, p. 31) discusses the following three variables as they pertain to the affective filter hypothesis:

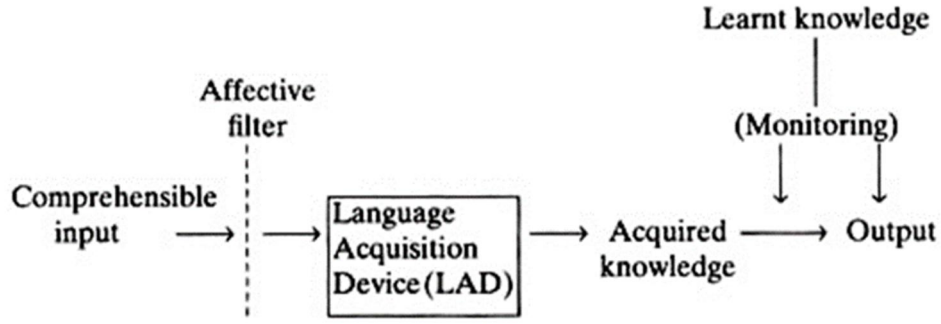
(1) Motivation. Performers with high motivation generally do better in second language acquisition.

(2) Self-confidence. Performers with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to do better in second language acquisition.

(3) Anxiety. Low anxiety appears to be conducive to second language acquisition, whether measured as personal or classroom anxiety.

The affective filter hypothesis explains how a learner can receive a large deal of comprehensible input yet not be able to achieve native speaker ability. For Krashen (1982), the affective filter may cause input to diminish as it is processed by the language acquisition device (LAD). The comprehended input is then converted into acquired competence which allows a learner to produce language output. Cook's (1993) "combined model of acquisition and production" details this process (see Figure 1 below).

Figure 1. The Input Hypothesis Model of L2 learning and production (adapted from Krashen, 1982, pp. 16, 32; Gregg, 1984)



Other research has attempted to quantify language gains from extensive reading. Nagy, Herman, Anderson, and Pearson (1984) highlighted a learner's ability to learn words from context. Using measures designed to tap partial knowledge of word meanings, they found that the participants of their study were able to show statistically reliable vocabulary gains of unknown words from context. Nagy, Herman, and Anderson's (1985) study found that reading was an effective means of learning word meanings from context incidentally. This study also showed that reading was effective for all grade levels regardless of ability and recommends that getting students to read more would be effective in vocabulary growth promotion. Aka (2019) more recently demonstrated the need for extensive reading. Her study compared a control group which received 60 hours of grammar instruction to an experimental group which did 60 hours of extensive reading over the course of a year. The results indicated that the experimental group performed better in terms of both grammar and vocabulary knowledge as well as reading performance. Shimono (2018) found that extensive reading, especially practice in both timed reading and repeated oral reading, over an academic semester was effective in promoting both reading rate and comprehension.

2.1.4 Limitations of incidental vocabulary learning

Nation (2001b) maintains that results of extensive reading will be impressive but warns that a limitation of extensive reading is that it is likely to take a substantial amount of reading which continues over a long period of time. Therefore, Nation (2001b) argues that extensive reading is likely to function well as a support to other parts of a language course, claiming that intentional learning can help to increase noticing features of a text and "boost vocabulary learning from extensive reading" (p. 5). Thus, extensive reading alongside intentional learning is likely to expedite the language learning process.

Although the value of extensive reading has received a lot of empirical support, studies have shown that it is best used in conjunction with intentional vocabulary learning. Pigada and Schmitt (2006) examined whether an extensive reading program was effective in enhancing vocabulary knowledge. The authors were critical of other studies that found minimal vocabulary gains, arguing that this was due to the use of short texts and for not giving credit for partial gains in vocabulary knowledge. Pigada and Schmitt (2006) found that the participants of their study were able to display enhanced knowledge of approximately 65% of the 133 tested words. Furthermore, this study suggests that intentional learning should supplement incidental learning, and that incidental learning will be more effective with some aspects of vocabulary knowledge than others. Specifically, this study found that spelling is strongly enhanced, while meaning and grammatical knowledge also improved. Debbita, Ambigapathy, and Paramaswari's (2018) study echoes Pigada and Schmitt's (2006) call for intentional learning of vocabulary to follow the incidental gains that would be received through extensive learning. Their study exhibited support for extensive reading being followed by extensive vocabulary study and found that this procedure was more effective in producing vocabulary knowledge gains than when extensive reading was utilized alone.

Several other studies have provided additional support for the need for extensive reading to be utilized alongside intentional language learning. Zimmerman (1997) argues the importance of combining reading with intentional vocabulary instruction. She reported that vocabulary instruction in conjunction with both course-related and self-selected reading led to gains in vocabulary knowledge. The study also found that student perceptions toward vocabulary learning aligned with these results. Similarly, Hunt and Beglar (2005) argue for multifaceted curriculums that utilize, in conjunction, both explicit and implicit approaches to vocabulary instruction. Matsuoka and Hirsh's (2010) study found that ELT course books lack opportunities to promote vocabulary growth outside high-frequency and academic words. They suggest supplementing these texts with an extensive reading program to promote vocabulary development. Ellis (2006) also argues that meaning-focused learning provides opportunities for learners to have an "extensive treatment of grammatical problems" (p. 102) that would originally be learned intentionally in the classroom.

Taken together, the studies above have shown that extensive reading of large quantities of comprehensible input is an adequate means of strengthening a learner's interlanguage. However, intentional learning as a support for extensive learning is likely to expedite this process of language development.

2.2 The use of media for extensive learning purposes

2.2.1 Overview

While research on extensive reading offers some perspective and insight into the potential for extensive language learning to promote lexical growth, it is not the only means by which a learner can receive language input. There are many ways that a learner can receive input into the target language that is beneficial to language acquisition. While attention to the role

of extensive viewing of media seems to be somewhat delayed when compared to the wealth of research afforded to extensive reading, it has received more attention over the past decade. Utilizing both research on reading (Aka, 2019; Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nagy, Herman, Anderson, & Pearson, 1984) and the emerging field of utilizing English media as a form of language input (Rodgers, 2013; Webb, 2011; Webb & Rodgers, 2009), a strong case can now be made for the efficacy of using films and television for language learning.

2.2.2 Defining extensive viewing

Current literature on extensive viewing offers two conflicting perspectives on the definition and utilization of extensive viewing for language learning purposes. While it seems to function more on a continuum than a dichotomy, the literature refers to extensive viewing, as well as extensive reading, as either a) emphasizing language learning gains by presenting an extended amount of text in a classroom setting, or b) focusing primarily on the autonomy of the learner to read or view materials of the target language. While the former is focusing on the presentation of extended portions of text inside of the classroom as a part of a language program, the latter emphasizes the utilization of target language materials as a learner autonomous extension of their regular language programs.

While some research has referred to extensive viewing as being a part of an intentional learning program and involving prompting by the teacher (Chapple & Curtis, 2000), other research emphasizes the autonomy of the learner and the utilization of extensive viewing as an extension of the regular classroom program. Webb (2015) offers a view of extensive viewing that emphasizes the autonomy of the learner and utilizes the teacher as only a facilitator and motivator. While Webb (2015) argues that extensive viewing can occur either inside or outside of the classroom, he argues “the purpose of a classroom-based viewing program is to raise awareness of the benefits of L2 television for language learning, teach strategies that can be used to support their comprehension, and demonstrate that through

implementing a principled extensive viewing approach, comprehension may be sufficient for pleasurable viewing" (p.160). Webb (2015) further claims that the often limited allotted classroom time will lead to relatively small language gains, and that emphasis on outside of classroom extensive viewing should be prioritized. This view of extensive viewing aligns well with terms used by Krashen (2003) referring to extensive reading as "free voluntary reading" (p. 15) and "recreational reading" (p. 22).

It is important to distinguish the two perspectives toward extensive viewing presented above since they may lead to very different language learning results. It is likely that presenting English media in the classroom may be a more time efficient way to acquire language in the short-term since the teacher is able to carefully manipulate language learning conditions and to set specific language learning goals. Emphasizing learner autonomy, however, while not always maximizing language acquisition conditions, has the potential to provide long-term exposure to unknown vocabulary. Furthermore, emphasizing learner autonomy for extensive viewing allows learners the opportunity to use the language voluntarily and to take a more active role in learning language.

Webb (2015, p. 7-10) discusses the potential for extensive viewing to provide much needed input for the language learner. Webb introduces six principles that are important to consider when starting up an extensive viewing program:

(1) The language learning benefits of extensive viewing must be clear to everyone involved.
(2) Learners should be at the appropriate level.
(3) Listening comprehension should be supported.
(4) Precise comprehension should be a goal rather than a requirement.
(5) Classroom-based extensive viewing guides out-of-class viewing.
(6) Learners should watch L2 television as much as possible.

This current research takes the perspective that learner autonomy, interest, and outside of the classroom viewing are of utmost importance for extensive viewing. Researchers and practitioners should adopt this perspective towards extensive viewing as it offers a more realistic approach to the limitations of the classroom including limited time, limited technology access for individual learner use (essential to capitalize on true learner autonomy), and teacher opposition to its use due to curriculum constraints. Furthermore, from this perspective, the teacher plays an important role as a facilitator of extensive viewing as long as it does not interfere with the students' autonomy. The teacher's role in facilitating the use of English media is to motivate learners to view English media, instruct students on how and where to view content, and to instruct students about the benefits and tools available for effectively watching English media. Furthermore, the teacher should emphasize comprehension and interest while taking the perspective of extensive viewing as a long-term project. English media has the potential to provide learners with a seemingly limitless amount of content, is motivating and interesting to learners, and should no longer be ignored by teachers. This definition of extensive viewing will be utilized for the rest of this dissertation.

2.3 Incidental language learning from extensive viewing of media

2.3.1 Overview

The current research is focusing on both a) extensive learning, and b) utilizing media for language learning purposes. Together, this current study explores the language learning potential of extensive viewing of media utilizing the definition provided for extensive viewing presented above. There is ample research showing the effects of extensive reading on incidental language learning. Comparatively, however, there is less literature focusing explicitly on the utilization of media as an extensive learning tool. This is most likely due to

the inherent difficulty in designing experiments and measuring language learning gains outside of the classroom.

The majority of the research that will be discussed below will include studies that explore the role that movies and television play in various forms of language acquisition within a classroom setting. The classroom, however, is not the primary focus of this current research. The primary focus is on the role that extensive viewing of movies and television plays in building a learner's interlanguage.

2.3.2 Using media as a motivational force

Much research has been devoted to exploring the role that motivation has in language learning. Yamashiro and McLaughlin (2001) found evidence that motivation "has a strong, direct influence on language proficiency" (p. 124). The role of motivation can further be evidenced in Gardner's (1985) study exploring the role that language aptitude and motivational attributes play in the rate of learning French vocabulary. His findings revealed three significant correlations that are relevant to this present research. Gardner (1985) found that high aptitude learners learned vocabulary faster than those with low aptitudes, that highly motivated learners performed better than those with low motivation, and that learning rate was higher for vocabulary presented under visual/written conditions than under aural/oral conditions.

Other research has also shown that movies have the potential to have a motivating effect on language learning. According to Chapple and Curtis (2000), participants in their study reported interest and enhanced enjoyment from using films in the classroom. Bada and Okan's (2000) study sought insight as to whether students and teachers enjoyed using television/video/films to learn language. A large majority of students (83.8%) and teachers (82.6%) answered 'yes' to this question. Further, regarding learners' interests, students scored television/video/films higher than other forms of media including radio (46.1%),

tapes/cassettes (52.2%), pictures/posters (44.8%), and written material (77.4%). It is interesting that students and teachers reported a significantly similar view towards the enjoyable nature of using movies for language learning. Barkhuizan (1998) stresses the importance of teachers understanding the perceptions and desires of their learners in order to attempt to present lessons accordingly. Barkhuizan's study of high school learners' perceptions of the activities presented in their class found that their perceptions often differed from their teachers. In light of this, Bada and Okan's (2000) study is intriguing as, in regards to the utilization of television/video/movies, teachers and students seem to be on the same page.

Ismaeli (2013) compared an experimental group that was exposed to video accompanied by a reading activity and a control group taught conventionally using a course book. This study found that the experimental group was livelier and more interested in following the lesson than the control group. In a survey regarding perceptions of both students and teachers, Ismaeli's study heeded some interesting results. She found that teachers valued the use of movies for learners' language learning process, emphasizing its value for vocabulary development, while teachers found the use of movies during class time to be difficult due to time restraints. Students also believed the use of movies to be beneficial for the language learning process, felt that they were more likely to learn words that were repeated many times, and found the use of movies to be both a novel and pleasant experience. Similarly, Kabooha's (2016) study found that both students and teachers had positive attitudes toward the use of movies in the classroom for the promotion of language skills. The researcher emphasizes the teacher's role in selecting appropriate movie materials to enhance both motivation and students' language learning process.

Williams and Lutes (2007) investigated video's effect on the motivation of learners. 30 students taking ESL classes at Takamatsu University participated in this study. Throughout

one academic semester, every fourth week the learners took a break from their regular classroom textbook and watched a movie with accompanying activities. A significant number of the students said that they learned something from the video classes, that they enjoyed watching the video, and that they were "motivated to study in the classes where video was used" (p. 12). The authors emphasise video's ability to be an intrinsic motivator citing anecdotal evidence that video has the potential to not only motivate students to study but also raises students' interest in the target language.

All of this research shows that the utilization of movies for language learning provides learners with interest and a motivation to learn the target language. This is significant as interest and motivation has been shown to be an important factor influencing learners' language proficiency and their overall receptivity to learning.

2.3.3 The use of media for vocabulary and grammar learning

Some studies into the potential for language learning from extensive viewing have been corpus-based. Webb and Rodgers (2009) found that "knowledge of the most frequent 3000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words provided 95.76% coverage, while knowledge of the most frequent 6000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words provided 98.15% coverage of movies" (p. 407). Webb (2011) explored the role of narrow viewing of television programs. This study found that watching television within a genre provides more opportunities for word recycling of high-frequency word families. Webb (2011) argues that watching television within the same subgenre may reduce the lexical demands, which may lead to an increase in the potential for vocabulary learning. These two studies will be looked into in more detail later in this review of literature.

Rodgers (2013) perhaps offers the most comprehensive research on the potential for vocabulary acquisition from an extensive viewing context. Rodgers, in his doctoral dissertation, conducted a series of three studies that aimed to explore the effects of extensive

viewing of television on language learning. Rodgers' first study investigated comprehension and vocabulary gains accrued from watching the first to the tenth episode of a television series. The study found significant comprehension increases from the first to the tenth episode. Comprehension for the middle eight episodes were higher than the first episode, but they were found to be episode-dependent and to have small to moderate correlation with vocabulary knowledge. The second study examined the effect of watching seven hours of television on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Utilizing two tests of vocabulary knowledge examining form-meaning connections following the viewing of the seven hours of ten episodes of English language television, the results showed that, on average, six high-frequency words were learned accounting for approximately a quarter of the vocabulary that the learners could possibly learn from the ten episodes. The third study explored the role of coverage on comprehension and incidental vocabulary learning. The study found that for the ten episodes, comprehension of the shows improved with increases in lexical coverage. Participants with higher lexical coverage were found to have higher comprehension scores than those with a lower lexical coverage. Furthermore, the results showed that there was no significant relationship between coverage and incidental vocabulary learning. Higher comprehension, however, is likely to lead to more vocabulary learning opportunities. The lack of a significant relationship between coverage and incidental vocabulary learning in Rodgers' study is likely the result of the inherent difficulty in measuring incremental gains in vocabulary knowledge.

Other research has been devoted to whether learners are able to pick up linguistic features incidentally. While research has found that learners are able to pick up vocabulary knowledge through extensive reading (Aka, 2019; Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nagy, Herman, Anderson, & Pearson, 1984), research into extensive viewing of media has also attempted to observe whether incidental learning is taking place when students watch movies and

television. Rice and Woodsmall's (1988) study explored whether preschool children could learn new words from watching television and whether it is influenced by age and type of word. The experimental group consisting of both five year olds and three year olds watched 15 minutes of a television show containing 20 novel words. The novel words were placed into four categories: object, action, attribute, and affective state words. The researchers found that five year olds were able to gain more from the experimental condition than the three year olds, but both ages were able to perform better on the post-test than the control group participants of the same ages. Furthermore, this study found that object and attribute words were more learnable than action and affective state words.

Other studies have shown that children are capable of making gains in vocabulary knowledge through watching media. Ina's (2014) study explored vocabulary gains of Greek children learning Italian and the effects of subtitling. For this research, there were two experimental groups, one watching a children's program with subtitles and one without, and a control group which watched the program in their native Greek language. The results indicated that acquisition and recognition of vocabulary was more favourable in the subtitle group than the without subtitle group. Ina concluded that fourth, fifth, and sixth grade Greek students were capable of incidentally acquiring vocabulary while watching subtitled media. Oetting, Rice, and Swank's (1995) study explored young learners' ability to acquire vocabulary incidentally using videotaped stories. There were two experimental groups in this study, one with those developing language normally and another group of specific language impairment (SLI) children. The study utilized 20 novel words in the videotaped stories and measured word learning with a picture-pointing task. The study found that the normally developing children displayed a "robust" ability to learn new words incidentally. While the specific language impairment (SLI) group showed vocabulary gains from the treatment, the effect was significantly less than the normally developing children.

While most studies looked at the short-term effects of learning language through media exposure, Kuppens (2010) explored the effects of long-term exposure to English media while using L1 subtitles. This empirical study of 374 Dutch speaking primary school learners used two translation tests: English to Dutch and Dutch to English and compared them with the participants' self-reported use of English media. This study offers two particularly interesting findings: 1) learners who reported frequently watching subtitled media scored higher on both translation tests, and 2) the effect of watching subtitled media appears to be stronger with girls than boys.

Unfortunately, for the purpose of this study, no research could be found that explored the effect of extensive viewing of movies and television on learning grammar incidentally. There was, however, a study conducted by Kim (2015) that examined whether learners could gain lexico-grammar knowledge from studying concordances developed from the movies *Avatar* and *August Rush*. This study observed whether learners were capable of recognizing patterns regarding frequencies, collocation patterns, context-sensitive meanings, and discoursal uses of vocabulary. Both the control group and the experimental group participated in a lexico-grammar knowledge pre-test, watched the movies and did script reading, participated in expression practice, and then took the lexico-grammar knowledge post-test. The only difference between the two groups was that the experimental group participated in concordance and corpora analysis and lexico-grammar analysis prior to expression practice. There were statistically significant differences between the experimental group's pre-test (M = 5.98) and post-test (M = 7.18). The differences between the post-tests for the control and the experimental group were statistically significant (p = .03). The results of this study are encouraging in the sense that it shows learners are able to recognise lexico-grammar patterns from movies when instructed inductively. However, this study does not show whether

learners would be able to learn lexico-grammatical information incidentally without intervention.

2.3.4 The use of media for improving listening skills

Listening ability and listening comprehension is of utmost importance for a learner striving to achieve communicative competence in a language. For this reason, students and teachers often utilize extensive listening to try to improve listening ability. Furthermore, students and teachers, as well as researchers have seen extensive viewing of authentic media as having potential to improve listening comprehension in the target language.

Studies have shown that exposure to media has the capability of improving listening comprehension. Safranj's (2015) study explored student perceptions of movies on 38 advanced English language private school students' listening comprehension skills. This research utilized a five-point Likert style survey, as well as post questionnaire interviews, and found that students felt that movies were an effective means to improve their listening ability. Also, a majority of the students reported that they felt they had learned vocabulary, improved their understanding about foreign culture, and enjoyed learning in class. Furthermore, the majority of the participants reported liking using subtitles, and that they found them to aid in their listening comprehension. Qiu (2017) explored the potential for listening proficiency improvement through watching movies. This study consisted of 75 participants divided into an experimental group and a control group. The experimental group watched three movies (*The Lion King, Sleepless in Seattle* and *Forrest Gump*) extensively with no interruption or subtitling while the control group studied listening in a traditional manner through the utilization of the textbook 'New Horizon College English' (Listening and Speaking Course, Book 3). This study found that while both the control and experimental group were able to increase their scores from the pre- to the post-test, the movie-aided experimental group performed significantly better than the control group. The findings of this study are

particularly impressive due to the fact that the control group was also taught listening during their treatment but by more traditional means.

Other studies have shown that media viewing can provide learners with confidence and motivation for listening. Suramto's (2016) study of 60 eleventh graders utilized a motivation questionnaire and a listening achievement test in order to assess increases in listening ability from watching a drama. The experimental design utilized a pre- and post-test for both the experimental group and control group. The experimental group watched 36 treatments of a drama. Suramto (2016) found that learning using a drama was able to promote motivation for listening to English and increased student scores on the listening achievement test. A study in Hong Kong using tertiary-level students, Chapple and Curtis's (2000) study explored the effects of film on students in the ESL classroom. On a self-reported evaluation of their English language skills following a semester of using feature films in the classroom, the students reported an increase in: speaking and listening skills, confidence when using English, critical thinking skills, and broadening understanding of differing perspectives.

Overall, there is sufficient research indicating that watching television and movies has both the potential of raising listening proficiency and to raise learner motivation to listen. Extensively watching media over a long period of time is likely to increase learners' listening proficiency and listening comprehension skills. More empirical research, however, is needed in order to validate this claim.

2.3.5 Using media for increasing speaking ability

A few studies have sought to explore whether watching media has an effect on increasing learners' speaking ability. Dikilitas and Duvenci (2009) investigated the use of movies in enhancing oral skills. The results contradicted their assumptions as they found that the experimental group that watched a two minute video excerpt performed worse than the control group which was given the same text in a written format. Following the treatment, the

participants, without a time limit, were asked to speak about what they had watched or read. This study found that the experimental group spoke for a shorter duration of time, spoke in shorter utterances, and spoke fewer words per second. This is likely due to students not being able to keep up, aurally, with what is being spoken especially due to the short watching/listening text and short experimental duration. It would be interesting to see whether the same results would occur over an extended treatment period, allowing the subjects to grow accustomed to the characters, accents, content, etc. Furthermore, while this study raises doubt as to whether media can be used to increase speaking skills, the external validity of the results should be called into question due to the incredibly small sample size of only five participants for each of the control and experimental groups.

Other research has shown that learners are able to place their trust in the authentic language utilized in movies. A study by Albiladi, Abdeen, and Lincoln (2018) exploring learner perceptions toward movies found that learners believe movies can be used to improve their speaking skills. The participants of this study found movies to have a "more realistic representation of the world than traditional language-learning materials, such as textbooks" (p. 1572). The participants noted that they find the authenticity of movies to be both motivating and an effective means of learning language. This is important in regards to improving oral skills since students in this study claim to trust what is being said in movies as being real language in use. This may cause learners to also trust utilizing the same language when they practice speaking out loud.

There is currently not a lot of evidence that watching media will lead to increased oral proficiency. Oral skills, however, may be enhanced through watching media as an extension of a regular classroom speaking program. Watching media that uses the same language taught in the classroom is likely to strengthen language skills practiced in the classroom.

2.3.6 Using media to raise cultural awareness

It is difficult to separate a language from the cultures that use it. After all, culture has a large influence on the way that the language developed, and language tends to have an influence on the cultures where it is spoken. For this reason, students and teachers view authentic texts as an opportunity to peer into a window of its source culture. Despite the emergence of English as an International Language (EIL), learning about English speaking cultures, and even raising cultural awareness in general, is still very relevant for many learners. King (2002), for example, states that "entertaining films are sometimes enjoyable and relevant to learners' appreciation of popular culture" (p. 515). Learning from authentic materials gives learners the opportunity to learn more about culture unlike the filtered and simplified examples found in their course books. For this reason, researchers have valued media as an opportunity to teach students more about culture.

Research has found that learners report learning about culture from watching media. Kim's (2006) study utilized six movies in a twelve week course titled "Film English" that focuses on American culture. Following the course, through class evaluation and small focus group discussions, Kim discovered that learners found the course enjoyable and felt they learned more about American culture. Kim argues that due to the interconnectedness of language and culture, learning cultural awareness is a way to promote English fluency. Further, Kim claims,

> "The use of movies to teach culture has many benefits including the notion that it provides a realistic view of English speaking societies and that it is a practical way of providing students with a stimulating and entertaining method of improving cultural awareness" (p. 20).

Other research has shown that media has the potential of influencing cultural perspectives. Kim (2007) surveyed Koreans regarding African Americans and found that they maintain a negative view towards them despite having had no personal contact. The researcher argues that this may be a result of the negative portrayal of African Americans in Hollywood movies.

Furthermore, students in Safranj's (2015) study reported in a survey that they felt they had learned more about culture, and Chapple and Curtis (2000) reports that learners were able to broaden their understanding of differing perspectives through watching media.

Authentic media provides a wealth of opportunities to display differing aspects of culture from a variety of perspectives and situations. Furthermore, the studies discussed above show that learners are both receptive to cultural knowledge and are able to learn more about culture through English media.

2.4 Aspects of lexical acquisition

2.4.1 Overview

Vocabulary is the building blocks of language, and it is essential to attain a large vocabulary in order to achieve communicative competency in a language. This section will take a look at the variables that exist in word learning and what it means to know a word as well as the learnability of different types of words. Furthermore, this section will then take a look at how to assess what has been learned.

2.4.2 Aspects of vocabulary knowledge

At its most basic, form and meaning and making form meaning connections is the starting point of knowing a word as it begins in its receptive knowledge state. Form refers to both the written form (symbols used to represent meaning) and spoken form (pronunciation of a word that signifies meaning).

A word comprises both a receptive and productive aspect. Receptive knowledge of a word occurs when you are able to understand a word through listening and reading. Productive knowledge is more demanding to the learner as it requires the learner to be able to have receptive knowledge of the word and be able to produce it in its written or spoken form.

Most pertinent to the comprehension of media for a learner is that of receptive knowledge. Furthermore, media viewing is more likely to lead to increases in receptive knowledge over increases in productive knowledge.

Another concept of vocabulary knowledge is that of breadth and depth of knowledge. Breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the amount of vocabulary that a learner has at least a superficial knowledge-base of. On the other hand, depth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the learner's level of knowledge regarding the various aspects of a word. While breadth of knowledge is most commonly acknowledged in regards to a learner's preparedness for extensive viewing, watching media in the target language is likely to lead to knowledge increases in terms of both vocabulary breadth and depth.

There are various aspects to a word. Nation (2001a) identifies three main categories of vocabulary knowledge: 1) Form: both the receptive and productive knowledge of a word's word parts, as well as how it is spoken and written, 2) Meaning: the receptive and productive knowledge of form and meaning, concepts and referents, and associations, and 3) Use: the receptive and productive knowledge of a word's grammatical functions, collocations, and constraints on use (register, frequency, etc.). Thus, what is being assessed during a Monday morning vocabulary quiz accounts for only a small part of the total knowledge of a word. Extensive viewing of television and movies, however, provides opportunities for incremental vocabulary knowledge gains on a variety of aspects of word knowledge.

Table 1. Various aspects of word knowledge

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in the word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concepts and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other word does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when and how often can we use this word?

Nation (2001a, p. 27)

As can be seen in Table 1 above, Nation (2001a, p. 27) identifies several aspects of word knowledge. The diverse nature of lexical acquisition presents some difficulties: 1) at what point can a learner say they know a word? and 2) how can you assess word knowledge?

2.4.3 Aspects of vocabulary learning

Intentional and incidental vocabulary learning form two competing ways learners approach learning vocabulary. Intentional vocabulary learning occurs when there is an explicit attempt by the learner to learn a feature of a word. Incidental lexical acquisition, on the other hand, as pointed out by Hulstijn (2001), occurs "as a by-product of the learner being engaged in a listening, reading, speaking or writing activity" (p. 266). Hulstijn (2001) also distinguishes the two terms by warning that telling students that they will be tested on their knowledge would invoke processes of intentional learning, and that this may override the effect of incidental learning. The goal of extensive viewing, as defined earlier in which the teacher does not attempt to override learner autonomy, is to learn language incidentally.

For the purpose of this study, it is also important to distinguish between explicit and implicit vocabulary learning. According to Hulstijn (2005), "explicit learning is input processing with the conscious intention to find out whether the input information contains regularities and, if so, to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured" (p. 131). Thus, explicit learning is an intentional process of attempting to learn language and can be loosely defined as an attempt to learn grammar rules. Implicit learning, in contrast, lacks intention and conscious attempts to learn language and to process input through the use of grammar rules.

Incidental and implicit learning are most relevant to the purpose of this study and to extensive viewing in general. As was described earlier, however, extensive viewing of media may effectively function as a useful supplement to intentional and explicit learning that may occur during a regular language learning program.

2.4.4 Assessing lexical knowledge

The underlying nature of the difficulty of assessing word knowledge is that it is not a binary concept of knowing or not knowing. It is best to understand vocabulary knowledge as being on a continuum. A learner will not smoothly transition from not knowing a word to knowing a word, rather they will go through various stages that will most likely range over a long period of time. The vocabulary tests that learners take in school are usually evaluating knowledge of certain aspects of a word, but they will likely not be able to assess total knowledge of a word.

Various studies have been conducted that have attempted to measure incremental knowledge gains. This section will examine research pertaining to the assessment of a variety of aspects of lexical knowledge that can be achieved through extensive viewing of movies and television. The most relevant research to this current study is that which has to do with incremental receptive knowledge gains since that is how learners receive the most growth

from both extensive reading and extensive viewing. It is important to measure incremental vocabulary knowledge as it is important in quantifying how much learning is taking place during an extensive learning program. In this context, measuring depth of word knowledge is of utmost importance.

Schmitt's (1999) study utilized post vocabulary test interviews on six TOEFL vocabulary items given to 30 pre-university international students to assess various aspects of vocabulary knowledge, including word associations, grammatical properties, and collocations. The findings indicate that correct answers to the TOEFL test is a poor indicator of overall breadth of word knowledge. Interviews of this type are time consuming, however, and impractical for most educational settings. That being said, the purpose of Schmitt's (1999) study was to highlight the limitations of current vocabulary knowledge testing protocols.

Another aspect of vocabulary assessment pertinent to language learners' extensive viewing potential is to measure vocabulary size. Vocabulary size utilized alongside lexical coverage points at various frequency thresholds is important because it gives a rough estimate of the potential for comprehension of media and an estimated measure of language learning potential. The topic of vocabulary size in this section will deal with measuring learners' receptive vocabulary size. While breadth of vocabulary knowledge and the measurement of receptive knowledge only represent a portion of the lexical knowledge of a word, it is an effective indicator for teachers and learners to utilize to estimate a learner's potential for extensive viewing and reading.

Several techniques have been employed in the past to attempt to measure a learner's receptive vocabulary size. Nation and Webb (2011, p. 196) identify three major approaches to measuring vocabulary size: "1) counting the words that someone produces, 2) counting the number of words in a dictionary and testing what proportion of these are known, and 3)

sampling from various frequency levels and testing to estimate the amount of vocabulary known at each level."

A technique that can be utilized is to use a dictionary to estimate vocabulary size. Thorndike (1924, as found in Nation & Webb, 2011, p. 202-203) identified three important criteria for doing this: 1) it is important to choose a sample source which would not exclude words that would be unknown by the learner, 2) it is important to have clear criteria of what is included in a word family, and 3) it is important to use a random sampling procedure that does not bias the selection in any way.

Currently, a popular test being used to measure receptive vocabulary size is the Vocabulary Size Test developed by Nation and Beglar (2007). The Vocabulary Size Test consists of 140 questions, 10 questions at each of the 1k vocabulary frequency levels. For each item, students are given a word, the word is used in a simple sentence that does not hint at meaning, and then learners are asked to choose one of four possible answers that consist of either a synonym or a meaning. In order to not skew the results in favor of a disproportionately higher result, test takers are asked to give no answer rather than guessing words that they do not know. The final score is then multiplied by 100 in order to arrive at the learner's estimated vocabulary size. The 'second 1000' list can be found in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Second 1000 list from the Vocabulary Size Test

1. MAINTAIN: Can they maintain it? a. keep it as it is b. make it larger c. get a better one than it d. get it	6. NIL: His mark for that question was nil. a. very bad b. nothing c. very good d. in the middle
2. STONE: He sat on a stone. a. hard thing b. kind of chair c. soft thing on the floor d. part of a tree	7. PUB: They went to the pub. a. place where people drink and talk b. place that looks after money c. large building with many shops d. building for swimming
3. UPSET: I am upset. a. tired b. famous c. rich d. unhappy	8. CIRCLE: Make a circle. a. rough picture b. space with nothing in it c. round shape d. large hole
4. DRAWER: The drawer was empty. a. sliding box b. place where cars are kept c. cupboard to keep things cold d. animal house	9. MICROPHONE: Please use the microphone. a. machine for making food hot b. machine that makes sounds louder c. machine that makes things look bigger d. small telephone that can be carried around
5. PATIENCE: He has no patience. a. will not wait happily b. has no free time c. has no faith d. does not know what is fair	10. PRO: He's a pro. a. someone who is employed to find out important secrets b. a stupid person c. someone who writes for a newspaper d. someone who is paid for playing sport, etc.

The test is created by Paul Nation, Victoria University of Wellington, and found at http://www.lextutor.ca/. This test is freely available and can be used by teachers and researchers for a variety of purposes.

Estimating vocabulary size is important as it lets us know how many words in a text, once we know the coverage points at 1K frequency thresholds, a learner is likely to know. This can be utilized for estimating the appropriateness of reading, listening, or viewing materials for a language learner. Furthermore, language learners and instructors can measure vocabulary size periodically in order to see if learners' vocabulary size is growing.

Media viewing in the target language can lead to vocabulary knowledge increases both in terms of vocabulary knowledge depth as well as breadth. However, a measure of vocabulary

breadth, due to the receptive nature of extensive viewing, is most commonly used for identifying a learner's ability to comprehend a viewing text. This current study will utilize the Vocabulary Size Test introduced above in order to measure participants' lexical proficiency and how it interacts with perceptions toward extensive viewing.

2.5 Issues in extensive viewing

2.5.1 Overview

This section will discuss issues that are unique to extensive viewing. Several studies have shown individual differences, such as gender and proficiency, to have an impact on the efficacy of extensive viewing on learners' interlanguage development. Furthermore, this section will discuss attempts to utilize subtitling tools to aid in extensive viewing of media, as well as discuss the concepts of narrow viewing, lexical recycling, and the role that spaced repetitions of vocabulary has on lexical development in learners.

2.5.2 Individual differences and extensive viewing

The exploration of gender and its effects on educational practices can be a controversial subject. There will likely be, however, differences between male and female choices regarding what types of media interests them. It is important, therefore, to explore the role of gender in extensive viewing as language outcomes will be highly dependent on learner interest and motivation. King (2002), for example, argues the importance of "choosing films that are age and culture appropriate and suitable for both genders" (p. 515). Furthermore, Baker and Wigfield (1999) found compelling evidence that girls are more motivated to read than boys. This study invites curiosity towards whether there are gender differences between men and women in terms of motivation towards media viewing for language learning purposes. Furthermore, Baker and Wigfield's (1999) study finding that women are more

motivated to read than men may also imply that men could have lower perceptions of subtitling than women. Kuppens' (2010) study which found that the effect of subtitling was stronger in girls than boys provides some support for this claim.

However, a few studies have been unable to show any statistically significant differences in terms of extensive viewing between men and women. In Chen's (2011) study, male and female participants were asked to choose which topic they would listen to online after class. The most popular topic for both genders was entertainment over science, technology, education, and economy. When asked why they chose entertainment, both genders cited the importance of choosing an enjoyable topic, claiming that it should be enjoyable to learn a language. Sabouri and Zohrabi (2015) found no significant differences between men and women in terms of learning new lexical items when watching subtitled movies. The study did, however, show statistically significant lexical gains for the experimental groups (both genders) when compared to their gender counterpart control groups that did not watch movies.

There is no clear evidence that gender plays a major role in extensive viewing of media. It is likely, however, that genre and movie type will have different motivational forces on males and females. Further studies need to be conducted on the role of gender in extensive viewing of media.

Proficiency appears to play a significant role in extensive viewing of authentic media. Despite this, there are fewer leveled viewing resources available that cater to the abilities of language learners than for extensive reading. Therefore, learners of all levels are forced to adapt to authentic materials. As expected, this has the potential of creating an enormous hurdle for low-proficiency learners. Movies and television, however, have been shown in research to be interesting and motivating which may allow learners to fight through these difficulties presented by authentic viewing materials.

In terms of extensive viewing, Vidal's (2011) study found evidence that high-proficiency learners are more capable of benefitting from vocabulary recycling in regards to incidental vocabulary acquisition. This provides some evidence that watching media should be individually tailored for each learner, and that classroom viewing of media in classes with varying levels will further increase the gap between the high-proficient and low-proficient learners. Furthermore, Wolff's (1987 as cited in Rodgers, 2013) study found that low-proficiency learners process aural input differently than high-proficiency learners. Low-proficiency learners are more likely to utilize bottom-up processing that focuses on the individual elements of the listening text.

Vocabulary size plays an important role in a learner's ability to understand authentic texts. Nation (2006) found that a vocabulary size of 8000-9000 word families is sufficient to be able to read a wide range of authentic texts. For this reason, Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) suggest for pedagogical reasons that mid-frequency should be between high-frequency (3000) and high-frequency (9000+).

Corpus-based analyses of viewing materials including television and movies have also shown that vocabulary proficiency is likely to affect the vocabulary coverage of English media. Webb and Rodgers (2009) and Webb (2011) both found that a substantial vocabulary size is required to achieve ideal coverage rates for maximizing incidental vocabulary acquisition. Thus, lexical proficiency is likely to play a vital role in a learner's ability to comprehend media and to learn language incidentally from media.

The studies presented above show that proficiency is likely to play an important role in language learning outcomes from extensive viewing. Furthermore, it is likely that low-proficiency and low comprehension levels from watching media are likely to influence motivation and interest. It is essential, however, to maintain motivation for extensive viewing since motivation may be one of extensive viewing's greatest allies in a long-term extensive

language learning program. Furthermore, Yamashiro and McLaughlin's (2001) study provides some evidence that the motivational effect of movies could provide a path to proficiency since motivation "has a strong, direct influence on language proficiency" (p. 124).

2.5.3 Subtitling as a tool for extensive viewing

One tool that is currently being explored to combat low learner proficiency levels and low comprehension is subtitling. Subtitling of movies and television has the potential to increase comprehension making media more interesting to students. Research has also taken a look at the effects that subtitling has on developing the interlanguage of learners.

Subtitles are currently being used in three modalities for English media: standard (English audio and foreign-language translated captions), bimodal (English audio and English captions), and reverse (foreign-language translated audio and English captions). For the purpose of language acquisition, the potential benefits from each of the modalities holds their own appeal for teachers and learners. Standard and reverse subtitling provides a solution to the comprehension problem presented earlier. Bimodal subtitling allows learners to focus exclusively on the target language through two modalities, reading and listening.

Research has explored the effects of standard subtitling on comprehension and vocabulary knowledge gains. Ebrahimi and Bazaee (2016) compared an experimental standard subtitle group with a control group that received no subtitles while watching a movie. Following the movie, students were asked to complete a multiple choice vocabulary test as well as content comprehension questions. Analyses of the results found that there were no significant differences for vocabulary gains, while the participants of the subtitle group were able to comprehend the movie better than the group without subtitles. While no vocabulary gains were noted in this study, increased comprehension of the film may prove effective in raising student interest in watching movies.

Other research has investigated the use of bimodal subtitling on language comprehension. Rokni and Ataee (2014) explored the effects of bimodal subtitles on the improvement of listening comprehension. For this study, 45 students were assigned to either a bimodal subtitle group or a no-subtitle group. A movie was utilized and divided into ten 15 minute 'episodes'. The pre- and post-test scores found that learners in the bimodal subtitle group statistically significantly outperformed the no-subtitle group on a multiple choice listening comprehension test. The authors argue that bimodal subtitles are more effective than no subtitles in preparing learners for actual speed of speech when communicating in English. Etemadi (2012) studied the impact of bimodal subtitling on content comprehension and vocabulary recognition. For the purpose of this study, the 44 participants were divided into two groups and watched two BBC documentary movies containing unfamiliar accents. The groups each watched one film with and without subtitles, and each group watched a different subtitled movie. The results indicated that bimodal subtitling had a positive effect on content comprehension of the movies. Despite this, there was no significant difference for vocabulary learning in the movies for the two groups. It is likely that the unfamiliar accents of the films and the use of written and aural input lead to cognitive overload which may have limited the learners' ability to retain lexical knowledge. This study shows, however, that bimodal subtitling can be effective in familiarizing and assisting students with language spoken in different accents due to learners most often being exposed to standard English accents.

Research has compared the three modes of subtitling in order to investigate which forms are more effective in promoting language learning. Mardani and Najmabadi's (2016) study investigated incidental vocabulary learning of 60 high school students watching ten video clips from three different animated movies. The students were divided into three experimental groups including a bimodal subtitle group, a standard subtitle group, and a reversed subtitle group. While all three groups experienced incidental vocabulary gains, the

reversed subtitling group experienced the most gains. The reversed subtitle group performed better than the bimodal subtitle group and significantly better than the standard subtitle group. The results of this study demonstrate the effectiveness of subtitling in enhancing vocabulary knowledge by "assisting learners to receive the language through multisensory channels" (p. 61), and provide some evidence that learners' vocabulary knowledge may benefit from watching subtitled media.

There is conflicting evidence that subtitling is effective in providing vocabulary knowledge gains in learners. In regards to bimodaling of subtitles, there seems to be some evidence that it is effective in improving listening skills and listening comprehension ability. This is most likely as a result of learners having to focus on listening attentively to the target language rather than being able to lean on input in their native language. Further studies, however, need to be conducted to observe the long term effects of all forms of subtitling on incidental language acquisition.

In regards to the comprehension of media, the studies above provide evidence that subtitling is a useful tool. This is likely to be most beneficial to lower proficiency learners as they begin to utilize media for extensive learning purposes. Increased comprehension is likely to increase motivation in learners. It may prove beneficial to first establish motivation in order to make learners more receptive to language learning later as they proceed through an extensive learning program.

2.5.4 The role that vocabulary recycling plays in lexical acquisition

Repetition frequency plays an important role in incidental vocabulary acquisition as it gives learners the opportunity to have an increased number of encounters with unknown words. Furthermore, it allows opportunities for learners to reinforce words that are already known. Several studies have established that increased frequency of word repetitions plays an important role in incidental word learning.

In particular, Vidal's (2011) study comparing reading and listening conditions has findings relevant to this current research. This study contained an experimental group that read three academic texts, an experimental group that watched three academic lectures, and a control group that had no treatment. The study explored the role that frequency of occurrence plays in incidental vocabulary acquisition between the two treatment groups. The study found that retention between the listening and the reading groups behaved differently based on the number of encounters with the words; the reading group saw the most significant vocabulary gains between the first and third encounter and a slight increase from the third to the fifth repetition, whereas the listening experimental group had only slight increases in gains from the first to the fifth exposure and a significant increase in gains between the fifth and sixth. Vidal (2011) claims that frequency of word occurrence is more significant for reading, and that the effect of repetition on vocabulary acquisition for viewing is negligible but concedes both that a) more encounters may be required for repetition to have an impact through listening and b) the subjects were exposed to the words over a short time and "repetition would have been more effective if spread over a greater period of time" (p. 248).

Vidal's (2011) study also showed significant effects for the role of proficiency and vocabulary recycling. The study found that as proficiency increases, the gap between the gains made by the reading group and listening group decreased. Furthermore, less was forgotten between the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test for the listening group. That is, for vocabulary knowledge, "listening appears to leave more durable traces than reading" (p. 244).

Vidal's (2011) study reveals some important factors to consider for word repetition while watching English media. First, vocabulary load plays a more important role for a listening text than a reading text since a reader can move at their own speed and can return to a section that is presenting difficulty. Second, and related to the first, proficiency is an important factor

to consider when watching media and proficient learners will benefit more from vocabulary recycling. This also provides more evidence that subtitling may be a valuable resource for low-proficiency learners. Third, long-term extensive viewing, opposed to short-term viewing durations that might be found in a language course, may lead to a higher rate of vocabulary gains from recycling. This may also be an argument for the utilization of narrow viewing for extensive learning purposes as vocabulary is more likely to have high repetition at regular intervals. Fourth, Vidal's (2011) study highlights the role that hearing something phonologically may play in vocabulary retention as subvocal articulation plays a role in memory retention (Baddeley, 2007, as cited in Vidal, 2011).

Webb (2007) explored the role of vocabulary repetition in attaining several aspects of lexical knowledge including: orthography, association, grammatical functions, syntax, and meaning and form. The study utilizes nonsense words to carefully control novel encounters with vocabulary and found that at least 10 repetitions were required to acquire 'full knowledge' of a word. Furthermore, the study found that during each new encounter with a word, the participants were able to develop increased knowledge of an aspect of knowledge as repetitions increased. The study provides evidence that learners are capable of learning vocabulary incidentally through reading, and that more encounters with a word lead to more vocabulary knowledge gains.

Waring and Takaki's (2003) study also utilized nonsense words to investigate the rate that words of different frequency rates were likely to be learned and retained or forgotten from reading the graded reader *A Little Princess*. The study used three tests to measure word knowledge: word-form recognition, prompted meaning recognition, and unprompted meaning recognition. Tests were given immediately after, one week delayed, and three months delayed. The study concluded that learners are capable of learning words incidentally through reading a graded reader, and that more frequently repeated words were more likely to be learned and

are more resistant to decay. However, the results had a poorer outlook than Webb's (2007) study in regards to the number of repetitions required for retention as none of the words met fewer than eight times were remembered three months later. According to this study, a word repeated eight times had a 50% chance of being remembered three months later, and that the reading of one graded reader will lead to very little vocabulary learning.

Nation's (2014) study exploring the amount of reading required to move through each of the 1k frequency bands argued that, in order to learn a new word, 12 repetitions is a moderately safe goal for "several dictionary look-ups, several unassisted retrievals, and an opportunity to meet each word in a wide variety of contexts" (p. 3). Furthermore, Nation points to 12 repetitions as a minimum number needed for learning a new word.

10 to 12 encounters with a word offers learners several opportunities to learn a variety of aspects of lexical knowledge in a variety of different contexts. While repetition does not guarantee word learning, it is an effective predictor of the potential to learn a word by providing multiple encounters with unknown vocabulary.

2.5.5 The role that narrow viewing plays in lexical acquisition

In light of the research above discussing the potential benefit that lexical recycling has on building vocabulary knowledge, researchers have hypothesised that similar texts are more likely to recycle vocabulary at a higher rate. Gardner's (2008) study attempts to gain a clearer understanding of how relationships between authentic reading materials affect vocabulary recycling. Theme, authorship, and register are used as primary variables in this study in order to discover patterns for how vocabulary tends to recycle in authentic reading texts. As for register, this study observes whether lexical differences will be found between the culturally and socially-oriented vocabulary of narrative fiction and the informationally-oriented nature of vocabulary in expository fiction. An expository uniauthor collection contained a significant number more specialized types, specialized tokens, and 6+ words than the non-

thematic control. The expository multiauthor was only slightly behind the uniauthor collection for these measurements. This suggests having a tight theme has a significant impact on vocabulary recycling. As for the narrative uniauthor collection, it recycled specialized words at a higher rate than the control narrative multiauthor, but not as high as the narrative multiauthor. This suggests that theme plays a more important role for vocabulary recycling in expository texts than narrative texts. In fact, while having a tight theme was shown to increase vocabulary recycling for expository texts compared to loose themed texts, the opposite was true for the narrative texts (although not quite as significant). Single authorship was found to have the greatest impact on vocabulary recycling for narrative text collections. For the narrative collections, single authorship played a large role in vocabulary recycling, while other factors did not make a big difference. However, these advantages were largely as a result of the names in the stories, and not thematic content. For the expository collections, theme tightness was important while other factors produced insignificant and inconsistent results.

Gardner (2008) provides some evidence that watching a series of a television program may be more beneficial for lexical recycling than watching several movies within a genre. The study found that authorship plays a larger role in vocabulary repetition than thematic tightness. A television series is likely to use the same writing team throughout a whole season of a series or, at the very least, attempt to maintain a similar writing style.

Several studies have been conducted to explore the role that narrow reading and viewing has in the overall vocabulary load of a text. The hypothesis was that certain authors would be more likely to recycle certain vocabulary. In the same way, genres were predicted to have more recycling of lower frequency specialized vocabulary thus making acquisition more probable. Webb's (2011) study explored to what extent vocabulary reoccurs within related programs compared to unrelated television shows. Three subgenres and episodes from two

programs within each subgenre were chosen for this research. Medical, spy/action, and criminal forensic investigation subgenres were selected and compared with unrelated programs. Despite an equal number of running words for each of the sets of episodes, related programs contained fewer word families. Furthermore, high-frequency vocabulary was found to reoccur more often within programs of the same subgenre indicating that the potential for vocabulary learning may be higher due to reduced lexical demands and increased vocabulary recycling of unknown words.

2.5.6 The role that vocabulary spacing plays in lexical acquisition

'Spacing' or spaced repetition of unknown words refers to periodic intervals between encounters. Spacing has been shown to enhance word learning since it allows opportunities, prior to the word being completely forgotten, to retrieve lexical knowledge from memory.

The act of retrieval from memory has been shown to enhance memory. Carrier and Pashler's (1992) study measured the effects of memory retrieval on vocabulary retention. The study found that successful memory retrieval of a word has beneficial effects over just studying a lexical item. Furthermore, Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick, and Bahrick's (1993) longitudinal 9-year investigation found that extended retrieval practice has a large retention rate of vocabulary. The study found that the participants had a high retention rate five years after the extended vocabulary treatments had ceased.

Researchers have noted the importance of lexical spacing and lexical recycling for extensive learning. Nation and Wang (1999) observed a corpus of 42 graded readers and found that they provide opportunities for spaced practice of vocabulary. They noted that the words introduced early in graded reader schemes provided opportunities for spaced repetitions in the later books of the reading series. Nation and Wang (1999) suggest reading a minimum of at least one graded reader per week in order to maintain spaced repetitions to ensure that learners meet words again prior to forgetting their previous encounter with the

words. Similarly, for extensive viewing, Webb and Rodgers (2009) recommend watching two or three movies a week in order to promote vocabulary growth. Research has warned (Nation, 2014; Webb & Rodgers, 2009), however, that lower frequency words and specialized words are less likely to receive opportunities for spaced repetition practice.

Just as with word repetition, opportunities for spaced repetitions of vocabulary in English media will not guarantee learning. Just as with repetition, however, spacing of unknown words does provide an environment conducive to lexical acquisition and is likely to benefit learners as they develop their interlanguage.

2.5.7 Mid-frequency vocabulary

The subject of frequency and frequency levels is usually discussed in terms of 1000 word categories of decreasing frequency. Nation (2001a) first discussed frequency levels in terms of four categories: high-frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low-frequency words. High-frequency vocabulary has traditionally consisted of the first 2000 most frequent word families, and low-frequency vocabulary has ranged as high as the word families beyond the 10,000 frequency level (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014). High-frequency vocabulary consists of words that are used frequently in "daily" speech and authentic texts. Conversely, low-frequency vocabulary is infrequent in "daily" speech and authentic texts. Academic words consist of vocabulary that is frequent in academic contexts, and technical words consist of vocabulary that is frequent in respective technical domains.

Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) first identified mid-frequency vocabulary as that which exists between high-frequency (3000) and low-frequency (9000+) vocabulary. The researchers cite recent studies that had shown that the vocabulary that exists between the high- and low-frequency bands plays a significant role in proficient English use. The strongest evidence of the role of mid-frequency vocabulary in proficient language use was Nation's (2006) study

that found that 8000 to 9000 word families are necessary to read a diverse range of authentic texts.

Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) give the frequency band a name "because it allows the field to recognize it as a discrete phenomenon, with its own unique benefits for users, and pedagogical challenges for language practitioners" (p. 18). The researchers also cite studies that have shown the role of mid-frequency vocabulary in being able to engage with various authentic texts, including watching movies (Webb & Rodgers, 2009) and television (Webb, 2011), reading newspapers (Nation, 2006), and reading academic materials (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010).

Unfortunately, studies have shown that the classroom does not facilitate the learning of mid-frequency vocabulary. Tang and Nesi's (2003) study found that teacher talk of two secondary school teachers rarely exceeded 3000 word families. Furthermore, Horst (2010) explored the lexical recycling of teacher talk in a high-intermediate/advanced ESL class and found that mid-frequency vocabulary rarely recycled enough to facilitate lexical acquisition.

In light of the studies that have shown that the classroom does not provide sufficient support for mid-frequency vocabulary learning, extensive learning may play an important role in supplementing language input that the classroom does not provide. In the context of this current study, on top of a regular language learning program, media may play an important role in providing learners with additional repetitions of mid-frequency vocabulary to facilitate acquisition. In other words, it is likely that the combined mediums of the language classroom, the language textbook, and extensive viewing of English media will provide learners with more lexical learning opportunities of mid-frequency vocabulary.

2.6 Corpus–based analyses of vocabulary in English media

2.6.1 Overview

Text coverage is an important factor to look at when exploring a texts comprehensibility and vocabulary learning conditions. This section will explore research that has been dedicated to quantifying vocabulary learning potential based on corpus-based analyses of text coverage.

2.6.2 Coverage

One factor that has been studied over the years as a predictor of the comprehensibility of a text is coverage. Research into coverage attempts to quantify the difficulty of a text by studying what percentage of the words are high-frequency. The high-frequency words of a language are likely to be known by a learner because they are words that are highly repeated and have a high probability of being encountered on a regular basis by the typical language learner.

Webb and Rodgers' (2009) corpus-based study of British and American films has contributed a lot to the understanding of the lexical demands of movies. Their study explored the vocabulary size that would be necessary to comprehend movies by analysing films by genre at the 95% and 98% threshold levels. Webb and Rodgers classified films into British and American categories, and then placed the films into the following genres: action, animation, comedy, suspense/crime, drama, horror, romance, science fiction, war, western, and classic. The results of the study found that knowledge of the 3000 most frequent word families plus proper nouns and marginal words had 95.76% coverage, and 6000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words were required for 98.15% coverage. The 95% threshold level was described as basic comprehension of films, while 98% indicated ideal comprehension for incidental vocabulary acquisition. Webb and Rodgers (2009) argue that

while 3000 word families for 95% coverage is an attainable goal for many learners, "if 98% coverage is necessary for comprehension, then understanding movies may prove to be too difficult for many learners" (p.12) and may require additional support. The authors state that students may benefit from using movies for practicing listening skills, learning vocabulary, and for focusing on specific language points. Further compounding the vocabulary difficulty of movies for learners is that an average of 447 unknown tokens would be found in a movie at the 95% coverage level and 179 at 98% coverage. Between the genres, drama and horror were found to be the easiest to understand and are recommended as a good starting point for learners. Furthermore, Webb and Rodgers advocate the use of subtitles to ease the burden of comprehension and warn that there are likely to be not many words learned from a single viewing of a movie as "there are not going to be many unknown words which are encountered often enough to facilitate acquisition" (p. 17). In order to counter the insufficient amount of lexical recycling from movies, the authors recommend multiple viewings of the same movie and to watch several movies throughout the week, recommending at least two or three movies per week. This recommendation is similar to what is suggested for extensive reading (Nation & Wang, 1999), and Webb and Rodgers (2009) remind us that extensive input, whether it be from reading or watching movies, provides opportunities to deepen vocabulary learning. They also offer suggestions for teachers to pre-teach low-frequent vocabulary in order to increase coverage and comprehension. Another way to improve comprehension is to provide background information about the movie to the learners.

Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski (2010) points out that incremental vocabulary gains can have a significant impact on text comprehension in reading. They examine second language learners' vocabulary size, lexical text coverage, and how vocabulary size and lexical text coverage relate to learners' reading comprehension of a text. They suggest two thresholds consisting of an optimal threshold of 98% and a minimal threshold of 95%. Vocabulary size

was measured by the Vocabulary Levels Test, lexical coverage utilized Vocabulary Profile, and reading comprehension was measured using a national standardized test. Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski's (2010) study found that even small learner gains of vocabulary knowledge, despite not having a large effect on text coverage, have an impact on reading comprehension.

2.7 Conclusion and scope of study

Extensive viewing presents valuable opportunities for learners to learn vocabulary, improve their listening speed and comprehension, and to learn more about culture. It also allows learners to make the language their own by using it authentically rather than just learning about it. This is the heart of this current research, namely that extensive viewing has the potential of motivating learners to make language learning an autonomous, lifelong process, opposed to limiting language to what happens in the classroom.

Corpus research has shown that approximately 3000 words are needed for 95% coverage of media and between 5000 and 6000 for 98% coverage. Furthermore, there is support for a narrow viewing approach to extensive viewing in order to provide increased recycling opportunities of unknown words.

Less is known in the research, however, about the impact that streaming media is having on media and media viewership. The ascent in popularity of streaming media over the past few years has changed who is watching English media. Streaming media platforms, such as Netflix, have further globalized English media by providing an array of programs, movies, and genres that are accessible with ease from most countries in the world. South Korea, the location of this current research, is a country where English streaming media has grown in popularity.

The globalization of English media through streaming media necessitates an investigation into learner attitudes regarding the use of English media for language learning. Furthermore, it is necessary to explore students' perceptions regarding what has been found in corpus research, namely students' attitudes toward the concepts of narrow viewing, vocabulary recycling, and repeat viewings of media. This is important because students' attitudes toward English media and streaming media will have an effect on whether students engage in extensive viewing.

This globalization of media may also be changing the way that media is being produced. Rather than producing television programs for western culture, media is now being produced for an international community. For this reason, revisiting the question of lexical coverage of media is necessary in order to explore the lexical learning opportunities of today's media.

Furthermore, streaming media is changing how media is being viewed. Rather than the traditional means of watching television where viewers had to wait a week for each subsequent episode, full series of shows are being released at a time. This is conducive to narrow viewing as viewers are more likely to watch a full season of a show before moving on to the next show. For this reason, it is important to both quantify how much learning is expected to take place from watching a season and to explore whether this tendency for narrow viewing is conducive to learning vocabulary. The results of this investigation will hopefully provide teachers with insights into the role they can play in motivating students to practice extensive viewing and in facilitating extensive viewing as a means to expose their students to authentic language input.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to gain insight into college students' attitudes toward English media and the lexical learning opportunities afforded by streaming media, five research questions were posed in this study. The first, second, and third research questions pertained to students' attitudes toward extensive viewing of English media and their attitudes toward vocabulary learning from extensive viewing of English media. The first research question was what college students' attitudes are toward English media for language learning purposes in terms of interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media, and how these attitudes are related to one another. The second research question was what effects do gender, proficiency, and experience with media have on college students' attitudes toward extensive viewing of English media. The third question was what college students' attitudes are toward vocabulary learning from extensive viewing of English media.

The fourth and fifth research questions of this study pertain to the lexical learning opportunities afforded by streaming media. The fourth research question was how many word families you need to know in order to reach 95% and 98% coverage of streaming media, and whether there is a difference between the vocabulary size necessary to reach 95% and 98% coverage of different genres and series of streaming media. The fifth research question pertains to whether a within genre and within series approach to viewing streaming media provides more lexical learning opportunities of mid-frequency vocabulary in terms of lexical recycling and lexical spacing.

3.1 Participants and corpuses

3.1.1 Participants

In order to answer the first, second, and third research questions of this study, participants were surveyed regarding their attitudes toward extensive viewing of English media and their attitudes toward vocabulary learning from extensive viewing of English media. The participants of this study are 275 South Korean students majoring in elementary education at a university in South Korea. The majority of the students were between the ages of 19 and 25. All of the students were studying in a compulsory sophomore English conversation course at the time of participating in this study. They were from 20 classes, with 12 to 15 students in each class. All of the classes were taught by the researcher. In regards to gender, 178 of the 275 participants were female and 97 male. All students were preparing to become elementary school teachers in South Korea, and most of the students were highly motivated to learn English and had a high scholastic ability.

A portion of the participants' motivation to achieve communicative competence in English stems from a series of examinations that teachers have to take prior to getting licensed to teach in an elementary school. One of the examinations is an English class mini lesson, and the students are evaluated according to their abilities to lead a class in English. Another exam that they have to take is an English interview which evaluates students' communicative competence in English.

3.1.2 Corpuses

In order to answer the fourth and fifth research questions of this study, a total of 90 scripts of television episodes were analyzed. The running time of each episode ranged between 30 minutes and 70 minutes and did not include any commercials. Three genres were selected for analysis, and each genre accounted for a separate corpus for this study: horror, comedy, and

action/superhero. Also, episodes of each of two streaming media shows were selected for analysis within each of the three genres. The streaming media shows examined in this study are: *The Good Place, Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt, Stranger Things, The Haunting of Hill House, Daredevil,* and *Jessica Jones*. A fourth corpus consisting of random television shows was compiled for comparison with the three genres of this study. This fourth corpus of random shows consists of two random genres lists. Nation and Webb (2011) argue that to compare corpuses accurately, they must consist of approximately the same number of running words. Thus, corpuses in this study were designed to consist of the same number of running words. As a result, each program used in this study was also designed to consist of the same number of tokens, and the last episode of each of the shows consists of a partial episode in order to compare corpuses with the same number of tokens. The final episode of the two random genres lists is also a partial episode for the same reason. Shows and episodes examined in this study can be found in the appendix at the end of this study.

The three genres were selected as they traditionally have little crossover with one another. Furthermore, each show was selected considering the following criteria: genre, availability of the scripts, and current popularity (all shows chosen have upcoming seasons and are currently popular). All shows chosen are American as they were deemed to be the most appealing and available to Korean language learners. A list of the shows and genres utilized in this study can be found in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Genres and programs

Genre	Program	Tokens	Running Time
Comedy	*The Good Place*	45, 936	253 minutes
	Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt	45, 936	349 minutes
Horror	*Stranger Things*	45, 936	605 minutes
	The Haunting of Hill House	45, 936	512 minutes
Action/Superhero	*Daredevil*	45, 936	571 minutes
	Jessica Jones	45, 936	565 minutes
Random genre list #1	*American Horror Story, Chicago PD, Game of Thrones, Grey's Anatomy, Manifest, Modern Family, The Big Bang Theory, The Good Doctor, This is Us, Young Sheldon, The Walking Dead*	45, 936	439 minutes
Random genre list #2	*Chicago PD, Empire, Manifest, Law and Order: SVU, NCIS, The Goldbergs, Bull, God Friended Me, New Amsterdam, Criminal Minds*	45, 936	405 minutes

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 Survey

In order to develop a survey for this current study, a pilot study was conducted and a survey was piloted in order to explore students' perceptions toward English media. The pilot study seeks insight into students' perceptions toward the use of English media for extensive learning of language and to observe whether there are individual differences in regards to proficiency and gender. The survey was piloted in order to ensure that the questions functioned as intended and were able to stand up to a factor analysis. Furthermore, the procedure of the survey was carefully observed in order to ensure that the instructions and questions were clearly understood, and that there were no other non-foreseeable problems.

The survey was distributed to students and analysed in March, 2019. The participants consisted of 167 South Korean sophomore students studying elementary education at a university in South Korea. Ages ranged between 19 and 25 years old, and 59 participants

were male and 108 female. All participants were studying to become elementary school teachers in South Korea, and the majority of the students were motivated to study English and had a high scholastic ability. Students were asked about their English proficiency in comparison to their peers. 33 students self-reported as low proficiency, 112 average proficiency, and 22 high proficiency.

The survey was a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = "Strongly Agree" to 1 = "Strongly Disagree." The survey consisted of a total of 25 items that were divided into four sections, followed by a bio section at the end to gather biographical information from the students. The four sections were intended to gauge students' perceptions of media regarding: 1) interest in English media, 2) views regarding what may be difficult about watching English media, 3) perceptions toward what learners deem potentially useful for language development from watching English media, and 4) overall familiarity with streaming media.

Prior to taking the survey, participants were briefed regarding the aims of the research and were instructed to slowly and carefully consider their choices for each of the questions. Students were ensured anonymity and were instructed that the survey would not affect their grade in the class. Responses to the survey were analysed utilizing SPSS (version 24). A factor analysis was conducted on the data. A descriptive statistical analysis was then conducted on the data to gather information regarding the four sections of the survey. In regards to individual differences for gender and proficiency, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), followed by a Scheffe post hoc analysis was conducted to garner insight regarding the effects of self-reported proficiency, and independent sample t-tests were conducted regarding the effects of gender.

The participants were asked following submission of the surveys about the clarity of the instructions and questions. The students did not report any issues in this regard, and there were no other major problems regarding the procedure of the survey taking process.

In order to check if the survey data was fit for factor analysis, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) was conducted. The KMO statistic was .813, indicating that the survey data is considered appropriate for factor analysis. A factor analysis was conducted on the items of the survey in order to observe whether they were reliably grouped together. Utilizing an eigenvalue of 1 to determine the number of components extracted, the analysis yielded six components, explaining a total of 65.86% of the variance. As a result of the factor analysis, six items were subsequently removed as they were deemed not suitable for inclusion. A reliability analysis was conducted on each of the four constructs of the survey. The Cronbach's alphas for interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media were .91, .83, .68, and .88, respectively. Each of the constructs are considered acceptable for further analysis.

The results of the data analysis of the survey from the pilot study played a role in the development of the survey for the main study. The constructs of the survey from the pilot study were found to be reliable for analysis; however, six of the items from the survey had to be removed for either not loading under the latent construct or having multiple cross loadings. Thus, the validity of those items was of some concern. The wording of the items and whether they should be included in the survey for the main study was carefully considered. There were found to be no other major problems with the survey or with the procedures of the pilot study.

As a result of the findings from the pilot survey, it was decided that the survey of the main study would include a construct to measure students' experience with media and an additional measure of proficiency. The findings of the pilot survey provide support that

familiarity with streaming media plays a significant role in students' perceptions toward English media. It was found that learners that were more familiar were more interested in English media and perceived media to be less difficult. Furthermore, there was an indication that higher proficiency learners find English media more interesting and are more familiar with streaming media. It appears that familiarity with streaming media and learner proficiency may impact students' perceptions toward English media. Thus, the main study will further investigate the role of familiarity by exploring the effects that learner experience with streaming media has on perceptions toward English media. Furthermore, an additional measure of learner lexical proficiency was included in order to gain a more nuanced understanding of the role of proficiency in perceptions toward English media. It was also decided that a construct regarding students' perceptions toward vocabulary learning would be added to the survey for the main study.

The survey in this main study will be referred to as the main survey. The survey was designed for the purpose of this study, and the majority of the items were 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree." The survey was translated into the Korean language for accuracy of understanding of the items and for the convenience of the participants. The survey was divided into six sections in order to explore the participants' perceptions of extensive viewing of English media in terms of their:

(1) Interest in English media (items 1-5). For example, one of the statements in this section of the survey students are asked to rate is: "I like to watch English media (movies, dramas, etc.) in my free time."

(2) Perceptions of difficulty of English media (items 6-12). For example, participants are asked to rate the following statement: "I find it difficult to watch English media because of unfamiliar vocabulary."

(3) Perceptions of usefulness of English media for language learning purposes (items 13-19). For example, one of the statements the participants have to evaluate is: "I believe I can improve my listening speed through watching English media."

(4) Familiarity with streaming media (items 20-24). An item that participants are asked to rate in this section is: "I have personal experience using online streaming platforms such as Netflix."

(5) Experiences with English media (items 25; 44-63). The purpose of this section is to gauge whether students are currently engaging in some form of extensive viewing of English programs. Three separate indices were utilized in this section in order to get a clearer view of how much experience the participants have with English media viewing. The three indices are as follows:

i. Items 25 and 44 through 48 ask learners to rate their viewing habits of English media. For example, the participants were asked to rate the following statement: "I make an effort to watch English media every day." Item 25 is not rated on a 5-point scale. It asks learners whether they have ever had personal access with an online streaming media account. The participants were asked to answer "Yes" or "No." Item 48 is also not on a 5-point scale, as it asks the participants approximately how many hours of English media viewing they partake in per week.

ii. Items 49 through 63 are a television show recognition test. The test consists of 10 real television show names that are likely to be known by someone who spends a lot of time watching English media and 5 distracters which are not real shows. The distracters utilized were '*Groundbreaking,*' '*Stay in School!,*' '*The Jaywalkers,*' '*My Last Opportunity,*' and '*It's Time to Go.*'

The participants are asked to answer “Yes” or “No” as to whether they believe the title is a real show or a fake show name.

iii. Item 25 asks whether students have had personal experience utilizing an online English streaming media account. The students were asked to answer either “Yes” or “No” to this question.

(6) Perceptions toward vocabulary learning opportunities/strategies from watching English media (items 26-43). For example, one of the items that the participants are asked to rate is: “I believe that an interesting storyline facilitates vocabulary acquisition.”

A section regarding students’ bio information was placed at the end of the survey. Participants were assured anonymity and were asked to provide their gender, age, years of study abroad in an English speaking country, minor (all students are majoring in elementary education), and to rate their English proficiency as either below average, average, or above average.

To check whether the show recognition test was fit for further analysis, a reliability analysis was conducted in order to measure whether the test had internal consistency. The results can be found in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Reliability statistics of the show recognition test

Survey Construct	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
show recognition test	15	.70

The reliability analysis results of the show recognition test indicated a reliability coefficient of .70 for the 15 item test. The Cronbach’s Alpha level is regarded as acceptable for further analysis.

A factor analysis was conducted on the items of the survey in order to explore whether the items of each section were validly grouped together. As a result of the analysis, changes

were made in regard to how the items would be grouped for analysis. Due to the results of the factor analysis, it was decided that items 26 through 43 would be analyzed as a separate survey exploring students' attitudes toward vocabulary learning from viewing English media. As a result of these changes, this new reduced survey regarding students' attitudes toward vocabulary learning from viewing English media will now be referred to as the Vocabulary Learning Survey (items 26-43), and the original survey will still be referred to as the main survey.

To check whether the main survey was fit for factor analysis, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and a Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test was conducted and can be found in Table 5 below.

Table 5. KMO and Bartlett's Test for the main survey

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.828
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2971.517
	df	276
	p	.000

The results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test are shown in Table 5 above. The Chi-square is 2971.517 with 276 degrees of freedom, which is significant at .000 level of significance. The KMO statistic of 0.828 is also large. Thus, the main survey data is considered appropriate for factor analysis.

A factor analysis was conducted on the items of the main survey. The results can be found in Table 6 below.

Table 6. Factor analysis of the main survey

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
V1	.064	-.087	.192	**.880**	.056
V2	.159	-.047	.193	**.901**	.030
V3	.116	-.106	.162	**.864**	.119
V4	**.481**	.002	.126	.306	.390
V5	.314	.171	.117	.197	.434
V6	.017	**.801**	-.111	-.041	.040
V7	.059	**.691**	-.039	-.085	-.245
V8	.059	**.722**	-.141	-.114	-.105
V9	-.086	**.785**	-.035	-.073	.051
V10	.006	**.434**	.032	.039	-.614
V11	.184	**.534**	.113	.001	-.487
V12	-.286	**.720**	.041	.034	.205
V13	.307	.065	.396	.103	.428
V14	**.578**	.032	.259	.031	.304
V15	**.675**	-.092	-.078	.059	-.175
V16	**.777**	-.085	.009	.017	.099
V17	**.656**	.065	.230	.010	.004
V18	**.689**	-.019	.164	.034	-.009
V19	**.698**	.006	.127	.175	.125
V20	-.027	-.135	**.669**	.425	-.171
V21	.011	-.142	**.743**	.386	-.128
V22	.205	-.028	**.764**	.113	.176
V23	.201	.017	**.789**	-.045	.150
V24	.185	-.087	**.792**	.165	.024

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

As a result of the factor analysis for the main survey, five components were extracted, and items 5 and 13 were removed from analysis for not meeting reliability thresholds for this study. Items 1 to 3 (component 4) loaded under the latent construct of ‘interest in English media’, and item 4 was removed from the ‘interest in English media’ section and added to the ‘perceptions toward the usefulness of English media’ section. Items 6-12 (component 2), items 14-19 (component 1), and items 20-24 (component 3) all loaded under their latent

constructs of ‘perceived difficulty of English media’, ‘perceived usefulness of English media’, and familiarity with streaming media, respectively.

To check whether the constructs of the main survey were fit for further analysis, a reliability analysis was conducted. The results can be found in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Reliability indices of the main survey

Survey Construct	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Interest	3	.92
Perceived difficulty	7	.82
Perceived usefulness	7	.80
Familiarity	5	.82

The interest construct consisted of 3 items (α = .92), perceived difficulty consisted of 7 items (α = .82), perceived usefulness consisted of 7 items (α = .80), and the familiarity construct consisted of 5 items (α = .82). All constructs were found to be highly reliable for further analysis.

The Vocabulary Learning Survey was also evaluated for the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and a Bartlett’s Test, and the results can be seen in Table 8 below.

Table 8. KMO and Bartlett’s Test for the Vocabulary Learning Survey

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.633
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1278.522
	df	153
	p	.000

The results in Table 8 show that the Chi-square is 1278.522 with 153 degrees of freedom. The results are significant (p = .000). The KMO statistic is also acceptable at 0.633. Thus, factor analysis of the Vocabulary Learning Survey was deemed as an appropriate technique for further analysis of the data.

A factor analysis was conducted on the items of the Vocabulary Learning Survey. The results can be found in Table 9 below.

Table 9. Factor analysis of the Vocabulary Learning Survey

	Component		
	1	2	3
V26	**.692**	.149	-.050
V27	**.640**	.084	.193
V28	**.754**	.035	-.139
V29	**.755**	-.064	.091
V30	.126	.365	.297
V31	.222	.309	.204
V32	.136	-.052	**.768**
V33	-.057	.111	**.741**
V34	.198	.113	**.780**
V35	.021	.208	**.700**
V36	-.018	.600	.103
V37	.395	-.025	.117
V38	.166	**.718**	.041
V39	.354	**.501**	.123
V40	-.069	**.679**	.123
V41	.080	**.499**	.085
V42	-.069	.587	-.117
V43	.353	.103	.056

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

As a result of the factor analysis of the Vocabulary Learning Survey, three components were extracted, and items were separated into three separate constructs. Furthermore, items 30, 31, 36, 37, 42, and 43 were removed for having multiple loadings or for having low factor loadings under the latent constructs. The three constructs of the Vocabulary Learning Survey are as follows:

1) Attitudes toward the role of a show's story and visuals in facilitating vocabulary learning (items 26-29);

2) Attitudes toward the role of lexical spacing and lexical recycling in facilitating vocabulary learning (items 32-35);
3) Attitudes toward the role of repeat viewings of media in facilitating vocabulary learning (items 38-41).

To check whether the constructs of the Vocabulary Learning Survey were fit for further analysis, a reliability analysis was conducted. The results can be found in Table 10 below.

Table 10. Reliability indices of the Vocabulary Learning Survey

Survey Construct	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Story and visuals	4	.73
Lexical spacing and lexical recycling	4	.77
Repeat viewings	4	.66

Each of the three constructs consists of four items. The results show that Cronbach's alphas for the story and visuals construct, and for the lexical spacing and lexical recycling construct were .73 and .77, respectively. These constructs are acceptable for further analysis. In the case of the repeat viewings construct, the Cronbach's alpha was .66 and is considered minimally acceptable for further analysis.

3.2.2 Vocabulary Size Test

After completing the survey, the participants were asked to complete the Vocabulary Size Test. The Vocabulary Size Test was developed by Nation and Beglar (2007). The test is used to estimate learners' breadth of vocabulary knowledge. The Vocabulary Size Test consists of 14 lists, each consisting of 10 questions from the various frequency levels.

The test is utilized in this study to estimate the participants' vocabulary size in order to explore whether lexical proficiency has an effect on perceptions toward English media. While the Vocabulary Size Test consists of 14 lists of 10 questions each, the participants of this study were only asked to complete the first 8 lists of 10 questions each for the convenience of the participants. The test was shortened since the participants of this study were deemed

unlikely to have a receptive vocabulary size beyond 8000 word families. Thus, the total questions provided to the students is 80. Their score is then multiplied by 100 in order to get an estimate of their receptive vocabulary size. An example of an item on the test is:

"TIME: They have a lot of **time**.
a. money
b. food
c. hours
d. friends"

In the context of this item, students are asked to find the closest meaning to the word TIME. There is also a sample sentence where the word **time** is highlighted in bold and used in a sentence. The students must then circle one of either letter a., b., c., or d. The students are given all 80 questions at one time and are not given a time restriction. They are asked to take their time, carefully consider all of the questions, and to leave any unknown items blank.

3.3 Data collection procedures

3.3.1 The main survey

This study first seeks to explore perceptions of college students toward the use of English media for language learning purposes. The current study will also investigate whether there are individual learner differences that affect these perceptions. In order to accomplish this, students were given both the survey and Vocabulary Size Test to complete during class time. At the start of class, participants were first given the survey. The students were asked to fill out the survey after being briefed regarding the aims of the research. The participants were asked to carefully read the instructions and questions and to carefully consider their choices. They were assured that all of the information would be anonymous, and that their responses would not affect their grades in the class. Prior to starting the survey, students were informed that 'media' refers to movies, anything that can be found on television, and English streaming

media such as Netflix. Furthermore, the participants were told that amateur produced media, such as what might be found on YouTube, were to not be considered when answering the questions. This was done in order to narrow the scope of the analysis to professionally produced authentic media. Students were then asked to fill out some of their biographical information such as their age, grade, gender, and English proficiency relative to their peers. Participants took between 10 and 15 minutes to complete the survey.

Upon completion of the survey, students were given the Vocabulary Size Test. Participants were instructed regarding the aim and measurement procedure of the Vocabulary Size Test. The participants were told to only answer questions for words that they know the meaning of and were instructed to not guess the answer to any of the items. The students were once again reminded that the results of the Vocabulary Size Test were completely anonymous and would not affect their class grade in any way. The students took approximately 20 to 25 minutes to finish the test.

3.3.2 Corpuses

The fourth and fifth research questions of this study explore the vocabulary learning potential of within series and within genre extensive viewing of streaming media. To accomplish this, a corpus analysis of six streaming media shows and three genres was conducted. All scripts compiled for all of the shows utilized in this study were downloaded from www.springfieldspringfield.co.uk/. In preparation for analysis, everything that was unspoken, including stage instructions and character names, was removed from the scripts.

Upon collection and preparation of all the scripts for analysis, a corpus for each of the six shows was compiled. The total number of tokens were then calculated for each of the show corpuses. For the purpose of being able to compare the corpuses with one another for the data analyses, all corpuses were made to conform to the same number of tokens. It was found that one season of each of *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt, Daredevil, Jessica Jones, The Good*

Place, and *The Haunting of Hill House* all consisted of a relatively similar number of tokens. *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* had the fewest number of tokens of these shows. One season of *Stranger Things*, however, had significantly fewer tokens than all of the other shows. *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* was then chosen as the standard corpus size for this study due to it having the number of tokens closest to *Stranger Things*. Thus, one and a partial episode were removed from the corpus of both *Jessica Jones* and *The Good Place*, and a partial episode was removed from both *The Haunting of Hill House* and *Daredevil*. Four episodes from the previous season were added to the corpus of *Stranger Things*. Both of the random genres lists were then compiled to conform to the size of the streaming media show corpuses, and each random genres list consists of one partial episode.

3.4 Data analysis procedures

3.4.1 The main survey

The survey in this study was utilized to explore students' perceptions toward the use of English media for language learning. The responses from the survey were entered into SPSS (version 24). The majority of the items were 5-point Likert scale questions (items 1-24 and 26-47). The responses were coded ranging as 'Strongly Disagree' = 1, 'Disagree' = 2, 'Neither Agree Nor Disagree' = 3, 'Agree' = 4, and 'Strongly Agree' = 5. Item 25 was coded as '1' indicating that participants have not had personal experience with an online streaming media account, and '2' indicating that they have. Item 48 asks the participants to approximate how many hours of English media they view per week. Student responses ranged from 0 to 40 hours a week. Responses were then conformed to a 5-point scale to match the other items in the section. Student responses were coded as follows: 0-1 hours = '1', 2-3 = '2', 4-6 = '3', 7-9 = '4', ≥10 = '5'. As for the show recognition test (items 49-63), the test was scored in

such a way that a correct recognition earned 1 point while a wrong recognition received a half point deduction. The coding then reflected their score out of a possible ten points. In regards to the bio-data section, men were coded as '1' and women coded as '2'. In regards to learners' self-reported proficiency, below average proficiency was coded as '1', average proficiency as '2', and above average proficiency as '3'. In regards to the participants' age, grade, and years spent in an English speaking country, coding represented the learners' responses. For the Vocabulary Size Test, all correct responses received 1 point, and the total was then multiplied by 100. This was interpreted as learners' receptive vocabulary size and was coded in this manner.

In order to answer the first, second, and third research questions of this study regarding students' attitudes toward extensive viewing of English media and attitudes toward learning vocabulary from media, a descriptive statistical analysis was conducted on the data of both surveys using SPSS (version 24). 95% confidence intervals were utilized to explore whether the mean differences were significant between each of the constructs for each of the two surveys. The individual items of each of the perceived difficulty and perceived usefulness constructs were further explored using 95% confidence intervals in order to explore whether the differences in means were significant. All of the items of the Vocabulary Learning Survey were also explored using 95% confidence intervals in order to explore whether the differences in means were significant. A correlational analysis of the constructs of the main survey was conducted in order to view relationships between learner interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media.

The data of the main survey was further analyzed in order to explore individual differences between the participants in terms of their self-reported language proficiency, lexical proficiency through the Vocabulary Size Test, gender, and scores on the three indices exploring the participants' experience with English media (the self-reported experience

survey construct, the television show recognition test, and account ownership). Descriptive statistical analyses for proficiency, gender, and account ownership were explored. For the participants' self-reported proficiency, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and a post hoc Scheffe multiple comparisons analysis was utilized to explore whether there were significant differences in means for the three proficiency groups. Independent sample t-tests were used to explore whether the differences in means were significant for the two gender groups and for the two account ownership groups. A correlational analysis was conducted to explore whether lexical proficiency (the Vocabulary Size Test), and experience (scores from each of the show recognition test and the self-reported experience component of the main survey) play a role in students' perceptions toward media viewing.

3.4.2 Corpuses

To answer the fourth and fifth research questions, a corpus analysis of the scripts utilized in this study was conducted in order to explore the lexical coverage and vocabulary learning potential of streaming media. In order to explore the lexical coverage of each of the corpuses, VocabProfile software was used from lextutor.ca. VocabProfile lists the words of a text according to their frequency. The frequency lists used for the analysis were BNC-COCA 25 which places words into 1000 word frequency bands according to data from the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). The software shows the coverage levels of the corpus according to word families at their 1000 word frequency levels. Words not present in the 25 1000 word lists are classified as off-list, including proper nouns and marginal words (e.g. uh, umm, oh). Proper nouns and marginal words were all reclassified into frequency list 1.

Classification of compound words has traditionally been quite difficult. Consideration has been given to classifying compound nouns into the 1000 most frequent word list. Due to there being 1000s of compound words, this would raise the 1000 most frequent words list to

include thousands of words. This, of course, would overinflate high-frequency word coverage. Conversely, until recently, most compound nouns have been classified as off-list. This, however, will often overinflate the off-list component. Vocabprofile now includes software that is capable of recognizing and breaking up compound nouns into their individual words. This is most likely a truer reflection of the lexical load of compound nouns as viewed through the eyes of the learner. Thus, most compound nouns in the corpuses have been broken up into their individual words for analysis.

In order to explore the lexical spacing of mid-frequency vocabulary in the corpuses, Range was utilized. Range, which can be found at lextutor.ca, is used to explore the distribution of words across two or more texts. Output from the Range software will tell you which texts a word appears in, how many different texts a word appears in (the range of the word), the amount of total repetitions of a word across all texts (frequency), and which frequency list the word belongs to according to BNC-COCA 25. For the purpose of the fourth and fifth (final) research questions regarding the lexical recycling and lexical spacing of "useful" words, Range was utilized to explore both the number of encounters of mid-frequency vocabulary in the scripts and to explore the range of the vocabulary across several episodes.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This current research first seeks to explore students' attitudes toward English media for language learning purposes and attitudes toward learning vocabulary from media. Extensive viewing, as described earlier in this study, refers to the learner's autonomous use of English media as an extension of a regular classroom program. While the teacher may have a role in motivating and facilitating the extensive use of media, the teacher may not interfere with learner autonomy. Learner autonomy is important as extensive viewing should be viewed as a long term or lifelong project, and it is the goal of both the learner and the teacher that the learner is capable of choosing, by being motivated and interested in English media, to continue watching English media after a course or language program finishes.

This study also aims to assess the relationship between students' attitudes toward media viewing and the opportunities for vocabulary acquisition afforded by watching a season of a streaming media show. In order to do that, this study will explore the lexical learning opportunities in streaming media by investigating lexical coverage, lexical recycling, and lexical spacing in streaming media programs and genres. This study will also explore the potential for learning vocabulary through within genre viewing (narrow viewing) of streaming media. This current research will then discuss how students' attitudes align with these results of the corpus analyses.

4.1 Students' attitudes toward English media

The first, second, and third research questions of this study investigate college students' perceptions toward the use of English media for extensive viewing purposes and their

attitudes toward vocabulary learning from extensive viewing of English media. An attempt is also made to explore the effect of learner individual differences (i.e., proficiency, gender, and experience with English media) on perceptions toward extensive viewing of English media.

4.1.1 Perceptions toward English media

This study utilized a survey in order to examine students' attitudes toward extensive viewing of English media. In order to do that, the participants in this study answered questions in regards to their views of extensive viewing in terms of their: 1) interest in English media, 2) perceived difficulty of watching English media, 3) perceived benefits of watching English media for language learning, and 4) familiarity with streaming media. Table 11 shows the mean results and standard deviations of these four constructs of the main survey.

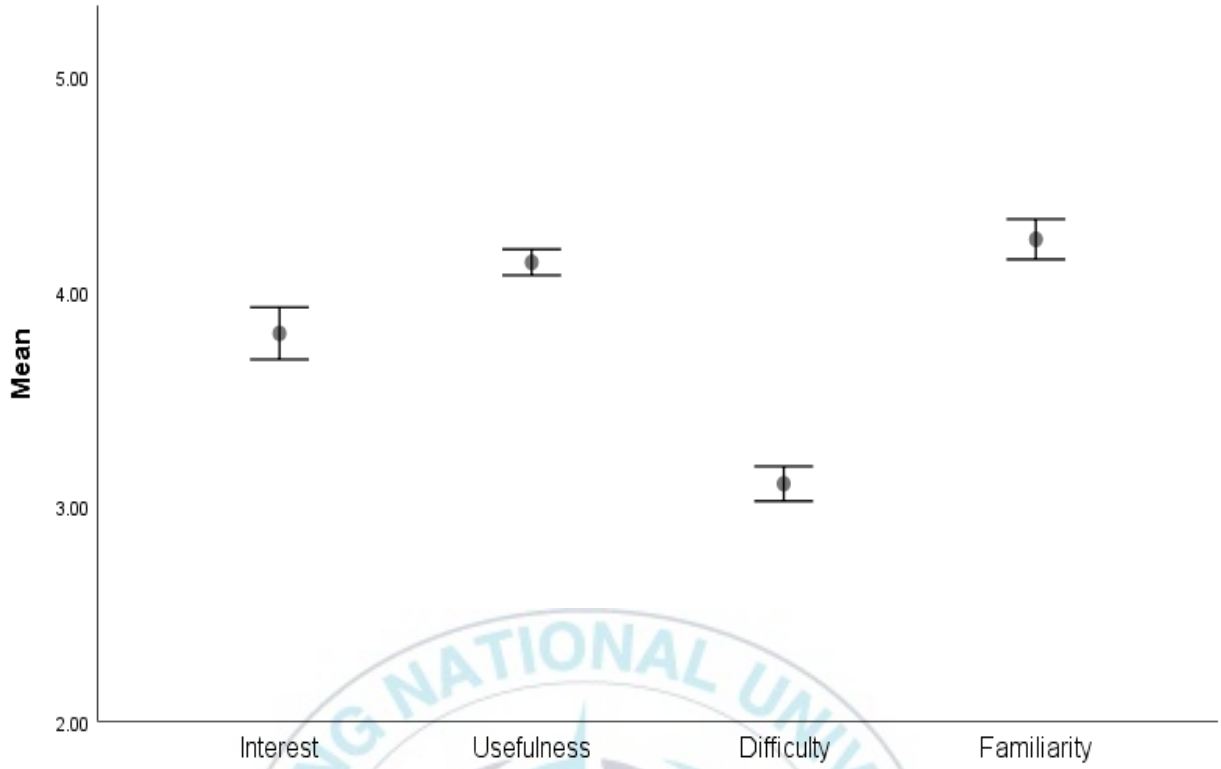
Table 11. Descriptive statistics of attitudes toward English media (N = 275)

	M	SD
Interest	3.81	1.02
Usefulness	4.14	.51
Difficulty	3.11	.68
Familiarity	4.24	.79

The participants reported being moderately interested in English media (M = 3.81, SD = 1.02); however, they perceived English media to be a little difficult (M = 3.11, SD = .68). Also, the participants perceived English media viewing to be a very useful tool for language learning (M = 4.14, SD = .51), and reported being very familiar with streaming media (M = 4.24, SD = .79).

In order to explore whether the differences in mean for the four constructs of the main survey were significant, 95% confidence intervals were calculated (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. 95% confidence intervals of means for attitudes toward English media



The 95% confidence intervals demonstrate that participants of this study considered English media to be more useful (M = 4.14, 95% CI [4.08, 4.20]) and were more familiar with streaming media (M = 4.24, 95% CI [4.15, 4.34]) than they found media to be interesting (M = 3.81, 95% CI [3.68, 3.93]) and difficult (M = 3.11, 95% CI [3.02, 3.19]). Perceptions of the difficulty of English media were significantly lower than interest, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media. The results will be discussed in more detail below.

4.1.1.1 Interest and motivation to watch media

English media has the potential of being highly interesting and highly motivating for language learners. Research has shown that motivation has a direct effect on language proficiency (Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001), and that highly motivated learners learn vocabulary better than learners with low motivation (Gardner, 1985). Furthermore, studies have shown that media is interesting to learners (Bada & Okan, 2000; Chapple & Curtis, 2000), motivate learners to be attentive and help students to pay attention in class (Ismaili,

2013; Williams & Lutes, 2007), and that learners have a positive attitude toward the classroom use of movies (Kabooha, 2016).

The results of this current study show that learners consider media to be moderately interesting and motivating (M = 3.81, SD = 1.02). While students' views regarding interest in media is slightly lower than expected, they do not differ significantly from the positive views towards English media found in the literature above.

4.1.1.2 Perceived difficulty of media

Assessing students' perceived difficulty is important for this current research, as it is likely to affect learner motivation to utilize media for extensive viewing purposes. Furthermore, perceptions of the difficulty of English media is likely to be a result of lower lexical ability which will lead to lower comprehension of media.

The overall results of the difficulty section of the survey show that learners consider English media to be moderately difficult (M = 3.11, SD = .68), and that interestingly, the mean scores are nearly identical to those of the pilot study (M = 3.11, SD = 1.11). While it was a little surprising that the mean score was so low for this section, and that students do not consider media viewing to be very difficult, it is likely that learners' utilization of subtitles that can be found on English television programs in Korea likely affected student views. Subtitling may allow learners to feel a sense of ease toward the language content of media. A deeper look into the individual items of this section heeded some interesting results, as can be seen in Table 12 below.

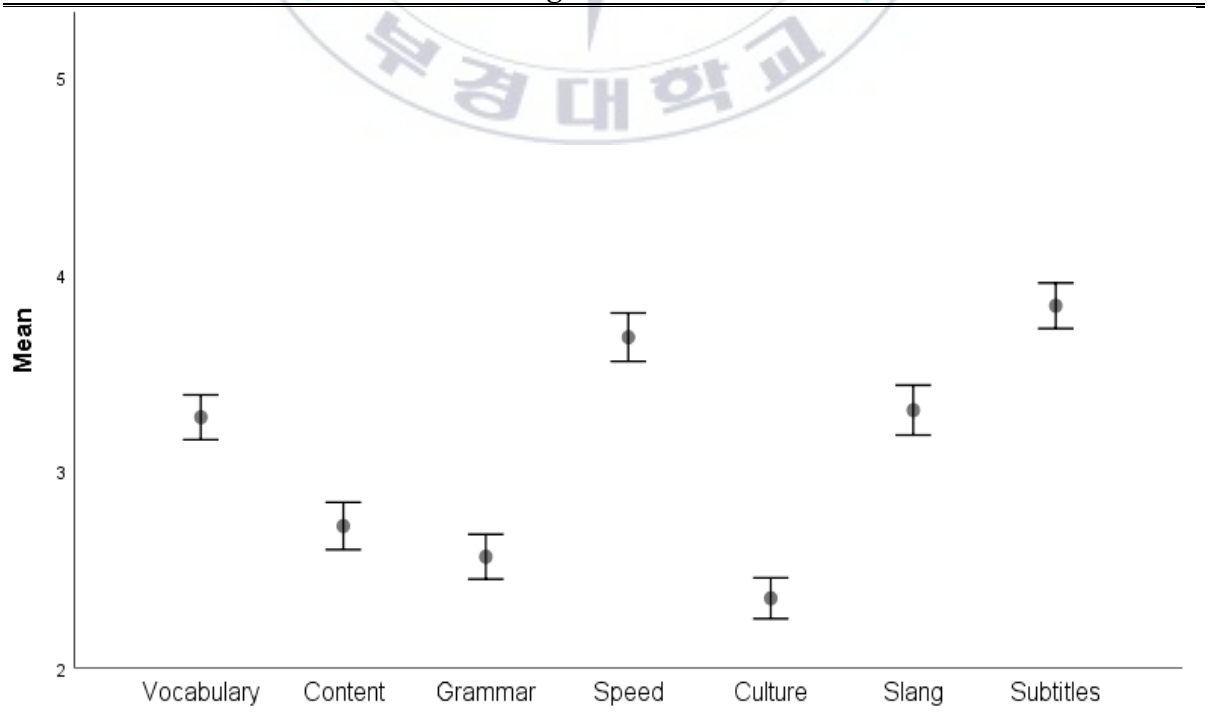
Table 12. Descriptive statistics of perceived sources of difficulty of English media

	M	SD
Unknown vocabulary	3.27	.96
Unfamiliar content	2.72	1.01
Complex grammar	2.56	.96
Speed of speech	3.68	1.04
Cultural references	2.35	.87
Slang	3.31	1.07
Lack of subtitles	3.84	.98

It was found that learners believe certain aspects of media viewing to be more difficult than others. Learners consider unknown vocabulary (M = 3.27, SD = .96), speed of speech (M = 3.68, SD = 1.04), slang (M = 3.31, SD = 1.07), and lack of subtitling (M = 3.84, SD = .98) to be difficult, and unfamiliar content (M = 2.72, SD = 1.01), complex grammar (M = 2.56, SD = .96), and cultural references (M = 2.35, SD = .87) to be not very difficult.

Figure 3 below shows the 95% confidence intervals of the means for the perceived sources of difficulty of English media.

Figure 3. 95% confidence intervals of means for perceived sources of difficulty of English media



As can be seen in Figure 3 above, learners find some aspects of extensive viewing of English media to be significantly more difficult than others. The 95% confidence intervals of the means for the sources of difficulty show that learners find unknown vocabulary (M = 3.27, 95% CI [3.16, 3.39]), speed of speech (M = 3.68, 95% CI [3.56, 3.80]), slang (M = 3.31, 95% CI [3.18, 3.44]), and lack of subtitling (M = 3.84, 95% CI [3.72, 3.96]) to be statistically significantly more difficult than the content (M = 2.72, 95% CI [2.60, 2.84]), grammar (M = 2.56, 95% CI [2.45, 2.68]), and cultural references (M = 2.35, 95% CI [2.25, 2.46]) of English media.

The South Korean participants of this study consider unfamiliar content, grammar, and cultural references to be relatively easy compared to the other potential sources of difficulty expressed in this research. This is not particularly surprising considering that: 1) the Korean education system often utilizes the grammar translation method in order to prepare students for high-stakes examinations and thus may allow students to become more confident in their ability to understand grammar in media, and 2) South Koreans are quite interested in American culture, and learners are often exposed to American culture both inside and outside of the classroom. This may cause learners to feel more familiar with the cultural content of media.

On the contrary, the participants' professed difficulty with vocabulary, speed of speech, lack of subtitling, and slang may be a result of students not receiving sufficient exposure to authentic language in use. In other words, the participants of this study identify aspects of language difficult that are not typically taught and practiced in South Korean public schools and after-school academies. This provides some evidence that extensive viewing may provide supplementary value to many classroom learning programs.

4.1.1.3 Perceived usefulness of media

Studies have shown that watching media can be very beneficial and useful for language learning. There is strong evidence that watching media can lead to incidental, incremental vocabulary knowledge growth (Ina, 2014; Kuppens, 2010; Oetting, Rice, & Swank, 1995; Rice & Woodsmall, 1988) and lexico-grammatical knowledge growth (Kim, 2015). Furthermore, there is ample research showing that media has the potential to increase listening comprehension and listening skills (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Safranj, 2015; Qiu, 2017; Suramto, 2016), and cultural awareness (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Kim, 2006; Kim, 2007; Safranj, 2014).

The results regarding perceived usefulness of media for language learning were surprising in the sense that the students find English media to be more useful (M = 4.19, SD = .46) than interesting (M = 3.81, SD = 1.02). These results show that students' perceptions align with previous research (Etamadi, 2012; Mardani & Najmabadi, 2016) that found that extensive viewing of media is a useful tool for the language learning process.

In order to explore which aspects of English media viewing learners find particularly useful, the mean scores and standard deviations for the individual items of the usefulness construct of the main survey were analyzed (see Table 13 below).

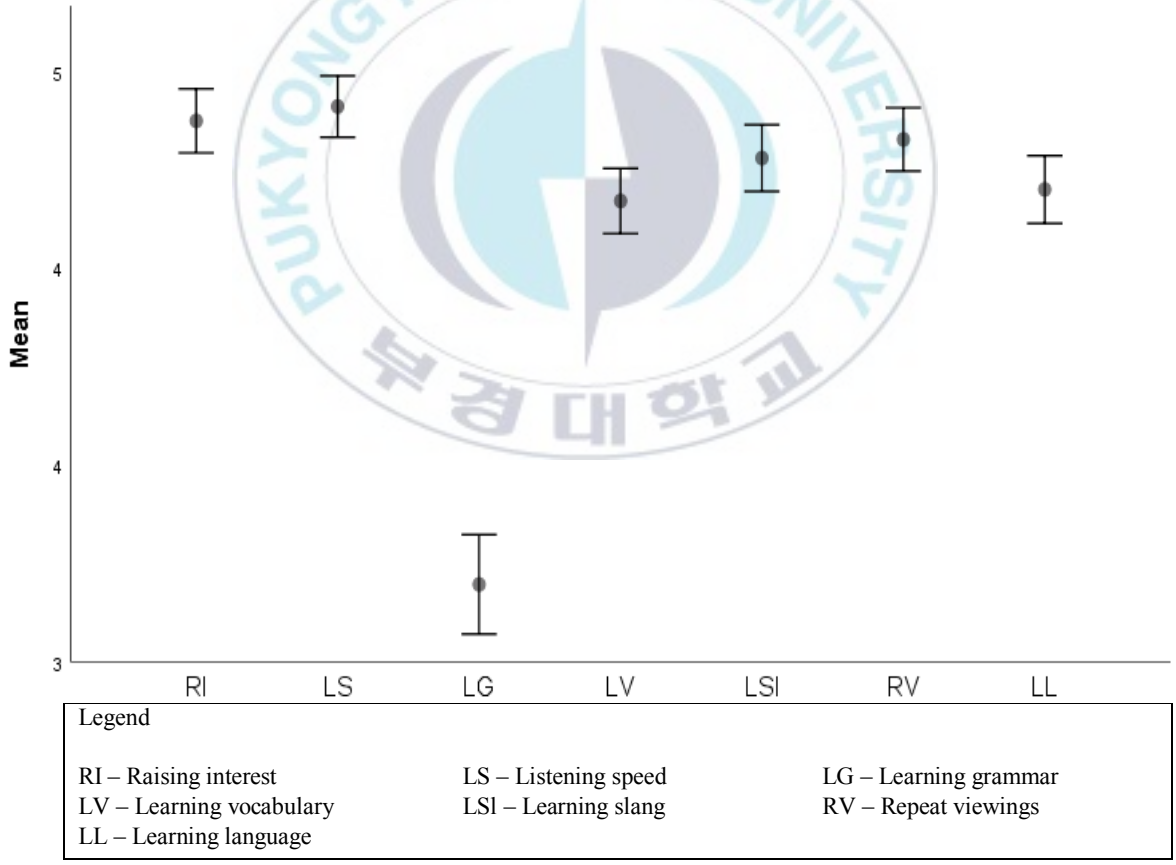
Table 13. Descriptive statistics of perceived usefulness of English media

	M	SD
Interest in language learning	4.37	.69
Listening speed	4.41	.66
Learning grammar	3.20	1.07
Learning vocabulary	4.17	.70
Learning slang	4.28	.71
Effectiveness of repeat viewings of media	4.33	.68
Beneficial for learning English	4.20	.73

The participants of this study consider media to be very useful for raising interest in language learning (M = 4.37, SD = .69), learning about culture (M = 4.50, SD = .59), improving listening speed (M = 4.41, SD = .69), learning vocabulary (M = 4.17, SD = .70), learning slang (M = 4.28, SD = .71), and learning English (M = 4.20, SD = .73). Furthermore, learners consider repeat viewings of media to be useful for language learning (M = 4.33, SD = .68). On the other hand, the participants of this study consider the usefulness of media for learning grammar (M = 3.20, SD = 1.07) to be not very useful.

95% confidence intervals of the means for the individual items of the usefulness construct were calculated, and the simple error bars are presented in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4. 95% confidence intervals of means for perceived usefulness of media



As can be seen in Figure 4, using media for learning grammar was a clear outlier in the group and was rated significantly lower than that of the other sources of usefulness of media

viewing. The error bars and 95% confidence intervals of the mean scores show that learners consider the usefulness of media in raising interest in language learning (M = 4.37, 95% CI [4.29, 4.46]), improving listening speed (M = 4.41, 95% CI [4.33, 4.49]), improving vocabulary (M = 4.17, 95% CI [4.09, 4.25]), improving knowledge of slang (M = 4.28, 95% CI [4.20, 4.36]), benefitting from repeat viewings (M = 4.33, 95% CI [4.25, 4.41]), and overall language learning (M = 4.20, 95% CI [4.11, 4.29]) to be statistically significantly more useful for language learning than for learning grammar (M = 3.20, 95% CI [3.07, 3.32]).

The participants of this study consider extensive viewing of English media to have relatively low value for learning grammar relative to other aspects of language learning. It is likely that over short periods of time, extensive viewing is unlikely to result in noticeable grammatical gains for language learners. Furthermore, there was no literature demonstrating potential for incidental syntactic growth through extensive viewing of English media.

It is, however, likely that extensive viewing over a long period of time and in conjunction with an intentional language learning program will produce grammar learning gains. Extensive viewing, as Ellis (2006) puts it, has the potential to function as an "extensive treatment of grammatical problems" (p. 102). That is, as students are developing hypotheses regarding what is being learned in the classroom regarding grammar usage, extensive viewing of media could function as either denying or confirming these hypotheses. This concept is not dissimilar to the role of the 'Hypothesis Testing Function' for language output in Swain's (2005) Output Hypothesis.

4.1.1.4 Familiarity with streaming media

In recent years, there has been a surge of streaming media platforms providing English media at an affordable price. Streaming media provides EFL learners with high quality content that can be accessed with relative ease. This study found that learners are very familiar with streaming media (M = 4.24, SD = .79). This is much higher than found in the

pilot survey (M = 3.41, SD = 1.50), suggesting that student awareness of streaming media services such as Netflix, which only came to South Korea within the past 5 years, was lagging and may be finally catching up. This is encouraging as high familiarity with streaming media may indicate that students are having more encounters with English input via extensive viewing.

4.1.1.5 Perceptions toward vocabulary learning through media

Because a goal of this study is to observe incidental vocabulary learning opportunities from watching English media and how it relates to learner perceptions, the Vocabulary Learning Survey is utilized to explore participants' perceptions of learning vocabulary through extensive viewing. A large number of studies have been devoted to exploring vocabulary learning through viewing media (Ina, 2014; Kuppens, 2010; Oetting, Rice & Swank, 1995; Rice & Woodsmall, 1988) and have shown that vocabulary can be learned incidentally through extensive viewing. This section explores students' perceptions toward the role of the story and visual aspect of media viewing, recycling and spacing of unknown vocabulary in media, and repeat viewing of a show in facilitating vocabulary acquisition. The descriptive statistics for these constructs of the Vocabulary Learning Survey can be found in Table 14 below.

Table 14. Descriptive statistics of the components of the Vocabulary Learning Survey

	M	SD
Story and visuals	3.81	.69
Lexical spacing and lexical recycling	3.91	.69
Repeat viewings	4.19	.57

The results in Table 14 show that learners have high perceptions of the potential for the story and visuals of media (M = 3.81, SD = .69), the lexical spacing and lexical recycling of

unknown words (M = 3.91, SD = .69), and the role of repeat viewings of media (M = 4.19, SD = .57) in facilitating vocabulary learning.

The overall perceptions of the facilitative effects of the story and visuals, as well as the lexical spacing and lexical recycling of unknown words are not surprising. These perceptions of lexical spacing and lexical recycling of unknown words align well with research that has shown that lexical recycling (Vidal, 2011; Webb, 2007) and opportunities for spaced retrievals of vocabulary from memory (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick & Bahrick, 1993; Carrier & Pashler, 1992; Nation & Wang, 1999) facilitate language acquisition. It did come as a surprise, however, that learners had such a high perception of the role of repeat viewings of media. It would be interesting to find out if learners are also motivated and have interest in repeat viewings of media. While watching a show more than one time may have value for language learning, it is likely that learners do not have a high level of interest in watching a single episode of a show more than once.

The individual items for the three constructs of the Vocabulary Learning Survey were further explored. The mean scores and standard deviations are presented in Table 15 below.

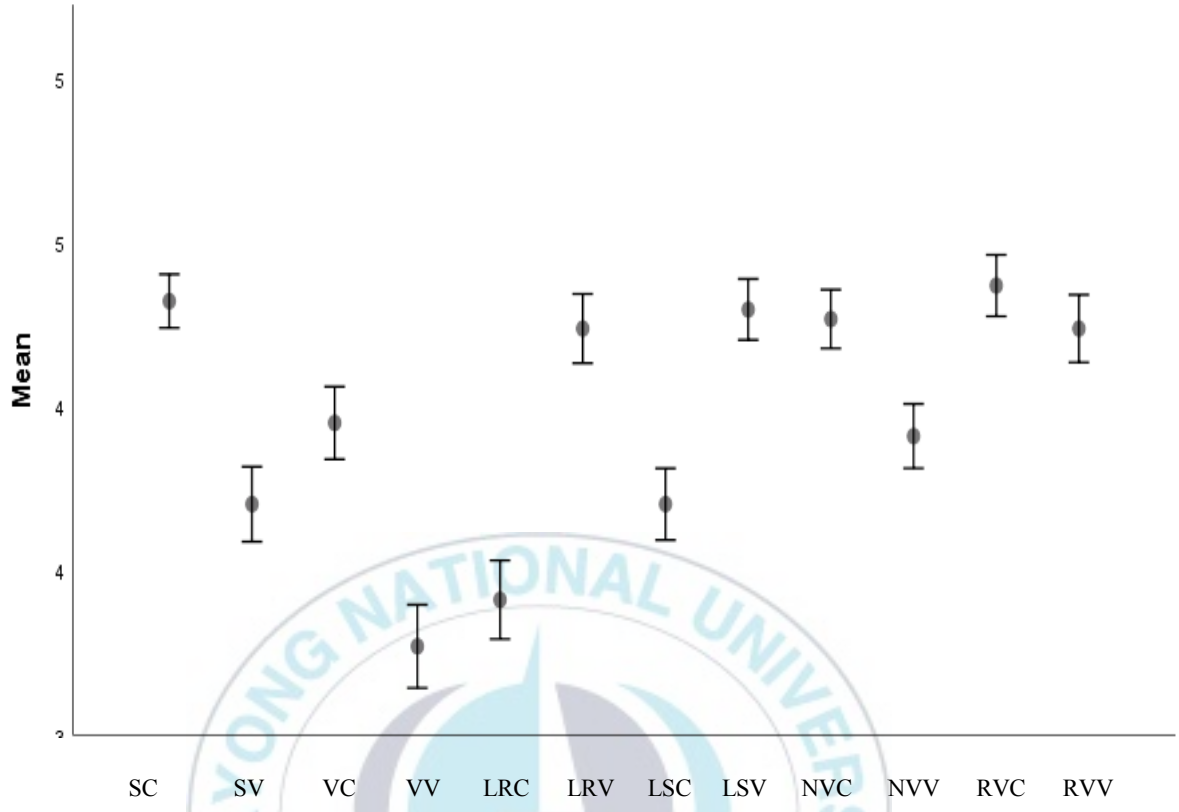
Table 15. Descriptive statistics of students' perceptions of effects of extensive viewing on lexical acquisition from the Vocabulary Learning Survey

	M	SD
An interesting story's effect on comprehension	4.32	.69
An interesting story's effect on facilitating vocabulary acquisition	3.70	.96
The effect of visuals on comprehension	3.95	.93
The effect of visuals on facilitating vocabulary acquisition	3.27	1.07
The effect of lexical recycling of unknown vocabulary on comprehension	3.41	1.01
The effect of lexical recycling of unknown vocabulary on facilitating vocabulary acquisition	4.24	.89
The effect of opportunities for spaced recycling of unknown vocabulary on comprehension	3.70	.92
The effect of opportunities for spaced recycling of vocabulary on facilitating vocabulary acquisition	4.29	.78
The effect of narrow viewing of a genre on comprehension	4.27	.75
The effect of narrow viewing of a genre on facilitating vocabulary acquisition	3.91	.83
The effect of repeat viewings of an episode on comprehension	4.37	.79
The effect of repeat viewings of an episode on facilitating vocabulary acquisition	4.24	.87

For the ‘story and visuals’ construct of the Vocabulary Learning Survey, learners considered an interesting story’s effect on comprehension (M = 4.32, SD = .69) to be more valuable than an interesting story’s effect on facilitating vocabulary acquisition (M = 3.70, SD = .96), the effect of visuals on comprehension (M = 3.95, SD = .93), and the effect of visuals on facilitating vocabulary acquisition (M = 3.27, SD = 1.07). For the ‘lexical spacing and lexical recycling’ construct, the participants rated the effect of lexical recycling of unknown vocabulary on facilitating vocabulary acquisition (M = 4.24, SD = .89), and the effect of lexical spacing of vocabulary on facilitating vocabulary acquisition (M = 4.29, SD = .78) to be more beneficial to vocabulary learning than the effect of lexical recycling of unknown vocabulary on comprehension (M = 3.41, SD = 1.01), and the effect of lexical spacing of unknown vocabulary on comprehension (M = 3.70, SD = .92). As for the ‘repeat viewings’ construct, the participants considered the effect of narrow viewing of a genre on comprehension (M = 4.27, SD = .75), the effect of repeat viewings of an episode on comprehension (M = 4.37, SD = .79), and the effect of repeat viewings of an episode on facilitating vocabulary acquisition (M = 4.24, SD = .87) to be more facilitative of vocabulary acquisition than the effect of narrow viewing of a genre on facilitating vocabulary acquisition (M = 3.91, SD = .83).

95% confidence intervals of the means were calculated in order to explore whether these differences were significant. The simple error bars for the individual items of the Vocabulary Learning Survey are shown in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5. 95% confidence intervals of means of students' perceptions of potential effects of extensive viewing on lexical acquisition from the Vocabulary Learning Survey



Legend

SC – Story's effect on comprehension	**SV** – Story's effect on vocabulary acquisition	**VC** – Visuals' effect on comprehension
VV – Visuals' effect on vocabulary acquisition	**LRC** – Lexical recycling's effect on comprehension	**LRV** – Lexical recycling's effect on vocabulary acquisition
LSC – Lexical spacing's effect on comprehension	**LSV** – Lexical spacing's effect on vocabulary acquisition	**NVC** – Narrow Viewing's effect on comprehension
NVV – Narrow viewing's effect on vocabulary acquisition	**RVC** – Repeat viewing's effect on comprehension	**RVV** – Repeat viewing's effect on vocabulary acquisition

Based on 95% confidence intervals of the mean scores for the individual items of the Vocabulary Learning Survey, the participants consider the storyline and visuals in media to be significantly more beneficial for comprehension (story's effect on comprehension, M = 4.32, 95% CI [4.24, 4.40]; visuals' effect on comprehension, M = 3.95, 95% CI [3.84, 4.06]) than for vocabulary acquisition (story's effect on vocabulary acquisition, M = 3.70, 95% CI [3.59, 3.82]; visuals' effect on vocabulary acquisition, M = 3.27, 95% CI [3.14, 3.40]). In contrast, the participants rated lexical recycling and lexical spacing to be significantly more

effective for vocabulary acquisition (lexical recycling's effect on vocabulary acquisition, M = 4.24, 95% CI [4.13, 4.34]; lexical spacing's effect on vocabulary acquisition, M = 4.29, 95% CI [4.20, 4.39]) than for comprehension of media (lexical recycling's effect on comprehension, M = 3.41, 95% CI [3.29, 3.53]; lexical spacing's effect on comprehension, M = 3.27, 95% CI [3.14, 3.40]). Furthermore, the participants of this study placed statistically significantly more value on repeat viewings of an episode for comprehension (M = 4.37, 95% CI [4.27, 4.46]), repeat viewings of an episode for lexical growth (M = 4.24, 95% CI [4.13, 4.34]), and narrow viewing for comprehension (M = 4.27, 95% CI [4.18, 4.35]) than they placed value on narrow viewing for lexical growth (M = 3.91, 95% CI [3.81, 4.01]).

It did not come as a surprise that learners consider the visuals and an interesting storyline to be more beneficial for comprehension than for vocabulary learning. Visuals and an interesting storyline are likely to increase viewer focus, thus increasing the chances that comprehension can take place. Despite these perspectives, increased comprehension is likely to increase the potential for incidental lexical acquisition for many learners.

It was encouraging that learners found value in vocabulary recycling and spaced vocabulary recycling for vocabulary acquisition. It shows that learners may be aware of their value for language learning. However, the most interesting of all of the responses from the participants from the Vocabulary Learning Survey was that they rated narrow viewing's effect on vocabulary acquisition significantly lower than they rated narrow viewing's effect on comprehension, repeat viewing's effect on vocabulary acquisition, and repeat viewing's effect on comprehension. Furthermore, narrow viewing's effect on vocabulary acquisition was also rated as significantly lower than lexical recycling's effect on vocabulary acquisition and lexical spacing's effect on vocabulary acquisition. It is clear from these results that the participants of this study may not believe that narrow viewing of media leads to lexical recycling and opportunities for spaced retrievals of vocabulary from memory. Despite this,

research has been quite clear that narrow viewing is conducive to both lexical recycling (Gardner, 2008; Webb, 2011) and lexical spacing (Nation & Wang, 1999; Webb & Rodgers, 2009).

4.1.2 Correlations between the constructs of the main survey

A correlational analysis of the constructs of the main survey was conducted in order to view relationships between learner interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media. A correlational analysis was conducted to find out how categories of perceptions are related to one another. Pearson correlation coefficients for each of the relationships can be found in Table 16 below.

Table 16. Correlations between the constructs of the main survey (N = 275)

	Interest	Difficulty	Usefulness
Difficulty	-.155*		
Usefulness	.275**	-.071	
Familiarity	.487**	-.144*	.286**

*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There was a statistically significant correlation between perceptions of interest and perceptions of usefulness of viewing media for language learning (r = .275, p = .000) and between interest and familiarity with streaming media (r = .487, p = .000). This shows that learners interested in viewing English media also find it useful. This may have come as a result of learners' personal experiences with English media, namely, that they may have felt that they learned language from watching media, thus discovering that it is a useful tool for language learning. As was expected, interest had a high correlation with familiarity with streaming media. This is likely due to learners having interest in English media, thus seeking out streaming media services. It is also possible that learners were exposed to streaming

media which caused their interest in media to increase. If this is the case, the teacher may have the potential of raising learner interest in media by introducing and motivating learners to watch streaming media.

Table 16 also shows that there is a negative correlation between perceived difficulty and interest ($r = -.155$, $p = .010$) and a negative correlation between perceived difficulty of English media and familiarity with streaming media ($r = -.144$, $p = .017$). This provides some evidence that perceived difficulty of English media may be detrimental to students' interest. Furthermore, due to the strong correlation between interest and familiarity reported above, a lack of experience and familiarity with streaming media, or perhaps English media in general, may lead learners to have higher perceptions of its difficulty. If this is true, mere exposure to English media may cause learners to perceive English media to be less difficult as a result of growing more accustomed to it.

As for the perceived usefulness of English media, there was a statistically significant correlation with familiarity ($r = .286$, $p = .000$). This implies that learners who are familiar with streaming media find it useful for language learning. A negligible correlation between perceived difficulty and perceived usefulness of English media perhaps shows that despite a perception of difficulty, learners acknowledge it as a useful tool for language learning.

4.1.3 The role of individual differences in extensive viewing of media

4.1.3.1 The role of proficiency in extensive viewing of media

Due to the difficulty of developing viewing resources that are leveled to the needs and abilities of language learners, proficiency is of particular importance when discussing extensive viewing of media. It is likely that many language learners will have difficulty watching television and movies in the target language. The difficulty of watching English media has been evidenced in research (Webb, 2011; Webb & Rodgers, 2009) showing that a

vocabulary size of 6000 words is needed in order to meet the threshold of 98%, an ideal condition for comprehension and incidental vocabulary acquisition. These studies have shown that learners who do not have knowledge of 6000 words will find English media challenging.

Studies have shown that more proficient learners are more capable of benefiting from lexical recycling (Vidal, 2011), and that more proficient learners process aural input more efficiently than less proficient learners do (Wolff, 1987 as cited in Rodgers, 2013). For these reasons, this study examines the role of proficiency in perceptions toward extensive viewing through student self-reported proficiency scores and through student scores on the Vocabulary Size Test.

Participants were asked to self-report their English proficiency compared to their peers as either below average, average, or above average. 44 learners reported as below average, 195 as average, and 36 as above average proficiency. Table 17 below displays descriptive statistics for each of the proficiency levels according to each of the four survey constructs of the main survey.

Table 17. Descriptive statistics of attitudes toward English media by students' self-reported proficiency levels

	proficiency	M	SD
Interest	Below average (n = 44)	3.27	1.12
	Average (n = 195)	3.84	.98
	Above average (n = 36)	4.27	.87
Difficulty	Below average (n = 44)	3.45	.54
	Average (n = 195)	3.14	.62
	Above average (n = 36)	2.52	.82
Usefulness	Below average (n = 44)	3.96	.50
	Average (n = 195)	4.11	.50
	Above average (n = 36)	4.50	.40
Familiarity	Below average (n = 44)	3.00	.85
	Average (n = 195)	4.25	.77
	Above average (n = 36)	4.52	.72

The mean learner interest in watching media was 3.27 (SD = 1.12) for below average proficiency, 3.84 (SD = .98) for average proficiency, and 4.27 (SD = .87) for above average proficiency. The mean perceived difficulty of English media was reported as 3.45 (SD = .54) for below average proficiency, 3.14 (SD = .62) for average proficiency, and 2.52 (SD = .82) for above average proficiency. With regard to perceived usefulness of English media, the participants reported as 3.96 (SD = .50) for below average proficiency, 4.11 (SD = .50) for average proficiency, and 4.50 (SD = .40) for above average proficiency. In terms of familiarity with streaming media, students reported as 3.00 (SD = .85) for below average proficiency, 4.25 (SD = .77) for average proficiency, and 4.52 (SD = .72) for above average proficiency.

In order to examine whether the means of the four constructs of the main survey were different according to proficiency levels, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The results are shown in Table 18 below.

Table 18. A one-way ANOVA of attitudes toward English media by self-reported proficiency levels

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Interest	Between Groups	20.84	2	10.42	10.66	.000
	Within Groups	265.71	272	.98		
	Total	286.55	274			
Usefulness	Between Groups	5.11	2	2.55	13.11	.000
	Within Groups	53.00	272	.20		
	Total	58.09	274			
Difficulty	Between Groups	17.79	2	8.89	22.09	.000
	Within Groups	109.50	272	.40		
	Total	127.29	274			
Familiarity	Between Groups	5.40	2	2.70	4.46	.012
	Within Groups	164.74	272	.61		
	Total	170.14	274			

There was a statistically significant effect of proficiency on all constructs of the main survey: interest in watching media (F = 10.66, p = .000), perceived usefulness of media for language

learning (F = 13.11, p = .000), perceived difficulty of media (F = 22.09, p = .000), and familiarity with streaming media (F = 4.46, p = .012).

A Scheffe post hoc test was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in means between the three proficiency groups in terms of interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness, and familiarity with streaming media. The results are shown in Table 19 below.

Table 19. Scheffe post hoc multiple comparisons of attitudes toward English media by self-reported proficiency levels

Dependent Variable	(I) proficiency	(J) proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p
Interest	Below avg.	Average	-.58*	.16	.002
		Above avg.	-1.00*	.22	.000
	Average	Below avg.	.578*	.16	.002
		Above avg.	-.43	.18	.061
	Above avg.	Below avg.	1.00*	.22	.000
		Average	.43	.18	.061
Difficulty	Below avg.	Average	.32*	.11	.013
		Above avg.	.93*	.14	.000
	Average	Below avg.	-.32*	.11	.013
		Above avg.	.62*	.12	.000
	Above avg.	Below avg.	-.93*	.14	.000
		Average	-.62*	.12	.000
Usefulness	Below avg.	Average	-.15	.08	.189
		Above avg.	-.54*	.11	.000
	Average	Below avg.	.15	.08	.189
		Above avg.	-.39*	.09	.000
	Above avg.	Below avg.	.54*	.11	.000
		Average	.39*	.09	.000
Familiarity	Below avg.	Average	-.25	.13	.148
		Above avg.	-.52*	.17	.013
	Average	Below avg.	.25	.13	.148
		Above avg.	-.27	.14	.170
	Above avg.	Below avg.	.52*	.17	.013
		Average	.27	.14	.170

The results indicate that there was a significant effect of proficiency on interest in watching media between below average and average proficiency (p = .002), and between below average and above average proficiency (p = .000). For perceived difficulty, there was a statistically significant effect between all of the proficiency levels (below average and average proficiency, p = .013; below average and above average proficiency, p = .000; average and above average proficiency, p = .000). There was a significant effect of proficiency on perceived usefulness between the below average and above average proficiency groups (p = .000) and between the average and above average proficiency groups (p = .000). There was only a significant effect of proficiency on familiarity with streaming media between the below average and above average proficiency groups (p = .013).

The results from the post hoc test indicate that more proficient learners are more interested in English media, find it less difficult, and have a higher perception of the usefulness of English media for language learning purposes. Furthermore, there is some indication that more proficient learners are more familiar with streaming media than less proficient learners.

The Vocabulary Size Test was utilized to estimate the participants' vocabulary size, and a correlational analysis was conducted in order to investigate how lexical proficiency and perceptions of English media are related. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 20 below.

Table 20. Correlations between the Vocabulary Size Test and attitudes toward English media (N = 275)

	Interest	Usefulness	Difficulty	Familiarity
Vocabulary Size	.268**	.277**	-.360**	.178**

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Lexical proficiency was found to show statistically significant correlations with interest (r = .268, p = .000), perceived usefulness of English media for language learning (r = .277, p = .000), and familiarity with streaming media (r = .178, p = .003). The results indicate that learners with higher vocabulary sizes tend to find English media more interesting and useful for language learning, and tend to be more familiar with streaming media. The results also show that there was a statistically significant negative relationship between vocabulary size and perceptions of difficulty (r = -.360, p = .008) indicating, as expected, that learners with a low vocabulary size find media more difficult than learners with higher vocabulary sizes.

Taking into consideration both indices of proficiency, the self-reported proficiency assessment and the results of the Vocabulary Size Test, there is evidence that there is a strong effect of proficiency on students' perceptions of the difficulty of English media. This is not surprising as English media has the potential of being quite difficult for most learners, and thus, learners with lower proficiency are likely to find media difficult. Furthermore, it is evident that proficiency plays a role in learner perceptions toward the usefulness of English media for language learning. This is likely due to higher proficiency learners being able to receive a higher learning effect from media viewing. Both indices of proficiency also show strong indication of effect on each of interest and familiarity with streaming media. In other words, students with higher perceptions of their proficiency and students with higher lexical proficiency tend to be more interested in English media and more familiar with streaming media.

4.1.3.2 The role of gender in extensive viewing

A few studies have presented evidence that gender plays a role in extensive learning. For extensive reading, Baker and Wigfield (1999) found that girls were more motivated to read than boys. Kuppens (1999) found that subtitling of movies had a stronger effect on girls than boys. The results of these two studies are interesting as subtitling does have a component of

reading. It is possible that boys are less motivated to read, and that they may be less receptive to subtitling of media. This could also affect perceptions of English media.

A total of 97 males and 178 females took part in this study. Table 21 below presents the descriptive statistics of perceptions of English media by gender.

Table 21. Descriptive statistics of attitudes toward English media by gender

	Gender	M	SD
Interest	Males (n = 97)	3.69	.99
	Females (n = 178)	3.87	1.04
Difficulty	Males (n = 97)	3.07	.67
	Females (n = 178)	3.12	.69
Usefulness	Males (n = 97)	4.12	.48
	Females (n = 178)	4.15	.52
Familiarity	Males (n = 97)	4.13	.76
	Females (n = 178)	4.31	.80

The results in Table 21 suggest that females are more interested in media (M = 3.87, SD = 1.04) than males (M = 3.69, SD = .99), and females perceive media to be more difficult (M = 3.12, SD = .69) than males (M = 3.07, SD = .67). It was also found that females consider English media to be more useful for language learning purposes (M = 4.15, SD = .52) than males (M = 4.12, SD = .48), and that females are more familiar with streaming media (M = 4.30, SD = .80) than males (M = 4.13, SD = .76).

In order to explore whether there was a statistically significant effect of gender on each of the four constructs of the main survey, independent sample t-tests were conducted utilizing gender as the independent variable and each of the four constructs as the dependent variables. The results are shown in Table 22 below.

Table 22. Independent sample t-tests of attitudes toward English media by gender

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
	F	p	p (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Interest	.323	.571	.181	-.17
Usefulness	.785	.376	.694	-.03
Difficulty	.003	.957	.569	-.05
Familiarity	.302	.583	.075	-.18

Levene's Test was performed to check for homogeneity of variances. The resulting p-values for interest, usefulness, difficulty, and familiarity were all more than .05, indicating that assumptions of homogeneity of variances were met. The mean differences show some indication of effects of gender on familiarity (p = .075), suggesting that females may be more familiar with streaming media. There were no statistically significant differences, however, between males and females for interest (p = .181), perceived difficulty (p = .569), and perceived usefulness (p = .694). Except for familiarity, there was no evidence that there are significant differences in perceptions of English media between males and females. It is unclear why females tend to be more familiar with streaming media than males.

4.1.3.3 Participants' experience with English media

This section explores how participants' experience with English media relates to the four areas of perceptions: student interest, perceived difficulty, perceived usefulness and familiarity with streaming media. In this study, participants' experience with English media was operationally defined by a television show recognition test and a survey of the participants' self-reported streaming media practices. Furthermore, experience with English media was explored in terms of whether students have had personal access with an online streaming media account.

The television show recognition test developed for this study was constructed to examine learner knowledge of current popular American television shows. A correlational analysis

was conducted in order to explore the relationship between participants' knowledge of television show names and their perceptions of English media. The results are shown in Table 23 below.

Table 23. Correlations between show recognition and attitudes toward English media (N = 275)

	Interest	Usefulness	Difficulty	Familiarity
Show recognition test score	.233**	.146*	-.181**	.254**

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The participants' experience with English media, operationally defined through the show recognition test, was found to show statistically significant correlations with interest (r = .233, p = .000), perceived usefulness of English media for language learning (r = .146, p = .015), and familiarity with streaming media (r = .254, p = .000). The results also show that there was a statistically significant negative correlation between the show recognition test and perceptions of difficulty of media (r = -.155, p = .010), indicating that learners who have more experience with English media tend to find viewing media less difficult.

The participants of this study were also surveyed regarding their self-reported experience and habits in utilizing English media. A correlational analysis was conducted in order to explore how self-reported experience with media and perceptions of English media are related. The results can be found in Table 24 below.

Table 24. Correlations between self-reported experience with media and attitudes toward English media (N = 275)

	Interest	Usefulness	Difficulty	Familiarity
Self-reported experience	.685**	.205**	-.224**	.658**

**Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results presented in Table 24 show that self-reported experience with English media correlates significantly with all four constructs (a significantly negative correlation for difficulty) of the main survey (interest, r = .685, p = .000; usefulness, r = .205, p = .001; difficulty, r = -.224, p = .000; familiarity with streaming media, r = .685, p = .000). These results indicate that learners who have more experience with media find media to be more interesting, more useful, and are more familiar with streaming media. Furthermore, more experienced learners find English media to be less difficult than learners who have less experience with media viewing.

For item 25 of the main survey, students were asked whether they have had personal experience utilizing an English online streaming media account. Table 25 below presents mean scores and standard deviations for students that reported either having had or having not had personal experience with an online streaming media account.

Table 25. Descriptive statistics of attitudes toward English media by streaming account ownership

	account	M	SD
Interest	No (n = 100)	3.29	1.04
	Yes (n = 175)	4.10	.89
Difficulty	No (n = 100)	3.23	.70
	Yes (n = 175)	3.03	.67
Usefulness	No (n = 100)	4.08	.51
	Yes (n = 175)	4.17	.51
Familiarity	No (n = 100)	3.58	.78
	Yes (n = 175)	4.62	.48

A total of 100 students reported not having had personal experience with an online streaming media account and 175 reported otherwise. The results show that those that have had personal access to a streaming account were more interested in English media (yes, M = 4.10, SD = .89; no, M = 3.29, SD = 1.04), find English media less difficult (yes, M = 3.03, SD = .67; no, M = 3.23, SD = .70), deem English media more useful for language learning (yes, M =

4.17, SD = .51; no, M = 4.08, SD = .51), and are more familiar with streaming media (yes, M = 4.62, SD = .48; no, M = 3.58, SD = .78) than those that have not had an account.

In order to explore whether there were statistically significant differences in means between those that have had personal access with an online streaming account and those that have not, independent sample t-tests were conducted. The independent sample t-tests utilized account ownership as the independent variable and each of the constructs of the main survey as the dependent variables. The results can be seen in Table 26 below.

Table 26. Independent sample t-tests of attitudes toward English media by streaming account ownership

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	p	p	Mean Difference
Interest	Equal variances assumed	7.288	.007	.000	.82
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	.82
Usefulness	Equal variances assumed	.163	.687	.181	.09
	Equal variances not assumed			.183	.09
Difficulty	Equal variances assumed	.001	.978	.020	-.20
	Equal variances not assumed			.022	-.20
Familiarity	Equal variances assumed	26.940	.000	.000	1.04
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	1.04

Levene's Test was performed to check for homogeneity of variances. The resulting p-values for interest, usefulness, and difficulty were all more than .05, indicating that the assumptions of homogeneity of variances were met. The familiarity construct was less than .05 on the Levene's Test, and thus equal variances are not assumed. The results of the t-tests show statistically significant differences of means for interest (p = .000). The results for the interest and familiarity constructs signify, as expected, that students who have had personal access with a streaming account tend to be more interested in streaming media. Furthermore, the mean differences show statistical significance for perceived difficulty of media (p = .020), indicating that students who have had personal access with an account find media to be less difficult. The mean differences in regards to perceived usefulness were not significant (p =

0.181). Both groups have high perceptions of the usefulness of media for language learning (yes, M = 4.17, SD = .51; no, M = 4.08, SD = .51), suggesting that both groups consider media viewing to be a useful way to advance their interlanguage. An independent samples Mann-Whitney U non-parametric test was conducted for the familiarity construct and confirmed that the distribution was not the same across categories. The resulting p-value was significant (.000), indicating that learners who have had personal access to a streaming account are, as expected, more familiar with streaming media.

This study utilized a show recognition test, a self-reported experience survey construct, and account ownership to explore whether learners that have more experience with streaming media perceive English media differently than less experienced learners. The analysis heeded some interesting results.

All three measures of experience with English media and how it relates to student interest exhibit evidence of correlation. This is not a surprise as learner interest is likely to have influenced their decisions to seek out English media in the first place. The three measures of learner experience with English media and how it relates to familiarity with streaming media also shows strong correlation. This was expected as these results are largely redundant since those that are familiar with streaming media are also likely to have had more experience with it.

The results for experience with English media and how it relates to perceptions toward its difficulty and usefulness also exhibited correlation. For perceived difficulty, all three indices of experience indicated that experience with English media has a negative correlation with perceived difficulty. In other words, there is evidence that experience with media has led participants to believe that media is less difficult. Perceived usefulness showed strong correlation with two of the three experience indices signifying that experience with English media has caused learners to perceive it as a useful tool for language learning.

Most interestingly, the three indices of experience with English media viewing suggest that learners with a good deal of experience with English media differ significantly from learners with little viewing experience. Learners with experience with media viewing appear to have more overall positive perceptions toward media. The results indicate that they are more interested in English media, perceive it to be more useful, perceive media to be less difficult, and are more familiar with streaming media. Taken together, this provides some evidence for the importance that experience with media plays in raising positive perceptions toward extensive viewing of English media. The teacher may play an important role in introducing learners to English media in an attempt to raise learner experience and learner perceptions of media viewing.

4.2 Lexical learning opportunities in streaming media

This section explores the fourth and fifth research questions regarding the lexical coverage of streaming media and the vocabulary learning potential of watching a streaming media series and of within genre viewing of streaming media. Focus will be placed on lexical coverage, lexical recycling, and the opportunities streaming media provides for spaced retrievals of vocabulary. It is hoped that we may be able to see whether students' perceptions of media viewing align with the vocabulary learning potential of media viewing.

4.2.1 Lexical coverage of streaming media

This section will first take a look at the lexical coverage of six streaming media shows as well as the two random genre lists in order to explore their lexical difficulty. The respective genres of the shows will then be analysed according to their 1000 word frequency bands in order to explore their relative lexical loads. Three genres including comedy, action/superhero, and horror will be analysed alongside the combined random genres group. Each genre

consists of two shows, and the two random genres lists each consist of a variety of random shows. The number of tokens for each of the eight lists was kept constant in order to explore the number of word families present in each of the corpuses. The number of word families for the three genres and how they compare with the random lists will be looked at in more detail below.

4.2.1.1 Lexical coverage of streaming media shows

The cumulative coverage of the six streaming media shows and the two random genres lists, as well as the percentage of off-list words, tokens, and families are presented in Table 27 below. Data from the Vocabprofile software at lextutor.ca was manually inputted into excel in order to avoid a rounding effect. Vocabprofile rounds the first decimal point down, which causes relatively significant effects on the cumulative percentage as it calculates down the 25k word lists. The cumulative percentages found in Table 27 will be equal to 100% as it includes the off-list words, and every word in each of the corpuses is accounted for. All marginal words and proper nouns were added to the 1k word list.

Table 27. Lexical coverage of streaming media shows

Word list	Comedy genre		Action/superhero genre		Horror genre		Random genres	
	The Good Place	*Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt*	*Daredevil*	*Jessica Jones*	*Stranger Things*	*The Haunting of Hill House*	Random genres list #1	Random genres list #2
K1	90.96	91.65	92.86	90.73	93.36	**95.16***	92.87	92.71
K2	94.68	**95.25***	**96.32***	**95.06***	**96.52***	97.64	**96.24***	**96.12***
K3	**96.09***	96.40	97.71	96.72	97.55	**98.39****	97.42	97.52
K4	97.17	97.24	**98.39****	97.49	**98.11****	98.84	**98.18****	**98.24****
K5	97.87	97.91	98.83	**98.09****	98.55	99.17	98.64	98.74
K6	**98.29****	**98.42****	99.05	98.38	98.88	99.42	98.95	99.03
K7	98.56	98.64	99.17	98.70	99.02	99.56	99.17	99.21
K8	98.73	98.88	99.34	98.93	99.24	99.70	99.30	99.34
K9	98.88	99.04	99.40	99.08	99.36	99.80	99.46	99.46
K10	98.99	99.12	99.48	99.27	99.44	99.83	99.56	99.55
K11	99.10	99.21	99.51	99.37	99.57	99.87	99.64	99.62
K12	99.18	99.32	99.54	99.42	99.61	99.90	99.69	99.67
K13	99.27	99.41	99.56	99.47	99.66	99.92	99.74	99.72
K14	99.40	99.44	99.59	99.49	99.70	99.93	99.77	99.74
K15	99.44	99.48	99.61	99.51	99.71	99.94	99.80	99.76
K16	99.46	99.52	99.62	99.51	99.72	99.95	99.82	99.78
K17	99.49	99.56	99.62	99.53	99.74	99.95	99.83	99.82
K18	99.51	99.57	99.62	99.53	99.76	99.95	99.84	99.84
K19	99.52	99.58	99.63	99.54	99.77	99.96	99.85	99.85
K20	99.54	99.59	99.63	99.55	99.78	99.96	99.87	99.86
K21	99.55	99.61	99.63	99.56	99.78	99.96	99.88	99.87
K22	99.55	99.61	99.63	99.57	99.78	99.96	99.89	99.88
K23	99.56	99.61	99.64	99.57	99.80	99.96	99.89	99.88
K24	99.56	99.62	99.64	99.57	99.80	99.96	99.89	99.88
K25	99.56	99.62	99.64	99.57	99.80	99.96	99.89	99.89
Off-list words	0.44	0.38	0.36	0.43	0.2	0.04	0.11	0.11
Including off-list words	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Tokens	45,936	45,936	45,936	45,936	45,936	45,936	45,936	45,936
Families	2607	2826	2347	2620	1984	1946	2623	2440

The results of the lexical coverage analysis of the streaming media shows are shown in Table 27 above. Knowing the lexical coverage is important as it helps teachers and learners gauge the vocabulary size necessary for comprehension of a text. The table shows that the lexical demand of the respective shows and random show lists varies quite drastically at the

95% and 98% coverage thresholds. Knowledge of 3000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words is necessary for 95% coverage of *The Good Place* (96.09%), 2000 words for *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* (95.25%), *Daredevil* (96.32%), *Jessica Jones* (95.06%), *Stranger Things* (96.52%), random genres list #1 (96.24%), and random genres list #2 (96.12%), and knowledge of 1000 words for *The Haunting of Hill House* (95.16%). As for the 98% coverage levels, knowledge of 6000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words is required for *The Good Place* (98.29%) and *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* (98.42%), 5000 word families for *Jessica Jones* (98.09%), 4000 word families for *Daredevil* (98.39%), *Stranger Things* (98.11%), random genres list #1 (98.18%), and random genres list #2 (98.24%), and 3000 word families for *the Haunting of Hill House* (98.39%).

Overall, the results of this analysis are quite surprising. Most of the shows paint far more optimistic lexical load conditions when compared to previous studies. While both Webb and Rodgers (2009) and Webb (2011) found that knowledge of 3000 word families are necessary for 95% coverage, most of the programs in this current study, including the two random genres lists, require knowledge of only 2000 or 1000 word families. *The Good Place* is the only show that requires knowledge of 3000 word families for 95% coverage. As for the 98% coverage threshold, only the two comedy shows, *The Good Place* and *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt*, were found to require knowledge of 6000 word families as was found to be required for meeting the 98% threshold of movies in Webb and Rodger's (2009) study. All other shows, including the two random genre lists, required only 5000 words or fewer. The most surprising of all the results was from *The Haunting of Hill House*. Astonishingly, the analysis shows that knowledge of only 1000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words is necessary for 95% coverage and 3000 words for 98% coverage. This result provides more evidence that the horror genre has a lesser lexical load than other genres as was found in Webb and Rodgers' (2009) research. The lexical load in this study, however, is much less

than Webb and Rodgers' (2009) study which found that knowledge of 3000 words and 5000 words were necessary for coverage of the horror genre at 95% and 98%, respectively.

There are several reasons that may explain the relatively low lexical load of the shows in this study. First of all, it is important to point out that the off-list words were substantially fewer than found in previous studies. We will look at the percentage of tokens that fall outside of the 14 1K word frequency bands for comparison with both Webb and Rodgers (2009) and Webb (2011). Both of these studies utilized 14 frequency bands for their analysis. This current study found that the percentage of tokens outside of the 14 1000 word frequency bands were 0.60% (*The Good Place*), 0.56% (*Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt*), 0.41% (*Daredevil*), 0.51% (*Jessica Jones*), 0.30% (*Stranger Things*), 0.07% (*The Haunting of Hill House*), 0.23% (random genres list #1), and 0.26% (random genres list #2). This is significantly lower than Webb and Rodgers (2009) which found that the average percentage of K14+ words for American and British movies was 0.85%, and Webb (2011) which found that the percentage of K14+ words for the Medical subgenre was 1.38%, the Spy/action subgenre was 0.64%, and the criminal forensic investigation subgenre was 0.93%. The lower percentage of K14+ words most likely played a significant role in the relatively high coverage of the shows analysed in this current study.

Second, previous studies utilized extremely large corpuses which would have made manual analysis quite tedious. The corpuses used for the six shows and two random show lists in this study were relatively small and allowed for a careful analysis of every word. For example, proper nouns that were not found on the proper nouns list in lextutor.ca's VocabProfile software were manually reassigned to the 1000 frequency band list. The same was done manually for marginal words. Misspelled words in the script were corrected, and intentional mispronunciation, such as 'goin'', were given their traditional spelling to make readable to the software.

Third, compound nouns were treated differently than was done in previous studies. Vocabprofile software at lextutor.ca now offers a function that helps identify and break apart compound nouns. Words that are not assigned to a K-level are analyzed by the program to see if a word can be made out of its first seven letters. If it can make a word, the program then evaluates whether a word can be formed out of the remaining letters. If this is possible, the word will be broken apart and reanalyzed by the software. This was likely to have an influence on the relatively low percentage of K14+ words found in this study as many compound words have been traditionally classified as off-list.

Finally, it is possible that the shows utilized in this study had a lower lexical load than those of previous studies. Webb and Rodgers' (2009) study analyzed the lexical load of British and American movies, some of which dated back several decades. This current study utilizes shows that are currently popular this year and can be found on streaming media platforms. This may provide some evidence that current media, and more specifically current streamed media, has a lower lexical load. This may be a result of streaming platforms' desire to make streaming media shows more relevant outside of English speaking markets. Thus, we may be seeing a change in media that has content and vocabulary that is simplified in order to make it appealing to more users. As for Webb's (2011) study, it is possible that the shows utilized had more specialized vocabulary relating to medical and forensic terminology. The shows utilized in this current study, however, portray contexts that are not likely to utilize a large amount of specialized terminology.

Both comedy programs in this study, *The Good Place* and the *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt*, were found to have higher vocabulary loads than the two random genres lists. This provides some evidence that comedy may have a higher lexical load than the average television show. One horror show, *The Haunting of Hill House*, was found to have a much lower lexical load than the two random genres lists. This aligns with Webb and Rodgers'

(2009) findings that horror may be the easiest genre in terms of lexical load. However, *Stranger Things* was found to have a higher lexical load than *Haunting of Hill House,* reminding us that there is likely to be disparity of lexical difficulty within a genre.

Despite the possible reasons for the relative ease of the shows explored in this study, the results suggest that streaming media may have a lower lexical load than expected. In other words, knowledge of high-frequency vocabulary plus proper nouns and marginal words may provide more comprehension and learning opportunities for learners with smaller vocabulary sizes than indicated in previous studies. The results also suggest that the lexical load of media can vary significantly, and this should be considered by teachers and learners when deciding what show to watch.

4.2.1.2 Lexical coverage of streaming media genres

Each of the two shows from each genre and the two random genres lists were combined to explore the lexical load by genre, and the results are displayed in Table 28 below. Just as in the analysis of the individual shows, Table 28 includes the cumulative coverage of the word lists from BNC COCA 25, the off-list words list, and the total number of tokens and families.

The results of the analysis of the three genres and the random genres list show that knowledge of 3000 words plus proper nouns and marginal words is required to meet the 95% threshold for the comedy genre (96.25%), while knowledge of 2000 words is needed for action/superhero (95.70%), horror (97.08%), and the random genres list (96.19%). As for 98% coverage, knowledge of 6000 words is required for the comedy genre (98.36%), 5000 words for action/superhero (98.46%), and 4000 words for horror (98.48%) and the random genres list (98.21%). Once again, the lexical load for all genres is lower than that found in previous studies.

Table 28. Lexical coverage by genre

Word list	Comedy genre	Action genre	Horror genre	Random genres
K1	91.31	91.80	94.27	92.79
K2	94.97	**95.70***	**97.08***	**96.19***
K3	**96.25***	97.22	97.98	97.47
K4	97.21	97.94	**98.48****	**98.21****
K5	97.90	**98.46****	98.87	98.70
K6	**98.36****	98.72	99.15	98.99
K7	98.61	98.94	99.29	99.20
K8	98.81	99.14	99.47	99.32
K9	98.96	99.25	99.58	99.46
K10	99.06	99.38	99.64	99.56
K11	99.16	99.44	99.72	99.64
K12	99.25	99.49	99.76	99.69
K13	99.34	99.52	99.80	99.73
K14	99.42	99.54	99.82	99.76
K15	99.47	99.56	99.83	99.79
K16	99.49	99.57	99.84	99.81
K17	99.53	99.58	99.85	99.83
K18	99.55	99.58	99.86	99.84
K19	99.56	99.59	99.87	99.86
K20	99.57	99.60	99.87	99.87
K21	99.58	99.60	99.87	99.88
K22	99.59	99.60	99.87	99.89
K23	99.59	99.61	99.88	99.89
K24	99.59	99.61	99.88	99.89
K25	99.60	99.61	99.89	99.89
Off-list words	0.4	0.39	0.11	0.11
Including off-list words	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Tokens	91,872	91,872	91,872	91,872
Families	3,853	3,403	2,767	3,507

The K14+ words for the genres exhibited a lower percentage of tokens than previous studies. The percentage of tokens outside of the 14 1000 word frequency bands was 0.38% (comedy), 0.46% (action/superhero), 0.18% (horror), and 0.24% (the random genres list). This is similar to what was found in the previous section's analysis of the individual

streaming media programs. Once again, this was likely to play a significant role in the relatively easy lexical load found in this current study.

Comparing the comedy, action/superhero, and horror genres to the random genres list provides some insight into their relative difficulty. The comedy genre was found to have a higher lexical load at both the 95% and 98% coverage thresholds than the random genres list. Furthermore, action/superhero was found to have a higher lexical load than the random genres list at the 98% threshold. While both the action/superhero genre and the random genres list required knowledge of 2000 words to cross the 95% coverage point, the action/superhero genre had a lower coverage percentage. These results indicate that comedy and action/superhero may lexically be more difficult than average since both were found to have a higher lexical load than the random genres list. Horror was found to have the lowest lexical load and was also found to be the only genre to have a lower lexical load than the random genres for the 98% coverage threshold. While both the random genres list and the horror genre list reached 95% coverage at the 2000 frequency list, the horror genre list had a much higher coverage percentage.

It did not come as a surprise that horror has the lowest lexical load of the three genres. While comedy will most often have to depend on linguistic elements to provide context for humour, visual effects of horror media will often provide the context while language is used to describe what is being seen. While this is potentially an overgeneralization of comedy and horror media, it may hold true for many of the shows within these genres. Having watched and shown both *The Good Place* and *The Haunting of Hill House* to EFL students in South Korea, these generalizations are likely true for these two shows. *The Good Place*, while not an overly complicated show, requires comprehension of what is being spoken in order to understand why the characters are in their precarious circumstances. Conversely with *The Haunting of Hill House*, it is visually contextually quite clear that the conflict challenging the

characters is clearly a result of what can be visually surmised, and that the characters are merely voicing what can be seen. Going forward, it is likely that this will be the case for other shows within these genres.

Despite the relatively low lexical load of the shows and genres utilized for this study, the students found unknown vocabulary to be a source of difficulty for English media (M = 3.27, SD = .96). This is not a surprise as the majority of students in this study are likely to have a vocabulary size of fewer than 5000 words. As was seen earlier, there was a significant effect of both proficiency indices on perceptions toward the difficulty of media. Lexical proficiency in particular is likely to play an important role in the perceived difficulty of the vocabulary in media. A higher vocabulary size indicates that a learner will have a higher lexical coverage of a text. This study found that vocabulary size has a statistically significant negative correlation with perceived difficulty of English media ($r = -.360$, $p = .008$). In other words, learners who have a higher vocabulary size perceive English media to be less difficult. This is most likely the result of more proficient learners having a higher lexical coverage of and fewer encounters with unknown words in media.

Despite the lexical coverage analysis of this study indicating lexical load being relatively low when compared to previous research, the difficulty construct of the main survey revealed other possible reasons for learner difficulty when watching media. The participants of this study indicated that they perceive speed of speech in media (M = 3.68, SD = 1.04) to be of particular difficulty. The participants reported speed of speech in media to be statistically significantly more difficult than the unknown vocabulary. The coverage thresholds of the horror genre and the random shows list crossed the 98% coverage threshold at the 4K frequency band. This is a vocabulary size that many of the participants of this study are likely to have. Despite this, 98% coverage will not always imply that students are achieving ideal comprehension of the show. Speed of speech in media is likely to be a substantial burden for

learners and will increase perceptions of the difficulty of media. Furthermore, this may offer some insight as to why learners consider vocabulary to be such a difficult aspect of viewing, namely that the speed of speech in media makes the linguistic content, including unknown vocabulary, difficult to discern.

The student experience with media indices from the main survey reveal a possible solution for reducing the perceived difficulty of media. All three indices of experience with media provided evidence that there was a negative relationship between experience and perceived difficulty of media. This suggests that learners who have more experience with media tend to find media to be less difficult. It is likely that if learners gain experience through viewing media, they will grow accustomed to the speed and language that is used.

Fortunately, the students that participated in this study appear to agree that experience will benefit their listening skills. The results of the main survey indicated that learners consider watching media to be very useful for language learning (M = 4.14, SD = .51). In particular, the participants rated media viewing as being very useful for improving their listening speed (M = 4.41, SD = .66).

Subtitling may be another solution for the perceived difficulty of media in the initial stages of an extensive viewing program. The participants of this study rated media viewing without the aid of subtitles to be difficult (M = 3.84, SD = .98). Thus, subtitles may be a necessary crutch in order to maintain interest in media. Subtitles can then be relaxed as learners gain more confidence and experience in watching English media.

4.2.2 Lexical recycling in streaming media

Lexical recycling provides learners with opportunities to learn the various aspects of vocabulary knowledge and to see vocabulary being used in a variety of contexts. There is a lot that can be learned about a vocabulary word. Nation (2001a) identified 18 different aspects of word knowledge that are necessary for complete lexical acquisition. This

knowledge, according to Nation, includes the productive and receptive knowledge of different aspects of lexical form, meaning, and use.

Lexical recycling also plays a role in retention of lexical knowledge. Vidal's (2011) study found that for reading, as few as 3 encounters with a word lead to a sharp increase in retention. As for the listening group, there was a sharp increase in lexical retention upon the sixth encounter. Vidal's study signifies that while lexical recycling may show more effective gains for reading, listening is also an effective medium for lexical retention from repetition. The relatively slow rate of learning for the listening group may be a result of differences between the inherent nature of reading and listening. Reading a text allows learners to adjust their speed and savour unknown words for a longer period of time, whereas the listening of a text does not allow learners to speed up or slow down when encountering lexical difficulty in a text. Of course, this is true for both native and non-native speakers. The lower score for the listening compared to the reading group may also explain why higher proficiency learners were able to perform better on the vocabulary post-tests. The higher proficiency learners were most likely more equipped to deal with the speed of the listening text. For this reason, Vidal (2011) points out that vocabulary recycling is likely to be more beneficial to higher proficiency learners for listening texts. Vidal (2011) also argues that aural input is more effective than written input as a result of gains shown from the immediate post-test showing less lexical decay in the delayed post-test for the listening group.

Other studies have explored the number of encounters with a word and its effect on retention. Webb (2007) explored the effects of lexical recycling on various aspects of word knowledge and found that 10 repetitions are needed to acquire 'full knowledge.' Furthermore, Nation (2014) highlights 12 encounters as the minimum number necessary for acquisition.

This study will adopt Webb's (2007) number of 10 encounters in order to explore learning opportunities within each show and within each genre. 10 encounters, while not

necessarily providing learners with full knowledge of a word, as Webb (2007) argues, is likely to allow learners to develop a multifaceted understanding of a word that is likely to include receptive and productive knowledge of the word's form, meaning, and use.

Furthermore, this section will explore recycling of mid-frequency vocabulary that lies between K4 and K8 as identified in Schmitt and Schmitt (2014). In order to reach the 95% coverage threshold necessary for adequate comprehension of most authentic texts, at least 4000-5000 word families plus proper nouns would be required (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010). For this reason, high-frequency words are not sufficient for adequate comprehension of authentic texts. Furthermore, Nation (2006) identified a vocabulary size of 8000-9000 word families as sufficient for reading a wide variety of authentic texts. For these reasons, mid-frequency vocabulary plays an important role in preparing learners for being able to comprehend authentic texts, and is likely to play an important role in preparing learners for unassisted extensive viewing of media.

4.2.2.1 Recycling of "useful" words in streaming media shows

In order to examine the recycling of "useful" words in each of the six streaming media shows and two random genres lists, we will first take a look at the total number of word families. The results are shown in Table 29 below. The number of "useful" words of the six streaming media shows and two random shows lists should be noted. In the table, "useful" words are classified by their number of encounters and as the percentage of the total "useful" word families from each show corpus.

Table 29. Recycling of "useful" words in streaming media shows

Number of Encounters	Comedy genre				Action/superhero genre				Horror genre				Random genres			
	The Good Place		*Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt*		*Daredevil*		*Jessica Jones*		*Stranger Things*		*The Haunting of Hill House*		Random show list #1		Random show list #2	
	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%
1 encounter	344	67.98	380	63.65	290	69.54	374	70.03	121	39.80	211	69.18	348	67.83	281	64.89
2 encounters	75	14.82	107	17.92	73	17.50	92	17.22	106	34.86	45	14.75	96	18.71	73	16.85
3-4 encounters	36	7.11	76	12.73	34	8.15	48	8.98	45	14.80	32	10.49	45	8.77	44	10.16
5-6 encounters	20	3.95	17	2.84	12	2.87	11	2.05	11	3.61	4	1.31	11	2.14	20	4.61
7-9 encounters	15	2.96	8	1.34	3	0.71	4	0.74	10	3.28	6	1.96	9	1.75	10	2.30
10+ encounters	16	3.16	9	1.50	5	1.19	5	0.93	11	3.61	7	2.29	4	0.77	5	1.15
Total "useful" word families	506		597		417		534		304		305		513		433	
Total "useful" tokens with 10+ encounters	341		155		149		103		164		83		46		56	
Mean encounters for 10+	21.31		17.22		29.8		17.16		14.909		11.85		11.50		11.20	
Tokens	45,936		45,936		45,936		45,936		45,936		45,936		45,936		45,936	
Families	2,607		2,826		2,347		2,620		1,984		1,946		2,623		2,440	

Table 29 above demonstrates which shows provide learners with the most 10+ "useful" word repetitions. While 10 is considered in this study to be the minimal number of repetitions to meet the requirements for word learning, a higher number is likely to provide better conditions for lexical acquisition. For this reason, we will also take a look at the mean number of repetitions for the 10+ encounter words. *The Good Place* (16; M = 21.31) contained the most number of "useful" words that were repeated 10 or more times followed by *Stranger Things* (11; M = 14.909), *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* (9; M = 17.22), *The Haunting of Hill House* (7; M = 11.85), *Daredevil* (5; M = 29.8), *Jessica Jones* (5; M = 17.16), random genres list #2 (5; M = 11.20), and random genres list #1 (4; M = 11.50).

Most of the shows in the three genres also displayed a higher rate of 10+ word encounters to total "useful" word families than the random genres lists. *Stranger things* (3.61%), *The Good Place* (3.16%), *The Haunting of Hill House* (2.29%), *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* (1.50%), and *Daredevil* (1.19%) all had a higher rate of 10+ word encounters than the random genres lists (random genres list #1, 0.77%; random genres list #2, 1.15%). Only *Jessica Jones* was not able to perform better than both of the random genres lists in this regard (0.93%).

The results provide some evidence that watching a streaming media program is advantageous in terms of lexical recycling when compared to watching a series of random streaming media programs. All programs in the three genres were found to provide better conditions for learning vocabulary. While *Daredevil* and *Jessica Jones* had the same number of 10+ "useful" word families as the two random genres lists, the mean number of encounters of the 10+ "useful" words is higher and likely to provide better conditions for lexical acquisition.

4.2.2.2 Recycling of "useful" words in streaming media genres

Just as in the previous section, we will first observe the total amount of word families found in each of the three genres and the random genres list. We will also explore the number of encounters of "useful" words that are occurring in each genre and the random genres list. The results are shown in Table 30 below.

Table 30. Recycling of "useful" words by genre

Number of Encounters	Comedy genre		Action genre		Horror genre		Random genres	
	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%	"Useful" word families	%
1 encounter	577	60.41	517	64.06	300	52.26	484	59.90
2 encounters	161	16.85	130	16.10	134	23.34	148	18.31
3-4 encounters	116	12.14	104	12.88	84	14.63	105	12.99
5-6 encounters	40	4.18	31	3.84	21	3.65	33	4.08
7-9 encounters	27	2.82	10	1.23	14	2.43	24	2.97
10+ encounters	34	3.56	15	1.85	21	3.65	14	1.73
Total "useful" word families	955		807		574		808	
Total "useful" tokens with 10+ encounters	648		338		312		170	
Mean encounters for 10+	19.05		22.53		14.85		12.14	
Tokens	91,872		91,872		91,872		91,872	
Families	3,853		3,403		2,767		3,507	

Table 30 above demonstrates which genres provide learners with the most 10+ "useful" word repetitions. We will also once again take a look at the mean number of repetitions for the 10+ encounter words. The total 10+ encounters words is likely to be higher than the individual show analysis since we are now dealing with larger corpus sizes (91,872). The comedy genre contained the highest number of 10+ word encounters (34; M = 19.05),

followed by horror (21; M = 14.85), action/superhero (15; M = 22.53), and the random genres group (14; M = 12.05). All of the three genres outperformed the random genres corpus in terms of 10+ encounter words and mean encounters of the 10+ encounters words. While the total number of 10+ word encounters was comparable between the action/superhero and random genres corpuses, the action/superhero genre was found to have much higher mean encounters of 10+ words. The higher number of mean encounters is likely to provide superior support for the acquisition of knowledge of "useful" words. Furthermore, all of the genres exhibited a higher rate of 10+ encounter "useful" word families to total "useful" word families (horror genre, 3.65%; comedy genre, 3.56%; action/superhero genre, 1.85%; random genres, 1.73%). This analysis provides evidence that watching shows within a genre is more likely to provide more 10+ vocabulary encounters of "useful" words in comparison to watching television across a variety of genres.

These results show that "useful" vocabulary recycles at a higher rate within a series and within a genre when compared to viewing television shows randomly. This demonstrates that narrow viewing of streaming media is conducive to vocabulary acquisition. Despite this, learner attitudes regarding lexical recycling and narrow viewing from the Vocabulary Learning Survey reveals confounding results. The participants believed that lexical recycling is far more facilitative of vocabulary acquisition (M = 4.24, SD = .89) than media comprehension (M = 3.41, SD = 1.01), while they considered narrow viewing to be more facilitative of media comprehension (M = 4.27, SD = .75) than vocabulary acquisition (M = 3.91, SD = .83). These results were statistically significant based on 95% confidence intervals. This divergence in participants' beliefs indicates that learners may not be entirely aware of the relationship between lexical recycling and narrow viewing of streaming media. Furthermore, this indicates that students may not be aware of the relationship between comprehension of media and vocabulary acquisition. In other words, students may not be

aware that high levels of comprehension, 98% lexical coverage to be more precise, of media will provide an environment that is facilitative of vocabulary acquisition and could assist in being able to acquire lexical knowledge through recycling.

4.2.3 Opportunities for spaced retrievals of vocabulary in streaming media

While we can say that 10 or more repetitions of a word is likely to lead to acquisition of a word, there is also a value in the spacing of those vocabulary items. For example, if all of the 10 plus encounters were found in only one episode and not in any other, perhaps due to a theme introduced in the episode, a learner is not presented with opportunities for retrieval of lexical knowledge from memory. Experimental studies have shown that retrieval of words from memory aids in vocabulary retention (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick, & Bahrick, 1993; Carrier & Pashler, 1992), and that it helps to stave off vocabulary knowledge decay. Carrier and Pashler's (1992) study found that retrieving an item from memory had beneficial effects for later retention when compared to studying a word once. Furthermore, Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick, and Bahrick's (1993) study found that there was improved long-term retention of vocabulary with distributed practice of vocabulary when compared to massed practice of vocabulary.

In order to simulate the watching of a full season of a program over five separate sessions, the programs and two random shows lists utilized in this current study were broken down into five sections that consist of approximately the same number of tokens. In order to observe the spacing of "useful" words and opportunities for spaced recall of them from memory, a range analysis was conducted. This section will examine the range of the "useful" vocabulary that was found to have 10 or more repetitions in section 4.2.2.

4.2.3.1 Spacing of "useful" vocabulary in streaming media series

Table 31 below displays the range of the 10+ word encounters found in section 4.2.2. The shows were each divided into 5 similarly sized sections in order to explore the 10+ encounters words and their relationship to the shows. Each show was not separated by episode as there was too much variation between both the running time of the typical episode within each series and the number of episodes dedicated to a season. Rather, the shows were divided into five parts in order to simulate five separate viewing sessions. Table 31 presents the range of the streaming media shows across the 5 divisions. For the purpose of analysis, a range of 5 indicates a word's very strong relationship with the show, a range of 4 for a strong relationship, and 3 indicating that a word has a relationship with the show. The total number of words that achieve at least a range of three (including at least 10+ total encounters) and the total number of 10+ word encounters are reported in the final two rows of Table 31.

Table 31. Spacing of "useful" words in streaming media shows

Range	Comedy genre		Action/superhero genre		Horror genre		Random genres	
	The Good Place	*Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt*	*Daredevil*	*Jessica Jones*	*Stranger Things*	*The Haunting of Hill House*	Random genres list #1	Random genres list #2
5	8	2	3	2	2	1	0	1
4	7	2	1	1	3	4	0	1
3	1	2	0	2	1	1	2	1
Total	16	6	4	5	6	6	2	3
Total 10+ word encounters	16	9	5	5	11	7	4	5

The Good Place was found to have the highest number of words that provide multiple opportunities for retrieval from memory (16; range of 3 = 1; range of 4 = 7; range of 5 = 8). This is followed by *Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt* (6; range of 3 = 2; range of 4 = 2; range of 5 = 2), *Stranger Things* (6; range of 3 = 1; range of 4 = 3; range of 5 = 2), *The Haunting of Hill House* (6; range of 3 = 1; range of 4 = 4; range of 5 = 1), *Jessica Jones* (5; range of 3 =

2; range of 4 = 1; range of 5 = 2), *Daredevil* (4; range of 3 = 0; range of 4 = 1; range of 5 = 3), random genres list #2 (3; range of 3 = 1; range of 4 = 1; range of 5 = 1), and random genres list #1 (2; range of 3 = 2; range of 4 = 0; range of 5 = 0).

It was not entirely a surprise that *The Good Place* had the most number of 10+ word encounters that achieved a high range in its corpus when compared to the other shows and random show lists. This is most likely the result of having the lowest coverage of all of the corpuses, and thus means that there were more words outside of the high-frequency word lists allowing more words to have an opportunity to fall into the mid-frequency lists analysed in this section. What this data does show us, however, is evidence that watching episodes from one show is more conducive to learning vocabulary than watching episodes from a variety of shows. All shows in this section performed better than the two random shows lists. In other words, watching episodes from one show allows learners more "useful" 10+ word encounters that also allow for spaced retrievals of vocabulary from memory. Section 4.2.3.2 will further explore whether streaming media viewing by genre is advantageous to vocabulary acquisition when compared to watching random television genres.

4.2.3.2 Lexical spacing of "useful" vocabulary in streaming media genres

The two shows in each genre were combined for a narrow viewing analysis of watching streaming media by genre. Each show was broken into 5 similarly sized episodes so each genre holds a total possible range of 10. All words found to have 10+ word encounters by genre found in Table 30 will be analysed in Table 32 below. Of those words, vocabulary with a range of at least 5 that appears at least once in each of the two streaming media series were deemed to have some intragenre relationship, words that have a range of at least 5 and appear at least twice in each streaming media series are deemed to have a strong intragenre relationship, and words that have a range of at least 5 and appear at least three times in each streaming media series were deemed to have a very strong intragenre relationship. The

bottom two rows in Table 32 detail the total words found to have an intragenre relationship followed by the total number of 10+ word encounters explored.

Table 32. Spacing of "useful" words by genre

Range	Comedy genre	Action genre	Horror genre	Random genres
Very strong intragenre relationship	5	5	4	1
Strong intragenre relationship	7	3	3	4
Some intragenre relationship	4	2	1	1
Total	16	10	8	6
Total 10+ word encounters	34	15	21	14

The comedy genre was found to have the most intragenre words (16; Some intragenre relationship = 4; Strong intragenre relationship = 7; Very strong intragenre relationship = 5) followed by action/superhero (10; Some intragenre relationship = 2; Strong intragenre relationship = 3; Very strong intragenre relationship = 5), horror (8; Some intragenre relationship = 1; Strong intragenre relationship = 3; Very strong intragenre relationship = 4), and the random genres group (6; Some intragenre relationship = 1; Strong intragenre relationship = 4; Very strong intragenre relationship = 1).

Once again, it is not a surprise that comedy had the highest number of 10+ word encounters that have an intragenre relationship in the corpus. This is due both to the relatively low coverage of high-frequency vocabulary for the comedy genre and the total number of 10+ word encounters analysed in this section. What is important here, however, is that all three genres were found to have more words that recycle between genres than the random genres list. This provides evidence that watching streaming media shows from the same genre is beneficial to vocabulary acquisition. In other words, watching streaming media shows of

the same genre provides more opportunities for 10+ encounters of “useful” words that also allow opportunities for spaced retrievals of vocabulary from memory.

This study demonstrates that within series and within genre viewing of streaming media provides a higher range of vocabulary which will provide more opportunities for spaced retrieval of lexical knowledge from memory. Furthermore, high vocabulary range prevents learners from having to go long periods of time without encountering a word that is being learned. This can help to stave off lexical knowledge decay (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick, & Bahrick, 1993).

These results align well with students’ perceptions toward the value of lexical spacing. Students considered the effect of lexical spacing to be very facilitating of vocabulary acquisition (M = 4.29, SD = .78). This indicates that learners may be aware of the benefits of spacing and opportunities for retrieval from memory in the vocabulary learning process.

V. CONCLUSION

5.1 Overview

This current research investigated college students' perceptions toward extensive viewing and the lexical learning opportunities afforded by streaming media. Five main research questions were posed in this study. The first, second, and third research questions addressed what attitudes students have toward extensive viewing in terms of their interest in media, perceived difficulty of media, perceived usefulness of media, and familiarity with online streaming services. These research questions also addressed the possible effects of individual student differences on attitudes toward media and explored students' attitudes toward learning vocabulary from watching media. The fourth and fifth research questions were corpus-based and addressed the lexical coverage of streaming media and whether within genre and within series viewing (narrow viewing) of streamed media provides more lexical learning opportunities of "useful" vocabulary. An attempt was also made to explore the relationship between students' attitudes toward extensive viewing and the results of the corpus analysis. The aim of this study was to provide teachers with insight into how they can utilize class time to facilitate out-of-class extensive viewing of media.

5.2 Summary of findings

In regards to students' attitudes toward English media and students' attitudes toward learning vocabulary from media, the participants found English media to be interesting, useful for language learning, were familiar with streaming media, and found media to be somewhat difficult. The students considered unknown vocabulary, speed of speech, slang,

and lack of subtitling to be statistically significantly more difficult than the content, grammar, and cultural references of English media. Furthermore, the participants found speed of speech and a lack of subtitles to be statistically significantly more difficult than unknown vocabulary and slang. For the perceived usefulness of media for language learning, the participants considered media to be statistically significantly more useful for raising interest in language learning, learning about culture, improving listening speed, learning vocabulary, learning slang, and learning English than for learning grammar. In regards to students' attitudes toward vocabulary learning from English media, the participants considered the story and visuals of media, lexical spacing and lexical recycling, and the role of repeat viewing of media to be facilitative of vocabulary learning.

A correlational analysis showed that there were several relationships between the four constructs of the main survey: interest, usefulness, difficulty, and familiarity with streaming media. There were statistically significant correlations between perceptions of interest in media and perceptions of usefulness of media for language learning, between perceptions of interest and familiarity with streaming media, and between perceived usefulness of media for language learning and familiarity with streaming media. There was also found to be negative correlation between perceptions of difficulty of media and familiarity with streaming media, and negative correlation between perceptions of difficulty of media and interest in media.

The analysis exploring the effect of individual differences on perceptions toward English media found that gender does not play a significant role in attitudes toward extensive viewing. Females, however, tended to be more familiar with streaming media than males. Contrary to the results of the analysis for gender, both proficiency and experience with media appear to play a significant role in perceptions toward extensive viewing. Learners with more experience with media and more proficient learners tended to have more positive attitudes toward extensive viewing. Such learners were found to be more interested in media,

considered media to be more useful and less difficult, and were more familiar with streaming media.

The results concerning the fourth and fifth research questions show that, in regards to lexical coverage, the horror genre was found to require knowledge of fewer word families plus proper nouns and marginal words at the 95% and 98% coverage thresholds than the random genres list. In particular, *The Haunting of Hill House* was found to require significantly smaller vocabulary sizes to achieve the 95% and 98% coverage thresholds. As for the comedy and action/superhero genres, both genres were found to require knowledge of a greater number of word families plus proper nouns and marginal words at the 95% and 98% coverage thresholds when compared to random viewing of television.

Concerning whether narrow viewing of streaming media provides more lexical learning opportunities of "useful" vocabulary, the analysis exploring the lexical recycling of within series and within genre viewing of media, all series and genres analyzed exhibited evidence that words recycle at a higher rate than for random viewing of media. When compared to the random shows lists, all series and genres analyzed provided more opportunities for lexical recycling in terms of the total number of "useful" words that had 10+ encounters, a higher percentage of 10+ word encounters of "useful" word families to total number of "useful" word families, and higher mean encounters of "useful" words that have 10+ encounters. Overall, both the show and genre analysis contained strong evidence that words recycle at a higher rate for both within show and within genre viewing of streamed media.

Pertaining to the analysis exploring lexical spacing of "useful" vocabulary for within series and within genre viewing, both the within genre analysis and the within show analysis exhibited evidence that there is a higher lexical range of "useful" vocabulary than for a non-narrow approach to media viewing. When compared to the random shows lists, all six shows and three genres, according to the threshold set for this study, had more 10+ "useful" words

that also exhibited range. A higher range of "useful" vocabulary indicates that "useful" words will appear in more episodes throughout a series. This will provide learners with more opportunities for retrievals of such words from memory.

There were also found to be relationships between students' attitudes toward media and the results of the corpus analysis of streamed media. First, the participants reported that they found media to be somewhat difficult, and that unknown vocabulary, slang, speed of speech, and a lack of subtitles are of particular difficulty. It was also found that less proficient students find media to be more difficult and less interesting. The results of the corpus analysis displayed evidence that the horror genre is relatively easy, and the comedy and action/superhero genres are relatively difficult genres for viewing media. Thus, there is some evidence that the utilization of the horror genre for language learning is likely to alleviate perceptions of difficulty of media.

Second, the results of the corpus analysis displayed evidence that within show and within genre narrow viewing of online streamed media provides more opportunities for lexical recycling and lexical spacing of "useful" vocabulary. The participants of this study reported that they believe lexical recycling and lexical spacing to be conducive to vocabulary learning from media. The participants also reported that they have high perceptions of the role of narrow viewing and repeat viewings of a show in promoting lexical acquisition.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

Webb (2015) argues that the teacher's role in regards to extensive viewership of media among their students is as a facilitator and motivator while encouraging learner autonomy. Other researchers have also noted the importance of learning autonomy in language learning (Arikan, 2011; Bayat, 2011), and that teachers should play a role in fostering learner

autonomy for language learning (Myartawan, Latief, & Suharmanto, 2013; Lengkanawati, 2017).

In regards to the role of the teacher in fostering learning autonomy for extensive viewing, the teacher should not encroach on autonomy in terms of what the students watch, when they watch, or even whether they watch English media at all. The responsibility of the teacher, however, is to utilize class time to motivate students to watch English media, instruct learners on how and where they can view content, and to instruct learners on the benefits of extensive viewing and the tools available for effectively watching English media. Thus, the goal of the teacher in the language classroom, as it pertains to fostering extensive viewing outside of the classroom, should be to encourage learner autonomy, to allow students to take an active role in their learning, and to encourage extensive viewing as a long-term project.

In fostering learner autonomy for extensive viewing, the results of this study provide several avenues in which teachers can utilize to motivate and facilitate extensive learning among their students. First, the results of this study demonstrate that some shows have a lower lexical load than others, and that extensive viewing of English media is likely to be difficult to the majority of learners. By paying close attention during their own extensive viewing, teachers can observe various elements of a show that will likely pose a difficulty for their students. Teachers can observe the vocabulary that is being used and whether it is likely to be known by their students, and teachers can pay close attention to the visuals of shows and how these depictions can be expected to aid in comprehension of the vocabulary content. The participants of this study also pointed to listening speed as being a substantial source of difficulty, thus teachers should observe aspects of listening, such as speed and accents, since these listening factors are likely to affect perceptions of the difficulty of media. Furthermore, non-native teachers will be able to relate their own sources of difficulty when watching a television series to the difficulty that their learners are likely to experience. Furthermore,

teachers should take notice that certain genres are more likely to provide learners with difficulties than others. In the case of this current study, the horror genre was found to be relatively easy and the comedy genre was found to be relatively difficult when compared to other genres. Teachers can then utilize this information from their own personal viewing experiences to recommend appropriate media, as well as inform strategies that students can utilize to reduce the difficulty of the shows that they watch.

Second, familiarity and experience with media were found to play a significant role in attitudes toward English media. Thus, teachers may play an important role in familiarizing and introducing their students to viewing content. It is likely that introducing learners to viewing content which is at an appropriate level will raise interest, and reduce anxiety and perceived difficulty toward the use of extensive viewing for English language learning. Furthermore, familiarizing learners with English media may raise perceptions regarding its usefulness, which is likely to be a source of motivation for many learners. There are also other ways that a teacher may familiarize their learners with streaming media. Teachers can take certain steps such as playing trailers and short media clips during class time, showing learners how to make a streaming media account, showing learners how to utilize subtitles, and even instruct learners about the cost of making an account. Learners may find that the cost is lower than they had expected, thus providing learners with motivation to make an account.

Third, this study provided support that a narrow viewing approach to extensive viewing is likely to provide more opportunities for lexical acquisition. From this perspective, it is recommended that teachers prioritize the use of programs and series over movies. Programs and series, which often have a large number of episodes, are likely to provide more opportunities for learning over watching several movies within a genre. A single series of streaming media programs is likely to provide tighter thematic content and more consistency

in authorship in comparison to a collection of movies. A series of streaming media programs is also likely to familiarize viewers with other factors, such as characters, character names, and accents, which is likely to reduce its perceived difficulty as a series progresses. Furthermore, due to the value of a narrow viewing approach to extensive viewing, it is recommended that teachers emphasize the use of streamed media over television viewing. Streamed media typically releases a whole series of a show at a time. This often causes viewers to 'binge' watch the show before moving on to another series, and thus will most likely lead to a higher rate of narrow viewing in learners.

Finally, raising interest in extensive viewing of English media may be as simple as the teacher demonstrating their own interest in viewing media. Studies on extensive reading have demonstrated that teacher modelling of reading has an effect on student reading behaviour (Methe & Hintze, 2003; Widdowson, Dixon, & Moore, 1996), and this may lend support that a teacher showing interest in viewing may have a positive effect on viewing behavior. Furthermore, teachers should pay careful attention to less proficient viewers since they are likely to be less interested in English media viewing. From this perspective, teachers may initially function as a proxy to compensate for low interest that may be evident in some learners.

5.4 Limitations and research implications

A limitation was that only one university was sampled for this study. Furthermore, all of the participants of this study were from comparable backgrounds. The participants were all of similar ages and English proficiency due to stringent requirements for admission into the university. Future research should be conducted to explore attitudes toward streaming media

and perceptions toward vocabulary learning from extensive viewing of various age groups and proficiency levels.

Another limitation of this study is that only two streamed media shows were used to represent each of the three genres, and a total of only three genres were analysed. While the corpus sizes for each individual show were likely large enough to accurately portray their lexical loads, the limited number of shows used to represent each genre make it difficult to generalize the findings to other shows within the respective genres. Research into the utilization of streaming media for language learning would benefit in the future from studies that investigate the language learning opportunities of mid-frequency vocabulary from a greater number of programs and genres. Such research would be able to provide further evidence and generalizability as to whether within genre and within series viewing of streaming media does in fact provide, as was found in this current study, more opportunities for learning mid-frequency vocabulary.

Future research should also devote itself to further exploring whether the shift to streaming media from television, as well as the change in the ways that media is being consumed by viewers, has had an effect on the lexical difficulty of streaming media. Some of the programs analysed in this current study required smaller vocabulary sizes to cross the 95% and 98% coverage thresholds than was reported in Webb's (2011) study. This may point to a shift in the lexical difficulty of streaming media content.

Extensive viewing for language learning would further benefit from future research that investigates the role of the language teacher in promoting out-of-class viewing. Research should attempt to quantify the effect that the teacher can have in using class time to motivate learners to participate in extensive viewing, and to investigate the teacher instruction and behaviors that learners find particularly useful in promoting out-of-class viewing.

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Appendices

1. Survey of students' perceptions toward the extensive use of media for learning language

영어 미디어에 대한 학생들의 인식 설문조사

목적: 본 설문조사는 영화와 드라마를 통하여 영어를 배울 수 있는 가능성에 대해 잘 이해하기 위한 목적입니다. 각 문항에 옳고 그른 답은 없으며, 이 설문조사는 학점에 영향을 미치지 않습니다. 귀하의 답변은 비밀이 보장됩니다.

지침: 귀하의 진솔한 응답을 부탁드리며, 솔직하고 사려 깊은 답변은 학습 및 연구의 발전을 위하여 중요하게 사용될 예정입니다.

		매우 그렇다	그렇다	보통이다	그렇지 않다	전혀 그렇지 않다
1.	나는 여가시간에 영어 미디어(영화, 드라마 등)를 보는 것을 좋아한다.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	나는 가능할 때마다 영어 미디어 (영화, 드라마 등)를 보는 것에 관심이 많다.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	나는 영어 미디어가 재미있기 때문에 보는 것을 좋아한다.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	시청각 자료를 활용하는 것은 영어 공부에 대한 흥미를 높이는 데 도움이 된다.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	교실 수업을 통해 배우는 것보다 영상 매체를 통해 영어를 배우는 것이 더 재미 있다.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	나는 익숙하지 않은 어휘 때문에 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	나는 생소한 내용 때문에 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	나는 복잡한 문법 때문에 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	나는 말하는 속도 때문에 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	나는 문화적 차이 때문에 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1

11.	나는 속어 때문에 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	나는 자막이 없을 때 영어 미디어를 보고 이해하는 것이 어렵다.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	나는 영어 미디어를 보면서 문화를 배울 수 있다고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	나는 영어 미디어를 보면서 듣기 속도를 향상시킬 수 있다고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	나는 영어 미디어를 보면서 문법을 배울 수 있다고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	나는 영어 미디어를 보면서 어휘 실력을 키울 수 있다고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	나는 영어 미디어를 보면서 속어를 배울 수 있다고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
18.	나는 같은 영화나 영상을 반복적으로 보는 것이 영어실력 향상에 도움이 될 것이라고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	나는 영어 미디어를 보는 것이 영어를 배우는 효과적인 방법이라고 생각한다.	5	4	3	2	1
20.	나는 영어 스트리밍 플랫폼(예: 넷플릭스)을 사용해본 경험이 있다.	5	4	3	2	1
21.	나는 영어를 접하거나 영어 영상을 보기 위해 넷플릭스와 같은 스트리밍 사이트를 쉽게 사용할 수 있다.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	넷플릭스와 같은 스트리밍 사이트는 영어 미디어에 쉽게 접근하고 감상할 수 있게끔 해준다.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	TV 같은 전통적인 방식보다 스트리밍 사이트가 여러 기능(자막 스타일 설정, 재생 속도 조절 등)을 제공한다	5	4	3	2	1
24.	스트리밍 사이트로 인해 영어로 된 미디어를 많이 접할 수 있게 되었다.	5	4	3	2	1

25.	영어 공부를 하거나 영어 미디어를 보기 위해 온라인 스트리밍 사이트에 가입한 적이 있는가?	Yes	No

각 항목이 영어 미디어를 이해하고 새로운 영어 단어를 배우는 데 얼마나 유용하다고 생각하는가?

5 = 매우 그렇다 4 = 그렇다 3 = 보통이다 2 = 그렇지 않다 1 = 전혀 그렇지 않다

	…는 영어 미디어를 이해하는 데 유용하다.	…는 새로운 영어 어휘를 배우는 데 유용하다.
26. 재미 있는 스토리	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
27. 시각적 효과	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
28. 영어 영상물이 표준 발음으로 구성되는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
29. 영상에 모르는 어휘들이 있고 그 어휘들이 많이 반복되는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
30. 영상에 모르는 어휘들이 있고 그 어휘들이 적절한 간격으로 반복되는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
31. 영상 속의 어휘들을 대부분 이미 숙지하고 있는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
32. 한 시리즈 내에서 여러 에피소드를 보거나 같은 장르의 여러 프로그램을 시청하는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
33. 같은 에피소드를 여러 번 보는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
34. 영어 프로그램을 보면서 자막을 보는 것	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

아래 항목을 읽고 동의하는 정도를 표시하시기 바랍니다.

5 = 매우 그렇다 4 = 그렇다 3 = 보통이다 2 = 그렇지 않다 1 = 전혀 그렇지 않다

44. 나는 영어 미디어를 매일 보려고 노력한다.	5	4	3	2	1
45. 나는 현재 인기 있는 영어 프로를 정기적으로 시청한다.	5	4	3	2	1
46. 나는 바쁠 때도 영어 미디어를 보기 위해 시간을 할애한다.	5	4	3	2	1
47. 나는 다른 학생들보다 영어 미디어를 더 많이 본다.	5	4	3	2	1

48. 나는 1 주일에 대략 ( ) 시간 정도 영어 미디어를 본다

아래 목록 중 실제 영화 제목에는 yes, 영화 제목이 아니라고 생각되면 no 에 체크 표시하시기 바랍니다.		
49. *Stranger Thing*	Yes	No
50. *Orange is the New Black*	Yes	No
51. *Groundbreaking*	Yes	No
52. *Game of Thrones*	Yes	No
53. *Stay in School!*	Yes	No
54. *The Walking Dead*	Yes	No
55. *The Jaywalker*	Yes	No
56. *Black Mirror*	Yes	No
57. *My Last opportunity*	Yes	No
58. *BoJack Horseman*	Yes	No
59. *The Good Fight*	Yes	No
60. *Rick and Morty*	Yes	No
61. *It's Time to Go*	Yes	No
62. *13 Reasons Why*	Yes	No
63. *House of Cards*	Yes	No

Bio Data ***지침:*** *가장 적절한 응답에 체크하거나 써주십시오.*	
64. 당신의 성별은 무엇입니까? 65. 당신은 몇 살입니까? 66. 당신은 몇 학년입니까? 67. 당신은 영어권 국가에서 몇 년을 살았습니까?	a) 남자____ b) 여자___ 나이____ 학년_____ _____년
68. 언어의 모든 측면을 고려할 때, 당신의 영어 능력은 무엇입니까?	a) 평균 이상__ b) 평균__c) 평균 이하__

2. Television show lists

Comedy/drama genre #1			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
The Good Place	3	1	Everything is Bonzer
		2	The Brainy Bunch
		3	The Snowplow
		4	Jeremy Bearimy
		5	The Ballad of Donkey Doug
		6	A Fractured Inheritance
		7	The Worst Possible Use of Free Will
		8	Don't Let the Good Life Pass you by
		9	Janet(s)
		10	The Book of Dougs
		11	Chidi Sees the Time-Knife (partial episode)

Comedy/drama genre #2			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
Unbreakable Kimmy Schmidt	3	1	Kimmy Gets Divorced?!
		2	Kimmy's Roommate Lemonades!
		3	Kimmy Can't Help You
		4	Kimmy Goes to College!
		5	Kimmy Stepts on a Crack!
		6	Kimmy is a Feminisit!
		7	Kimmy Learns about the Weather!
		8	Kimmy Does a Puzzle!
		9	Kimmy Goes to Church!
		10	Kimmy Pulls Off a Heist!
		11	Kimmy Googles the Internet!
		12	Kimmy and the Trolley Problem!

Action/superhero genre #1			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
Daredevil	3	1	Resurrection
		2	Please
		3	No Good Deed
		4	Blindsided
		5	The Perfect Game
		6	The Devil You Know
		7	Aftermath
		8	Upstars/Downstairs
		9	Revelations
		10	Karen
		11	Reunion
		12	One Last Shot (partial episode)

Action/superhero genre #2			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
Jessica Jones	3	1	A.K.A. The Perfect Burger
		2	A.K.A. You're Welcome
		3	A.K.A. I Have No Spleen
		4	A.K.A. Customer Service
		5	A.K.A. I Wish
		6	A.K.A. Sorry Face
		7	A.K.A. The Double Half-Wappinger
		8	A.K.A. Camera Friendly
		9	A.K.A. I Did Something Terrible
		10	A.K.A. Hero Pants
		11	A.K.A. Hellcat
		12	A.K.A. A Lotta Worms (partial episode)

Horror/drama genre #1			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
The Haunting of Hill House	1	1	Steven Sees a Ghost
		2	Open Casket
		3	Touch
		4	The Twin Thing
		5	The Bent-Neck Lady
		6	Two Storms
		7	Eulogy
		8	Witness Marks
		9	Screaming Meemies
		10	Silence Lay Steadily (partial episode)

Horror/drama genre #2			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
Stranger Things	2	1	Chapter One: MADMAX
	2	2	Chapter Two: Trick or Treat, Freak
	2	3	Chapter Three: The Pollywog (partial episode)
	2	4	Chapter Four: Will the Wise
	3	1	Chapter One: Suzie, Do You Copy?
	3	2	Chapter Two: The Mall Rats
	3	3	Chapter Three: The Case of the Missing Lifeguard
	3	4	Chapter Four: The Sauna Test
	3	5	Chapter Five: The Flayed
	3	6	Chapter Six: E Pluribus Unum
	3	7	Chapter Seven: The Bite
	3	8	Chapter Eight: The Battle of Starcourt

Random programs and genres #1			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
American Horror Story	8	10	Apocalypse Then
Chicago PD	6	22	Reckoning
Game of Thrones	8	6	The Iron Throne
Grey's Anatomy	15	25	Jump into the Fog
Manifest	1	16	Estimated Time of Departure
Modern Family	10	22	A Year of Birthdays
The Big Bang Theory	12	23	The Change Constant
The Good Doctor	2	12	Aftermath
This is Us	3	18	Her
Young Sheldon	2	22	A Swedish Science Thing and the Equation for Toast
The Walking Dead	9	16	The Storm (partial episode)

Random programs and genres #2			
Program	Season #	Episode #	Episode title
Chicago PD	4	22	Army of One
Empire	5	18	The Roughest Day
Manifest	1	15	Hard Landing
Law and Order: SVU	20	24	End Game
NCIS	16	24	Daughters
The Goldbergs	6	23	Breakin
Bull	3	22	Pillar of Salt
God Friended Me	1	20	Que Sera Sera
New Amsterdam	1	22	Luna
Criminal Minds	14	15	Truth or Dare (partial episode)

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Devin Michael Strome