THE INFLUENCE OF AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILLS IN LEARNING JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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THE INFLUENCE OF AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILLS IN LEARNING JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A Thesis Presented

by

KEI YAMAGUCHI

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ABSTRACT

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MAY 2020

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This paper examines whether extensive listening with the help of audiovisual materials has a positive influence on listening comprehension. Extensive listening is a method used for learning a foreign language that focuses on listening to a number of texts that can be understood by learners with higher levels of comprehension. This method requires access to tools to support the learning plan, appropriate advising, and the availability of resources. Audiovisual materials allow learners to learn verbal and nonverbal language. Therefore, the usage of these materials for extensive listening is perceived as useful. In recent years, learners have received a variety of audiovisual materials outside of class owing to the development of technology. Since extensive listeners have a higher practice in memorizing grammar, vocabulary, or phrases, this study examines the influence of audiovisual materials outside of the classroom.

The study included 13 participants—five intermediate and eight elementary level students. The results did not statistically show that there is a positive influence of extensive listening using audiovisual materials on listening comprehension. However, all the participants perceived audiovisual materials to be useful for learning Japanese. These results indicate that
extensive listening has a significant impact on listening skills in the field of second-language acquisition.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Have you watched movies, TV dramas, or TV shows in a foreign language while studying the language? The rise of online movie streaming services such as Netflix, Hulu, Crunchyroll, or Amazon Prime has made watching foreign-language films more accessible for the world. The same applies to language learners. According to Japan Foundation research in 2018, there are over 3.8 million Japanese language learners in 142 countries, a 5.2% increase from 2016 (Japan Foundation, 2019). The Cultural Exchange Council of Japan’s Ministry of Foreign Affairs has attributed the rising numbers of Japanese language learners to the spread of Japanese pop culture. Japanese pop culture is now accepted as culture of Japan, and this increased interest has also led to interest in both Japan and overall Japanese culture (MOFA, 2008). Therefore, the rise of online streaming services and language learners may well be connected.

A variety of streaming services not only increases the number of learners but is also useful for language teaching and self-study. Interesting material helps sustain learners’ motivation; therefore, many language classes introduce audiovisual materials such as movies, TV dramas, or TV shows into the classroom. Audiovisual materials provide input for learners that helps them memorize vocabulary and grammar.

Moreover, because audiovisual itself is authentic material, it encourages learners to listen to the language as it is spoken by native speakers. From the teacher’s point of view, audiovisual materials are useful learning tools. For instance, appropriate intonation and pronunciation and
current cultural aspects of the target language are challenging to teach students, making audiovisual materials useful for both students and teachers.

Audiovisual material consists of the amount of input of listening and watching. One of the learning methods, extensive listening requires the amount of input. The method is listening to amount of audio, which is comprehensible for learners and encourages them to improve their listening skills. This study aims to examine the relationship between extensive listening and listening comprehension.
CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Cognitive Process

2.1.1. Listening Skills

For foreign language learners, developing listening skills is challenging. However, communicating is a significant skill in any language. According to Lee and Hatesohl (1993), ordinary people spend 70–80% of waking time communicating and spend 45% of the time using their listening skills, even though the least training is given.

Waring (2010) described how it is much more difficult to listen to a given text than to read the same text. When learners encounter unknown words in the course of reading, they can stop and look up the word or sentence to understand. However, when listening, learners cannot stop and look up the word or listen to the sentence again (Call, 1985). The learners must know how meaning depends on stress, intonation, pitch, volume, and other factors. Learners must also know multiple pronunciations for one word. Most importantly, they must learn how sounds change or are omitted or how speakers sometimes run their words together. For instance,

How are you  - >  How -uh-you

going to - >  gonna

don’t do that - >  don do tha

an umbrella - >  anumbrella

raw eggs - >  rawreggs

As you can see, in just five examples, many changes from reading text to listening to text. Therefore, getting used to listening to real pronunciation is essential for communicating.
For Japanese language learners, listening is difficult because of special *morae*, sounds that appear in the Japanese language do not exist in other languages. There are three types of special morae: double consonant (つ), long vowel (おいしい), and syllabic nasal (ん). Toda (2003) listed examples of confusing special morae sentences.

- **来てください** (kitekudasai) Please come
- **切ってください** (kittekudasai) Please cut
- **聞いてください** (kiitekudasai) Please listen

How much difficulty learners have in understanding Japanese is an effect of their native languages? For example, English and Japanese speakers use different types of pronunciation. English speakers pronounce words according to syllables, whereas Japanese speakers pronounce words according to morae. For example, the word “バレンタイン” (valentine) consists of three syllables in English (“val.en.tine”) and six morae in Japanese (“バ. レ. ン. タ. イ. ン.”). This is because there are two “ン,” which are syllabic nasal morae and which also count as one mora in Japanese. Each language is made up of single spoken units. However, for learners, such units sound different than they do for native speakers. In Japanese, previous special morae are regarded as independent morae, but for Japanese language learners these morae do not sound as one mora. Listening and understanding correct pronunciation is a difficult skill to master. Therefore, improving listening skills is vital to acquire a language.
2.1.2. Listening Strategy

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) advocated three genres of learning strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategy. The metacognitive strategy involves creating a learning environment that applies to planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning process. The cognitive strategy is required to control the learning task, which involves repetition, organization, and elaboration. The socio-affective strategy involves others, such as asking questions or working together.

To teach listening skills, teachers must know how learners process the information that they hear. O’Malley et al. (1989) found that bottom-up and top-down processes are essential for learners. These two processes distinguish learners’ listening skills. The bottom-up process involves understanding input based on the sound, and the top-down process involves using background knowledge and context to understand input. The top-down process focuses on the main idea of the text, whereas the bottom-up process focuses on specific details (Bidabadi & Yamat, 2014). Anderson (1985) defined three stages of comprehension categories: perceptual process, parsing, and utilization. The perceptual process focuses on the length of oral or written text. Sounds put into short term memory do not persist longer than a few seconds; therefore, listeners must update the sounds which they have just heard with recent information. The second stage is parsing: listening to a chunk of text based on grammatical breaks, thus focusing on meaningful text rather than simply processing a sound. In the last stage, utilization is understanding speakers’ intention by using listeners’ previous knowledge because utterance and the actual intention of the speaker do not always match.

O’Malley and Chamot (1989) classified these processes into three categories. In terms of the perceptual process, what separates effective and ineffective listening is whether learners
understand when to stop thinking about unknown words or phrases and focus on the listening task. As for parsing, learners are distinguished by whether they can listen to a larger chunk of speech. At last, in utilization, an effective listener could connect the listening topic with their personal or knowledge compared to the ineffective listener. Thus, O’Malley and Chamot (1989) stated that effective learners tend to use more of a top-down process and that ineffective learners use more of a bottom-up process. Additionally, learners who use a top-down strategy are likely to use a metacognitive strategy, which enables them to look back at their learning process, evaluate it, and examine their own progress objectively. Thus, learners who successfully use metacognitive strategies can improve their learning autonomy.

2.1.3. Developing Materials for Listening Skills

Listening skill is difficult to improve when it comes to learning a foreign language in a non-target-language-speaking area. Unlike other skills, developing listening skills requires more authentic materials. Learners imitate what they hear, which makes it difficult for non-native language teachers to teach correct pronunciation. The Internet has provided a wealth of various kinds of authentic materials for learners, each of which provides them with different information.

Various audiovisual materials have been used to develop listening skills. According to Suárez and Pujolà (2012), the cassette tape was the first modern audiovisual language-learning aid, introduced in the early 1970s and used until the late 1990s. Before then, learners heard only their teacher’s voice, which often had a non-native accent and was only one type of voice. Cassette tapes changed the classroom by introducing various kinds of accents, voices, and situations. Moreover, learners were attracted to this unique input material, which enabled them to listen to the sound of varied native accents, background noise, and different voices, giving
students a more authentic experience. In the late 1990s, cassette tapes began to be replaced by CDs, which were easier to control for instructors and provided better sound quality.

Furthermore, with the advent of video materials, learners have been able to see nonverbal communication, such as speakers’ gestures and facial expressions. Video also helps students understand the real-life situation of the target language (Erguig, 2009). Adding visuals to listening practice has had a positive impact on students, according to Flynn (1998):

One characteristic of video is that it presents language in the context of life; it shows students how language is used naturally in realistic settings. "Students can see facial expressions, gestures, and whether the speaker is hesitant or not about a particular subject. They can observe the body language of a situation, how far apart people stand, how the characters react to emotional situations - information that is difficult to get from a book or an audio tape. This context has several advantages. (p. 18)

Flynn argued that videos give access to learners more authentic and deeper input than book or audiotape because of the impression of content that students can focus on.

The use of audiovisual materials has been advocated by researchers since the 1980s (Bahrani et al., 2014). According to Taniguchi (2011), primary factors of audiovisual material use in and out of the classroom are learning strategy and learner autonomy. Benson (2001) stated that autonomy in a language involves taking responsibility for one’s own learning and not only controlling management, checking, and evaluation but also controlling learning social context and cognitive process. Moreover, audiovisual materials connect to learners’ motivation to learn.

2.1.4. Benefits of audiovisual materials

Audiovisual materials allow learners to learn a verbal and nonverbal language (Erguig, 2009.) For example, in a scene in which one friend calls another, learners can hear the verbal phrase “こっちに来て” (Kocchini kite) in Japanese, which means “Come here” in English. In nonverbal language, Japanese add the gesture of waving to the other person with one’s palms
facing down. However, this gesture means “go away” in other countries such as the United States. In the U.S., the gesture for coming here is that waving towards a person with palms facing up. In Japan, this is actually a gesture of provocation. Therefore, it is important to learn a language with audio and visuals, such that learners learn both the verbal and nonverbal elements of a language.

In addition, audiovisual materials encourage exposure to authenticity. Authentic materials are defined as contents used by a native speaker from the target language culture, such as TV news, films, songs, comedy, soap operas, and games (Bahrani & Tam, 2012). Melvin and Stout (1987) argued that authentic materials let learners access and explore the target language and its culture, which stimulates learners and makes them eager to study. For example, film can provide various aspects of the target language: different speech patterns of men, women, and children; standard language and regional dialects, and honorific expressions (Kaiser, 2011). Kobayashi (2016) conducted a study in which students watched five Japanese films, each of which they then analyzed and discussed. The students had learned honorific expressions in class; however, after watching the movies, students noticed that the textbook honorific expression was not necessary in real situations because the characters in the films used formal expressions rather than honorific speech. Therefore, using audio materials encourages learners to recognize the differences between textbook language and language as spoken in real-life situations. Kiser (2011) found that American students found it difficult to understand emotional reactions of native Japanese speakers, as well as the cultural background of Japan. For example, in one scene, a woman and man were arguing while walking, and at a certain point, the woman stepped back behind the man. Because of different attitudes regarding male–female relationships, American
students saw this as rejection of woman, but the Japanese audience recognized it as acceptance of woman. Even from such short scenes as this one learner can acquire cultural knowledge.

Another example is the nonverbal expression. In Japanese, mastering politeness expression is a significant learning point (Noro, 2009). Using politeness expression requires not only appropriate speech style and expression but also intonation, volume, tone, and nonverbal expression such as gesture or posture. For instance, according to Noro, when people apologize, no matter how appropriate the expression and vocabulary, if the speaker’s attitude or intonation is rude, the apology has no meaning. In contrast, even a nonverbal expression such as bowing can serve as an effective apology. The connection between language and attitude based on target language is important for communication.

Okawa (2006) pointed out that films differ from textbook skits in terms of length and content variety. Learners can observe background and context in films, as well as both verbal and nonverbal language expression. Okawa stated that film makes possible synthesis learning which enables learners to grasp verbal and nonverbal expressions, cultural aspects, and discussion. Okawa classified cultural aspects into two groups: physical aspects and abstract aspects. The physical aspect of culture consists in food, clothing, and housing, whereas abstract elements include habits, rules, or general ways of thinking. For example, the movie “Umimachi Diary – Our Little Sister,” (Koreeda, 2015) depicts family members engaging in the daily habit of praying for their grandmother and ancestors every morning. An audience can see the actual altar—a physical aspect of culture, and the ritual of prayer—an abstract aspect of culture.
2.1.5. Importance of Input

Every mental activity, such as memory, learning, thought, and consciousness, takes place in the human brain. Information is transmitted through neurons in the brain, thus establishing memories. Neurons create a complicated neural network for information transmission by electrical signals called synapses. Thus, stimulating neurons leads to smooth transmission between synapses. When this stimulation is performed frequently in a short period, the synapse transmission rate increases. This phenomenon is called long-term potentiation (Shors & Matzel, 1997). Thus, for learning and memorizing language, continuous stimulation is crucial.

In his “input hypothesis,” Krashen (1985) claimed that language skills would be improved step by step as natural by understanding a slightly higher level of input than a learner’s current language level. Natural language acquisition is defined as children’s language acquisition. Krashen stated the current language acquisition level as “i,” and the slightly higher level as “i+1.” The concept of extensive listening is based on Krashen’s Input Hypothesis (Onoda, 2012). More recent studies have focused on the significance of input. Two main input theories are input enhancement and input flooding. Input enhancement emphasizes target language content by bolding printed text or adding underlining to make it more visually outstanding and using intonation to enhance aurally (Nagasaki & Shimada, 2010). Input flooding provides learners with a massive amount of input in the format of the target language (Rashtchi & Yousefi, 2016).

The human brain cannot retain and store through a single instance of input: repetition is the significant aspect. Riby and Riby (2006) advocated for the hippocampus hypothesis (Reviewed by Hiromori, 2015), in which information (input) is at first stored in the hippocampus which judges whether that information is important. Thus, repeated input is analyzed as
important information. Then, such information is moved to the temporal lobe, which is involved in memory. Accordingly, the repetition of input is a significant function of learning.

However, the input cannot be just any type of input. If the input is not attractive to learners, they cannot maintain stimulation. Zhang (2013) summarized four ideal characteristics of input for second language learners. First, input should be understandable and attractive for learners. Audio materials help learners to understand the content and draw learners’ attention. Second, it should include cultural aspects of the target language-speaking area. Cultural elements encourage learners to understand appropriate language use, such as formal and casual usage in the Japanese language. Third, it needs to be a natural language. Most learners study the language through a grammar base, which is the reverse of the way children learn a native language. A conversation following the rules of grammar may provide an unnatural impression. Fourth, the input should be up to date. Textbook editions are usually years apart and may contain outdated materials. For example, the word “きっさてん” (Kissaten) means coffee shop, but it no longer refers to a generic coffee shop; rather, it now refers to an old-style coffee shop, whereas people refer to a generic coffee shop as “カフェ” (kafe), which means “café,” “お茶” (ocha), which means tea, or specific brand names: Starbucks, Tully’s Coffee, or Bluebottle Coffee. Thus, “きっさてん” is still understandable but no longer considered natural usage. As Zhang (2013) stated, input must be attractive and authentic, which keeps learners listening and reading.

2.2. Extensive Reading and Extensive Listening

Extensive reading and extensive listening are methods for learning a foreign language that focus on the amount of input. Both learning styles require continuous input and learner autonomy, which is defined as the ability of learners to control how they study to fulfill their
needs and desires (Fukada & Nagaoka, 2010). It does not mean that learners must plan and study on their own; rather, it involves asking others, such as teachers, for help and resources. This process encourages learners to improve their learning styles (Umeda, 2005). The learning style of extensive reading and extensive listening has learners choose their materials based on their proficiency level in an environment where they can receive help from teachers. Aoki (2010) advocated three requirements for developing learning autonomy: access to tools to support the learning plan, appropriate advising, and the availability of resources.

2.2.1. Extensive Reading

Yoshimura & Kobayashi (2018) claimed that extensive reading and autonomous learning are deeply related because learners choose which book to read and control reading. Yoshimura examined three different types of extensive reading classes: individual tutorial, group instruction, and a blended classroom that may involve video conferencing with another university. In conclusion, learners found the blended type of class particularly effective because the teacher was able to provide advice more efficiently. In terms of appropriate advising, 78.8% of learners answered that they felt comfortable with the level of books they had chosen, an increase from 65.7% at the beginning of the semester. Learners select their books themselves based on teacher’s advice; therefore, appropriate advising and the ability to choose a book are closely related. In addition, the blended class had more assignments and activities than the other two types and also led to higher learner self-sufficiency.

Extensive reading is a foreign language learning style in which learners read independently and for pleasure (Day & Bamford, 1998). Many studies over the years have shown
that extensive reading enhances the reading skills of L2 learners. Day & Bamford (1998) articulated ten rules for extensive reading:

1. Students read large amounts of printed material;
2. Students read a variety of materials in terms of topic and genre;
3. The material students read is within their level of comprehension;
4. Students choose what they want to read;
5. Reading is its own reward;
6. Students read for pleasure, information and general understanding;
7. Students read their selection at a faster rate;
8. Reading is individual (students read on their own);
9. Teachers read with their students, thus serving as role models of good readers;
10. Teachers guide and keep track of student progress. (p. 188)

Day & Bamford (2000) claim three main benefits for extensive reading. First, learners can focus on the general meaning of the text, which enables them to avoid paying attention to detail that they do not understand, which may decrease motivation. Second, the continuous stimulation develops learners’ recognition ability. By reading similar phrases, letters, or words repeatedly, learners can process understanding quickly. Finally, these two benefits lead to a third: the confidence to read and focus on the overall meaning of the text.

According to Kelly (1969), Harold Palmer introduced the extensive reading method into the foreign language classroom (reviewed by Day, 2015). Palmer determined the difference between intensive reading and extensive reading (Day & Bamford, 1998). While the purpose of intensive reading is to understand details such as words or sentences, the focus of extensive
reading is an overall understanding of texts. The chart below shows the differences between two reading methods introduced by Welch (1997).

**Table 1**

Comparison of Extensive Reading and Intensive Reading (adapted from Welch, 1977)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extensive</th>
<th>READING</th>
<th>Intensive</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General understanding and enjoyment</td>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Language study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy (graded readers)</td>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Often difficult (material for native speakers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>Amount</td>
<td>Not much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast and fluency</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Slow</td>
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Fukumoto (2004) outlined theories regarding the specific optimal amount of extensive reading. For instance, one theory claimed that the reading amount should be 30 pages per hour, three pages per hour, or one hour per night. Fukumoto also cited from *Guide to the 'Why' and 'How' of Using Graded Readers* Oxford University Press (Waring, 2000) that the proper amount is 90–120 minutes in a week or 15 minutes per day. Sakurai (2017) also claimed that previous studies have not clarified an appropriate amount of reading. However, Fukumoto (2004) claimed that the vocabulary could not be memorized in one stimulation, and that stimulation should be repeated again as soon as possible. Repeatedly recognizing the same vocabulary in a meaningful context or situation enforces memory and enables learners to understand vocabulary and usage.

Extensive reading is also defined as pleasure reading. Awano (2012) advocated basic 4 rules for extensive reading:
1. Learners must start reading from easy books.
2. Learners must not use a dictionary.
3. Learners must skip through vocabulary or sentences they do not understand.
4. Learners must move on to another book if they cannot keep reading.

To enjoy reading, learners should be able to work actively. The main reason learners quit reading is because they do not understand the contents (Joichi, 2015). According to Takahashi (2017), because extensive reading encourages learners’ motivation to read in the classroom, they also should be able to enjoy reading outside of the classroom. It is hard to read books with too many unknown and difficult words; therefore, the importance of extensive reading is to enable learners to choose books that they can read in their comfort zone without frustration or difficulty, which provides learners with confidence in reading a foreign language (Ono et al., 2004).

In Yoshimura & Domier’s study (2017), participants tended to choose comic books as their level of the graded reader (GR) gets higher. Yoshimura claims that this is the ideal process for learners in an extensive reading class. As advocated in Day and Bamford ‘s Rule 4 (1998), students choose what they want to read; therefore, the result of a high proportion of learners choosing comic books is a good result for extensive reading. This study shows that reading with pleasure improves motivation to learn.

Yoshimura (2018) examined whether self-assessment can measure the influence of extensive reading. Learners took a self-assessment at both the beginning and the end of the semester to determine whether the reading material was understandable without using a dictionary. In addition to the self-assessment, they also took a reading comprehension test at the beginning of the semester, with the result that their self-assessment and reading comprehension were correlated. When learners have a positive self-assessment, the score shows a good result;
the converse is true as well. At the end of the semester, the learners felt comfortable reading, without a dictionary, the same material they had determined difficult at the beginning of the semester. This study showed that learners are comfortable reading foreign-language books without using a dictionary, and that the higher their reading comprehension, the higher their self-assessment. Yoshimura also claimed that self-assessment is also important from the point of view of increasing autonomy through self-reflection.

2.2.2. Extensive listening

Extensive listening is type of foreign language learning, similar to extensive reading, that also focuses on the benefits of receiving a vast amount of input, which in this case comes from listening instead of reading. Waring (2010) claimed that extensive listening requires listening to a large amount of texts that are understandable for learners with higher levels of comprehension at a comfortable level and should not involve any preset questions or tasks. Renandya and Farrell (2011) defined extensive listening as “all types of listening activities that allow learners to receive a lot of comprehensible and enjoyable listening input” (p. 56). Both definitions show that extensive listening should be in learners’ listening comfort zone but involve a massive amount of listening with pleasure. For instance, listening to podcasts in a target language every day is extensive listening because students listen to what interests them and do so for pleasure.

As mentioned earlier, effective learners use more of a top-down process. According to Bidabadi and Yamat (2014), lower intermediate level learners succeed by focusing on a text’s main idea using a top-down process. Learners concentrate on some key words and sentences to understand what they are listening to. Thus, utilizing a top-down process develops learners’ listening comprehension skill, and what extensive listening focuses on is top-down process. In
other words, extensive listening is the best method for proceeding with the top-down process for learners (Waring, 2013).

2.2.3. Benefits of Extensive Reading and Extensive Listening

The learning style of extensive listening is learner-centered instruction, which encourages students to maintain their learning motivation. The main reason for learner-centered style is that learners can choose their listening materials. According to Holden (2008), “extensive listening should not be only foster the development of learners’ listening skills, but also their ability to more consciously guide themselves in independently learning a second language” (p. 310). It leads teachers to expand extensive listening outside of the classroom. A teacher can focus on grammar, reading, or vocabulary in the classroom, and learners are responsible for what they listen to the outside (Vo, 2013).

According to Waring (2010), language learning starts with an understanding of grammar and vocabulary, and then how they are put together in sentences. To achieve this, he concluded, “If you understand almost all of the text you listen to, you can build your word recognition speed, you will notice more uses of grammar points, more collocations and generally your brain will be working very effectively” (p. 7)

Over the years, many researchers stated why extensive reading and extensive listening are useful to learners. Day and Bamford (2000) stated that the reason why extensive reading has a positive influence on learners is that it increases learners’ exposure to the target language. Also, due to the amount of input, it helps learners to recognize a word automatically (Grabe, 1991). As mentioned earlier, to achieve the amount of input, learners need to be motivated (Yoshimura & Domier, 2017).
2.2.4. Motivation

Extensive reading and extensive listening have one significant characteristic in common: motivation. Both extensive reading and extensive listening require continuous input. To achieve it, learners must feel pleasure, as Awano (2012) advocated in the research. It appears that “motivation” is the key to language learning through previous sections: extensive reading, extensive listening, and learning with audiovisual materials. Motivation supports learners’ eagerness to acquire the language and reach their goals (Dornyei, 1998).
CHAPTER 3
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Previous Studies of Extensive Reading and Listening

3.1.1. A Study on Spanish at Georgia State University

Rodrigo (2006) conducted research on how the amount of input affected grammar acquisition in an intermediate-level Spanish class. 130 university students participated in the research. In both groups, more than 50% of participants were studying Spanish for more than four years and had traveled to Spanish speaking countries. Seventy-eight students were in the experimental group and fifty-two students were in the controlled group. The content-based approach was applied to both groups, in which all students must do the required reading and listening discussion in the classroom. In addition to the previous approach, experimental groups were required to do narrow listening activities and extensive listening. Narrow listening is based on the extensive listening methods but focuses on one of 24 topics collected in an audio library. At the end of the semester, each participant in the experimental group had listened to 16 topics. They were asked to listen to the passage as many times as they felt necessary. At the end of the research, both groups were asked to take the grammar test that they had taken before the study began.

The research results indicated that both groups had improved their scores; however, the experimental group had a higher score than the control group. The control group’s mean pretest score was 313.03, improving to 320.09 at the end of the semester. On the other hand, the experimental group’s mean pretest score was 303.20, improving to 315.65 in the end. Thus, the experimental group gained 12.44 points, whereas the control group gained only 5.05.
Rodrigo claims that even though the narrow listening method was used in the research, it demonstrated that extensive listening and extensive reading were effective in improving students' grammar skills and comprehension accuracy. Furthermore, the study demonstrates the bottom-up process in language skill acquisition; Rodrigo proposed that students should receive more opportunities to read and listen to interesting materials to improve motivation.

This research investigated the results of the study that supported Krashen’s (2003) input and comprehension hypothesis. This hypothesis claims that language acquisition takes place with a large amount of comprehensible input. More input has an increased positive effect on language learners. As mentioned earlier, the benefit of extensive listening is that learners can receive more input. A large amount of input provides continuous stimulation to the brain and helps learners to retain vocabulary, grammar, and phrasing.

3.1.2. A Study on ESL Learners in Japan

Yoshii (2017) investigated how first-year university students develop in reading comprehension, listening comprehension, and reading speed through large amounts of reading and listening input over one semester. The participants were 27 freshmen majoring in English literature who had enrolled in the course “Extensive Reading & Listening to I” who majored in English literature and language. The instructor used Level 2 Cambridge English Readers' extensive materials. Participants were asked to read thirteen books, the equivalent of 130000 words. Participants were required to read one book either in class or outside of class every week and report the number of words and time spent reading. In the class, students were asked to do a reading comprehension evaluation based on the books they read. Students were also asked to write a short review on their book blog every week. As for listening materials, Yoshii used
online English learning materials from the English Central website. Students were required to watch at least three videos every week and do the speaking activity. In the speaking activity, students were asked to imitate phrases and passages from the video and record them. They got the points and comments automatically from the program immediately, so they were also required to correct their mistakes. This speaking activity was required for at least one hour per week outside of the classroom.

At the end of the semester, participants were asked to take the TOEIC test to measure their reading and listening comprehension, as they had been asked before the study. The results showed that their general English skills improved from 23.26 to 32.48. Listening comprehension improved from 9.85 to 16.37, and reading comprehension improved from 13.41 to 16.11. Moreover, the reading speed per minute was faster, from 114.39 to 166.64. Thus, the research showed the significant effects of extensive reading and listening on students’ language skills.

Yoshii claimed that the amount of input used in this research was appropriate for improving reading and listening comprehension and reading speed. This clearly shows in the data, but the lack of relationship between the amount and the improvement suggests that more research is necessary. Moreover, the speaking activity done during the study may have affected the result because every score they received after the speaking activity increased student motivations. Yoshii suggests that the amount of input, the quality of input, which includes appropriateness and interests for learners, and the interaction of reading and listening will affect the research. This research shows that the motivations of learners and the amount of input influence their comprehension skills.

Motivation encourages learners to keep studying. Both extensive reading and extensive listening require learners to choose material that they find interesting and that is within their
comfort zone. Reading books in a foreign language is not easy for learners, but extensive reading helps learners to read easily and quickly without frustration. Thus, learners can read books continuously and receive knowledge. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, extensive reading provides a good practice of top-down process, the essential aspect of effective listening. Therefore, extensive reading helps learners develop their comprehension skills, as Yoshii’s study showed.

3.1.3. A study on Extensive Reading in Japanese Language Learners

Fukumoto (2004) looked at the effects of intensive reading and extensive reading by comparing two groups of 38 Japanese learners learning intermediate and advanced Japanese in Japan. Participants were divided into intensive reading classes and extensive reading classes. In the intensive reading class, all 16 students were native Chinese speakers. In the extensive reading class, there were 20 native Chinese speakers and one native speaker of Thai. Both classes were conducted as 90 minutes of class a week. Participants took pre- and posttests assessing vocabulary, comprehension, and grammar based on the Japanese Language Proficiency Test N2 level. The study started in an intensive reading class with a discussion in which students talked about the relevant themes of their materials. They then read and answered questions about the passage. After they answered questions, the instructor checked vocabulary and grammar comprehension, then checked their answers.

On the other hand, the students were asked to read two specific books during the study. Participants began reading around ten pages per class, and as they became used to reading books, they were assigned more pages. At the beginning of the class, students were asked to answer some questions about the previous story, and at the end of the class, they were required to write the outline of the part they had read in class.
The researchers found that both intensive and extensive reading classes improved the average score. As for the vocabulary section, the intensive class improved by 7.0 points, while the extensive class improved by 16.4 points. As for the comprehension section, the former improved by 3.3 points while the latter improved by 8.8 points. However, as for the grammar section, intensive participants improved 15.3 points on average while extensive class improved by 5.1 points on average. Fukumoto attributed this result to the intensive reading method’s requirement that students understand sentence structure. Further, the large language input affected the students’ cognitive skills in that vocabulary and comprehension skills improved. This result suggests that the amount of input may improve language-related cognitive skills.

3.1.4. A Study on L2 Learners in China

Chang (2012) conducted a study on 55 part-time university students enrolled in an English assessment course after their study in a college in Taipei. Chang put 31 students in an extensive listening class and 24 in the intensive listening class. Students took the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) before the course. The listening comprehension score average of the extensive listening class was 43.77 out of 100 and 42.71 for the other class. Learners in the extensive listening class were provided seven audiobooks in the first 14 weeks and eight books in the second 12 weeks. Students were asked to take comprehension questions, which were administered not as a test but as a check. The intensive listening class was provided three audiobooks in detail and were taught chapter by chapter with structured instruction. Students listened to audiobooks and read them, then listened to them again, asking any questions, while the instructor gave them learning points about the books. At last, both groups took the TOEIC listening comprehension test.
The scores of both groups improved. In the pretest, the extensive listening group got 43.77 but improved to 50.74, and the intensive listening group score improved from 42.71 to 44.67. Moreover, students reported that they felt their listening comprehension skills had improved. One student mentioned that understanding different actors was hard because of the variety of intonation and accents. However, the more they listened, the easier it became to understand the contents. The students also reported that the best thing about the course was that they could choose their materials based on their interest and English level, which led to maintaining their motivation. This suggests that extensive listening is helpful in improving students’ listening skills and in keeping them motivated.

3.1.5. A Study of Effects of Extensive Reading on JSL Learners’ Motivation

Ninomiya and Kawakami (2012) did a study on students enrolled in Japanese intermediate classes in two universities. Eleven students participated from A university and seven students did from B university. Ninomiya and Kawakami focused on participants’ motivation and satisfaction. Participants were required to report the amount of readings, and teachers had meetings with participants to advise and understand participants’ change.

A different procedure was performed at each university. At A university, participants took ten 20-minute classes. At B university, participants took five 45-minute classes. The first class at both universities was an orientation. On the last day, all participants took a survey; at A university, participants reflected on their own reading activity, while participants at B university introduced their reading recommendations to their classmates.

According to the survey, all participants at A university felt their reading speed increased throughout the class. On the other hand, all participants at B university responded that they did
not have to translate Japanese into their native languages throughout the class. As for participant autonomy, all participants from both universities answered that they wanted to continue the extensive reading method. Participants felt a sense of achievement in finishing reading a book without a dictionary. Most learners felt that they had improved their reading skills. Ninomiya and Kawakami argued that advising enabled participants to choose easy and understandable books such that they did not use dictionaries and translate each sentence in their heads; thus their reading speed increased. Ninomiya and Kawakami also confirmed that participants showed autonomy and self-determination by choosing books and controlling their reading speed. In conclusion, participants enjoyed reading itself through the extensive reading method.

These studies have shown that extensive reading and extensive listening have positive influences on learners. Choosing materials and controlling the amount of reading or listening with appropriate advising help learners to increase their autonomy; thus, learners feel satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment, leading to increased motivation. Motivation gives learners persistence, which both extensive reading and extensive listening require. Thus, learners can receive input continuously. Motivation, autonomy, and amount of input are all connected in extensive reading and extensive listening.

3.2. Significance of the Present Study

This research examines the influence of Japanese language learners watching audiovisual materials outside of class on listening comprehension when students are exposed to extensive listening without regular advising. According to past research, both extensive reading and extensive listening have significant influence on Japanese language learners. However, both learning methods require advising and instruction by a teacher. It is important to keep learners on
the right track, but because of the increase in availability of various audiovisual materials, learners can get any authentic materials they prefer. Therefore, there is a possibility that learners can improve their listening skills on their own.

Some Japanese language learners watch Japanese videos every day, which could be similar to the practice of extensive listening because of the similar amount of input. Thus, this study takes place in the framework of extensive listening. Watching Japanese videos as a daily routine provides continuous input into learners’ brains. Thus, it should be expected to improve listening skills.

Moreover, this study examines learners' perspectives on how audiovisual materials that they choose to watch may enhance their learning of Japanese language through vocabulary acquisition and improvement in pronunciation and comprehension of cultural aspects. Depending on what aspect learners focus on, their listening comprehension might be different. Therefore, this study should examine the influence of watching audiovisual materials outside of the classroom.

3.3. Research Question

1. Is there a relationship between the amount of input a Japanese learner receives from using audiovisual materials and listening comprehension?
2. Do learners of Japanese language feel that watching Japanese audiovisual materials is useful in studying the Japanese language?
CHAPTER 4

METHODS AND PARTICIPANTS

4.1. The Participants of This Study

Participants were 13 students in total who are currently taking Japanese at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Among the 13 participants, five students were enrolled in the Japanese intermediate-level language class, and eight students were in the elementary-level language class. All 13 participants' data were used in this research.

4.2. Research Design

This study is divided into two sections: listening comprehension and a questionnaire. At first, participants took a listening comprehension test; they then answered the questionnaire. The listening comprehension was divided into eight sections. Although students were not told how the eight sections were divided, there were four main factors in listening comprehension, and each had two types of conversation. The main groups were divided based on speech styles: casual and formal speech, dialect speech, phatic expression, and male-female speech. In this study, each speech style was created with natural speaking speed and slower speaking speed. All conversation was created and recorded by the researcher and two other female native Japanese speakers. Each section had five questions with four possible multiple-choice answers. Participants were asked to listen to each conversation twice and answer all questions.

To randomize the order of factors, such as speed and four categories of speech, participants were divided into four groups based on the chart below.
Table 2

Groups Based on Randomization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Dialect</th>
<th>Natural</th>
<th>Slow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Casual vs. Formal</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male vs. Female</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phatic</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th>Casual vs. Formal</th>
<th>Slow</th>
<th>Natural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male vs. Female</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phatic</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialect</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 3</th>
<th>Male vs. Female</th>
<th>Natural</th>
<th>Slow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phatic</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialect</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual vs. Formal</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 4</th>
<th>Phatic</th>
<th>Slow</th>
<th>Natural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dialect</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual vs. Formal</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male vs. Female</td>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Slow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because the researcher assumed that slower speed conversation is more comprehensible, thus, to avoid the scoring bias, speech speed was mixed.

All four main conversations were divided into fast and slow speeds. To ensure an equal difficulty level, each conversation pair used the same style. For example, in casual vs. formal conversation, both natural- and slow-speed conversations were set at a hotel. Two friends started chatting in a room about its view. Then, the scene changed to the reception area, where two people asked for a map and restaurants. The differences between the topics of the two conversations were the view from the room and the names and types of restaurants. Thus, similar
questions were asked in the comprehension assessment. However, participants were not told that they would listen to two different conversational speeds. Therefore, after the comprehension test, participants commented that because the conversation was too similar, they were confused at the beginning of the comprehension test. However, once they listened to the contents carefully, there were no more confusion.

In the dialect conversation, the dialogue focused on dialect, using Kansai dialect, which is used in the western area of Japan. Participants were also not told which dialect they would hear. Kansai is a famous Japanese dialect; however, participants did not study it in any language level class; therefore, it was equally difficult for participants at all levels.

In group 1, there were two participants from the elementary level and two participants from the intermediate level. In group 2, three students participated at the elementary level and one at the intermediate level. In group 3, two students at the elementary level and one at the intermediate level participated. At last, in group 4, there was one student each from each level. Because of the difference in participants’ Japanese language proficiency level, they were asked to split up to maintain the balance in language level.

Table 3

Groups Based on Language Proficiency Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The questionnaire had two sections. The first section asked participants about their video-watching habits, whether they used audiovisual materials to study a foreign language, how much they watched daily, and whether participants felt that using audiovisual materials was useful. In the second section, participants were asked their opinion about whether watching movies with subtitles was useful, based on a 5-point scale (“strongly disagree,” “disagree,” “neutral,” “agree,” and “strongly agree”). There were ten variables: pronunciations, dialect, accent, female-male speech style, natural speed, casual–formal expression, phatic expression, cultural aspects, appropriateness of speech style, and Japanese idioms. Among these ten aspects, participants were asked about dialect, female-male speech style, natural speed, casual, formal expression, and phatic expression on their listening comprehension test.

4.3. Data Collection Procedure

The researcher received an Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval on January 28, 2020. (See appendix) The data was collected from February 4 through February 12. Instructors teaching first-year, second-year, and advanced Japanese language classes helped recruit participants. Lecturers sent out emails to their students about the research. The email included the researcher’s name and email address so that any students interested in participating in the study could contact the researcher directly. Most importantly, students were told that participation in the research did not affect their grades.

At first, students were asked to sign the consent form asking that students participate in approximately one hour of listening comprehension and fill out a questionnaire. After signing the consent form, students were given out listening comprehension questions. The participants were informed that they would listen to eight conversations, with each conversation played twice. To
avoid giving students preconceptions, students were not allowed to ask about questions or conversation until the end of the entire listening comprehension recording. At last, participants took the two-section questionnaire.

4.4. Data Analysis

This study was conducted to answer two research questions, both of which were analyzed based on the data collected. Research question 1 was analyzed based on the listening comprehension score and participants’ questionnaire answers regarding watching Japanese audiovisual content. Research question 2 was also analyzed based on the questionnaire.

RQ1. Is there a relationship between the amount of input a Japanese learner receives from using audiovisual materials and listening comprehension?

This study question was analyzed based on the question from the questionnaire, “How many minutes per day do you watch Japanese videos outside of the classroom?” and the participant’s total listening comprehension score. Students were asked to provide the amount of time based on a scale from 10 minutes up to 60 minutes. In this research, “amount of input” is measured by the total amount of time students spent watching Japanese video because participants watch a variety of videos outside of the classroom, and it is hard to measure in words. Participants who did not fit in this scale were asked to write specific times. Among 12 participants, three answered that they did not watch every day but watched for hours on the weekends. In that case, the times participants gave were divided by seven (days of the week) and merged with other answers. As for listening comprehension, participants were asked to answer 40 questions in total, with each question worth 1 point.
RQ2. Do learners of the Japanese language feel useful for watching Japanese audiovisual materials to study the Japanese language?

In the questionnaire this question, participants were asked specifically how they used audiovisual materials to study a foreign language and why videos were useful. To answer this research question, the researcher categorized common words from their comments into five categories: grammar, vocabulary or phrase, pronunciation, listening practice, and cultural study. For example, one participant commented, “I repeat the phrase in the video and try matching the accent.” Thus, this participant’s answer was categorized as phrase and pronunciation.
CHAPTER 5
ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1. Research Question 1

The first research question, “Is there a relationship between the amount of input a Japanese learner receives from using audiovisual materials and listening comprehension,” was analyzed based on students’ listening comprehension score and time of watching videos. Figure 1 shows the relationship of scores and participants’ daily watching habits, which consists of both intermediate and elementary level Japanese learners,

**Figure 1**

Relationship between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants’ Daily Watching Habits
The raw score average was 28.5. As Figure 1 shows, the relationships between the amount of time spent watching videos and the listening comprehension scores remain unclear. A participant who scored 35 out of 40, the highest score in the group, watched 20 minutes per day. However, a participant who watched audiovisual material 60 minutes per day scored 28, which is 0.5 points lower than average.

Figure 2 and 3 showed the results of the listening comprehension task based on the participant’s Japanese level. The average of elementary level participants was 27.9 out of 40, and that of intermediate level participants was 28.4 out of 40. In comparing the two figures, the level of Japanese class seems irrelevant because the difference is only 0.5 point. However, because of the lack of numbers provided by participants in both levels, the relationship is unclear.

**Figure 2**

Elementary Level – Relationship between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants’ Daily Watching Habits
Figure 3

Intermediate Level – Relationship between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants’ Daily Watching Habits

Figure 4 through 7 are based on the four main groups of listening comprehension: casual and formal speech, dialect speech, phatic expression, and male and female speech. The perfect score for each section was 10 points. The average score for dialect was 6.6 points, with 7.7 points for casual and formal expression, 6.4 points for male and female speech, and 7.2 points for phatic expression.

Figure 8 consists of a bar graph and a line chart. It shows the results of Question 15: “When you used subtitles, how much could you hear the Japanese?” The bars in Figure 8 show the relationship between listening comprehension scores and participants’ daily watching habits, and the line chart in Figure 8 shows the relationship between participants’ daily watching habits and their self-assessment of how much they understand Japanese language with subtitles. Therefore, the relationship between listening comprehension scores and self-assessment was analyzed based on the comparison of to data. Two participants did not answer the question; thus, the line shows a score of 0 for those participants.
**Figure 4**

Dialect - Relationship Between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants' Daily Watching Habits

**Figure 5**

Casual and Formal – Relationship between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants’ Daily Watching Habits
Figure 6

Male and Female – Relationship between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants’ Daily Watching Habits

Figure 7

Phatic – Relationship between Listening Comprehension Scores and Participants’ Daily Watching Habits
5.2. Analyzing Research Question 1

As seen in Figures 4, 5, 6, and 7, the relationship between language speech style categories and daily watching habits remains unclear. However, there were two outstanding participants throughout Figures 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. One of them earned higher scores for most of the categories and another one earned lower scores. The time they spend watching is not the lowest or the highest, but their scores are unique. Therefore, given the available data about these two participants, the reasons for the vagueness of the result may be evident. Moreover, the
analysis of these two outstanding participants may reflect the new approach involving extensive listening to audiovisual materials.

A student who watches only 20 minutes earned the highest or second-highest score, from Figure 4 to Figure 7 (hereinafter called “Student A”). Indeed, 20 minutes is a relatively short time compared to that of the other participants, such as the participant who watches 60 minutes. Moreover, the average of the participants’ watching habits was 34 minutes. This average also shows that 20 minutes is a short time for participants to watch. Question 8 states, “Why do you think watching audiovisual materials is useful for studying a foreign language?” Student A answered, “It is useful because we can attach the phrases we hear to the subtitles in the video.” The student’s comment indicates there is a connection between listening skills and memory skills. Therefore, Student A may take background knowledge gained from audiovisual materials and use it when listening to new information. This strategy matches what the top-down process does. The top-down process involves using background knowledge; as mentioned earlier, effective learners tend to use this method. Also, as seen in Figure 8, Student A listens to 70% of the Japanese while using subtitles. This percentage is not the highest, but it is higher than the average, which was 59%.

Conversely, the student who received the lowest or second-lowest score, except for in the dialect section, hereinafter called “Student B”, watches 15 minutes per day. Question 12 asked, “How many minutes do you watch Japanese audiovisual materials per day outside of the classroom?” Student B answered, “1 or 2 times per month, and I watch the entire video or a season.” Based on this answer, Student B does not receive as much continuous input as Student A does. As previously stated, continuous stimulation is required to develop learners’ listening ability. The development of recognition ability allows learners to process and understand
quickly. Thus, although Student B gets a certain amount of input, it may not directly connect to listening comprehension skills.

As Figure 8 shows, we could observe a moderate tendency that students' perception of language comprehension is somewhat related to their actual listening comprehension ability. For example, 9 out of 11 students, excluding two students who did not respond, show a self-assessed percentage of their listening comprehension that is close to the actual listening comprehension scores. Due to a small number of sample size, we cannot further analyze the data. However, with a larger sample size, the relationships between these two factors may be observed in the future. Yoshimura (2018) has already reported that there was a significant correlation between the self-assessed reading comprehension and the objective test in the paradigm of extensive reading, which has a similar pedagogical framework to extensive listening.

This moderate tendency implies that students still pay attention to the target language when they use audio visual materials with subtitles. It further implies that even with the use of subtitles, when students spend a longer duration of time on audio visual materials, they are more likely to improve their listening comprehension skills.

Based on the Figures above, there is no clear relevance between the amount of input and listening comprehension skills. There are three possible reasons for not finding the connection of time and listening skill: a) the difference of length of watching audio materials, b) the differences in the genre participants watched, and c) the language stimulation participants received from non-audiovisual materials.

In terms of the first possible reason, as seen in Figure 1, student A earned the highest score in listening comprehension. Based on Figures 2 and 3, this participant was in the elementary level language class. In the Japanese program of the University of Massachusetts
Amherst, students take two semesters of the elementary-level course and step up to the intermediate class. This study was done from December to January, so student A has been taking Japanese class for only one semester. Therefore, the learning period may not always influence the listening skill, although the period of audiovisual material use may influence the result. A different student commented about watching audiovisual materials, “Because I could guess the words that I don’t know based on the rest of parts of the sentence.” As explained earlier in chapter 2.a.1, an effective listener uses bottom-up and top-down processes (O’Malley and Chamot, 1989). The top-down process requires using background knowledge and learning context; thus, learners who gained more input can use such knowledge effectively. However, in this research, there was no section asking how many years participants have been watching Japanese audiovisual materials; therefore, a future study may include such a detailed analysis.

Regarding the second possible reason, as seen in figures 4, 5, 6, and 7, there was a variety of scores that had no correlation with time spent watching audiovisual material. For example, for learners who watched Japanese TV dramas, which only use standard Japanese language, there was no input of dialect speech style. Another example is that in some anime characters use unusual expressions that non-native Japanese speakers usually do not use. Kumano (2010) presented learners' opinions about learning through anime that characters use unique speech styles or terminology in specific anime situations. As Chapter 2.1.4 points out, authenticity is the importance of audiovisual materials used; however, if the learners watch only a particular genre, it causes bias with regard to language knowledge.

At last, regarding the third possible reason, audiovisual materials are not the only source for studying language outside of the classroom. At the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, there is the Japanese Students Association and tutor program. Japanese language learners are
encouraged to attend both programs to have more opportunities to speak with native Japanese speakers. Therefore, learners who join such programs frequently may gain more input than learners who do not participate. Moreover, some students have Japanese friends online and thus have more chances to get used to the speech style and speed of native speakers. In the research, participants were not required to answer regarding their participation in programs or whether they had Japanese friends.

5.3. Research Question 2

The second research question, “Do learners of the Japanese language feel that watching Japanese audiovisual materials is useful for studying the Japanese language,” was analyzed based on participants’ comments and their survey responses. Table 2 categorized based on question 6, “how did you use audiovisual materials to study a foreign language?”, in which participants responded whether watching audiovisual materials was useful in terms of grammar, vocabulary or phrase, pronunciation, listening practice, and cultural studies. As the chart below shows, participants felt that audiovisual materials were effective for studying vocabulary.

Table 4

Number of Participants for Useful Language Acquisition Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Vocabulary and phrase</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Listening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of participants</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 is based on the question, “Which one do you think watching movies with subtitles are useful for?” As explained earlier, extensive listening requires materials that are comprehensible
for learners. Therefore, subtitles are not used in the extensive listening method. However, this study is based on participants’ daily habits of using audiovisual materials, so there is no restriction as for extensive listening class. Learners usually watch audiovisual materials with subtitles out of class.

Table 5
Categories and Answers About Using Subtitles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciations</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialect</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accent</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-M speech</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual expression</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phatic expression</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural aspect</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idiom</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 3, 46% of participants strongly agree that watching movies with subtitles is useful for learning pronunciation.
5.4. Analyzing Research Question 2

In question 7, all participants answered that watching audiovisual materials is generally useful for learning a foreign language. As for the further question, participants asked to answer why they thought watching audiovisual materials would be helpful to study a foreign language. Some answers related to RQ2 are as follows:

“Good example of correct language and grammar construction, speech patterns.”

“Different speaking styles, learning very common expression.”

“Allows one to learn with both visual and auditory input.”

“Natural speed/speech dialect of the language”

“Applying hobby to studying is very useful for extended interest.”

“Because people in the video normally talk fastly, even though you can’t understand all of them, it is still a good way to practice listening. We don’t think word by word when listening to a sentence in a real life conversation.”

“I feel like I’m able to learn the language in context.”

“We can attach the phrases we hear to the situations in the video.”

“It gives you a head start in vocabulary and phrases in the language.”

“You can learn some phrases you may not learn in class. Also, you can hear the language spoken more casually and get used to native speed.”

Based on these comments, participants subjectively consider that watching audiovisual materials are useful for studying vocabulary, phrases, grammar and cultural knowledge, and skills necessary for listening to speech at native speed. As Chapter 2.b.3 pointed out that motivation is key to acquiring language, learners utilize audiovisual materials to learn a language in their comfort zone.
Moreover, as Table 3 shows, most learners agreed that watching movies with subtitles is useful for learning the Japanese language in most categories. All students found that watching Japanese movies was useful for studying Japanese as a foreign language in questionnaire question 17. Some comments in questionnaire question 18 are related to RQ 2:

“It provides cultural context and shows correct pronunciation.”

“You can learn and pick up on different speech patterns and ways of speaking.”

“I think for intermediate or advanced learners, it can be useful because they can practice listening comprehension and maybe learn some casual speech. For beginners, it is harder since they do not know much vocabulary.”

“The viewer is exposed to Japanese culture and society, as well as their speech, such as how things are pronounced, speed, and used.”

“It allows you to increase your vocabulary and experience their culture.”

“Composed to video works, movies provide a wider and consistent story, and this is useful for learning a variety of phrases.”

“Pick up words through dialogue. Learn mannerism. Absorb new grammar, casual speech, and formal speech.”

“They’re scripted, so the language used and pacing is easier to follow than real casual speech.”

“One of the best ways to learn a language is to practice and feel the atmosphere. So watching Japanese could give you the atmosphere (environment) to practice listening and understand Japanese culture.”

However, in the categories of dialect, female-male speech, and speed, a number of participants were concerned that using subtitles was not useful, whereas most participants found it useful.
There are three possible reasons why participants think in opposite ways: a) the way they used subtitles, b) their prior knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and c) the genre that participants watched.

In terms of the first possible reason, learners answered in question six that they used to imitate or listen for vocabulary and grammar while reading subtitles. Thus, for learners who used captions to understand the meaning or its usage, subtitles are effective. However, learners who read only subtitles and could not catch up to native speaking speed might fail to comprehend what they hear. Therefore, as for the speed category, 46% of participants felt it was useful, but 30% of participants thought it was not useful. When the actors were speaking too fast, the learners tended to follow the subtitles immediately and could not focus on listening. Based on the participants’ comments and answers, if learners did not immediately follow the subtitles, they found it easier to focus on listening. Both extensive reading and extensive listening require teachers to advise students what materials are appropriate for their level, and learners themselves need knowledge to select materials. Advising and learners’ knowledge are necessary for autonomy learning such as watching audiovisual materials outside of class.

In terms of the second possible reason, as a participant commented above, level of usefulness may differ based on level of background knowledge. Knowledge increases in proportion to the amount learners have studied. For example, at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, elementary-level learners use a *genki* textbook containing about 1700 vocabulary words. A gap definitely exists between learners who have completed the textbook and learners who have not. Thus, it is hard for elementary learners to hear all their grammar and vocabulary from videos: beginning Japanese learners are not used to listening to native Japanese speaking speed. Moreover, a big gap exists in speaking speed between classroom Japanese and native
Japanese speech. Kumano (2010) claimed that learners realize from the first that there are various speaking speeds and speech styles. A student commented that because the student's Japanese language teacher is a woman, following the speech of male video actors was hard to follow because of the differentiation in language use or pitch. A span of learning and listening to spoken Japanese in the classroom also creates a challenging gap for learners regarding vocabulary and grammar. Thus, background knowledge may have the opposite effect regarding usefulness of subtitles in learning a second language.

In relation to the third possible reason, this study did not ask what genres of audiovisual materials participants preferred to use. As mentioned earlier, depending on learners’ preferences, participants receive different speech styles, vocabulary, or intonation. For example, participants who watch only non-animation movies which focus on Japanese daily life, tend to gain more knowledge on authentic situations or everyday conversation. On the other hand, participants who watch only animated shows which are science-fiction, tend to receive more terminology and less authentic Japanese daily conversation. Therefore, the participants who gain more experiences with authentic situations of the Japanese language, may perceive that audiovisual materials are more useful compared to participants who watch audiovisual materials that use more terminology or limited speech styles.
CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION

6.1. Future Research

This study provided the possibility of extensive listening outside of the classroom, which does not require appropriate instruction. Learners use audiovisual materials to study a target language for various purposes: improving grammar, vocabulary or phrase, pronunciation, listening and speaking practice, and cultural study. The most significant finding from this study is that learners use these materials spontaneously. They observe what they can learn from audiovisual materials they watch for pleasure and learn from it. However, there is still room for improvement through future study.

At first, in addition to how long learners watch audiovisual materials, detailed data were collected on when they started watching. The reciprocal relationship between scores and watching habits was not clear in this study because each participant did not begin using audiovisual materials at the same time they started learning Japanese. This research emphasizes the importance of a large amount of input for second-language acquisition; thus, it is necessary to include the data of learners’ watching habits before they start learning Japanese.

Secondary, a greater number of participants could have provided this research with more significant evidence. In this study, there were 13 participants in total: eight at the elementary level and five at the intermediate level. As Figures 2 and 3 show, the lack of a number of participants made it hard to generate correct statistically significant data. To obtain more specific data, an equal number of participants from each level is necessary—and surely a larger number.
6.2. Conclusion

The study showed that learners perceive that audiovisual materials are useful for learning Japanese in an extensive listening framework, based on reports of participants’ daily viewing habits and a questionnaire. Furthermore, the purpose of this study was to determine how implicit input influenced learners’ listening comprehension skills. The 12 participants in this study were enrolled in Japanese language classes at elementary and intermediate levels. All participants were asked to take a listening comprehension quiz and answer a questionnaire, which asked about viewing habits regarding audiovisual materials and how participants felt about using them to learn a foreign language. To investigate the usefulness of watching Japanese movies with subtitles, learners were asked how useful they felt it was for each language category: pronunciation, dialect, accent, female/male speech style, natural speaking speed, casual and informal speech, phatic expression, cultural aspects, appropriateness of speech style based on relationship, and Japanese-specific expressions such as idioms.

Past studies found that extensive listening improves listening skills with a large amount of comprehensible input. Holden (2008) stated that for developing learners, listening comprehension occurs with a natural order of language acquisition as children. In addition to the language acquisition method, two processes encourage learners to improve their listening skills: bottom-up and top-down (O’Malley and Chamot, 1989). The bottom-up process involves recognizing the sound based on what the learner hears, and the top-down process requires background knowledge and context to understand the input.

Language acquisition requires a large amount of input, which is understandable and enjoyable for learners (Warning 2010; Renandya and Farrell, 2011). Researchers stated that input demands higher levels of learner proficiency but, to ensure enjoyment, should not be out of their
comfort zone. Extensive listening fulfills these conditions. Extensive listening has to be understandable for learners, satisfy learners’ interests, and provide input continuously. Materials for extensive listening can be audio-only, such as audiobooks or podcasts or audiovisual materials such as films, TV drama, and anime. The importance of these materials is their authenticity.

The benefit of using authentic materials applies both to learners and teachers. Melvin and Stout (1987) stated that authentic materials encourage learners to expose more in-depth knowledge of the target language and culture. As for teachers, it is useful to provide students accurate pronunciation and target culture. Ohara (2007) claimed that for language learning, adding audiovisual materials to text materials is more desirable. Because it is hard for some learners to read out text without doing so the characters’ perspective or understanding the situation in context, it is good training for learners to connect situation, and character perspective while they practice speaking. Therefore, using audiovisual materials is essential to second-language acquisition in the extensive listening method.

In the future, more language classes could apply extensive listening methods using audiovisual materials. First, it would be necessary to determine how to use class time effectively. Although continuous stimulation has a positive influence on learners, class time is limited. Therefore, based on past research, teachers could use either one whole class per week or 10–20 minutes of every class, depending on class length. In addition, extensive listening can only be done if learners have access to materials outside the classroom. Furthermore, based on this study, teachers need to select materials to avoid learners choosing materials that are beyond their proficiency level. Naturally, learners need to choose their own materials, but teachers should provide appropriate resources for the class to avoid things such as violent films. Teachers should
provide materials based on class length because it is hard for learners to focus on watching movies if they only have 20 minutes of class time available. With regard to resources, equipment is needed, such as headphones or displays to watch materials, if extensive listening is done in the classroom. Since learners choose their own materials, each learner needs to use equipment on their own. Finally, learners could share their opinions about the materials. There are many websites where audiences can write comments and evaluations of what they watch. Teachers could create a similar website and learners could introduce and share with their classmates. Learners could recommend audiovisual materials that they like to one another, and they could communicate with classmates through the extensive-listening learning style.

As this study demonstrates, extensive listening has a significant impact on learners’ listening skills in the field of second-language acquisition. Extensive listening could possibly be used not just for classroom teaching but also for spontaneous individual study. Therefore, extensive listening should be studied further, in various ways, to improve learners' listening skills.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Name

You will listen to each conversation twice. Circle the correct answer. Please answer all questions.

Each section has 5 question.

Listen to the conversation between two people and answer questions.
※This conversation is recorded by two females, but answer the questions based on contents and expression in the conversation. Not based on voices.

1. Where does this conversation take place?
   a. Vegetable store
   b. Cleaning company
   c. Bakery
   d. Home

2. What is their relationship?
   a. Teacher – student
   b. Friend – friend
   c. Employer – employee
   d. Parent – child

3. Which person is female and male?
   a. Yamada-san
4. When the person said, it is hard at first, what intention is included?
   a. Accept
   b. Deny
   c. Surprise
   d. Expectation

5. Why does she expect many customers today?
   a. Sale
   b. Two recommendations
   c. Two times the points
   d. New open

Listen to the conversation between two people and answer questions.
※This conversation is recorded by two females, but answer the questions based on contents and expression in the conversation. Not based on voices.

1. Where does this conversation take place?
   a. Bakery
   b. Butcher
   c. Supermarket
   d. Chinese restaurant
2. What is their relationship? How can you tell?
   a. Teacher – student
   b. Parent – child
   c. Manager – worker
   d. Friend – friend

3. Which person is female and male?
   a. Ueno -san
   b. Kubo – san

4. When the person said why customer is many today, is this person confident?
   a. Strongly confident
   b. Confident
   c. Unconfident
   d. Strongly unconfident

5. When the person said, I like that, too, what intention is included?
   a. Deny
   b. surprise
   c. Understand
   d. suspicious
Listen to the conversation between three people and answer questions.

1. How did this person find the room?
   a. introduced by real estate
   b. introduced by senior
   c. introduced by co-worker
   d. introduced by teacher

2. When, one girl asked about the map, the other girl said, うーん、 does she confident about the direction?
   a. strongly confident
   b. confident
   c. unconfident
   d. strongly unconfident

3. Why did this person who gave the direction said “ああ” when they asked where the restaurant is?
   a. not confident about the direction
   b. had met who got lost before
   c. knows these two characters got lost
   d. had no idea why these two characters got lost
4. What intention is used for second “ああ” when the shopper gave the direction?
   a. disappointment
   b. suspicious
   c. understanding
   d. surprise

5. Why did the shopper say “いいえー” instead of your welcome?
   a. refuse
   b. accepts
   c. modest
   d. disappointment

Listen to the conversation between three people and answer questions.

1. How did this person find the room?
   a. introduced by real estimate
   b. advertisement at company
   c. introduced by co-worker
   d. advertisement at the station
2. When, one girl asked about the map, the other girl said, うーん、 does she confident about the direction?
   a. strongly confident
   b. confident
   c. unconfident
   d. strongly unconfident

3. Why did this person who gave the direction said “ああ” when they asked where the restaurant is?
   a. had met who got lost before
   b. knows these two characters got lost
   c. had no idea why these two characters got lost
   d. not confident about the direction

4. What intention is used for second “ああ” when the shopper gave the direction?
   a. understanding
   b. suspicious
   c. surprise
   d. disappointment
5. Why did the shopper say “いいえー” instead of your welcome?

   a. modest
   b. agrees
   c. disappointment
   d. refuse

Listen to the conversation between two people and answer questions.

1. Where does this conversation take place?
   a. Cafeteria
   b. Lounge
   c. Classroom
   d. Bathroom

2. Did Maki study for her test last night?
   a. Yes
   b. No

3. How did Yuri know what pages she was supposed to study?
   a. Maki
   b. Teacher
   c. Classmate
   d. Syllabus
4. Is Maki confident about the Yahoo news?
   a. Yes
   b. No

5. What intention is used when Maki said she will treat coffee?
   a. Encourage
   b. Agreement
   c. Suggestion
   d. Modest

Listen to the conversation between two people and answer questions.

1. When does this conversation take place?
   a. Bathroom
   b. Classroom
   c. Cafeteria
   d. Lounge

2. What intention is used when Rika said she will go to the bakery?
   a. Encourage
   b. Deny
   c. Confident
   d. Agreement
3. What did Rika do in Kyoto?
   a. ate mochi
   b. went to Kodai-ji
   c. ate Matcha ice cream
   d. went to Nanzen-ji

4. Why did Rika choose the souvenir?
   a. Scary
   b. Weird
   c. Cute
   d. Cool

5. What intention is used when Magu said thank you?
   a. Disappointment
   b. Agreement
   c. Suggestion
   d. Modest

Listen to the conversation between three people and answer questions.

1. Where does this conversation take place?
   a. Office
   b. Hotel
   c. School
   d. Friend’s home
2. What restaurant did they decide to go?
   a. Maguroya
   b. French restaurant
   c. Italian restaurant
   d. Sea cafe

3. Why did they go to first floor?
   a. to ask the direction to sea
   b. to ask the direction hot spring
   c. to get Wi-Fi password
   d. to get a map

4. What can they see from the room?
   a. Mt. Fuji
   b. lake
   c. Sea
   d. Hot spring

5. When they ask about the restaurant, how the speech style change?
   a. Casual → casual
   b. Casual → formal
   c. Formal → casual
   d. Formal → formal
Listen to the conversation between three people and answer questions.

1. Where does this conversation take place?
   a. Friend’s home
   b. Restaurant
   c. Hotel
   d. Station

2. What restaurant did they decide to go?
   a. Soba restaurant
   b. Italian restaurant
   c. Sushi restaurant
   d. Seafood restaurant

3. Why did they go to first floor?
   a. to get a map
      b. to ask the direction to famous place
      c. to get a key
      d. to ask the direction to Hakone
4. What can they see from the room?
   a. Sea
   b. Mt. Fuji
   c. Cliff
   d. Mt. Hakone

5. When they ask about the restaurant, how the speech style change?
   a. Casual → formal
   b. Formal → casual
   c. Formal → formal
   d. Casual → casual
Casual expression

Natural speed

A: すごくきれいな部屋ね。
B: 本当！大きいし、綺麗。景色もすごいね。
A: 富士山も見えるよ。
B: 近くに美味しいレストランあるかな。お腹空いたー。
A: じゃあ、フロントの人に聞いてみよ。地図ももらいたいし。

B: すみません、地図をもらえますか。
C: はい、こちらです。箱根へは初めてですか。
B: はい、そうなんですよ。だから、あまり分からなくて。。。あのう、近くに美味しいレストランありますか。
C: はい、ええと、この、ミラノというお店は、イタリアンで、シーフードを使ったピザがおいしいと評判です。こちらの、お蕎麦屋さんもおいしいです。あとは、このお寿司屋さんも、地元の人にも人気です。どこも、歩いて行くことができます。
B: ありがとうございます。どこも美味しいですね。
A: ねぇ。シーフードも好きだね。
C: おすすめは、ホタテとあさりがのった、貝のピザです。
B: それ、おいしい！じゃあ、そこはどう？
A: うん、いいね！歩いてどれぐらいかかりますか。
C: 大体10分くらいかかります。
A: 分かりました。ありがとうございました。
B: ありがとうございました。
C: 行ってらっしゃいませ。
A: すごく大きい部屋だね。
B: 本当! 大きいお風呂もあるし、静かだし。景色もきれいだね。
A: 海も見えるよ。
B: 近くに美味しいレストランあるかな。腹空いたー。
A: じゃあ、フロントの人聞いてみよ。地図ももらいたいし。

B: すみません、地図をもらえますか。
C: はい、こちらです。熱海へは初めてですか。
B: はい、そうなんですか。だから、あまり分からなくて。。。あのう、近くに美味しいレストランはありますか。
C: はい、ええと、この、メルシーというお店は、フレンチで、野菜がたくさん入ったキッシュがおいしいと評判です。こちらの、まぐろやさんも、お魚がおいしいです。あとは、このシーカフェも、サンドイッチや、デザートがおいしいと人気でございます。どこも、歩いて行くことができます。
B: ありがとうございます。どこも美味しそうですね。
A: ねえ。キッシュもお魚も美味しそう。
C: キッシュのおすすめは、ベーコンとほうれん草です。
B: それ、おいしそう！じゃあ、そこはどう？
A: うん、いいね！歩いてどれくらいかかりますか。
C: 大体5分くらいかかります。
A: 分かりました。ありがとうございます。
B: ありがとうございます。
C: 行ってらっしゃいませ。
Phatic expression
Natural speed
A: 今日は、いい部屋だね。
B: そう、広いし、駅にも近い。会社の人が紹介してくれて。
A: なるほど、それはラッキーだったね。いい部屋が見つかったね。
B: うん、引っ越し手伝ってくれて、ありがとう。
A: えっ、うーん、ありがとう。ラーメンおいしいね。からあげも食べたいなぁ。
B: じゃあ、行こう。

B: おかしいなぁ、この辺のはずなんだけど、。
A: 地図だと、この辺なんだろ？
B: うーん。
A: ちょっと近くにお店の人に聞いてみる？
B: うん、そうだね、すみません、この辺に「行楽」ってラーメン屋さんありますか？
C: ああ、ちょっと分かりにくいんです、お店。この道をもう一本まっすぐ行って、右に曲がるとありますよ。ビルの2階にあるから、少し分かりにくいかもしれませんが。ここから3分ぐらいですよ。
B: ああ、もう一本まっすぐ行くんのですね。ありがとうございます。
C: 「行楽」は、みそラーメンがおいしいですよ。
A: みそラーメン大好きです！ありがとうございます！
B: ありがとうございました。
C: いいえー、お気をつけて。
Phatic expression & Culture
slow speed
A: ここ、綺麗な部屋だね。
B: でしょう、駅から近いし、すぐそこにコンビニもあるんだ。大学の先輩が紹介してくれたね。
A: へえ、良かったねぇ。ちょっと遊びに来るね
B: うん、来て来てー。引っ越し手伝ってくれて、ありがとう。
A: いいえー。でも、たくさん働いたから、なんか、甘いの食べたい。
B: あっ、美味しいケーキ屋さんあるよ！モンブランがあっちゃんおいしいらしい。
    お礼に、私が買うね。
A: えっ、いいの？ありがとう。モンブラン好き。でも、ショートケーキもいいよね。
B: お店で決めよ。行こう。

B: おかしいなぁ、この辺のはずなんだけど。。。
A: 地図だと、この辺なんでしょ？
B: うーん・・・。
A: ちょっとそこにコンビニあるし、聞いてみる？
B: うん、そうだね、すみません、この辺に「プチ」っていうケーキ屋さんはありますか？
C: ああ、ちょっと分かりにくいんですけどねえ、あのお店。そこに、銀行があるのが見えますか。そこを右に曲がると、カメラ屋さんがあるんですよ。その2件隣にありますよ。ここから5分ぐらいですよ。
B: ああ、あそこを曲がるんですよね。ありがとうございます。
C: 「プチ」は、タルトが人気ですよ。
A: タルトもいいですね。ありがとうございます！
B: ありがとうございます。
C: いいえー、お気をつけて。
速さ

自然な会話

A: おはよう、ゆみ。
B: おはよう、みか、寒いねぇ。
A: 午後から、雪が降るらしいよ。
B: えっ、そうなの？それは寒いね。
A: ほんとにねえ。。。早く電車来ないかなぁ。
B: あと 5 分ぐらいみたい。
A: えー、5 分かぁ！寒い。。。 
B: あっ、電車おくれてるって！
A: えっ、あっ、本当だ！うそお、あと 15 分？？むりだー。
B: もっと暖かいコート着てきたらよかったー。東京って、意外と寒いね。
A: 寒いよー。北海道出身だっけ？。
B: 違うよ。秋田出身だよ。それでも寒い。
	あっ、コンビニで何か温かいの買わない？
A: いいね。ココア買おうかなぁ。
B: 私はコーンポタージュかなぁ。甘いし温かいし。
A: 行こ行こ。ホームにいるより、あったかいし。
B: うん。ていうか、制服寒いよね。早く卒業したい。
A: そうだねえ、大学生になったら、好きな着られるし。
B: あと１年かぁ、がんばろ。
A：おつかれさま、みき。
B：おつかれさま、はるか。
A：今日の練習、大変だったね。すごくあせかいた
B：しんどかったねぇ、大会が近いからかな。早く着替えよう。
A：高校最後だからねえ。頑張らないと。
B：そうだね、大学でもテニスは続けるの？
A：うーん、まだ分からないなぁ。行きたい大学は京都だから、そういうクラブに入りたいかも。
B：お寺とか神社とか、そういう伝統的なクラブ？
A：そうそう、楽しそう。みきは大阪だっけ？
B：うん、私はテニス続けたいかなぁ。
A：そうなんだ、大会とかあったら応援いくね！
B：ありがとう。あって、卒業旅行は沖縄でいいんだよね。
A：うん、沖縄行ったことないし。楽しみだね。まだ半年も先だけど。
B：それでも楽しみだよね。まず大学、受からないとね！
A：そうだねえ。がんばろう。もう、こんな時間だよ。お腹空いたし、早く帰ろう。
B：うん、今日はカレーだって、お母さんが言ってたんだよね。
A：カレー良いなぁ。うちも、何だろう。昨日、シチューだったから、今日もかも。
B：ハンバーグとか食べたいな。
A：ああ、から揚げたい！え、着替え終わった。帰れる？
B：うん。帰ろう。
A：おはようございます、山田さん。
B：おはよう、井上さん。
A：今日もよろしくお願いします。
B：はい、よろしくね。どう？この仕事、慣れた？
A：あー、いえ、まだまだです。パンは好きなんですが、名前とかまだ全然覚えられてなくて。
B：たくさんあるから、最初は難しいですよ。久しぶりね。
A：はい、ありがとうございました。
B：じゃあ、今日は棚の掃除から始めようか。
A：はい、えっと、ふきんはどちらにありますか。
B：ふきんは、あの冷蔵庫の横のドア開けたところ。掃除道具は全部そこに入ってるから。
A：分かりました。ありがとうございます。
B：じゃあ、今日は棚の掃除から始めようか。
A：はい、すみません、今日はおすすめは、さつまいもパンですね。おいくらですか。
B：一つ 150 円よ。あと、今日はもう一つ、メープルクリームパンもおすすめなのが。これは、一つ 120 円ね。
A：はい、ありがとうございました。それから、今日はポイント 2 倍の日で合っていますか。
B：ええ、よく覚えてるわね。ポイント 2 倍だから、お客さんが多いと思うわ。がんばってね。
A：はい！よろしくお願いします。
Female-male speech - Culture

Slow speed

A：お疲れ様です、上野さん。
B：お疲れ様。
A：今日は、お客様多いですか。
B：そうねえ、多いと思うわ。今日は野菜が安いかからかしら。寒いかから、なべにするんじゃないかな。
A：あー、そうですねね。なべいいですね。ぼく、ぎょうざなべが大好きなんですね。
B：あら、私も好きだわ。くぼさん、あそこの、お肉売り場のポップを変えてきてくれるかしら？もうすぐタイムセールなのよ。
A：分かりました。あのう、全部を変えるんですか。
B：うん、鶏肉だけでいいわ。
A：はい、わかりました。
B：おわりました。
A：うん、いいわね。レジに行きましょう。
B：はい。
A：先週、レジの使い方習ったかしら？
B：はい、山田さんに教えていただきました。
A：なら、良かったわ。じゃあ、横で手伝うから、レジをやってみましょうか。
B：はい、よろしくお願いします。
A：お客様には、まずポイントカードをお持ちか聞いてね。
B：はい。
A：それから、常に笑顔でね。素敵な笑顔なんだから。
B：はい、ありがとうございます！
A: おはよう、ゆり。
B: おはよう。
A: 今日のテスト、どう？勉強した？
B: ちょっとだけ。まきは？
A: してへんねん。。。。
B: 何したの？
A: サバイバルファミリーって映画を観てしまってん。
B: 視たことないなぁ。今度借りてみる。とりあえず、テストだね。
A: うん、先週の授業で 130 ページから、202 ページまでって言ってはったよね。
B: うん、そうだよ。それから、最近のニュースからも出すって。
A: えっ、そんなん言ってはった？何も調べてない！ヤフーのニュースページ見たらええんかなぁ。
B: 多分だけど、オリンピックのニュースからじゃないかな。先週の授業でも話が出たし。
A: ありがとう！ほんま助かるわぁ。あとで、コーヒーおごるわ。
B: そんなのいいよー。あっ、それより一緒に東京駅行ってくれない？お母さんに頼まれてる。
A: ええよ。私も新幹線の切符買わなあかんし。
B: 東京から京都だと、大体 3 時間ぐらい？
A: うーん、そんなにかからへんかな。2 時間半ぐらい。でも、切符が高いねなぁ。
B: いくらぐらいするの？
A: 1 万 3 千円ぐらいするね。
B: あー、それは高いね。
A: あっ、先生来はった！がんばろ！
Dialect A: Kansai Dialect, B: Standard

Slow Speed

A: 久しぶり、りか。

B: 久しぶり、めぐ。夏休みどうやった？

A: 楽しかったよ。いろいろ遊んだし。バイトもたくさんしたけど。

B: ああ、そうなんや。何のバイトしてるんやっけ？

A: パン屋さんだよ。駅前にある。

B: あー、そうやった。あそこ、美味しいやんね。また買いに行くわ。

A: うん、来て来て—。おまけするから。

B: めっちゃ嬉しい！ほな、また行くね。この授業に使う教科書って、これでいいんやっけ？

A: うん、それで合ってるよー。京都はどうだった？

B: 良かったで。人は多かったけど。せやけど、好きお店でかき氷も食べられただし、南禅寺にも行けてん。

A: テレビで CM、たくさん見たよ。どこもきれいだよね。

B: せやなぁ、暑いけどね。これお土産。

A: ありがとう！かわいい、舞妓さんのメモなんだ。

B: うん、他にも、絵馬とか、お守りとか、いろいろあったんやけど、これが一番かわいってん。

A: そうなんだ。ありがとう、大事に使うね。

B: ええよー。

A: 今日のお昼ご飯、食堂に行かない？

B: うん、ええよ。からあげ丼あるやんね。

A: うーん、たぶん。あっ、授業始まるよ。あんまり難しくないといいね。

B: ほんまにね。がんばろ。
APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE & SURVEY

Section 1
This section asks you about your foreign language study background.

1. What is your name? (Your name will be anonymous after collecting this data.)

2. Which Japanese language course currently enrolled in? Circle the course.
   110  120  126  246  326  327  497  597

3. Have you studied other languages?
   Yes   No

4. Do you like watching video works¹ in the languages you are studying?
   Yes   No

5. Have you used video works to study foreign languages?
   Yes   No

6. If yes, how did you use video works? i.e) imitating phrases, studying culture

7. Do you think watching video works is useful to study foreign languages?
   Yes   No

8. If yes, why do you think it’s useful?

9. Do you feel difficult to understand casual speech?

¹ The word “video-works” appears in questionnaire means “audiovisual materials.”
10. If yes, why do you feel it’s difficult?

11. Do you watch Japanese movies?

   Yes               No

12. If yes, how many minutes do you watch Japanese video works per day outside of classroom?

   Yes               No

   I answered “no” to the previous question

   10 minutes        20 minutes        30 minutes        40 minutes        50 minutes        60 minutes
   Other (                                                                    )

13. Do you regularly watch Japanese movies in the classroom?

   Yes               No

14. If yes, do you use subtitles?

   Yes               No

15. When you use subtitles, how much could you hear Japanese?

   0%         10          20          30         40          50          60          70         80           90         100%

16. How much do you think you could understand meanings of what you heard?

   0%         10          20          30         40          50          60          70         80           90         100%
17. Do you think watching Japanese movies is useful to study Japanese language?
   Yes               No

18. If yes, why do you think it’s useful?

19. Do you think watching movies is useful to get used to listen to native speaker’s speech speed?
   Yes               No
Survey

Which one do you think watching movies with subtitles is useful for?

1. **Pronunciations**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

2. **Dialect**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

3. **Accent**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

4. **Female-male speech style**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

5. **Natural speed**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

6. **Casual expression / informal speech**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

7. **Phatic expression**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree

8. **Culture aspects**
   - Strongly agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly disagree
9. **Appropriateness of speech style based on the relationship**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

10. **Japanese specific expression – idioms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
APPENDIX D

IRB

Consent Form for Participation in a Research Study
University of Massachusetts Amherst

Researcher(s): [Kei Yamaguchi, Faculty Sponsor-Yuki Yoshimura]
Study Title: [Influence of Japanese film on learning Japanese language]

1. WHAT IS THIS FORM?
This form is called a Consent Form. It will give you information about the study so you can make an informed decision about participation in this research. We encourage you to take some time to think this over and ask questions now and at any other time. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form and you will be given a copy for your records.

2. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE IMPORTANT ASPECTS OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY THAT I SHOULD BE AWARE OF?
This is a research study to find out that how learners can connect language and cultural aspect, and how films affect learners to improve their language skills.

At first, subjects will have a short conversation and it will be videotaped. Then subjects will watch movies. After finish watching movies, subjects will have a same short conversation and it will be videotaped again. Students will listen to conversations which are different from what you’ve done in previous step and take a comprehension check quizzes. At last, subjects will take a survey. Students will not be seen during videotaping.

There are no risks of taking this study. Participation or non-participation will have no impact on student grades.

If you are interested in learning more about this study, please continue reading below.

3. WHO CAN PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY?
Students who are currently studying Japanese.

IRB OFFICE USE ONLY

University of Massachusetts Amherst-IRB
Protocol #: 1712
IRB Signature: [Signature]
4. WHERE WILL THIS RESEARCH STUDY TAKE PLACE AND HOW MANY PEOPLE WILL PARTICIPATE?
Participants are recruited from JPN120, JPN126, JPN246, JPN326, JPN 497, JPN 536 or Thatcher Class. This research will be conducted by Kei Yamaguchi. The place of this research study will be informed after the agreement.

5. WHAT WILL I BE ASKED TO DO AND HOW MUCH TIME WILL IT TAKE?
If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to watch Japanese film, videotaping, and take a survey. You will be asked to participate 120 minutes of class session to watch movies, and 10 minutes of videotaping including preparation. In terms of videotaping, you will need to have a short conversation which takes about 5 minutes. Then, you will listen to conversations which are different from what you’ve done in previous step and take a comprehension check quizzes. This step takes about one hour. In addition to above, you will take a survey which takes about 20 minutes. The study will last 4 weeks be including the survey.

6. WILL BEING IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY HELP ME IN ANY WAY?
You may not directly benefit from this research; however, we hope that your participation in the study may give you advanced knowledge of Japanese language and culture.

7. WHAT ARE MY RISKS OF BEING IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY?
We believe there are minimal risks associated with this research study; however, a risk of breach of confidentiality always exists and we have taken the steps to minimize this risk as outlined in section 9 below.

8. HOW WILL MY PERSONAL INFORMATION BE PROTECTED?
Your privacy and confidentiality are important to us. The following procedures will be used to protect the confidentiality of your study records such as quiz result, audio tape, or video tape. The researchers will keep all study records, including any codes to your data, in a secure location. All electronic files containing identifiable information will be password protected. Any computer hosting such files will also have password protection to prevent access by unauthorized users. Only the members of the research staff will have access to the passwords. At the conclusion of this study, the researchers may publish their findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified in any publications or presentations, which means taped video will not be shared or used in presentations.
Please initial box

I confirm that I will be audio recorded in this study.

I confirm that I will be videotaped in this study.

I confirm that I will listen to the conversations.

9. **WHO CAN I TALK TO IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?**
Take as long as you like before you make a decision. We will be happy to answer any question you have about this study. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the researcher, Kei Yamaguchi, kyanaguchi@umass.edu, or the faculty sponsor, Yuki Yoshimura, yuki@asianlan.umass.edu, or at Office: Herter Hall 329, or Phone#: 545-4953, or Human Research Protection Office (413-545-3428, humansubjects@ora.umass.edu).

10. **WHAT HAPPENS IF I SAY YES, BUT I CHANGE MY MIND LATER?**
You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate.

11. **SUBJECT STATEMENT OF VOLUNTARY CONSENT**
When signing this form, I am agreeing to voluntarily enter this study. I have had a chance to read this consent form, and it was explained to me in a language which I use. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have received satisfactory answers. I have been informed that I can withdraw at any time. Participation or non-participation will have no impact on student grades. A copy of this signed Informed Consent Form has been given to me.

Participant Signature:               Print Name:               Date:               

---

IRB OFFICE USE ONLY
By signing below I indicate that the participant has read and, to the best of my knowledge, understands the details contained in this document and has been given a copy.

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent

Print Name: Date:

IRB OFFICE USE ONLY

University of Massachusetts Amherst IRB
Protocol #: 1700
IRB Signature: [Signature]
REFERENCES


