

**Second Language Learners:
The Influence of Secondary L2A Sources on Peer Teaching**

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Abstract

This paper will report on the findings of an experiment conducted at a Dutch secondary school in 2011. In this experiment, two first-year HAVO/VWO classes were taught the use of the English indefinite articles, specifically the proper use of *a* and *an*, using peer teaching as a means of conveying this information. The students were also asked beforehand how much time they spend per week, on average, on Secondary L2A Sources (SLAS), more informally known as sources of L2A that are not part of the established curriculum (for example, subtitled television). The aim of the experiment was to determine if there is a significant correlation between the amount of time these students spent on SLAS and the results of a test on the English indefinite articles, which was given after the peer teaching session.

1: introduction

1.1 definitions

Since the title of this paper may contain terms that are unfamiliar to some I will start this paper by providing the reader with some definitions. Firstly, Secondary L2A Sources (SLAS) in this paper are the sources such as subtitled television programmes, literature and magazines written in a non-native language, the internet, music, and the like. In other words, these are the sources that can influence the L2A of a person on a day-to-day, less conscious level.

SLAS do not actively teach a new language to a person, but an individual might learn vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and other aspects of the L2 by using these sources. To give an example, when a person that possesses language 1 watches a television programme spoken in language 2, which is in turn has language 1 subtitles, this person might learn the properties of a part of language 2 merely by listening to it while seeing the translation at the same time.

The more active SLAS such as literature and web pages, written in a non-native but familiar language to the reader, already require the reader to have an understanding of the workings of that language. However, individuals might still learn, for example, new sentence structures or words that can be added to their vocabulary as they are reading. Although they are not actively trying to improve on these points, learning only one new word means that these sources can potentially serve as a L2A source.

The second term, peer teaching, has several interpretations. For the purpose of this paper, the term will be defined as an arrangement in a classroom setting in which the teacher teaches (part of) the curriculum to a selected few students. These will then pass on this new knowledge to their fellow classmates, which is done in small groups to avoid overwhelming the teacher assistants (TAs). The idea behind this concept is that, in theory, the TAs are more capable of conveying information on the same level as their peers than a teacher is capable of, since the latter will always be on a higher level of understanding in terms of the curriculum.

Furthermore, since this is done in small groups the TAs can help individual struggling students, whereas a teacher is often not in this position due to constraints in time or the presence of too many students that require individual help. There are other advantages, as well as disadvantages, which will be discussed in chapter 2.

1.2 motivation

To properly explain the reason why I chose to write this BA thesis on the subjects of SLAS and peer teaching, a bit of back-story is in order. I have, for a long time, held the personal belief that the amount of time spent on SLAS has a positive effect on L2A. I based this belief on the fact that I saw the younger generations in my surroundings struggling with fairly basic English as, for example, found in video games designed specifically for a younger audience. My theory was that a decrease of available SLAS (such as the fact that originally English children's shows in the Netherlands are more often dubbed than subtitled) was a part of the cause of this lingual decline. So I sought out to test this theory for my BA thesis in English Language and Culture. This being a language and language acquisition-related issue I eventually ended up in Wim Zonneveld's office. I explained that this was the general area I wished to investigate further and after some suggestions I found that peer teaching sounded as an interesting subject as well. This method of teaching was something I've heard of before but never properly looked into, and perfectly suited my growing interest in language teaching and education. I received an MA thesis paper by a student called Robert-Jan Lantaff, who had researched the effect of peer teaching in a self-designed setting in Dutch secondary education. Intrigued by his findings I wished to investigate peer teaching further, but also wished to include the subject of SLAS. So in the end I decided to examine the correlation between SLAS and their effect on peer teaching by determining whether the amount of time students

spend on SLAS has any influence on the grades of peer teaching groups. The results were surprising.

1.3 hypothesis

The hypothesis at the beginning of the experiment was: ‘The amount of time students of a Dutch secondary school spend on English SLAS has a positive effect on their grades, and on the teaching capabilities of teacher assistants in a peer teaching environment.’ The basis for this hypothesis is my belief that students learn a lot from SLAS in terms of grammar, pronunciation, and other areas of a language. This would mean that the more hours they spend on SLAS, the better they will understand the language in general. As for the teacher assistants, it builds further on my aforementioned belief. Hypothetically, the higher the level of competence in the language, the better they would be at explaining how it works. The methods that were used to test this claim, as well as their execution and the results thereof, will be explained in detail in the rest of this paper.

2: peer teaching

Peer teaching, a type of education that has many forms but only one goal. Whether it is in the form of students divided into learning groups, assigning teacher assistants to struggling students, or having students explain subject matter to their fellow students, ultimately it all comes down to the concept of 'students teaching students'. The concept has been around since 1798 (Goldschmid 10) and has become popular for several reasons, the foremost being that it is believed that students are in some ways better at explaining the curriculum than their teachers. The idea is that students possess about the same level of competence as their fellow students whilst teachers are always of a higher rank. It can be difficult to explain something in a simple way if all you know is the difficult explanation, that is, as seen from the eyes of the students. Furthermore, if you have the students actively investigate a subject, as opposed to passively listening to an explanation, it is likely that they will understand the subject more quickly. I will now give some examples of the various form of peer teaching, after which I will discuss some more advantages, as well as some disadvantages.

One of the more popular forms of peer teaching is group-based cooperative learning (Manning). The students are put together in groups of four to six and all of them work together to achieve a common goal. Whether this is a small reward or even a bonus on grades, the idea behind it is that students are driven to perform better when placed in a group, since slacking off would result in the entire group failing at a particular task. Although this might be seen as a form of peer pressure, it is hard to argue that there are negative side effects to asking your fellow group member to perform better. Furthermore, this form of peer teaching takes away the individual versus the individual aspect found in many schools (Manning). This competition drives the students away from each other and can produce outright hostility between those striving for the top. By using group-based cooperative learning there is no longer any need to compete, since a group can only win, not lose. Finally, the group forms

motivates students who understand the curriculum to explain this to those who do not. If they as a group wish to claim a prize, everyone in the group needs to understand the subject matter. This also means that students who have difficulty with the subject are no longer able to refrain from asking for help (for whatever reasons, due to shyness for instance). Their fellow group members know whether or not they understand the subject at hand and can help out accordingly.

One other form of peer teaching is the employment of teacher assistants. These can either be well-performing students who are asked by the teacher to help out struggling students, or individual students who are assigned to teach small groups of their fellow students (Goldschmid 10). Here again the idea is that students are better at explaining subject matter, namely that they can more easily explain it in terms a fellow student might understand. There are other advantages, but since these are the same for the other forms of peer teaching they will be summarised below.

The major advantage to peer teaching general is that it is a major time saver for teachers. By delegating easier tasks to teacher assistants or by grouping students so several students can hear an extended explanation at the same time, teachers save much-needed time. Given that time constraints are a universal bane to a teacher's existence, peer teaching can help alleviate some of this pressure. One other advantage is that peer teaching can contribute to students gaining a boost in their confidence. Those who assist a teacher can find pleasure in helping out their classmates whereas those working together in a group can achieve a feeling of group accomplishment. Individually, students can please no one but themselves when they perform well, whereas in these peer teaching environments they can use their knowledge to help others. Furthermore, peer teaching helps students to prepare for life later on. Many professions require teamwork and cooperation with colleagues, so why not prepare students for that at an early stage of their lives.

One final advantage has been found to lie, perhaps surprisingly, in the education of students with autism. This was found to be the case in a study conducted to examine how peer teaching can benefit to helping children with autism (Jones). Each week for 24 weeks, two autistic students and one non-autistic student became peer tutors that were in charge of a class and taught their fellow students several subjects (Jones 4). At the end, the autistic children, as well as their classmates, were asked about their experiences. The results were that every peer tutor enjoyed the experience and many felt a sense of accomplishment (Jones 5-6). The experience also taught the non-autistic students a better understanding of autism, while at the same time feeling more responsible and helpful (Jones 6). This means that peer teaching is especially useful to autistic students, who in general have a hard time getting by. It helps them to cope with their disability while also gaining a confidence boost.

There are also, however, some disadvantages to peer teaching. The most prominent of these is the danger that teacher assistants or groups as a whole make mistakes. Simply put, students are not teachers and they cannot be expected to know the all details of a certain subject. The problem is that if a teacher assistant explains something incorrectly, the error is most likely to go unnoticed until it is too late, e.g. on a test. Furthermore, if an entire group of students has the wrong mindset about a certain part of the curriculum, it can be a time-consuming task for a teacher to correct them. The disadvantage with peer teaching is that a teacher does not have the time to double-check each student that has been taught by a teacher assistant, although this is less of a problem when he or she is dealing with study groups.

Some concerns have also been voiced as to whether the social interactions in group-based peer teaching environments are desirable. Two researchers claim that although it is commonly accepted that peer teaching produces appropriate social interaction, it has not yet been adequately proven to be true for every case (Axelrod and Greer 43-44). There is also the

danger that individual students in group who perform badly might be subjected to cruelty from their fellow peers (44).

3: SLAS

Although the SLAS that I have described encompass more than subtitled television, this source of L2A will be the focus of this chapter. The reason for this is that this SLAS is the only one my literature search in the context of this paper produced a significant amount of literature for. Other SLAS seem to be much more elusive and less well researched and less well asserted. This is not to say research has not been done for other SLAS, but my limited investigation has not unearthed it.

After conducting a small, unofficial survey among my non-native English-speaking friends, colleagues, and acquaintances (22 in total), in which I asked which type of SLAS they thought was most helpful to them acquiring the English language, twenty stated that they learned the most, or had least had the strong impression they did, by watching subtitled television in their early years. It is not hard to see why this is the case; television provides a constant stream of foreign language input in the form of audio while at the same time giving the translation in the form of subtitles. Add to that that there is also a visual factor involved, which often links the spoken and written words to objects, it becomes clear that subtitled television can be a great source of learning. Although it is unlikely that they actively learned detailed and complex English grammar while they were watching, it is not unlikely that at a subconscious level they learned a lot about vocabulary especially, and language use and some basic grammar to a lesser extend. A study has shown that viewers of subtitled television have no problem switching between the image and the subtitles, meaning that reading subtitles is in no way a strenuous task (d'Ydewalle 60). Moreover, the process of learning a language while watching subtitled television is implicit, a real-life example of 'watch and learn'. Several researchers state that implicit learning leads to a superior acquisition of a language, although it should be mentioned that short-term memory experiments only show an increased understanding of vocabulary, not grammar or syntax (d'Ydewalle and Van de Poel 228).

How this relates to Dutch secondary school students is shown with a study by Paul Meara, who investigated how students of a modern language spend their time learning it. Unsurprisingly, the majority of the students spent little time on activities specifically designed to help them acquire a language (Williams and Thorne 227). This is understandable; actively learning something during the earlier stages of life is often tedious when it is not directly interesting to the learner, something each current and former secondary school student knows all too well. This is where SLAS can help, since they provide a student with the means of learning a language while at the same time not asking for active participation.

Another way subtitled television can help students with their L2A is by having the students write the subtitles themselves. One study investigated the benefits of this approach and found that having the students write subtitles contributes positively to their L2A (William and Thorne 217). By creating subtitles, students were required to listen, watch, interpret, consider the register of a language, and take into account several other factors that greatly helped them understand the language (219-221).

However, the subject at hand was passive learning and its effects. Research has been done to examine the effect of subtitles on learning a new language and the results are generally the same. In terms of vocabulary, subtitles have a significance influence. In one test, subject were able to learn new words at an impressive rate, older subjects more so than the younger ones (Van Lommel et al. 248-249). However, the subjects did not perform better in terms of understanding grammatical or syntactic rules (254). This result has been found in all the tests I have investigated, but there was one other factor these experiments shared, namely that these were all short-term tests. To clarify, most test subjects watched a short movie (no more than 15 minutes) and as soon as it ended they had to fill out quizzes, questionnaires, and the like. The effects of long-term exposure to subtitled television have, as far as my findings show, not been investigated. It is therefore possible to assume that there might be acquisition

of lingual rules in the long run, since it is not unlikely that repeated exposure to such rules will eventually make those rules (subconsciously) known to an individual. Until I encounter evidence that claims otherwise, this is also the assumption I will make myself.

4: the experiment

4.1 general info

The experiment was conducted at the Cals College in Nieuwegein, from 22-03-2011 until 15-04-2011. Two first year HAVO/VWO-classes participated, with a total of 56 students ranging from twelve to fourteens years of age. There was an even 50% division between the sexes and there were a total of seven students that had dyslexia. Although the students did not participate voluntarily they were very cooperative and most of them treated the experiment seriously.

The purpose of the experiment was to determine whether or not the amount of time the students spent average per week on SLAS has an influence on the general performance of the students and if the number of hours spent influences the performance of teacher assistants. The latter were part of a peer teaching environment in which two students of each class were assigned to help the teacher explain the students a part of the curriculum. The teacher in this case was me, since I was also working at the school as a part-time English teacher at that time. The part of the curriculum I focused on for the experiment was the proper use of the English indefinite article, specifically its two forms *a* and *an*.

4.2 stages

The first stage was determining the knowledge the students already possessed about the subject of the experiment, namely the English indefinite articles. Unfortunately, there wasn't any concrete data available and I had to rely on the statements of the English teachers of those classes, namely that they were, or should be, familiar with the subject but did not understand it fully.

The second stage was to determine the number of hours the students spent on SLAS. I used a simple questionnaire for this, which can be found in the appendix. I determined the

amount of hours they spent on SLAS on average per week by tallying all the hours they spent on English sources such as subtitled television and music. I let the students fill this out a week before the peer teaching class and I did not tell them the purpose of the questions.

The third stage involved choosing the teacher assistants and determining the groups that I and the assistants were to go to teach. I selected the assistants based on the number of hours they spent on SLAS, picking those that spent the least as well as the most amount of time. I labelled those who spent the least amount of hours (3 and 5 hours) Fewest Hours Assistants (FHA) and those who spent the most (80 and 85 hours) were labelled Most Hours Assistants (MHA). The groups I assigned to myself and these assistants were balanced out to ensure that each group spent about the same amount of time on average.

The fourth stage was the peer teaching session. At the beginning of each class I took the FHA and MHA to a separate location where I taught them the proper use of the English indefinite article the same way I would teach my own students. I gave the assistants a handout (see appendix) which they were allowed to use to teach their own groups. We then returned to the rest of the class, which I divided in aforementioned groups. I gave myself and each teacher assistant twenty minutes to explain the indefinite article, after which the final stage of the experiment commenced.

The final stage was a test to determine how well the students understood the English indefinite article. It consisted of 37 short sentences that had an open space where an indefinite article should be. Most of the blank spaces were in front of nouns, but some were in front of individual letters in order to test if the students understood that some letters are pronounced differently when they are not part of a word. The full test can be found in the appendix.

5: results

The raw results of the experiment took the form of aforementioned determined SLAS hours spent and the results of the test, with the value of the latter being X out of 37 possible mistakes.

In order to determine the statistical significance of the correlation between the variables of the experiment (mention below), I used the program SPSS created by IBM. One of the programme's functions is to effectively collect data and subject it to statistical analysis, the results of which can be used to find correlation between the variables and establish statistical significance. The variables used were:

Variable:	Value(s):
Age	Numeric, 999 for unknown
Sex	1 for female, 0 for male
Hours (spent on SLAS)	Numeric
Mistakes (X out of 37 possible mistakes)	Numeric
Teacher	0 for myself, 1 for MHA, 2 for FHA
Dyslectic	0 if the student was dyslectic, 1 if not

Table 1 - variables

5.1 hours-mistakes relation

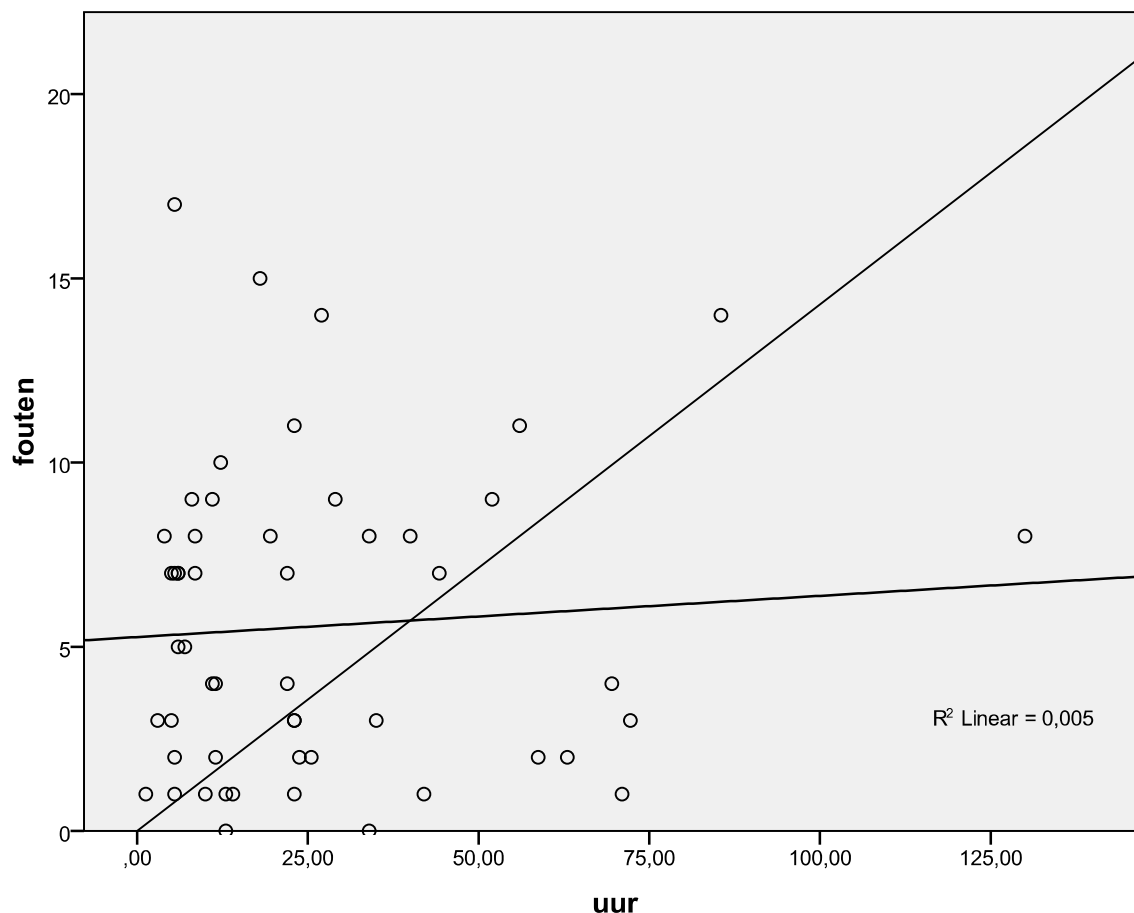


Figure 1 – Fouten (mistakes), uur (hours) correlation

The first step was to determine whether or not there was a significant relation between the number of mistakes made and the hours spent on SLAS. This would exclude any other factors in order to determine the correlation between the two most important values for this experiment. As usual, such a relation (or not) can be obtained by observing whether or not the number of mistakes decreases if the amount of hours spent on SLAS increases. This would be visualised in the graph by a cluster of values (circles) mirroring the diagonal line, which represents statistical significance, which would in turn indicate a significant correlation. The near-horizontal line represents the average correlation between the two values. As is already becoming apparent, there appears to be no significant correlation between the two values.

5.2 correlation between all values

Since most of the tables that show the correlation between all the different values might be confusing or uninteresting I've decided to show only the table containing all of these values together as well as the table showing whether there is a difference between me or the teacher assistants teaching in terms of results. For those interested, the individual tables that contribute to these final tables can be found in the appendix.

Dependent Variable: fouten

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	147,543 ^a	5	29,509	2,138	,081	,211
Intercept	,389	1	,389	,028	,868	,001
<i>leraar</i>	1,506	1	1,506	,109	,743	,003
<i>dyslectisch</i>	63,264	1	63,264	4,583	,038	,103
<i>geslacht</i>	32,351	1	32,351	2,343	,134	,055
<i>leeftijd</i>	5,713	1	5,713	,414	,524	,010
<i>uur</i>	16,631	1	16,631	1,205	,279	,029
Error	552,196	40	13,805			
Total	1994,000	46				
Corrected Total	699,739	45				

a. R Squared = ,211 (Adjusted R Squared = ,112)

Table 2 – final results value correlation

The above table shows all the values and the correlation between them and the number of mistakes made. Please note that the *leraar* (teacher) value encompasses both myself and the student assistants, but these separate values will be discussed below. The highlighted column is the one containing the data that is of interest to the interpretation of the current experiment. It shows the statistical significance (Sig.) of the correlation between the values and the final scores of the test. A correlation is significant when the Sig. value is <0.05, effectively meaning that the correlation between the value and the results is unlikely to be coincidental. The results show that there is, with the exception of the *dyslectisch* (dyslectic) value, no

significant correlation between any of the values and the number of mistakes made. The key value, *leraar* (teacher) is not anywhere near the required <0.05 , meaning that, based on data collected, there is no correlation between the two. Short conclusion, this would mean that the number of hours students spend on SLAS has no direct influence on the grades of the students in general. A more elaborate conclusion will follow.

5.3 teacher-mistakes correlation

This final table is the result of a statistical test that compares the scores of the MHA's (value 1) or FHA's (value 0) students with my own students. Significance in this case follows from the teacher assistants' students' scores being consistently lower or higher than the average score of my own students. The closer the Sig.-value is to <0.05 , the more the students of the teacher assistants' groups consistently made fewer or more errors.

Independent Samples Test						
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
fouten	Equal variances 1	,008	,930	-1,108	45	,914
	Equal variances 0			-1,114	42,198	,910

Table 3 – teacher-mistakes correlation

Once again the highlighted column is the one containing the data of interest. As is clear from the values there is no significant correlation between either type of teacher assistant and the scores their students got, compared to the scores of the students that I taught myself. The high Sig.-values indicate that the scores of the teacher assistants' groups are, on average, not better or worse than the scores of my own students. This means that the amount of time the teacher assistants spent on SLAS had no discernable influence on their teaching-capabilities. Short conclusion again, this would mean that the number of hours spend on SLAS has no direct

influence on a teacher's assistant performance in a peer teaching environment. A more elaborate conclusion will follow.

6: Conclusion

6.1 revised hypothesis

Before the experiment the outlook was that the more a Dutch secondary school student spends time on English SLAS, the better his or her grades for that subject would be. It was also the belief that there is a link between the number of hours spend and the general performance of a teacher assistant, in terms of how well the students of that teacher assistant do on tests.

However, as has become clear from the results, neither of these assumptions appear to reach a level of significance in the experiment reported in this paper. In the case of general performance there appears to be no direct link between the amount of hours spent on SLAS on the one hand and language performance on the other. Students that spent a large amount of hours on SLAS did not as a rule perform better on this test than those who invested little time in these sources of language acquisition. Furthermore, the teacher assistants' groups did not perform better nor worse on average, regardless of the amount of hours the assistants spent on SLAS. A revised hypothesis appears to be in order: 'The amount of time students of a Dutch secondary school spend on English SLAS does not have any effect on their grades, nor on the teaching capabilities of teacher assistants in a peer teaching environment.'

6.2 explanation

The above conclusion may be called somewhat unexpected, considering that the investigated literature seems to support both claims. Naturally, the question arises as to why SLAS appear to have no discernable influence on student performance, at least not in this experiment. There are several possible answers to this question, the first one being that a subconscious knowledge of a language, as possibly picked up by spending a large amount of time on SLAS, does not translate into conscious knowledge. It might be the case that when a students is asked to describe or is tested on particular aspects of a language, he or she might not be able

to put it into words. It can very well be that when the written test is replaced with a conversation, the students might perform much better.

One other explanation might be that SLAS simply have no influence in terms of language acquisition. This seems unlikely however, since there are numerous studies that prove otherwise, although those are limited to subtitled television. After reviewing the questionnaires filled out by the students once more, I noticed that the most hours spent on SLAS were spent on music. This would explain why SLAS seem to have no influence since even if the students know the full translation of the songs they listen to, it would mean that all they know is the translation. This would most certainly expand their vocabulary, but it is unlikely that music will teach them grammatical and syntactical rules.

As mentioned above, students might have trouble putting their knowledge into words. This would explain why the amount of time spent on SLAS appears to have no influence on the teaching capabilities of teacher assistants. They might, at some level, understand the subject at hand, but at the same time have trouble explaining it to others. For this specific experiment, it is highly likely that the sudden introduction of peer teaching is simply too much to handle for the teacher assistants. I had to explain the entire concept, and execute it, in about 70 minutes, leaving very little time to adequately prepare the assistants for their task. It is likely that if a peer teaching environment is established on the very first day of secondary school, the assistants would be more at ease and better at their tasks.

It is also a possibility that wrong assumptions were made for this test. For instance, it might very well be that the participating students have not been exposed to SLAS for the necessary amount of time needed for the sources that have an actual influence. Since the students were fairly young, this might well be the case. Furthermore, it is also possible that the students have not been exposed to SLAS until after the critical period of language acquisition, which is widely believed to make it harder to acquire a language. A more

thorough background check would have possibly unearthed this information, but there was unfortunately not enough time to do this.

Another final explanation specific for this experiment is that the test group was not big enough. 56 students is not a small number for an experiment like this, but on the larger whole it is a very small representation of the total secondary school student body. Perhaps the outcome will be different with a larger group consisting of students from all levels of secondary school education. Involving differently aged and levelled students would also enable researchers to track progress, which would perhaps produce results that support one or both of the claims.

Whatever might be the case, the results speak for themselves. Although I still believe SLAS can have a major influence on second language acquisition, further experiments are required in order to prove this. Despite the data contradicting my opinion, I have not given up hope.

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Appendix: questionnaire

Naam: _____

Klas: _____

Leeftijd: _____

Hoeveel uur per week kijk je tv?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur daarvan kijk je Engelse programma's (met of zonder ondertiteling)?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur per week luister je naar muziek?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur daarvan luister je naar Engelse muziek?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur per week lees je boeken of tijdschriften?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur daarvan lees je in het Engels geschreven boeken of tijdschriften?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur per week zit je op het internet?

_____ uur

Hoeveel uur daarvan zit je op Engelse websites (dat wil zeggen: waarvan de inhoud in het Engels is)?

_____ uur

Chat je wel eens online? Zo ja, hoeveel uur per week?

_____ uur

Chat je wel eens online in het Engels? Zo ja, hoeveel uur per week?

_____ uur

Praat je wel eens Engels met vrienden, familie, of andere bekenden? Zo ja, hoeveel uur per week?

Nee/Ja, _____ uur

Appendix: handout

Indefinite articles *a/an* (lidwoorden *a/an*)

Het lidwoord *the* is even niet belangrijk.

Om de Engelse lidwoorden *a/an* goed te gebruiken moet je letten, niet op de 1^e letter van het woord wat volgt, maar op de 1^e *klank* van het woord.

Letter:	<i>a or an?</i>	Waarom?
Apple	An	Klinker
Bear	A	Medeklinker
Clown	A	Medeklinker
Deer	A	Medeklinker
Elf	An	Klinker
F	A/an	Uitzondering
Guess	A	Medeklinker
H	A/an	Uitzondering
Idiot	An	Klinker
Joker	A	Medeklinker
Kitchen	A	Medeklinker
L	A/an	Uitzondering
M	A/an	Uitzondering
N	A/an	Uitzondering
Opera	An	Klinker
Plate	A	Medeklinker
Quarter	A	Medeklinker
R	A/an	Uitzondering
S	A/an	Uitzondering
Tiger	A	Medeklinker
U	A/an	Uitzondering
Van	A	Medeklinker
W	A	Uitzondering
X	A/an	Uitzondering
Yogurt	A	Medeklinker
Zebra	A	Medeklinker

Uitzonderingen:

F	Los met an (eff), bij woorden a (a fork)
H	Los met an (aitch), woorden meestal met a, valt soms weg (an hour). Leer je an honor
L	Los met an (el), bij woorden a (a lolipop)
M	Los met an (em), bij woorden a (a mermaid)
N	Los met an (en), bij woorden a (a nut)
R	Los met an (ar), bij woorden a (a rest)
S	Los met an (ess), bij woorden a (a surfboard)
U	Los met an (ju), bij woorden verschilt. An urge, a utopia. Leer je
W	Los met a (double-u), bij woorden ook a (a word)
X	Los met an (ex), bij woorden kan beide (a xylophone, an Xmas present)

Appendix: test**De lidwoorden *a* en *an* – Test**

Naam: _____

Klas: _____

Vul in onderstaande zinnen het juiste lidwoord in (**gebruik alleen *a* of *an*, niet *the*!**).

1. We weren't allowed to see *Saw IV* because it is _____ R-rated (restricted) film.
2. There are not a lot of words that start with _____ Q.
3. Careful, there is _____ needle stuck in your shirt.
4. Be careful, there is _____ bear in these woods.
5. My father is _____ colonel in the army.
6. My mom wants _____ vacuum cleaner for her birthday.
7. I think I still have _____ yo-yo lying around here somewhere
8. I saw _____ episode of *Glee* yesterday.
9. Do you spell knife with _____ V or with _____ F?
10. Do you have _____ flashlight I can borrow?
11. Do you know where I can get _____ balloon on a string?
12. We are staying in _____ hotel in France during the holidays.
13. I would like _____ apple, please.
14. I can't find _____ shampoo that smells like cucumber.
15. That boy is such _____ idiot.
16. A screwdriver is _____ useful tool.
17. She told us _____ joke we didn't like.
18. No, you write cereal with _____ C, not _____ S.
19. I saw _____ kangaroo in the zoo.
20. They say some woman found _____ tongue in her box of chicken nuggets.

21. They made _____ X-ray of my arm in the hospital.
22. Why do you have _____ lock on your lunchbox?
23. Have you even been on _____ bus in London?
24. This is _____ uncomfortable chair.
25. I want _____ honest answer.
26. I think you've dropped _____ M&M on the floor.
27. My aunt is _____ optician.
28. Are we allowed to use _____ dictionary for this test?
29. I think there is _____ person hiding behind those bushes.
30. Would you like to hear _____ riddle?
31. A case you use to store arrows in is called _____ quiver.
32. We are having _____ guest over for dinner tomorrow.
33. My brother works as _____ waiter in some fancy restaurant.
34. My shirt has _____ zipper.
35. I saw _____ meteorite in the sky last night!

Appendix: tables

Note: these tables do not on themselves serve any function or provide the data sought out in this experiment. They merely serve as input for Table 2 and Table 3.

Group Statistics

leraar		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
fouten	leraar	18	5,72	4,586	1,081
	laag scorende leerlingen	20	5,90	5,790	1,075
	hoog scorende leerlingen	18	5,89	4,658	1,076

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
foute n	Equal variances assumed	,008	,930	-,108	45	,914	-,174	1,610	-3,418	3,069
	Equal variances not assumed			-,114	42,198	,910	-,174	1,525	-3,251	2,902

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

Dependent Variable:fouten

F	df1	df2	Sig.
,664	6	39	,679

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + leraar + dyslectisch + geslacht + leeftijd + uur

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
uur	Equal variances assumed	1,819	,183	,940	53	,352	10,84354	11,53803	-12,29882	33,98589
	Equal variances not assumed			1,527	10,262	,157	10,84354	7,10152	-4,92498	26,61205