LEARN ENGLISH WITH DORA!

The Finnish version of *Dora the Explorer* as a way of teaching English vocabulary

Master's thesis

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Television katselu on nykyään yleinen tapa viettää vapaa-aikaa. Jo pienet lapset viettävät paljon aikaa television ääressä, ja monet ovat miettineet, voisiko tuon ajan käyttää hyödyksi jotenkin. Tarjolla onkin nykyään erilaisia lastenohjelmia, joiden tarkoitus on viihdyttämisen lisäksi myös opettaa lapsia. Yksi esimerkki lapsille suunnatuista opetusohjelmista on *Seikkailija Dora*, jossa hahmot puhuvat suomen kielen lisäksi englantia ja tarjoavat alle kouluikäisille lapsille mahdollisuuden vieraan kielen oppimiseen kotioloissa. Tämän tutkimuksen lähtökohtana oli tutkia kyseisen ohjelman tarjoamaa vieraan kielen opetusta tarkemmin.

Tutkimuksen tavoitteena oli kuvailla *Seikkailija Doran* sisältämää englanninkielistä sanastoa ja arvioida sen laatua. Tutkimuskysymykset olivat seuraavat: 1) kuinka paljon englanninkielistä sanastoa lastenohjelma *Seikkailija Dora* sisältää ja 2) käytetäänkö sanaston opettamisen yhteydessä erityisiä opetusmenetelmiä? Aineiston muodosti kaksitoista ohjelman jaksoa, jotka ensin litteroitiin ja sitten analysoitiin. Ensimmäiseen tutkimuskysymykseen vastaaminen käsitti englanninkielisen sanaston etsimisen, luetteloimisen ja luokittelun sanaluokan perusteella. Toiseen tutkimuskysymykseen vastaaminen edellytti sanaston tarkastelua opetusmenetelmien näkökulmasta: jokainen englanninkielinen näyte analysoitiin sen perusteella, voitiinko sen katsoa sisältävän erityisiä menetelmiä joilla vieraan sanan merkitys pyrittäisiin välittämään katsojalle. Apuna käytettiin mukaelmaa Thornburyn määrittelemistä sanaston opettamisen menetelmistä. Analyysi sisälsi sekä laadullisia että määrällisiä elementtejä: luokittelu oli laadullista, mutta tulokset esitettiin osin määrällisin keinoin.

Analyysi osoitti, että englanninkielistä sanastoa esiintyi melko tiheään: noin kuusi kertaa minuutissa. Pronominit, substantiivit ja verbit olivat sanaluokista yleisimpiä, kun taas artikkeleita, prepositioita ja konjunktioita esiintyi harvemmin. Myös opetusmenetelmät olivat vahvasti esillä aineistossa. Toistoa, jonka avulla sanan oppimista vahvistetaan, esiintyi huomattavan paljon. Sanaston esittämisen menetelmistä eniten käytettiin käännöstä, kuvavihjeitä ja tilannesidonnaisia vihjeitä, kun taas sanallista määrittelemistä ei käytetty lainkaan. Aineistossa esiintyi myös sanastoa, jota ei opetettu minkään opetusmenetelmän avulla.

Asiasanat – Keywords
learning vocabulary, methods of teaching vocabulary, educational programs

Säilytyspaikka – Depository Kielten laitos

Muita tietoja – Additional information

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1 INTRODUCTION

Children today are growing surrounded by media and new technology. Television and computers are not the latest high-tech inventions, but they have become necessities in many of the homes in industrialized countries. From the perspective of a linguist, the opportunities this development has brought with it are fascinating and numerous. Children are spending a lot of time in front of the television on a daily basis, so could this time possibly be exploited in foreign language teaching and learning? This is the question that motivated this study.

Numerous studies have found that educational programs can enhance children's language acquisition in their first language (e.g. Rice and Woodsmall 1988; Singer and Singer 1998; Linebarger and Walker 2005). For example, Linebarger and Walker (2005) found that watching certain educational programs targeted at children resulted in greater vocabularies and higher expressive language scores compared to children's programs without an educational aim. In spite of the promising results, the possible use of educational television programs in foreign language learning has not been studied that much. The focus of research has mainly been on the first language learning, although there are a few exceptions. In this study, the focus is on foreign language learning: the educational aspect of one particular educational program in the context of Finnish children learning English vocabulary is under investigation.

The program which was studied is called *Seikkailija Dora*; its original title is *Dora the Explorer*. The program was chosen to be studied because its way of combining Finnish and English is quite unique among Finnish children's programs. In addition to aiming to entertain children, the program also offers English input and suggests enhancing children's learning of English incidentally outside school. However novel its aims may be, the quality of the program's language teaching is not guaranteed by simply providing children with English input. It seemed reasonable to study the program a bit further in order to analyze the quantity and quality of input it provides. The aims of the study were to investigate how much and what kind of English vocabulary the program contains and whether any methods of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language are used and if they are, to what extent.

Twelve episodes of the program were chosen as data. The analysis included transcribing the data and finding occurrences of English vocabulary. Every occurrence was then counted and categorized by word class. This was the initial stage of the analysis and it was conducted in order to report how much and what kind of English vocabulary the data contained. The second stage of the analysis was to analyze whether the vocabulary was presented using actual methods of presenting vocabulary. The search for methods was based on Thornbury's (2007) categorization of methods of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language, but some adjustments had to be made during the analysis. Even though the analysis was of a qualitative nature, the results were reported also in a quantitative manner in order to describe the content of the data.

In this report, the theoretical framework of the study is discussed first. Chapter 2 defines the terms related to the study, a word and vocabulary. Also different aspects of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language are discussed. Chapter 3 views learning vocabulary from the learner's perspective: some major theories and studies, as well as different factors affecting the learning of vocabulary in a foreign language are presented. Chapter 4 focuses on the use of audiovisual media in the context of language learning. The aims of the study, the data and methods of analysis are presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 reports the findings considering both vocabulary found in the data and the methods used when presenting vocabulary. Chapter 7 summarizes the findings, discusses the implications, considers the merits and limitations of the study and suggests further study.

2 TEACHING VOCABULARY IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In this chapter attempts to define a word and vocabulary are reviewed, because these terms are crucial to the study. Defining them is not as straightforward as one might expect, and therefore it is important to discuss different definitions and validate the terminological choices made in the study. After introducing the terminology, aspects of knowing a word are considered. Finally some factors concerning teaching vocabulary in a foreign language as well as methods of teaching vocabulary are reviewed.

2.1 Defining a word and vocabulary

Any human language is made up of words. Words give us the tools we need in order to talk about anything and they make communication with others possible (Clark 1994: 1). Besides enabling communication, words also help us to understand the world we live in. We give names to things around us and use them in our mind as well as in communication with others. Words are crucial to human behavior, making both thinking and communication possible. Therefore, it is not a surprise that words are the first thing a child learns when beginning to acquire a language (Clark 1994: 1).

In order to study the issue of teaching words, one must first define what constitutes a word. The task is not a simple one, since linguists have differing views on the matter. *Oxford English Dictionary* (online version, 2011) defines a word as "an element or unit of speech, language, etc". It continues with the definition:

> Any of the sequences of one or more sounds or morphemes (intuitively recognized by native speakers as) constituting the basic units of meaningful speech used in forming a sentence or utterance in a language (and in most writing systems normally separated by spaces); a lexical unit other than a phrase or affix; an item of vocabulary, a vocable. (Oxford English Dictionary, online version, 2011)

This definition is used as the basis when defining a word in this study: in the spoken form, which is the form of the data, a word is the smallest possible meaningful unit of sounds. This definition emphasizes the aspect of meaningfulness. What is also characteristic of a word is its mobility: words can move around in a sentence and thereby form new meanings (Clark 1994: 2).

In the definition of OED, a word is also said to be an item of vocabulary. Vocabulary is another crucial term in this study, and it is here defined based on OED as a collection of words. In other words, all existing words of a language make up its vocabulary. Vocabulary items are usually compiled in a dictionary as inclusively as possible and if one wanted to count the existing words of any given language, the simplest way to do so would be to count the number of words in the largest dictionary of the language (Nation and Waring 2009: 6). However, one must bear in mind that vocabulary is not a fixed system. As Nation and Waring (2009: 6) point out, new words are formed and old words are left out of use and in addition, there are always words which are difficult to categorize. This brings us to the problematic nature of defining a word and vocabulary.

Nation (2009: 6) addresses the matter and discusses the problems one might encounter when considering what counts as a word. He raises the following questions: Should the basic form of a word and its plural form be counted as the same word? Should the same form of a word with two or more different meanings be counted as the same word? Should proper nouns be counted as words? Nation (2009: 7-8), as well as Milton (2009: 7-11), discuss four different ways to solve these problems. Firstly, one could count words every time they occur in a text; this means one would be counting *tokens*. In the second alternative the same word is not counted after the first appearance in the text. This way one could count the *types* of words encountered. The third way of counting would be to count *lemmas*, which means that the inflections of the same headword are counted as one word. Finally, one could count every member of a *word family* as one word. This way the inflected forms and closely related derivated forms would be counted as occurrences of the same headword.

Like Nation and Milton, Thornbury (2007: 4-5) discusses the concept of word families. Accordingly, word families consist of *root words*, *inflexions* which are formed by adding an affix to a root (or headword) to serve a grammatical purpose, and *derivatives* which are also formed by adding an affix to a root but instead of a grammatical function the intention is to invent new words with different meanings from the original root. Besides the terminology (Nation and Milton use the terms inflections and headwords while Thornbury talks about inflexions and root words) all these definitions of word families are congruent, and there seems to be consensus in the field of vocabulary study concerning the definition of a word family. What is more important than the definition, however, is the reason for having this definition. According to Thornbury (2007: 5),

research has shown that a learner's mind classifies different members of a word family together, and therefore it is more useful to discuss how many word families a learner knows rather than count single words learned. Also Milton (2009: 10) argues for the counting of word families rather than individual words learned because it makes learning vocabulary more "understandable": when a headword is learned, it can be varied according to certain rules.

Besides the issues discussed above there are many other factors which make defining a word a difficult task. When new words are formed from already existing base words, the learner might find it extremely confusing. Thornbury (2007: 5-6) introduces other ways of word formation besides affixation. One is *compounding*, where two or more words are joined together. Words can also *blend* together, sustaining parts of two or more words and losing the rest. Furthermore, words can be *converted*, when the form of the word remains the same but the meaning of the word as well as the word class changes. Finally, new words can be formed by *clipping* longer words and making them shorter; in this case, the meaning usually remains the same. All of these word formation processes can complicate the task of defining a word. In addition, Thornbury (2007, 6-9) also discusses the following issues as possible causes of confusion when defining a word: *multi-word units* (groups of words that often have a quite fixed form and are learned as a unit), *collocations* (units of words that are likely to occur and are associated together), *homonyms* (words with the same form but totally different meanings), *polysemes* (words that have the same form and different, yet overlapping meanings), *synonyms* (words that share a similar meaning but have different forms) and *antonyms* (words with opposite meanings).

Despite all the problems facing dictionary writers and others who are trying to decide on how to explicitly define a word, learning vocabulary is not that complicated. However, in order to discuss how vocabulary is taught and learned, one should first have an insight into what it means to know a word. Thornbury (2007: 15-16) discusses the issue thoroughly. At the most basic level, a learner has to learn the *form* and *meaning* of the new word. After that, the word knowledge can be expanded by learning *other possible meanings* of the word, both the *spoken* and the *written form* of the word, the *grammatical behavior* of the word, different *derivations* of the word, *collocations* of the word (i.e. words that often occur alongside), *register* of the word, *connotations* of the word (i.e. associations) and *frequency* of the word in the language. Laufer (2009:

141) makes a similar outline on the factors involved when learning a new word; his list includes knowing the *form* (both spoken and written), *word structure* (the root word and its common derivations and inflections), *syntactic pattern* in a phrase or in a sentence, *meaning* (referential, affective and pragmatic aspects), *lexical relations* to other words (e.g. synonymy, antonymy) and common *collocations*.

There are also other categorizations concerning word knowledge. Nation (2009: 27) divides word knowledge into form, meaning and use. He further divides the knowledge of all three into three more specific categories: *knowledge of the form* includes knowing the spoken and written forms as well as the word parts, *knowledge of the meaning* involves knowing about the connection of the meaning and the form, concept and referents and associations, and finally *knowledge of the use* of the word includes knowing its grammatical functions, collocations and constraints of use. Furthermore, in Nation's categorization all of the factors involved in knowing a word include both *receptive knowledge* and *productive knowledge*. This distinction between receptive and productive knowledge is widely recognized in the field of language learning. When focusing on vocabulary learning, receptive (or passive) vocabulary use means perceiving the form of a word when confronting it and retrieving its meaning, while productive (or active) vocabulary use means being able to produce the correct form of the intended meaning (Milton 2009: 13; Nation 2009: 25).

2.2 Aspects of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language

Teaching vocabulary can be either *incidental*, when learning happens as a by-product of other language learning activities, or *intentional*, when vocabulary is the actual target of teaching (Read 2004: 147). The practice of teaching vocabulary incidentally and encouraging inferring meaning from the context was the trend in the 1970s and 1980s, but lately the focus has shifted towards explicit, or intentional, teaching of vocabulary (Sökmen 2009: 237). Furthermore, Pavicic Takac (2008: 18) argues that "vocabulary acquisition cannot rely on implicit incidental learning but needs to be controlled"; therefore, explicit methods of teaching vocabulary are discussed in this section. Explicit methods are here understood as the methods a teacher makes use of when teaching vocabulary in a foreign language in a formal setting, usually in a classroom. However, it must be emphasized that even though the focus here is on the actual methods of teaching, the issue cannot be dealt with without considering other three aspects of a

teacher's work discussed by Nation (2008: 1-5): planning, strategy training and evaluation. *Planning* requires a teacher to design activities which offer meaning-focused input and encourage meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency development. Planning also includes deciding on which words to teach and how to teach them. *Strategy training* means that a teacher trains learners in different learning strategies in order to support independent vocabulary learning. Finally, *testing* involves a teacher in testing learners and evaluating their progress, which should guide future teaching.

When teaching vocabulary formally or explicitly, the first decision one has to make concerns the vocabulary being taught (Read 2004: 148). Nation (2009: 13) argues that lists of *high frequency words* are extremely useful when making this decision; those are the words that cover a large proportion of the words a foreign language learner is likely to encounter, and therefore they are of great importance. Usually the amount of high frequency words in a random text is around 80 % of the running words (Nation 2009: 7-8). Because of their importance, Nation (2009: 16) suggests that high frequency words should be granted a lot of time and effort in vocabulary teaching. Also Milton (2009: 22) highlights the importance of high frequency words at the early stages of learning vocabulary in a foreign language. According to Nation (2008: 7-8), most lists of high frequency words include about 2000 word families and the majority of these words are content words (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). However, Milton (2009: 23) argues that the most frequent words are more likely to be function or structure words which serve a grammatical purpose.

In addition to high frequency words, there are three other groups of words discussed by Nation (2008: 8-12): academic words, technical words and low frequency words. *Academic words* are not that common in everyday communication, but they frequently occur in academic texts. A list of academic words mentioned by Nation is Coxhead's list which includes 570 word families. According to Coxhead (2000: 213), the words in her list comprise 10 % of tokens in academic texts she used as a corpus, but only 1.4 % of same size fictional text corpus indicating that the words on the list are predominantly used in academic texts. *Technical words*, as described by Nation, are words commonly used in a specific field of expertise; different fields have their own technical vocabulary characteristic of that field. Finally, Nation discusses *low frequency words* which form the largest group of words in a language including words that are not used frequently,

rare words and technical words from other areas, since one field's technical words are low frequency words to everyone not familiar to that field.

Another important issue one has to consider when teaching vocabulary is how much vocabulary can be taught at once. Thornbury (2007: 75-76) discusses several factors one should acknowledge when making this decision. The *skill level* of learners and the possible *familiarity* of the words to learners affect the amount of vocabulary that can be taught. It is obvious that with beginners the learning burden should be kept to a minimum, but if the words being taught are already familiar to learners, one could consider teaching more words at a time. Other affecting factors include the *difficulty* and "*teachability*" of words. Abstract words can be harder to grasp than words with more concrete meanings, and also the pronunciation can make a word difficult. "Teachability" of a word has to do with how easily the word can be explained or demonstrated. Finally, what affects deciding on the amount of words to be taught is the *purpose* of teaching the words chosen. If it is enough that words will be recognized, more items can be taught at once, but if production of words is the aim of teaching, more time should be afforded to teaching a word and less words should be taught. Besides these issues, Thornbury (2007: 76) also emphasizes the fact that the learner's capacity to remember must be kept in mind and in addition to presenting the words, there should also be time to put the words into use.

After deciding on what and how many items to teach, the next choices discussed by Thornbury (2007: 76-77) concern the sequence and means of presentation. There are two alternatives concerning the *sequence*: one can either present the meaning first followed by the form or vice versa. When presenting the meaning first, the situation should create a need for the learners to learn the form and in this way make the presenting of the word more efficient. When presenting the word in a certain context, the "form first" approach could work better, enabling learners to work out the meaning independently. According to Thornbury, different alternatives for the actual *means* of presenting new words are the following: presenting the meaning either through translation, real things, pictures, actions/gestures, definitions or situations. *Translation* is the easiest way to access the word's meaning, but it can interfere with learners' development of L2 lexicon since translation teaches learners to access L2 words through their L1 equivalents. Illustrating meaning visually through *real things* (i.e. showing the actual object of the form being taught), *pictures* and *actions or gestures* (i.e. mimicking)

are efficient ways of presenting words when teaching beginners and groups that do not share the same mother tongue, making translations useless. When illustrating the meaning is not possible, one can explain the meaning verbally by giving a *definition* of the word, providing an example *situation* or example sentences or giving synonyms, antonyms or subordinate terms. Ellis (1995, as quoted by Nation 2009: 65) found that when defining a word, short and simple definitions are the most effective ones resulting in good learning outcomes; this should be kept in mind when defining new vocabulary items to learners.

Similar techniques for presenting new words to learners are also discussed by many others (Pavicic Takac 2008: 19-21; Nation 2009: 85), and it seems there is an agreement in the field of vocabulary research concerning the possible methods of introducing new vocabulary to learners. In addition to the methods of presentation, Pavicic Takac (2008: 19-23) discusses another important aspect of teaching vocabulary: reviewing and consolidating the words presented. She lists common activities for practicing the words learned: for example, mechanical *repetition* of words, *copying* words, *matching* words and their definitions, *integrating* new words with already known words, *semantic elaboration*, *personalization*, *productive use* of words and *multiple encounters* with the word. The last activity on the list, providing multiple encounters with the word, is also discussed by Nation (2009: 74-78). According to him, repetition in vocabulary learning is essential because one contact with the word is not enough to gain all information needed in order to learn the word and to be able to use it later on. He introduces terms *massed repetition*, which means spending time on repeating a word on a single session, and *spaced repetition*, which means repeating the word over a longer period of time. Nation suggests the latter to be a better method of integrating repetition into vocabulary teaching. Accordingly, also Dempster (1987: 168) has found spaced repetition to be far more effective in vocabulary learning than massed repetition.

Sökmen (2009: 239-257) introduces several issues concerning the explicit teaching of vocabulary, which accordingly emerge throughout the literature in the field. The first one is to build a large sight vocabulary containing both highly-frequent words and more difficult, less-frequent words while also enabling learners to choose certain words to be learned. Secondly, new words should be integrated with the already known words. The third point she makes concerns the number of encounters with the new word: the word should be encountered often enough through various activities and in different contexts.

Furthermore, learners should be engaged in a deep level of processing while learning new words. Teachers should also facilitate imaging and concreteness when presenting new words; these methods include arranging vocabulary in organized units, using visual illustrations and making words concrete and contextualized. Techniques used in vocabulary teaching should also vary. Finally, learners should be encouraged to discover and use independent learning strategies so that they can learn vocabulary outside the classroom.

3 LEARNING VOCABULARY IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In this chapter theories and studies concerning learning vocabulary in a foreign language are discussed. This part of the theoretical background focuses on the learner's perspective and discusses various strategies one can make use of when learning vocabulary in a foreign language. After that, different factors affecting learning vocabulary in a foreign language are discussed.

3.1 Theories and studies on learning vocabulary in a foreign language

When discussing the learning of vocabulary, it is worthwhile to consider what the procedure actually entails. Nation (2009: 63-71) describes three processes that lead to a word being learned. The processes are called noticing, retrieval and creative use. *Noticing* means that attention is given to a vocabulary item and the learner literally notices the word. The process of noticing includes the previously discussed methods of presenting vocabulary to learners, but noticing can also take place when the learner looks up a word in a dictionary, deliberately studies a word or guesses the word from the context where it appears. The second process, *retrieval*, involves the learner in retrieving either the form or the meaning of a previously encountered word from memory. This further strengthens the memorization of the word. It must be noted that retrieval does not occur if both the form and the meaning are available to the learner; one has to be absent so that the other can be retrieved. Finally, *creative use* of a word means learning new ways to use a previously learned word. This generative process is seen as an important factor in both first and second language vocabulary learning.

One important issue concerning vocabulary learning is how much vocabulary a foreign language learner actually needs to learn. Nation and Waring (2009: 6-10) suggest three

alternative ways to answer this question. The first way to approach the matter is to calculate the words of the target language in the largest dictionary. A study by Goulden, Nation and Read (1990, as quoted by Nation and Waring 2009: 7) concluded that *Webster's Third International Dictionary*, the largest dictionary of English when published in 1963, includes around 54 000 word families. However, according to Nation and Waring (2009), the learning goal should not be determined in this way because it is impossible for a learner to reach. The second solution suggested by them is to aim at the same vocabulary size as native speakers of the target language. The amount of words known by native speakers has been studied to some extent, but the results have been various. Goulden, Nation and Read (1990, as quoted by Nation and Waring 2009: 7-8) concluded that educated English native speakers know around 20 000 word families, but even larger vocabularies have been suggested. However, what matters is that the goal set in this way is achievable, at least for good foreign language learners. The third suggested way to set a learning goal is to consider how much vocabulary is actually needed to properly use the target language. Nation and Waring (2009) suggest the number to be from 3000 to 5000 word families, including 3000 high frequency words. Thornbury (2007: 20-21) suggests a sufficient amount to be 2000 words, which accordingly would enable a reader to understand nearly nine out of ten words in most written texts.

In the past decades researchers have endorsed the role of the learner and the strategies he or she makes use of when learning a foreign language. Because the task of learning vocabulary is massive and never complete, the role of learning strategies is highlighted in learning vocabulary in a foreign language and is discussed by many (e.g. Thornbury 2007; Nation 2009; Schmitt 2009). Research has indicated that good language learners make use of various vocabulary learning strategies (Ahmed 1989, as quoted by Schmitt 2009; Gu and Johnson 1996), so training learners in using different strategies is important. According to Thornbury (2007: 144-145), good language learners pay attention to the form (e.g. spelling and constituents of words) and meaning (e.g. connotations and associations) of a word, are good at guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words from context or word parts, are not afraid of making mistakes, therefore adopting strategies to cope with less information, and know how to organize their learning by using appropriate learning strategies.

Different taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies have been suggested. A quite comprehensive one has been compiled by Schmitt (2009). He listed 58 strategies based on previous literature on the matter, a survey study of Japanese learners of English and discussions with language teachers. He categorized his taxonomy based on Oxford's system, which categorized vocabulary learning strategies into social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive groups. Schmitt added one more group, *determination strategies*. They are strategies a learner makes use of when discovering the meaning of a new word, e.g. guessing from context, analyzing affixes and roots and using dictionaries. Also *social strategies* can be used to discover word meanings when a learner asks about the meaning from the teacher or classmates, but they can also be used for consolidating previously met words. The rest of the strategies are also such that are used when consolidating previously encountered words. *Memory strategies*, which form the largest group of strategies, usually involve relating a word to previous knowledge and creating mental links which reinforce learning. *Cognitive strategies* resemble memory strategies, but involve less mental processing and rather focus on using mechanical means and repetition. *Metacognitive strategies* involve learners in controlling and evaluating their own learning.

The results from Schmitt's survey study (2009) indicated that out of the 40 strategies included in the survey, the ones used most often for discovering meaning were using a bilingual dictionary (85 % of respondents claimed using it), guessing from textual context (74 %) and asking classmates for meaning (73 %), and the strategies used most often for consolidating meaning were verbal repetition (76 %), written repetition (76 %) and studying the spelling (74 %). The strategies used least often for discovering meaning included checking for an L1 cognate (11 %), and the strategies used least often for consolidating meaning included using cognates (10 %), using semantic maps (9 %) and teacher checking students' flash cards for accuracy (3 %). In addition to surveying which methods the learners indicated using, Schmitt also surveyed which methods they perceived as being the most and least helpful. Six of the strategies in the list of most frequently used strategies were also found in the list of most helpful strategies: using a bilingual dictionary, written repetition, verbal repetition, saying a new word aloud, studying a word's spelling and taking notes in class. Schmitt argues that these are strategies the learners already use and find helpful. He also found that some strategies were perceived as being helpful but yet not used very much. Such

strategies included studying synonyms and antonyms, continuing to study over time, asking the teacher for paraphrase and using pictures or gestures to understand meaning.

Nation's (2009) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies separates the strategies used for planning learning, finding information about words from different sources and the actual processes of establishing knowledge. The first group, strategies of *planning*, includes choosing words, choosing aspects of word knowledge to focus on, choosing strategies and planning repetition. The second group, *sources*, includes analyzing word parts, using context, consulting a reference source in L1 or L2 and using parallels in L1 and L2. The third group, *processes*, includes the previously discussed ways of noticing, retrieving and generating. Nation (2009: 222) suggests that learners should be trained to use these strategies, because most of them "can be applied to a wide range of vocabulary and are useful at all stages of vocabulary learning", and because research has indicated that learners differ greatly when it comes to using vocabulary learning strategies. According to Nation, the implications of being able to use vocabulary learning strategies are that learners can take control of their own learning and the teacher can focus on other things.

At least until the 1990s, the vocabulary learning strategies studied the most have been strategies used for memorization of words (Gu and Johnson 1996: 644). Carter and McCarthy (1988: 12) argue that "the more words are analysed or are enriched by imagistic and other association, the more likely it is that they will be retained". They discuss one particular method of memorization, the keyword method. It has been, and is to date, a well-known technique for remembering words; when vocabulary learning strategies are discussed, it is usually mentioned. Thornbury (2007: 145) discusses *mnemonics*, techniques for remembering things, and acknowledges that the keyword technique is the best-known mnemonic technique. When using the technique, the learner typically creates a mental image which connects the pronunciation of the L2 word with the meaning of a chosen L1 word. This way the keyword technique involves both of the characteristics of the best mnemonics as discussed by Thornbury (2007): it has a visual element and is self-generated. According to Gu and Johnson (1996: 644-645), several studies have indicated that the keyword method has resulted in great gains in learning vocabulary, but they also argue that it, as the other techniques for memorization, falsely assume that vocabulary learning is mostly a matter of learning word lists.

As was the case with teaching vocabulary, also learning vocabulary can be either *intentional* or *incidental*. According to Nation (2009), those two are not opposite activities, but rather complement each other, each one upgrading the learning outcomes gained from the other activity. However, he argues that "incidental learning via guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning" (Nation 2009: 232). By learning from context he means learning that happens when reading or listening to regular language use, the focus being on the content of the message. Such situations include extensive reading, taking part in conversations and listening to stories, films, television or radio. Also Thornbury (2007: 148) discusses guessing words from context. He, too, argues that it is one of the most important skills a language learner has to acquire, since he or she is bound to be in a situation where the meaning of a word is unknown and making a good guess is important.

Thornbury (2007: 148) lists the following procedures of guessing from context: deciding the part of speech of the word, looking for further clues in the immediate collocates of the word, looking at the context as a whole, looking at the form and word parts, guessing the meaning, searching for confirmation and, if the guess was incorrect, deciding on whether to skip the word or consult a dictionary. Similar steps have also been suggested by, for example, Nation and Coady (1988: 104). Nagy (2009: 76-82) suggests a wider perspective and categorizes the knowledge needed in context-based inferring into three groups: linguistic knowledge (including syntactic and vocabulary knowledge and word schemas), world knowledge and strategic knowledge.

In addition to considering the strategies and processes involved in learning vocabulary, researchers have also been interested in studying how vocabulary items are stored in memory once they have been learned. The difference between *short term memory* and *long term memory* is widely recognized, as is the fact that repetition is crucial for information to be stored in either one (Gairns and Redman 1986). Gairns and Redman (1986: 88) discuss the organization of the mental lexicon and state that "at a very basic level, there appears to be a phonological system, a system of meaning relations and a spelling system". They further argue that semantically related items are stored together in the memory, but some variables such as word frequency, recency of use and the temporal distance of learning also affect the way vocabulary is stored. Also Channell (1988) discusses the mental lexicon and concludes that in the memory, there is one mental lexicon for L1. It is phonologically arranged and can be accessed by distinct but

related networks. She further argues that the L1 and L2 lexicons of the same person are clearly related, both semantically and in a phonological and associational way.

The connection between L1 and L2 lexicons is also acknowledged by others. Ellis (2009: 133-134) argues that at first the acquisition of L2 words involves the learner in connecting new forms with previously learned conceptual meanings. According to Thornbury (2007: 16), the learner's mind stores words "in a highly organised and interconnected fashion" in the mental lexicon. He, too, argues that words that are semantically similar are stored interconnectedly in the memory, but in addition to this, words similar in form are also stored together. Thornbury (2007: 17) concludes that words are stored as "double entries" in the memory; one entry entails information concerning the meaning and the other information on the form of a word. He also notices that when retrieving a previously learned word, the human mind is more prone to begin the search via the meaning-based lexicon rather than the form-based.

3.2 Factors affecting learning vocabulary in a foreign language

A commonly recognized fact is that the linguistic features of a word affect the possible learning outcomes when learning foreign vocabulary (Thornbury 2007; Pavicic Takac 2008; Laufer 2009). Thornbury (2007: 27) states that one of the linguistic factors which often makes the learning task seem difficult is pronunciation: if a word is difficult to pronounce, it can also be difficult to learn. He also acknowledges that the factors making pronunciation difficult are usually the unfamiliarity of sounds to the learner or clusters of consonants within a word. Also Milton (2009: 35) argues that the form of the word is "the most obvious source of potential difficulty for a learner" and, similarly to Thornbury, names pronunciation and unusual combinations of letters and sounds as aggravating factors. A study by Rodgers (1969, as quoted by Milton 2009: 35) supports this view: when studying English-speaking students of Russian, it was found that words with non-English sound combinations and difficult pronunciation were more difficult to learn than words that were easier to pronounce.

Another affecting factor is spelling which can either make learning easier when the sound and spelling are similar or make it harder when the sound and spelling are different from each other (Thornbury 2007: 27; Laufer 2009: 144). Thornbury (2007: 27) mentions words containing silent letters to be especially difficult for learners

because their spelling is rather irregular instead of being “law-abiding” as most English spelling. What can also affect the task of learning vocabulary in a foreign language is the length of words, since long words are usually perceived as being difficult to learn (Thornbury 2007: 27). Laufer (2009: 144-145), however, questions this view and points out that some long words are morphologically transparent and therefore actually easy to learn. Other linguistic features making the learning of a word potentially difficult include inflexional and derivational complexity, similarity of lexical forms, either in speech or writing, and grammar (Laufer 2009: 145-149). Thornbury (2007: 28) suggests that learners tend to assume that foreign words follow the same grammatical patterns as the learner’s first language, which often leads to mistakes since the assumption is in many cases incorrect.

Related to the grammar of a word is the issue of word class or the part of speech of a word. Rodgers (1969, as quoted by Nation 1990: 48) found that the learning of a word is affected by its part of speech: in his study, nouns were the easiest words to learn, followed by adjectives. The most difficult words to learn were verbs and adverbs. Nation (1990: 47) suggests this is due to guessing words from the context because nouns and verbs are easier to guess than adjectives and adverbs, even though this is not in total correlation with Rodgers’ findings. Milton (2009: 37), too, argues that the part of speech affects the learnability of a word. He quotes a study by Horst and Meara (1999), who found that when reading a comic book in a foreign language, a learner acquired nouns the best, followed by verbs, adjectives and adverbs. This result is in accordance with Nation’s argument concerning guessing from the context. However, Milton (2009: 37) emphasizes that Horst and Meara’s findings may be due to the setting of the study: since the learner was able to deduce meanings from picture cues, nouns and verbs might have been present in the images making the inferring of meaning and acquiring words easier than with adjectives and adverbs.

Even though recognizing the linguistic features of a word contributing to difficulties in learning, Milton (2009) argues that the most influential feature affecting learning is word frequency. He sees the frequency with which words occur as the most important factor differentiating words, since “frequency determines which words a learner is likely to encounter and how often they are encountered” (Milton 2009: 22). The most frequent words are those words that a learner will come across early on in his or her language studies and will continue to encounter quite often, thus making those words quickly

familiar to the learner. Even though Milton sees word frequency as the most important factor affecting learning vocabulary in a foreign language, he also recognizes that other factors contribute to word difficulty and possible learning outcomes. Therefore, he calls for a single model combining different elements affecting learning vocabulary in a foreign language.

A study by Milton and Daller (2007, as quoted by Milton 2009: 38-42) attempted to combine several of these affecting factors to determine how big an influence each of them has on the learning process. In their study they included word frequency, word length and degree of cognateness, i.e. the similarity of L1 and L2 forms of a word, as factors contributing to word learnability and counted how much each factor affected the learning outcome. The results indicated that there was no correlation between the three factors measured and that word frequency had a greater impact on learning words than word length or cognateness, which did not seem to have practically any impact on word learnability. Milton (2009: 41-42) recognizes the possibility of the research setting influencing the results, but nevertheless, he concludes that word frequency is the most influential factor affecting the process of learning vocabulary in a foreign language whereas other factors, e.g. word difficulty, only affect learning at the level of individual words.

Besides the linguistic factors, there are various semantic features that can complicate the learning task (Thornbury 2007; Pavicic Takac 2008; Laufer 2009). First of all, there are several issues concerning the meaning of a word. For example, when two words have overlapping meanings, as is the case with *make* and *do*, learners can easily confuse them (Thornbury 2007: 28). Also unfamiliar concepts, such as culture-specific words, can be difficult to learn: Thornbury (2007: 20) uses the term *strangers* to describe L2 words that have no L1 equivalent at all. This makes learning more challenging as the learner has to acquire both the concept and the word at the same time. Words with abstract meanings can also be problematic (Laufer 2009: 149-150). Gairns and Redman (1986: 17) suggest that concrete items are easier to learn than abstract ideas, due to the fact that they are easy to demonstrate simply whereas abstract words are not. Words with multiple meanings can also cause problems, since the learner might refuse using a previously learned word in a different way (Thornbury 2007: 28; Laufer 2009: 152).

In addition to the meaning there are other semantic features to consider. Some words can be used in a wide range of contexts, whereas others are restricted to a special area of use; the implication for learning is that the previously mentioned word type is safer and therefore easier to learn (Thornbury 2007: 28; Laufer 2009: 151). Idiomaticity is another complicating issue, because learning expressions that do not have a transparent meaning can be difficult (Thornbury 2007: 28). Moon (2009) further discusses the challenge of multi-word units, such as idioms, compounds, phrasal verbs and fixed phrases, in L2 learning. She states that because of their "non-compositionality", multi-word units have to be "recognized, learned, decoded and encoded as holistic units" (Moon 2009: 57). They are also usually language-specific and have sociocultural associations; because of these factors, multi-word units are often perceived as difficult. Also connotations can confuse learners, since a foreign language learner cannot always know if a word has a negative or positive association in the target language (Thornbury 2007: 28). Related to the semantic features are also the findings of Blum and Levenston (1978, as quoted by Laufer 2009: 150), who found that foreign language learners prefer using subordinate and general terms in situations where native speakers would use more specific terms.

Sometimes there can be something about the word, or rather about the learner's view of the word, which makes it especially easy for the learner to grasp. Thornbury (2007: 27) suggests this is the case when the L2 word shares similar meaning and form with the L1 equivalent. This is possible if both words derive from the same origin; they are then called cognates. Similarity is also possible if a language has borrowed a word from another language. Thornbury (2007: 19-20) calls words that share similar form in two or more languages *real friends* as opposed to *false friends* which are words that appear to be similar in the learner's L1 and the target language but actually are not. He alerts that mistaking false friends as real friends leads to errors as the learner incorrectly assumes similar L1 and L2 forms also to share a similar meaning. Even though there is a risk of over-relying on L1 transfer to L2 vocabulary learning, Nation (1990: 49) encourages teachers to draw attention to similarities in L1 and L2 for positive transfer to occur.

4 AUDIOVISUAL MEDIA IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Audiovisual media is defined by its feature of combining sound and moving image; television, video and film are traditionally seen as representatives of audiovisual media (van Els, Bongaerts, Extra, van Os and Janssen-van Dieten 1984: 288-289). Audiovisual media has been regarded as a possible source of language input for decades; the use of film and television in language teaching was discussed already in the 1960s (Corder 1966). One of the main arguments for the use of audiovisual media in language teaching has been that it makes it possible to contextualize language and present it in a real situation, which would not otherwise be possible in the classroom (Corder 1966: 69; van Els et al. 1984: 289-290). When audiovisual media began to be exploited in language teaching its critics, on the other hand, argued that producing audiovisual material was expensive and using it in classrooms required expensive equipment and was difficult (Corder 1966: 68-69). This was certainly true some decades ago, but nowadays the development of technology has made using audiovisual material in language teaching possible and even easy. Furthermore, as children are spending increasingly more time in front of the television at home, language learning assisted by audiovisual media often takes place outside the classroom.

Already Corder (1966: 83) recognized the unique role of television in language teaching, and its role has been increasingly acknowledged as it has become an every-day item in households. According to Wartella and Richert (2009: 16), watching television is the dominant activity of American children today and dozens of educational television programs in American networks are targeted at preschool children. Without a doubt the same trend is prevailing also internationally. Because of the scope of the phenomenon, a lot of research has been carried out around the issue of children learning from the media. For example, educational programs and their possible learning outcomes have been of great interest to researchers. Many studies have indicated that educational television programs can enhance children's language development. According to Wartella and Richert (2009: 21), "well-planned, educational programs specifically targeted to the needs of children at specific ages can successfully teach children a planned curriculum".

The age and skill level of the target audience was also emphasized in a study by Rice (1983, as quoted by Uchikoshi 2009: 183), who pioneered in the field and found that

children learned language from television if the following preconditions were met: 1) the program was suitable considering the child's linguistic abilities, 2) the child was not a toddler but a bit older and 3) the dialogue and content of the program were targeted at the child's level of comprehension. The second point is also discussed by others: for example, Anderson and Pempeck (2005) argue that young children learn better from real-life experiences than from watching similar situations on television. Also Grela, Krcmar and Lin (2004) found that toddlers, aged from 15 to 24 months, learned vocabulary more likely when taught by an adult caregiver compared to when vocabulary was presented by an animated character in a television program. Regardless of these types of results, educational programs and even entire cable channels in America are targeted at children under two (Wartella and Richert 2009: 16).

Even though Grela et al. (2004) found that very young children learn vocabulary better from caregivers than television programs, Linebarger and Walker (2005) came to the conclusion that infants and toddlers can acquire vocabulary from certain types of television programs. According to them, "when specific language-promoting or language-inhibiting strategies are used with infants and toddlers in a televised format" language learning is likely to occur (Linebarger and Walker 2005: 642). In their study educational children's programs *Dora the Explorer* and *Blue's Clues* had positive effects on children's expressive language production and vocabulary, and they considered this to be due to the strategies both programs made use of: characters spoke directly to the viewer, elicited participation, gave names to objects and gave the viewer a chance to respond.

Besides the studies by Grela et al. (2004) and Linebarger and Walker (2005), infants' and toddlers' ability to learn vocabulary from television has been studied very little, but more studies have been conducted with older children. Many studies have indicated that older preschool children can learn vocabulary from television and especially from educational programs. Rice and Woodsmall (1988), being among the first to study the matter, found that preschool children learned vocabulary from television, 5-year old children learning better than 3-year old children and the easiest words to learn being object and attribute words. Singer and Singer (1998) found that preschool children performed significantly better in a vocabulary test on nouns after watching ten episodes of an educational program called *Barney & Friends* compared to the pretest conducted before watching the program. In both of these studies, as in many others, the power of

repetition was emphasized, and it is one of the key elements Rice (1983, as quoted by Uchikoshi 2006: 34) found to be characteristic of educational programs along with avoidance of novel words and non-literal meanings.

Even though numerous studies have indicated that children acquire vocabulary in their first language by watching television, especially educational programs, the possibilities of using television programs in learning vocabulary in a foreign language have not been studied that much, at least with very young children. D'Ydewalle and Van de Poel (1999) discovered that among their test group consisting of 8- to 12-year old Dutch children, foreign vocabulary was acquired by watching a television program. They also discovered that children acquired more vocabulary when the foreign vocabulary was present in the sound track of the program than in the subtitles, which was contrary to previous results on adults acquiring foreign vocabulary from television. Koolstra and Beentjes (1999), by contrast, found that Dutch elementary school children acquired English vocabulary better when the subtitles were added to the English sound track as opposed to hearing only the sound track.

The results in the studies by d'Ydewalle and Van de Poel (1999) and Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) were promising in the sense that children clearly acquired foreign vocabulary by watching television programs. Their tests, however, were conducted with older children and the television programs were not specially designed educational programs which have produced great vocabulary gains among preschool children who are learning their first language. In one of very few studies focusing on young children learning vocabulary in a foreign language from educational programs, Uchikoshi (2006) examined how Spanish-speaking kindergarten children learned English by watching educational programs and found that incidental vocabulary learning did not occur. However, she notes that the test she used to measure vocabulary growth was a standardized one and did not focus on the target words present in the educational programs. Levin, Schleifer, Levin and Freund (2009) got similar results in their study, but they also used a general vocabulary test instead of a test focusing on the vocabulary presented in the educational programs used in their study. When using a test focusing on the words practiced by the program which the study group had watched, Levin, Aram, Biron and Shemesh (2003, as quoted by Levin et al. 2009: 250) reported positive effects on vocabulary growth.

5 PRESENT STUDY

In this chapter the research questions and aims of the study are discussed first. After that, the data is presented and also some special features of the program constituting the data are discussed. Then the process of transcribing the data is reviewed. The methods of analysis that were used in this study are discussed in the last section, first on a more general level and then focusing on the practical issues concerning the analysis of both vocabulary and methods of presenting it.

5.1 Aims of the study

As discussed in the previous chapter, many studies have found that watching educational television programs can enhance children's language learning. However, the focus has mainly been on the language learning of native speakers. This study was initiated by the desire to study whether educational programs could be used in foreign language learning as well. A suitable program was already available for further study: *Seikkailija Dora*, originally *Dora the Explorer*, is broadcast in Finnish children's channels. The characters of the program speak both Finnish and English, and the program is designed to both entertain children and teach them a foreign language. However, because learning a foreign language requires more than merely being presented with input in the foreign language, this study set out to investigate whether the program actually has the potential to teach Finnish children English.

The aims of the study were to examine and describe the type of English input the show offers and also analyze the possible methods the program makes use of when presenting English vocabulary. While analyzing the possible use of vocabulary teaching methods, a modification of Thornbury's (2007: 77) listing of means of presenting vocabulary in a foreign language was used as the basis of the analysis. In other words, an already existing categorization of ways of presenting vocabulary in a foreign language was used and it was examined whether those methods were used in the program or not. This choice and its implications for the analysis are further discussed in Section 5.3.3.

As the program mixes Finnish and English vocabulary, an object of interest was to examine what kind of vocabulary was presented in English. The aim was to count and describe the English vocabulary presented and also search for the possible presence of

elements used in more formal settings of teaching vocabulary. The research questions were following:

1. How much and what kind of English vocabulary does the program present?
2. Does the program make use of means of presenting vocabulary and if it does, to what extent?

In order to answer the first research question every occurrence of English vocabulary present in the data was searched for, listed and counted. After that it was possible to analyze which word classes the words found represented and whether some words occurred more often than others. To answer the second research question, Thornbury's (2007) categorization was used as the basis of the analysis and it was examined whether the methods described by him were used in the program when English vocabulary was presented.

5.2 Data

The data consisted of twelve episodes of *Seikkailija Dora*, the Finnish version of an American series originally called *Dora the Explorer*. The series is targeted at children, and in Finland, as well as in other countries where it is running, it broadcasts in children's channel Nickelodeon. Episodes of the series can also be purchased on DVD, which is how the data of this study was gathered. Besides the Finnish version, the DVDs purchased also contained Swedish, Danish and Norwegian audio tracks for the episodes. In the introductory text at the back cover of the DVD it was said that Dora, the girl who is the main character of the series, will ask the viewer to help her solve some problems in a fun way and in the process, Dora may also teach the viewer some English. Based on this introduction, the series was evaluated as having both educational and entertaining goals.

To be more specific, the data consisted of three DVDs each containing four episodes of the series. The length of each episode was approximately 24 minutes. The DVDs were purchased without any previous knowledge concerning the episodes, and therefore there was no selection but the sample was rather chosen randomly. One of the DVDs was published in 2010 and the other two in 2011. From now on, the DVD published in 2010 is referred to as DVD 1. It was titled *Seikkailija Dora – Tartu tähtiin* (originally *Dora*

the Explorer – Catch the stars), and it contained four episodes which are referred to as episode 1.1, episode 1.2, episode 1.3 and episode 1.4. The Finnish titles of the episodes, with the translations given in the parentheses, were the following: episode 1.1 *Piilosilla* (*Hide and go seek*), episode 1.2 *Herätys!* (*Louder*), episode 1.3 *Tähdenpyydystäjä* (*Star catcher*) and episode 1.4 *Tähtivuori* (*Star mountain*).

The first one of the DVDs published in 2011 is later referred to as DVD 2; it was titled *Seikkailija Dora – Ystävien päivä* (originally *Dora the Explorer – Best friends*) and it contained four episodes which are in this study called episodes 2.1, 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4. The actual titles of the episodes were: 2.1 *Suklaapuu* (*Chocolate tree*), 2.2 *Puumaja* (*Tree house*), 2.3 *Ystävien päivä* (*Best friends*) and 2.4 *Doran ensimmäinen seikkailu* (*Dora's first trip*). The other DVD published in 2011 was titled *Seikkailija Dora – Salainen tehtävä* (originally *Dora the Explorer – Undercover Dora*) and is later referred to as DVD 3. Its four episodes are called episodes 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4, the actual titles were the following: 3.1 *Paloauto Red* (*Rojo, the firetruck*), 3.2 *Lännen nopein ratsu* (*Pinto, the pony express*), 3.3 *Salainen tehtävä* (*Super spies*) and 3.4 *Supervakoojat* (*Super spies 2: The swiping machine*).

5.2.1 *Dora the Explorer*

The series has been created by Chris Gifford, Valerie Walsh and Eric Weiner; this and other facts concerning the making of the series were given in the credits at the end of each episode. However, not all of the creators have written the script of every episode, but they have rather written scripts individually or used a script by another writer. The episodes which constituted the data of this study were written by Eric Weiner (episodes 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 3.1), Ashley Mendoza (episodes 1.1 and 3.2), Valerie Walsh (episodes 3.3 and 3.4) and Chris Gifford (episode 1.4). The episodes in DVD1 were translated by Susanna Tuomi and Maria Lohi and in DVD2 by Susanna Tuomi. DVD3 did not include information on the translator. The series was first broadcasted in the U.S. on August 14, 2000 and new episodes are still made. The target audience of the series is preschool children all over the world; by 2010, the series had been translated into 30 languages (Rock). Originally the series taught Spanish to American children, but since its success worldwide, the series has taught Spanish also to children in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and Ireland and English in other countries where it has been broadcasted (Rock).

While starting to write the series, the designers wanted to create a show that would teach children problem-solving skills and make viewers active participants in the events (http://www.nickjr.com/dora-the-explorer/). The execution of the series supports these goals: the main character, a 7-year-old Latina girl named Dora, invites the viewer to solve problems with her. In every episode, there is a goal Dora needs to reach, and in order to do so, she asks the viewer to guide the way, assist her through various obstacles and help her solve problems. The execution of the series resembles a computer game: after Dora asks the viewer to say or do something, there is a little pause after which an arrow (looking like a cursor on the computer) appears and clicks the right answer which is usually apparent in the image. Besides solving problems verbally, Dora also asks the viewer to physically execute some movements to help her. This interactive element of the show is quite unique and is one of the reasons behind the popularity of the show (Winston 2006).

Besides the interactive element of the series, its other characteristic feature is bilingualism, which is present in every episode. In addition to the main character Dora speaking both English and Spanish, there are also other bilingual characters (for example, Map and Backpack) and some characters only speak a language that is foreign to the audience (for example, Tico and Sr. Tucan). In other countries besides the U.S., Australia, Canada, New Zealand and Ireland, the bilingual element is present in such a way that the language being taught is English and the other language used is the native language of the country where the series is broadcast. The bilingualism of the series is carefully considered; Valerie Walsh, one the creators, states that the bilingual element is present in the show because educators believe that introducing a second language to children before the age of 6 or 7 is crucial in helping them to achieve fluency in the second language (http://www.nickjr.com/dora-the-explorer/). By introducing a foreign language to children who form the audience, Walsh hopes to teach them some words and make them interested in learning more, or at least to raise their awareness and acceptance of foreign languages. Over 20 educational and cultural consultants have assisted in making the series since it first premiered (Rock), so the educational aspect of the show is taken seriously by the creators.

5.2.2 Transcribing the data

The data of this study consisted of already existing video material which did not need to be recorded. In order to analyze the data, it was necessary to first describe the data in written form. Nikula and Kääntä (2011: 62) discuss the process of transcription, which means describing data literally based on the audio or video material gathered as data. They highlight the importance of transcription as an analytical tool which enables the researcher to examine the data and also to report the results of analysis; since the original recorded data cannot be included in the report, presenting the transcription makes it possible for the researcher to validate his or her arguments. Nikula and Kääntä also argue that making the transcription already involves the researcher in analyzing the data, because there are many decisions to be made concerning the perspective and depth of the transcription.

In practice, the transcription of the data in this particular study meant that all twelve episodes of *Seikkailija Dora* which constituted the data were watched. While watching every episode, notes were made on what was happening and the dialogue was written down as accurately as possible. Technically doing the transcription was quite slow; the DVD had to be paused after every line of dialogue in order to write down the lines and afterwards, the transcription was written again on a computer. Sometimes the dialogue was difficult or even impossible to grasp even though the form of the data made it possible to rewind the scenes and watch them several times. The research questions directed the transcription to some extent: because the aim was to study how the series teaches English to Finnish children, all of the dialogue was not transcribed but long pieces of Finnish dialogue were left out of the transcription. In such cases only a short description of the events was written down to keep the transcription coherent. Since the format of the data was DVD, both the audio and visual elements of the data were described as accurately as possible. This was also due to the research questions: it was known beforehand that the visual element of the series could give important results if visual aids were used to teach vocabulary.

In different fields of study the practices of transcription are different. When studying language learning, the transcription of the data is usually quite loose since the researcher is more interested in what is being said than how it is said (Nikula and Kääntä 2011: 60). This was also the case in this study: every line of dialogue was not included in the

transcription, nor was every movement, gesture or facial expression of the characters or the intonation or tone of their voice described. The focus was on the elements found to be relevant to the study. In practice this meant that in the transcription every line that contained any English words or expressions was included, and also some lines before and after to keep the context apparent. Also the visual element of the data was included in the transcription when it seemed to be relevant, in other words when the visual element could be evaluated as connecting to the audio element and in the context of teaching the audience a foreign language. Such was the case, for example, when a foreign word was simultaneously present in dialogue and in picture. Transcription symbols by Alanen (2006, as described by Dufva 2011: 145) were used as the basis of the transcription, but some symbols were left out and some symbols were added. Symbols used by Alanen were suitable because they were quite loose and separated English speech from Finnish. The transcription symbols used in this study can be found in Appendix 1.

5.3. Methods of analysis

Before deciding on the methods of analysis, it was important to clarify the purpose of this study. Hirsjärvi, Remes and Sajavaara (2009: 138-139) discuss four separating features concerning the purpose: the study can either aim at surveying, explaining, describing or predicting a phenomenon. Of these four, this study is clearly descriptive. Because the data has been available for study and has hardly been studied before, the intention was to pave the way for further study by describing the content of the data from the perspective of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language. As the purpose of this study was to both count and describe occurrences of English vocabulary and methods of presenting it in the data, the methods of analysis were both qualitative and quantitative.

5.3.1 Combining qualitative and quantitative methods

Combining both qualitative and quantitative methods when analyzing qualitative data is a common practice these days and according to Hirsjärvi et. al. (2009: 136-137), qualitative and quantitative methods are complementary in many ways. In this study they complemented each other in the sense that by counting the occurrences of vocabulary items and vocabulary teaching methods, one could better describe the

quality of the language teaching elements present in the data. Since the program constituting the data is partially designed to teach a foreign language, it was essential to study how much vocabulary in a foreign language was actually presented and what the methods of presenting vocabulary which the program made use of were.

Also Eskola and Suoranta (2008) discuss the quantification of data as a way of analyzing qualitative data. They suggest that quantification alone can in some cases produce important results, but they also remind that quantification should be done according to clear rules and preferably as a complementary method aiding qualitative analysis. In this study, answering the first research question required finding and counting occurrences of English vocabulary items; that part of the study was of a quantitative nature. The items found also had to be categorized, and that stage of the analysis was rather qualitative. The second research question also involved doing qualitative analysis: it needed to be evaluated whether the program made use of any educational methods when presenting vocabulary in a foreign language. However, a quantitative aspect was also present when answering the second research question, since it was considered how often each method was used.

Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2009: 95-100) discuss three forms of qualitative analysis: data driven analysis, theory guided analysis and theory based analysis. *Data driven analysis* means that units of analysis are not predetermined but are chosen from the data while analyzing it. Theory has no role in this type of analysis, apart from offering the methodological tools, but the data is analyzed free from any previous observations or knowledge. In *theory guided analysis*, theory and data are more interconnected and previous theoretical knowledge can assist in the analysis. The researcher starts the analysis by studying the data but ends up comparing the data to theory and in this way combine the two in the process. When conducting *theory based analysis*, the researcher bases the whole analysis on previous theoretical knowledge and conducts the analysis based on already existing categories.

Since Thornbury's (2007) categorization directed the analysis in this study, the analysis was not data driven as discussed by Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2009: 95-100). In other words, the data was not processed free from theoretical assumptions, but rather theory had a role in the analysis as a predetermining element. However, the analysis was not entirely theory based either, even though the data was compared to an existing

classification. The first stage of the analysis was going through the data and it was discovered that the data could be categorized according to Thornbury's classification of vocabulary teaching methods. Therefore, the analysis was theory guided: the previous knowledge on teaching vocabulary in a foreign language was present and while analyzing the data, it was found that it was comparable with one particular categorization. This led to modifying the categorization, specifying the research questions and analyzing the data again from a more theoretical perspective.

5.3.2 Analyzing the vocabulary found in the data

In practice, analyzing the data in order to answer the first research question was done by counting the occurrences of English vocabulary items and by categorizing items found by word class. Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2009: 93) call this way of organizing the content of data classifying. Since determining what counts as a word is not as simple as one might expect (see section 2.1 for further discussion), the first step was to decide which occurrences of English vocabulary would be counted as words. In section 2.1, the definition of a word in this study was validated by the definition of *Oxford English Dictionary* (online version, 2011): a word is the smallest possible meaningful unit of sounds. In the analysis every occurrence that could be judged as representing English vocabulary based on this definition was included. When considering how many times a certain word appeared, the concept of *token*, as discussed by, for example, Nation (2009: 7-8) was exploited meaning that every occurrence of a word was counted and inflections were seen separate items from the headword. Based on these criteria, every English word was listed and classified by word class.

Word class was used as a unit of analysis because of its elementary role in categorizing vocabulary generally; for example, word class is the first issue discussed by Thornbury (2007: 3-4) when he introduces ways of categorizing and describing words. Because there were no expectations on what kind of vocabulary the data would include and to what extent, choosing word class as a separating factor seemed to be a good way to count, categorize and describe the findings in a clear-cut way. When actually analyzing the data, it was discovered that classifying the words according to the eight word classes presented by Thornbury (2007) was not the most sufficient or purposeful way of processing the data because of the large amount of multi-word units present in the data. It did not seem reasonable to break down the units and treat their elements separately

because they were clearly presented as an entity. Therefore, multi-word units were added as a class of their own, after which there were nine classes: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners and multi-word units. A tenth group emerged from the realization that some words did not fit into any of these nine groups: a group of miscellaneous words had to be added as well.

In the analysis, the names of the characters were mainly left out because in many cases the names were translated into Finnish and even if the original name was kept, it was pronounced according to the Finnish system and therefore the names were evaluated as carrying no educational value in the context of teaching Finnish children English vocabulary. However, an exception was made if the name of the character was descriptive: in such cases the names were interpreted as teaching vocabulary and were considered in the analysis. These kind of descriptive names were, for example, *Mr. Tucan* (a toucan), *Red* (a red firetruck) and *Jumper* (a star that could jump).

Color coding was used to separate each vocabulary item found in the data according to these ten classes and a chart was made showing how many items representing each class were found in the data. When doing so, every occurrence of a word was counted, which means that words that were often repeated were listed in the chart for every occurrence. A record of repeated words was maintained to see which words were the most common ones in the data. The purpose of quantifying the data as discussed above was to find out the scope of English vocabulary in the data and to study what kind of vocabulary was present.

5.3.3 Analyzing the methods of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language found in the data

The second stage of the analysis, finding answers to the second research question, was mainly qualitative, since the aim was to describe the data according to the vocabulary teaching methods it utilized. While analyzing the data to search for possible use of vocabulary teaching methods, the search was based on Thornbury's classification. According to the classification, one could present the meaning of a new word through translation, real things, pictures, actions/gestures, definitions or situations (Thornbury 2007: 77-84). This particular listing of possible methods was chosen because it focuses on how the meaning of a new word can be taught. Since the data was video material, the

grammatical or written form of the new words was secondary; it was not present in the data. What were present, were the spoken form and meaning of new vocabulary items. In order to learn new words by watching the program, the audience has to be able to connect the form and the meaning; this is the most basic level of learning a word (Thornbury 2007: 15). This was one of the reasons for choosing Thornbury's classification: it is a simple way of describing vocabulary presenting methods which aim to teach both the spoken form and the meaning of new vocabulary items. Another reason was that when the data was first gone through, several methods from Thornbury's listing were clearly present. Thornbury's classification was also chosen because it appeared to serve the purpose well. Even though his classification is created to describe possible methods of presenting foreign vocabulary in a formal setting, i.e. in a classroom, it was also suitable for describing this particular data.

Because Thornbury's categorization lists possible methods of presenting foreign vocabulary in a classroom setting, it was modified a bit to better suit the analysis of the data. Since watching the show is not the same as being in a face-to-face contact with a language teacher, it is not possible to use real things to present the meaning of a new word. Therefore, the use of real things and pictures was combined as one category. Due to the channel of provided input, those two were seen as the same thing in the data. Another issue that stood out when analyzing the data was that besides presenting new words and relating meanings to the spoken form, the program often made use of oral drills when familiarizing the audience with new vocabulary items. Thornbury (2007: 85) categorizes oral drills as a way of highlighting the spoken form of the word, but it was added as one category of presenting new vocabulary because in the data it clearly proved to be used as such. Also a seventh category, repetition, was added because repetition proved to be used often as a method of reinforcing the learning of a word.

After these modifications to Thornbury's classification, there were seven categories according to which the program's way of presenting vocabulary items was analyzed: through translation, real things/pictures, actions/gestures, definitions, situations, oral drills and repetition. The data was then studied and every time a foreign vocabulary item was present, the way the item was presented was analyzed. While doing this, color codes were used to separate the methods according to the modification of Thornbury's categorization. It was also noted if the sample did not fall under any of the seven categories; the use of no methods thus became an eight category. After color coding, the

amount of occurrences of each class was counted and a chart was drawn presenting their appearance in the data. Similar to the first stage of the analysis, quantitative tools were used to present the findings, but the analysis itself was qualitative in the sense that it had to be determined how to classify the findings under the eight categories.

6 FINDINGS

The findings of the analysis are discussed one research question at a time. The first research question is discussed first. All vocabulary items found in the data were categorized by word class and the results are thus reported by frequency of the different word classes in the data. The same applies when discussing the results concerning the second research question: the most frequently used method is discussed first and so forth. In both cases the findings are discussed and presented in figures. Also examples are provided.

6.1 English vocabulary in the data

When considering whether to count every token present in the data or count types of words, lemmas or word families, a decision was made to count tokens. This means that every occurrence of a word was counted and the plural forms and different tenses of words were seen as individual words. Counting tokens and separating the headword and its inflections was done in order to describe the data as accurately as possible. Furthermore, when considering that the target audience of the program constituting the data is small children, it seemed reasonable to separate the inflected forms from the headwords because this is most likely the way the viewers perceive the vocabulary presented in the program. They possibly come across English vocabulary for the first time when watching the program, so understanding, for example, that plural forms are inflected from certain headwords might be difficult, especially with irregular inflections.

After finding and highlighting all English vocabulary items in the data, the words were categorized by word class. At first there were eight groups, based on Thornbury's (2007: 3) categorization: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and determiners. Two more groups were added while conducting the analysis: multi-word units and miscellaneous words. Multi-word units included such phrases that could not be analyzed separately because the meaning of the words would

have not been the same individually as it was when the words were together. Some phrases including a verb and a preposition or an adverb and established expressions were categorized into this group. The group of miscellaneous words included words that did not belong to any other group, for example, numbers and interjections. Furthermore, when categorizing the words the context was also considered, because in some cases the same form of a word was used in different ways to convey different meanings and it was therefore possible to one form be categorized into several groups.

The results are presented by frequency: the group that had the most occurrences is discussed first and so forth. Every occurrence of the same word was counted to indicate the total amount of occurrences. This means that some words or phrases that occurred repeatedly were counted every time and they had a big influence on the results. Another way of organizing the results would have been to count how many different types of words belonging to each group occurred in the data, but because some word classes only have a small amount of possible members, this would not have been fair. Now the results indicate just how many times members of each group were present in the data and how common they were. Figure 1 illustrates the results by frequency.

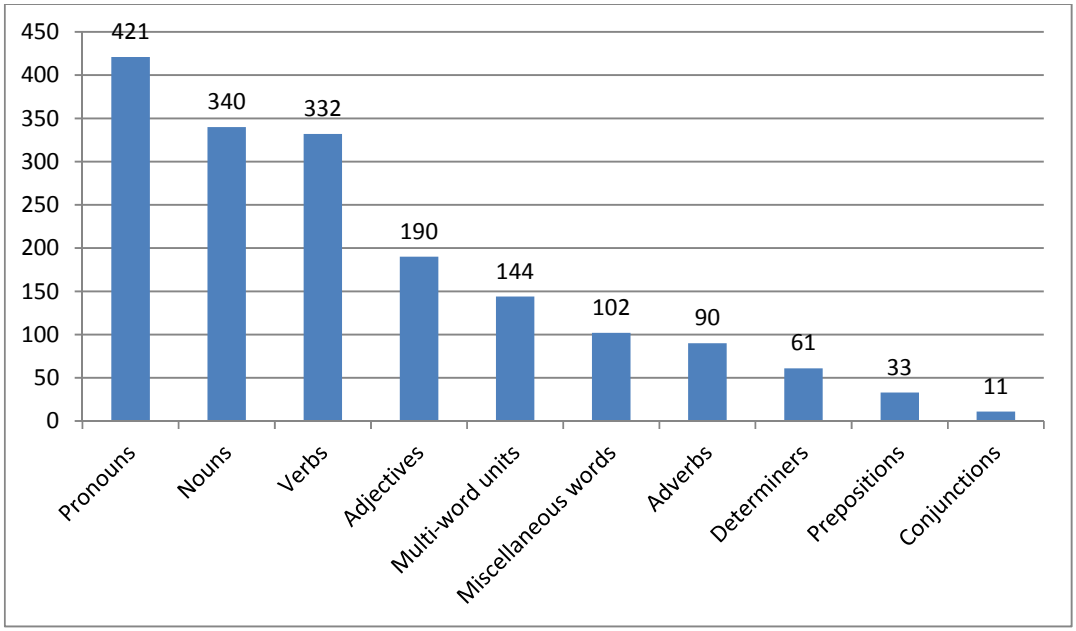

Figure 1. Vocabulary (N=1724) found in the data categorized by word class

The most frequently occurring words were pronouns. They were found in the data 421 times. The most common pronouns by far were *it* (169 occurrences) and *we* (146), the other occurring pronouns appearing significantly less frequently, ranging from one to twenty-two occurrences. The superiority of *it* and *we* is explained by the phrase *we did it*, which occurred over ten times in a song sung by the characters at the end of each episode. Those two words also contribute to the pronouns being the most common group of words in the data. Overall 17 different pronouns were found in the data, including almost all personal pronouns in their basic form (*I, you, he, it, we, you, they*), some object forms (*me, us*) and some possessive forms (*my, your* sg, *your* pl).

The second most frequently occurring words were nouns, which occurred 340 times in the data. Overall there were 76 different nouns presented, of which 33 occurred only once and the rest were repeated and so occurred at least twice. The most common nouns were *Mr.* and *Tucan* (24 occurrences of both, these two always occurred together), *chocolate* (23, in only one episode), *stars* (19, throughout the data) and *cowboy* (18, in only one episode). *Mr. Tucan* was a name of a character and those two nouns were therefore often repeated in the episodes where the character was present. Also other nouns that were names of characters were quite common, for example *Grandma* (14 occurrences), *Jumper* (13) and *Boat* (12). Of the 76 different nouns 21 were plural forms, accounting for 62 of the total amount of occurrences. Seven nouns were found in both singular and plural forms (*friend, star, snake, name, spy, present, cowboy*).

The third most common group of words was verbs. The total amount of verbs occurring in the data was 332, including 48 different verbs of which 21 occurred only once. The most frequently presented verbs were *did* (143 occurrences), *is* (34) and *go* (19). The superiority of *did* is again based on the frequency of the phrase *we did it*. Besides *did*, only three more verbs were found in the past tense: *found, won* and *helped*. All these four verbs also occurred in the present tense. Verbs found were usually in their basic form and more difficult structures were avoided; for example, only two progressive forms were found (*he is coming* and *we are going)*. Most of the verbs occurring in the data were very concrete, expressing an action that was going on, but also auxiliary verbs were found (for example *can, could, will, would*).

The fourth most frequently occurring words were adjectives: they were found 190 times, including 34 different adjectives. 17 adjectives occurred only once. The most

common adjectives were colors: *red* (38 occurrences), *blue* (22) and *yellow* (20). The popularity of *red* is explained by the fact that in one episode one of the characters was named *Red* and his name was repeated often. Other common adjectives were *delicious* (17) and *good* (15), which both occurred in several episodes. Adjectives were usually in the basic form, but also some comparative forms were used (*better, best, tallest, faster, latest, more*).

The group of words occurring the fifth most frequently was multi-word units. Phrases categorized into this group occurred 144 times, but the number only includes 19 different multi-word units so there was a lot of repetition. Two phrases considered multi-word units due to their established use were found far more frequently than others: *thank you* (48 occurrences) and *let's go* (40). Other established phrases found in the data were, for example, *good morning* (11), *no problem* (10) and *you're welcome* (2), the latter two being responses to *thank you*. Besides these kinds of phrases this group also included phrasal verbs consisting of a verb and a preposition or a verb and an adverb; for example, *watch out* (13), *slow down* (4) and *look for* (1).

The sixth most frequently occurring words were the miscellaneous words. Words categorized into this group occurred 102 times, the number including 20 different words. Numbers were categorized into this group: numbers from one to five occurred six or seven times each and numbers from six to twelve occurred from one to three times each. The proportion of numbers compared to the total amount of tokens in this group is large: numbers account for 47 of the 102 tokens. In addition to numbers, different types of interjections were included in this group; for example, *hello* (39 occurrences), *giddyup* (8) and *oh* (2).

The seventh most frequently occurring words were adverbs: there were 90 occurrences of adverbs in the data, the number consisting of 16 different adverbs and their repetitions. *Yes* was used by far the most (29 occurrences), followed by *where* (15), *very* (14) and *there* (14). The rest were used rarely, ranging from one to three occurrences. Other words categorized into this group were, for example, *quickly*, *please* and *up*.

The last three groups occurring more rarely were determiners, prepositions and conjunctions. Determiners (*a, an, the*) were used 61 times in the following order of frequency: *a* (38 occurrences), *the* (22) and *an* (1). Prepositions were found in the data

33 times, the number including eight different prepositions. The most common prepositions were *to* (10 occurrences), *about* (9) and *for* (4); the rest were used from one to three times. Conjunctions, which were the least frequently used words, occurred eleven times. There were only four different conjunctions used: *and* (8 occurrences), *if* (1), *so* (1) and *or* (1).

6.2 Methods of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language in the data

When designing the study, a decision was made to search the data for occurrences of instructional methods of presenting vocabulary as discussed by Thornbury (2007). After combining the use of real things and pictures as one group, there were five categories: the use of a translation, a real thing or a picture, an action or a gesture, a definition and situational clues. While analyzing the data it became obvious that those five categories were not sufficient because also other issues stood out. Therefore, two more groups were added to the categorization: the use of an oral drill and repetition. Also these two were clearly used as a means of teaching foreign vocabulary in the data. The eighth group emerged because sometimes there was no instructional method used at all.

All eight categories were represented in the data but in different quantities. Figure 2 illustrates the number of occurrences of each category.

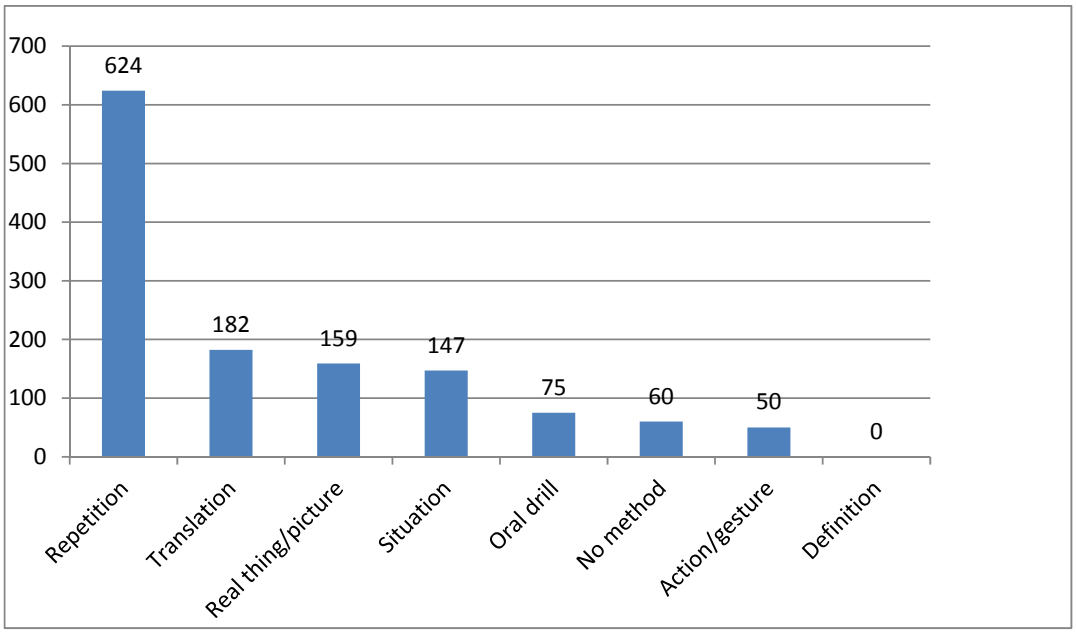

Figure 2. Instructional methods (N=1297) of teaching foreign vocabulary in the data

Repetition was used by far the most, whereas a definition as a method of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language did not occur at all. The second most frequently used method was using a translation, followed by using a real thing or a picture, situational clues, an oral drill, cases where no method was used and using an action or a gesture. Translations, real things or pictures and situational clues occurred quite evenly in the data, and the same applied to oral drills, cases where no method was used and actions or gestures. Sometimes there were several methods used at once. In such cases all possible methods were considered, which means that the amount of target words and phrases found in the data is not the same as the amount of occurrences of instructional methods.

In the following sections the findings are presented one method at a time. Repetition is discussed first, because it was the most frequently used method in the data. The organization of the sections is based on the frequency of occurrences so that the second most frequently used method is discussed second and so forth. Examples are used to illustrate the findings. The form of the examples conforms to the transcription of the data: Finnish lines are not highlighted but the English ones are in bold typing. Sometimes some Finnish dialogue is left out and the scene is briefly summarized in double parentheses, at other times irrelevant Finnish dialogue is left out and marked as three consecutive periods. Pauses are marked as three consecutive lines. In addition, different methods are stressed as discussed in each section. After each example the information concerning the whereabouts of the example are given in parentheses, the page number referring to the transcription of the data.

6.2.1 Repetition

Repetition was the most frequently used method of teaching foreign vocabulary in the data. In the analysis, all reoccurrences of a previously occurred target word or phrase within one episode were regarded as repetition. Some target words or phrases appeared in several episodes, but they were counted as repetition only when they emerged again in the same episode. Even though repetition is not an actual method of presenting vocabulary but rather a means to reinforce the learning of a word, it was included in the analysis because in the data, it was used frequently and sometimes it was the only method of teaching vocabulary when an English word or phrase was presented.

The use of repetition in the data was mainly done in three ways: the target word or phrase was either repeated instantly, within one scene or after several scenes. The following examples illustrate the first option, the repeated section being underlined:

(1) Mr. Tucan: **Attention! Attention!** (Episode 1.1, p. 1)

(2) Dora, Nuuti, Kartta & Reppu: ”**We did it, we did it, we did it**, hei! Hyvin meni. **We did it.** Me vuorelle kiivettiin ja puissa roikuttiin. **We did it, we did it, we did it**, hurraa! Me käytiin avaruudessa ja meren pohjassakin. **We did it, we did it, we did it, we did it**. Me ollaan aina yhdessä ja aina puuhaillaan. Ystävienpäivää yhdessä juhlitaan. Jihuu, hurraa! **We did it.**” (Episode 2.3, p.22)

(3) Tico: **Hello Dora the spy! Hello Nuuti the spy!**
Dora & Nuuti: **Hello Tico the spy!** (Episode 3.3, p. 35)

In example (1), the target word is repeated immediately after its first appearance and by the same character. However, it is only repeated this one time during the whole episode and it might be that regardless this instant repetition the memorization of the word is difficult to the viewer who does not come across the word more often. Example (2) is a song which the characters sing at the end of each episode. The target phrase is repeated eleven times during this small song. Because the song occurred twelve times in the data, this one particular target phrase was repeated dozens of times, which reflected on the statistics. Example (3) is a typical situation in the data: the characters are greeting one another and so the greeting is repeated in consecutive lines. The first *hello* was also considered repetition because it had occurred previously in the episode. Besides the greeting, also the phrase *the spy* is repeated in the example.

Sometimes a word or phrase was repeated after a small pause but still within a scene, which is illustrated by the following examples:

(4) Dora: Vene, hyvä! Se on ystävämme **Boat**. Mutta **Boat** on unessa.
((Dora ja Nuuti neuvovat katsojalle kuinka Boat herätetään, onnistuvat herättämään))
Boat: **Good morning!**
Dora, Nuuti & Kukko: **Good morning!**
Dora: Hurraa, me herätimme **Boatin**. **Excuse me, could you please give us a ride to the other side?**
Boat: **With pleasure.**
Dora: Hienoa. **Boat** vie meidät järven yli. (Episode 1.2, p. 5-6)

(5) Dora: Hei, minä olen Dora! Tässä on ystäväni Nuuti ja ihana mummini, **my grandma**. Osaatko sanoa **grandma**? --- Sano **grandma**. ---
Grandma: Uu, **very good**. Sanoitpa sinä sen hienosti.
Dora: **Grandma**, kertoisitko meille siitä kun olit pikkutyttö?
Grandma: **Oh yes.** Kun olin sinun ikäisesi, minulla oli ikioma suklaapuu.
((Dora ja Nuuti innostuvat, pyytävät kertomaan lisää, Grandma kertoo, laulaa Suklaalaulun))
Dora: Hei **grandma**, mitä suklaapuulle tapahtui?

((Nuuti kysyy myös, Grandma vastaa))
Dora: **Grandma**, opettaisitko meillekin sen Suklaalaulun?
Grandma: **I would love to.**
((Grandma, Dora ja Nuuti laulavat Suklaalaulun leikkien samalla))
Grandma: **Very good.** Oikein hyvä.
Dora: **Grandma**, minä niin pidän siitä suklaapuusta. (Episode 2.1, p. 14)

In example (4), Dora introduces a boat named Boat. The word *boat* is first translated as *vene* and then repeated three times during the scene. The translation and repetition together should actively promote the learning of the target word. In the example, also the phrase *good morning* is repeated. Both of its occurrences were seen as repetitions because the phrase had occurred three times in the episode before this scene. In example (5), the target word *grandma* is repeated six times. It is also translated and taught by using an oral drill, so the meaning of the word and its form are emphasized. When considering the numerous repetitions, also after this particular scene, the word is effectively made familiar to the viewer. Also the phrase *very good* is repeated in the scene but only once and after a relatively long gap.

The third way of using repetition in the data was continuous and spaced repetition throughout an entire episode. Certain phrases regarding greetings and courtesy as well as some English names considered target words were usually repeated in such a way. This will not be illustrated by examples, because that would require writing the whole transcription of an episode as an example. It should be noted that this particular way of repeating certain words and phrases affected the statistics strongly because the repetitions continued through an entire episode. This undoubtedly contributed to repetition being the most frequently used method of teaching vocabulary in the data. Figure 3 illustrates the number of occurrences of repetition in each episode.

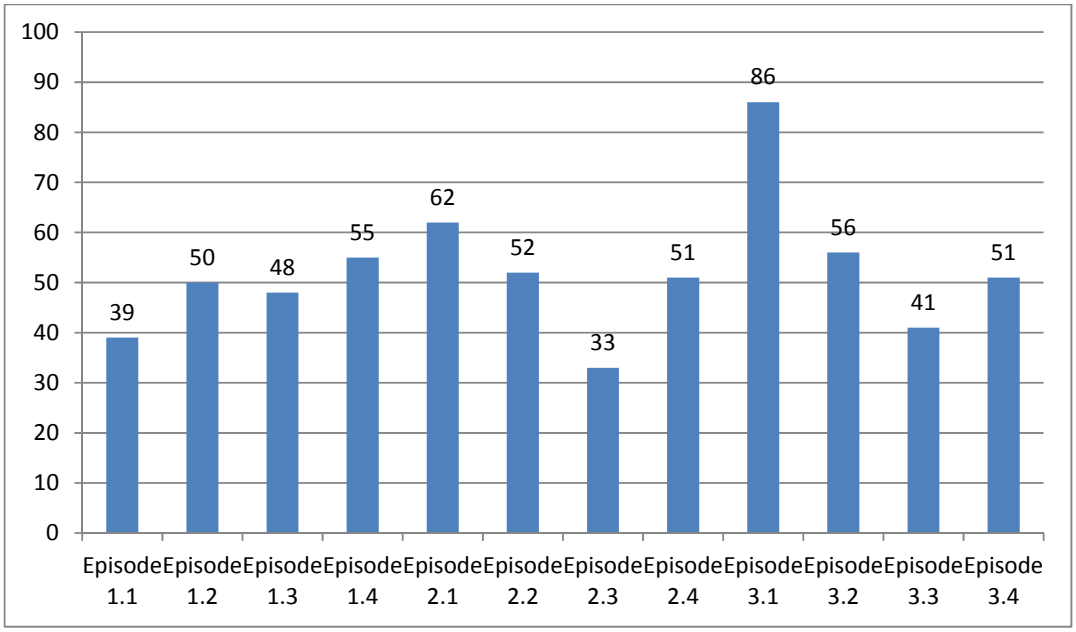

Figure 3. Repetition (N=624) as a method of teaching vocabulary in the data

All in all repetition occurred 624 times in the twelve episodes and was found over thirty times in each episode. In episode 3.1, which included the most occurrences of repetition, the name of a vital character, fire truck Red, was repeated dozens of times, along with colors *yellow* and *blue*, which were repeated numerous times in several scenes where the viewer helps Dora and her friends to choose the right color of a button to push or a road to take. These three target words alone accounted for 62 occurrences of repetition in the episode. The following example illustrates how the two colors are repeated several times in a short scene:

> (6) Red: Kuuntele tarkasti. Nappi joka käynnistää pyyhkijät on **yellow**. Ja sireenin nappi on **blue**. Kun pitää pyyhkiä, sano **yellow**. Kun pitää tuutata, sano **blue**. Ää, en näe yhtikäs mitään! Kumpaa nappulaa painetaan: **yellow, blue, yellow, blue**? --- **Yellow**, hyvä. Keltainen nappula. Pyyhkijät pyyhkivät veden pois. Voi ei, voi ei! Tiellä on auto. Sitä pitää varoittaa että se väistäisi. Kumpaa nappulaa painetaan: **yellow, blue, yellow, blue**? --- **Blue**, hyvä. Sireeni käynnistyy siitä. Voi ei, nyt sataa! Kumpaa nappulaa painetaan: **yellow, blue**? --- **Yellow**, hyvä. ((tiellä auto)) Kumpaa nappulaa painetaan: **Yellow, blue**? --- **Blue**, hyvä. (Episode 3.1, p. 29-30)

Also in many other episodes the majority of occurrences of repetition came from only a few target words or phrases. In episode 2.1, which had the second most occurrences of repetition, the words *grandma* and *chocolate* were repeated dozens of times and in episode 3.2, which had the third most occurrences of repetition, the word *cowboy* alone was repeated 23 times. Such recurring words and phrases contributed to repetition being the most frequently used method of teaching foreign vocabulary in the data. Also

phrases and words such as *thank you*, *let's go* and *hello* appeared repeatedly in the data and contributed to the frequency of repetition.

6.2.2 Translation

After repetition, translation was the second most frequently used method of teaching vocabulary found in the data. Since repetition, although included in the classification in this study as a method of teaching vocabulary, is not a means of presenting vocabulary as discussed by Thornbury (2007), but rather a way to reinforce the learning of a word, translation could be perceived as being the most frequently used method of presenting vocabulary in the data. Its diverse use is illustrated by multiple examples in this section. In addition to the transcription practices discussed in Section 6.2, the translated passages in the following examples are underlined.

In the analysis, the parts of dialogue where both English and Finnish forms of a word or phrase were present and the meaning was translated were regarded as translation. Accordingly, the message would not have to be translated word for word but it was rather emphasized that the meaning was conveyed. Both practices of translating were found in the data: sometimes the translation was a direct one and sometimes more emphasis was on the message being conveyed. In addition, there were also other differences concerning the practice of translation, and different ways of translating found in the data were categorized into seven groups. The first group consisted of direct translations where the target word and the translation followed each other immediately. The following examples illustrate this:

(7) Grandma: … tähtitasku oli mukanani ja löysin erikoistähtiä, **special stars.** (Episode 1.3, p. 8)

(8) Dora: **My grandma**, isoäitini, teki sen minulle. (Episode 1.4, p. 11)

(9) Grandma: Tuo puu oli rakas ystäväni, **my dear friend.** (Episode 2.1, p. 14)

(10) Dora: Katso onko repussani köysi, **a rope**. (Episode 2.3, p. 21)

In all of these examples, the translation is very specific. Only one word or one concept within a sentence is given in English and being translated while the rest of the line is in Finnish. Usually the target word in this group of translations was a noun. From the viewer's point of view this way of translating is very explicit and hardly leaves any

room for errors. The target word and the translation follow each other right away and are separated only by a small pause, in transcription a comma, which implies that the relationship of these two words is that of a target word and its translation. In some cases the relation was even further highlighted, as illustrated by example (11):

(11) Red: Te voitte olla palomiehiä, eli **firefighters**. (Episode 3.1, p. 27)

Here the relation is made visible by the term *eli* 'in other words'. In most of the translations in this group the Finnish translation was given first followed by the English target word, but as example (8) illustrates, these two also occurred reversed. In spite of the organization, the connection of the target word and its translation was apparent.

The second group also consisted of direct translations, but in this case, the translation involved a phrase or a sentence rather than a single word. Furthermore, the translation and the target word could be given either by one character or shared by two characters, whereas in the previous group the translation and the target word were in one line by one character. Examples (12) and (13) illustrate the first type where the same character gives the target word and the translation:

(12) Dora: Kiitos avusta. **Thank you**. (Episode 2.4, p. 27)

(13) Dora: **It's Tico's birthday**. Ticolla on syntymäpäivä. (Episode 3.4, p. 37)

In both examples, the whole sentence is being translated. Similar to the previous group of translations, the translation here is very explicit. The target word and its translation follow each other immediately separated by a small pause, in transcription a period. The viewer should have no difficulties in connecting these two. As the previous examples indicate, the order of the target word and its translation could be either way: sometimes the translation was given first, at other times the target word came first. The following examples show how the target word and the translation are given by different characters:

(14) Dora: **Thank you, stars.**
Nuuti: Kiitos, tähdet. (Episode 1.4, p. 12)

(15) Mr. Tucan: **And one big crocodile.**
Dora: Ja yksi iso krokotiili. (Episode 2.1, p. 15)

(16) Nuuti: Viisi tähteä.
Dora: **Five stars!** (Episode 2.3, p. 22)

In all of the examples above, the target word and the translation are divided between two characters. This, however, should not distract the viewer because those two are still close to one another so the relation is quite obvious. In examples (14) and (15), the target phrase comes first followed by the translation; this is how the majority of these kinds of translations were organized in the data. However, as example (16) indicates, also the reversed organization was used but clearly less frequently.

The third type of translation used in the data was also a direct translation, but in this case the target word and the translation did not follow each other immediately but there were lines in Finnish in between. The following examples illustrate this:

(17) Venni: Onko tuo **Mr. Tucan**? ---
Dora: Se oli apina.
Venni: Onko tuo **Mr. Tucan**? ---
Dora: Se on jaguaari.
Tico: **Is that Mr. Tucan?** ---
Dora: Se on laiskiainen. (Episode 1.1, p. 3)

(18) Dora*:* Kiitos sinulle. Emme olisi päässeet juhliin ilman sinun apuasi. **Thank you.**
(Episode 2.2, p. 19)

(19) Ötökkäorkesteri: **Stars!**
Kartta: Uu, yritä tavoittaa tähtiä matkan varrella. (Episode 2.3, p. 20)

The examples above illustrate various situations but what they all have in common is that there is a direct translation for a target word or phrase but those two are apart. In example (17), the target phrase is a question and its translation is repeated twice before the target phrase occurs. After the question an answer follows in Finnish. The Finnish line in between should not be that distracting, since the model and the context help the viewer to connect the repeated translation and the target phrase. In example (18), there is a Finnish sentence in between the translation and the target phrase but, again, the context helps: Dora thanks the viewer in Finnish for his or her help and explains why. After this, the target phrase occurs as a supplement for thanking, and the viewer should be able to understand the phrase and connect it to the preceding translation. In example (19), the target word is given first. The translation is included in a Finnish sentence afterwards, and since it is the object of the sentence, its importance is highlighted and the viewer should be able to connect it to the target word.

The fourth group of translations included so called model translations. In this case the object was not the same in the target phrase and its translation, and therefore the

translation could not be a direct one but rather it followed the model of the target phrase. Example (20) clarifies this:

(20) Venni: Hei, olen Venni.
Tico: **Hello, I'm Tico.**
Iisa: Hei, olen Iisa. (Episode 1.1, p. 1)

The viewer is expected to understand that the characters are introducing themselves, not translating and repeating the same phrase. As the model of introducing oneself is present in the example both in Finnish and in English, the act of translating is quite clear. Model translations were not very common in the data, but they sometimes occurred when the characters were introducing themselves to each other or to the viewer.

To the fifth group were categorized translations where the target phrase was paraphrased by another character. The following examples illustrate this:

(21) Mr. Tucan: **If you play hide and seek and find all of your friends you will win a big trophy.**
Dora: Oo. **Mr. Tucan** kertoi että jos leikimme piilosta ja löydämme kaikki ystävämme voitamme tuon suuren pokaalin. (Episode 1.1, p. 1)

(22) Kukka: **Help me, help me!**
Dora: **Red, stop!** Kuunnelkaa, tuo auringonkukka huutaa apua.
Kukka: Olen kovin janoinen. **I need water.**
Dora: Se tarvitsee vettä. (Episode 3.1, p. 28)

In both examples, Dora translates a phrase by another character from her own point of view. Therefore, the translations are not word for word but rather paraphrased by Dora. However, the translations are very close to the target phrases and the message is being translated with care, not adding or leaving out anything. These kinds of translations found in the data could be quite long, as example (21) illustrates. Into this group were also incorporated some oral drills which included a paraphrased translation, as illustrated by the following examples:

(23) Dora: Käärmeet puhuvat englantia, joten kun haluat niiden pysähtyvän, sano **stop**. …
(Episode 3.2, p. 32)

(24) Dora: … Vauhti kiihtyy jos sanomme **go fast**. … (Episode 3.4, p. 38)

In both examples, Dora asks the viewer to repeat a word or phrase after her. Therefore, these examples were also accounted for in the context of oral drills as a method of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language. The reason they were also regarded as translations is that the meaning of the repeated word is also translated. The translation is not a direct one but rather explains the action which the target word causes.

The sixth group consisted of indirect translations where the message was translated but when considering the form, the translation was not literal. In some cases the object of the target phrase was not translated, as illustrated by example (25):

(25) Dora: Nyt pitää siis löytää Peikkosilta. **Where is it**? Missä Peikkosilta on? …
(Episode 1.2, p. 6)

The translation is not literal; the object *it* is not translated as 'se' but instead the actual name of the object is mentioned. The message, however, is the same and the viewer should understand what the target phrase means. There were many similar translations in the data. Another instance of indirect translation is illustrated by example (26):

(26) Grandma & Suklaapuu: "- Vaivaa vaivaa vanukasta - x2. **Mix your chocolate chocolate chocolate**, suklaa suklaavanukasta." (Episode 2.1, p. 14)

In the example the action, mixing, and the object, chocolate, are translated. The translation is not literal and *vanukas* 'pudding' is mentioned only in Finnish, but still the message is conveyed well enough for this extract to be considered translation. The same principle applies to examples (27) and (28), which were also analyzed as translations:

(27) Dora: **Nice work, Jumper**!
Nuuti: Hei, hienoa! (Episode 1.4, p. 12)

(28) Tico: **There are five balloons**.
Dora: Aivan, palloja pitäisi olla viisi. (Episode 2.2, p. 17)

In example (27), the positive message is conveyed, even though 'hyvää työtä' would be more literal than *hienoa*. There were many other instances of positive feedback in the data not translated literally but still considered translation in the analysis. In example (28), the message is, again, translated even though the translation is not word for word. It noted that *balloon* has previously been translated as *ilmapallo* in the episode and because the term is familiar to the viewer, it is here translated as *pallo*.

The seventh and final group consisted of rather vague translations that might not even seem like translations to the young viewer or were otherwise confusing. The following examples clarify this:

(29) Possut: Pian!
Possu1: **Hurry up, quick**! (Episode 1.2, p. 7)

(30) Mr. Tucan: **You have to have cookies to feed the animals**.
Dora: Eläimet eivät tee pahaa jos syötämme niille keksejä. … (Episode 2.1, p. 15)

(31) Dora: … Olen menossa tapaamaan **my best friend** Nuutia Sateenkaarivuorelle.
Lukko: Käytä avainta. Avain on paras ystäväni. (Episode 2.3, p. 21)

(32) Dora: **How beautiful.** Sinä olet kauniin punainen. (Episode 3.1, p. 27)

In example (29), there are two separate target words but only the second one is translated. The first target phrase was analyzed to be inferred from the context whereas the second one was seen to be translated directly. However, it is hard to imagine that a young viewer would be able to analyze the text well enough to realize what is being translated and what should be inferred otherwise. In example (30), Dora is paraphrasing Mr. Tucan's line but the translation goes further than the target phrase, in other words Dora is explaining the situation further than Mr. Tucan in his line. This may lead to false assumptions by viewers who are anticipating Dora to translate Mr. Tucan's line as it is. Nevertheless, this extract was analyzed to be a translation because the main point, feeding cookies to animals, is translated.

The incoherence in example (31) is partially due to the distance between the target phrase and the translation. It seems there is no connection between those two and the translation is too detached from the target phrase. If *Lukko* 'Lock' highlighted that *Avain on MINUN paras ystäväni* 'Key is MY best friend' the connection would be more apparent, but now the connection is probably lost in young viewers' eyes. Example (32) was analyzed as a translation because the word *beautiful* is translated, but again the translation is quite vague and too far from the target phrase from the viewer's point of view.

In addition to classifying different types of translations into the seven groups discussed above, the occurrences of translation were also classified simply based on the organization of the target word or target phrase and the translation. In 97 cases the translation preceded the target word or target phrase and in 85 cases the target word or

phrase came first. This is further reflected on in Chapter 7. Figure 4 indicates the amount of occurrences of translation in each episode.

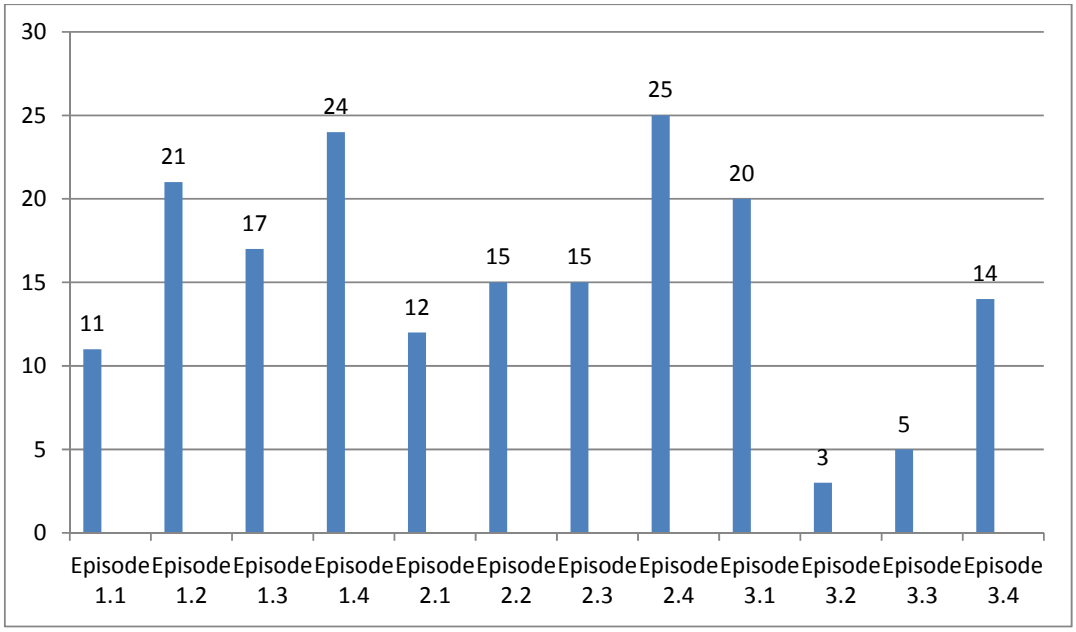

Figure 4. Translation (N=182) as a method of teaching vocabulary in the data

Translation as a method of teaching vocabulary was used 182 times and was found in all twelve episodes of the data. It was used over ten times in almost every episode; only episodes 3.2 and 3.3 made an exception including only three and five occasions of translation. In four episodes translation was used over 20 times. These numbers indicate that translations were very common in every episode. Overall, translation as a method of teaching vocabulary was widely used in the data as a means of presenting vocabulary and the ways of using it were various.

6.2.3 Real thing/picture

The third most frequently used method found in the data was using a real thing or a picture as a means of presenting the meaning of a word. In Thornbury's (2007) categorization those two are separate methods but due to the format of the data, they were combined in this study as one method: in video material a real thing and a picture were seen to be the same thing. Because this method relies on visual aids, the visual aspect of the scenes discussed in this section is vital and is indicated by double

parentheses in the examples. The target word or phrase that is simultaneously depicted in the image is underlined.

Usually the target word that was introduced by using a picture was a noun. This is probably due to the fact that nouns are easy to present in pictures because of their concreteness. The following examples illustrate how nouns were presented in the data in pictures:

(33) Ötökkäorkesteri: **Stars** ((tähdet lentelevät ympäriinsä))! (Episode 1.3, p. 8)

(34) Mr. Tucan: **In the jungle, there are snapping turtles** ((kuvaan ilmestyy ajatuskupla jossa kilpikonnia)).
Dora: Viidakossa on kilpikonnia jotka purevat.
Mr. Tucan: **Long snakes** ((kuplaan myös käärmeitä)).
Dora: Ja pitkiä käärmeitä.
Mr. Tucan: **And one big crocodile** ((viimeisen sanan kohdalla kuplaan krokotiili)).
Dora: Ja yksi suuri krokotiili. (Episode 2.1, p. 15)

(35) Reppu: … **Hello friends**! Hyvää ystävienpäivää. Etsi Doralle **a rope**. ((Repun ympärillä esineitä: pumppu, haavi, köysi, tikkaat, teippi ja sakset)) Onko tässä **a rope** ((nuoli osoittaa tikkaita))? --- Ei, siinä on **ladder**. Entä onko tässä **rope** ((nuoli osoittaa saksia))? --- Ei, siinä on **scissors**. Onko tämä **a rope** ((nuoli osoittaa köyttä))? --- **Yes, there it is!** Siinä on **a rope**. … (Episode 2.3, p. 21)

Example (33) illustrates the use of this particular method as its most trivial form: the target word is said and it is simultaneously visible in the image. Associating the form and the meaning should be easy. In example (34), the target words illustrated by pictures are all parts of English lines. It was quite common in the data to present one word of a longer line through picture. In this particular case the target words are always the last words of the line which should ease the viewer's task to comprehend the words and connect them to the pictures. On many other occasions the target word that was presented in the picture was in the middle of a longer English line, making it possibly harder to grasp. Example (34) also illustrates another reoccurring issue: translation and picture are used together to teach the target words and phrases. In example (35), several items are presented in one small scene. There are many items in the picture, so the current target word is highlighted by a pointing arrow to separate it from the other items. These kinds of scenes were numerous in the data.

Besides nouns, also colors were often presented in pictures, as illustrated by the following example:

(36) ((Doran ja Nuutin on kiivettävä erivärisiä tähtikahvoja pitkin ison timantin päälle))
Dora: Tuo tähti on punainen, **red** ((kuvassa punainen tähtikahva, Dora ottaa kiinni ja kiipeää)). Tämä tähti on vihreä, **green** ((kuvassa vihreä tähtikahva, ottaa kiinni ja kiipeää)). Katso, joka toinen on samanvärinen. **Red, green, red, green** ((kuva etenee ylöspäin, kuvassa yksi tähti kerrallaan aina sen mukaan minkä värin Dora sanoo)). Seurataan näitä tähtiä. Sanotaan yhdessä: **red, green, red, green, red, green, red** ((Dora kiipeää sitä mukaa kun värejä lausutaan)). Mikä sitten tulee ((vierekkäin kuvassa sekä punainen että vihreä tähti))? --- ((nuoli klikkaa vihreää)) **Green star**, hyvä. Vihreä tähti. Nyt kurkotetaan vihreää tähteä. … (Episode 1.4, p. 12)

In example (36), translation and picture are again used concurrently as methods of teaching vocabulary. After the target word is first translated, it is then repeated several times and the color is always presented in the picture while it is said. This way the form and the meaning are simultaneously present in every repetition. Also numbers were sometimes presented in a similar way. Example (37) illustrates this:

(37) Dora & Nuuti: **Stars** ((tähdet tulevat esiin Doran repun tähtitaskusta))!
Dora: Lasketaan ne englanniksi. ((tähdet lennähtävät yksitellen etualalle kuvassa sitä mukaa kun niitä lasketaan, asettuvat riviin)) **One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve. Twelve stars!** Kaksitoista tähteä. … (Episode 1.3, p. 11)

Here the first target word, *stars*, is visible in the image. The following target words are numbers: because there are several stars, Dora wants to count the stars with the viewer. While the stars are counted, one star at a time flies to the front of the image. This was analyzed as an occasion of presenting words through picture, because the amount of the stars is visible in the image and the stars clearly organize in a row one star at a time when a number is said out loud, making the form and the meaning apparently connectable.

In addition to colors, also other adjectives were sometimes presented in pictures in the data. These cases, however, were scarce, as were occurrences of verbs being taught through pictures. The following examples include one occurrence of each being presented in the picture:

(38) Reppu: **Hello, I'm Backpack!** Dora ja Nuuti tarvitsevat köyden jolla pääsemme jättitähden päälle hakemaan kaulakorun. Minulla on **a short rope** ja **a long rope**. Kumpaa köyttä Dora tarvitsee? ((kuvassa pitkä ja lyhyt köysi)) **A short rope** ((köysi valaistuu)), vai **a long rope** ((valaistuu))? **Short** ((valaistuu)), **long** ((valaistuu)), **short** ((valaistuu)), **long**? --- ((nuoli klikkaa pitkää köyttä)) **Long rope, yes**! Pitkää köyttä. … (Episode 1.4, p. 13)

(39) Dora: Sanotaan Ticolle ylös. Sano **go up**. ((lentokone kohoaa vähän, tippuu takaisin alas))
Kovempaa!
Dora, Nuuti, Iisa & Venni: **Go up!**
Tico: **Go up? Yes.** ((kone nousee lentoon)) (Episode 2.4, p. 26)

In example (38), adjectives *short* and *long* are presented in the picture. *A long rope* has previously been introduced and translated, so when Reppu first mentions *a short rope* and *a long rope*, the latter is being repeated and the first one introduced for the first time. In this instance, those two are not yet apparent in the image, but the meaning of the first one could be inferred from the context: since *a long rope* is already familiar to the viewer, *short* could be interpreted through contrast. After this, both are repeated several times and they are simultaneously presented in the picture. Both *short* and *long rope* are visible in the image, and when one is mentioned, it is highlighted by lightening the item in question. In example (39), the verb which is the target word is both translated and made visible in the image. When the target word is mentioned, the action that the verb means takes place.

Overall a real thing or a picture was used 159 times in the data as a way of presenting vocabulary. Figure 5 indicates the occurrences of the method in each episode.

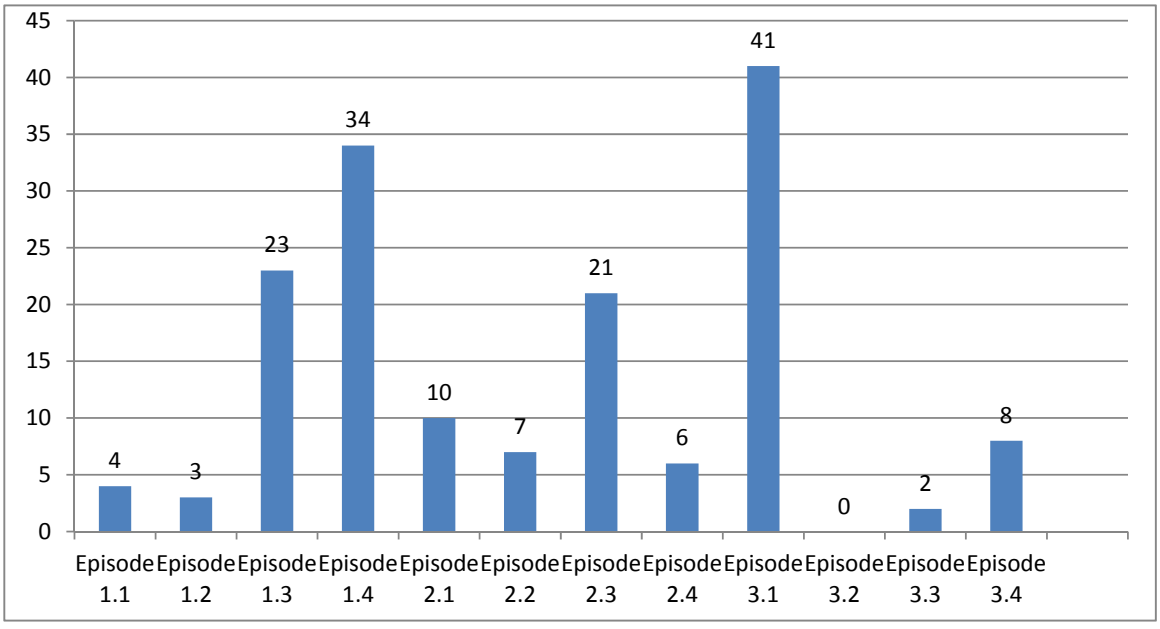

Figure 5. Real thing/picture (N=159) as a method of teaching vocabulary in the data

Even though using a real thing or a picture as a means of presenting vocabulary was the third most frequently used method in the data, it did not occur in all twelve episodes and in some episodes its occurrences were few, as indicated by figure 5. This was, however, compensated by the fact that in a few episodes the method was used frequently. On

many occasions the method was used together with translation, as the examples in this section indicate.

6.2.4 Situation

The fourth most frequently used method of teaching vocabulary in the data was using the situation to convey the meaning of a word. In some cases the context provided plenty of clues for the viewer to figure out the meaning of the target word or phrase, but sometimes the clues were rather vague and the context was perhaps not straightforward enough for the viewer to infer the intended meaning. However, in the analysis even the more ambiguous situations were counted because the linguistic knowledge of the researcher goes beyond that of the viewer.

It should also be noted that a sample was perceived as presenting situational clues only if no other clear method of teaching vocabulary was present. The contextual clues were seen as having no added value when the target word was, for example, translated or depicted in the image. Only repetition could appear along with situational clues because repetition as a method of teaching vocabulary does not convey the meaning of a word and sometimes when a word was repeated after a longer pause, its meaning was provided otherwise, often by situational clues.

In the data, the situation was often used as a means of presenting vocabulary when the characters were greeting the viewer or each other and when the characters were introducing themselves. The following examples illustrate these types of situations, the target word or phrase being underlined:

(40) ((Dora, Nuuti ja Kukko herättävät Boatin))
Boat: **Good morning**!
Dora, Nuuti & Kukko: **Good morning** ((vilkuttavat veneelle))! (Episode 1.2, p. 5)

(41) Dora: **Hello, I'm Dora** ((osoittaa itseään))**.**
Nuuti: Minä olen Nuuti. (Episode 1.3, p. 8)

(42) ((Dora kutsuu Reppua, Reppu kuvaan, laulaa Reppulaulun))
Reppu: **Hello, I'm Backpack!** (Episode 1.4, p. 13)

(43) Dora: **Hello, my name is Dora** ((huiskuttaa tervehdykseksi))**. What's your name?** Kuka sinä olet? (Episode 2.4, p. 23)

In all of the examples, someone is greeting someone, but only in the first three examples was the greeting seen as being taught by situational clues. In example (40), Boat wakes up and sees his friends. In this situation it is natural for Boat to greet his friends, and since it is early morning, the viewer should understand the meaning of the greeting in this particular context. Dora's and others' greeting was not analyzed as being situational because they are using a gesture to boost their message. Example (41) includes the opening lines of this particular episode. Greeting is a natural way of beginning the episode in a situation where Dora and Nuuti are clearly oriented towards the viewer, so the greeting should be understood. In example (42), Reppu greets the viewer and again the context makes the interpretation of his message quite easy. The greeting in example (43) was not analyzed as situational because it is also highlighted by a gesture.

In the last three examples, the characters are, in addition to greeting, also introducing themselves. In example (41), Dora conveys her message through a gesture, so it was not analyzed as a situational method. In example (42), Reppu is repeating a phrase that has occurred previously in the episode, and due to the repetition and the context, the viewer should be able to understand the message. In example (43), Dora meets Nuuti for the first time and besides greeting, it can also be anticipated that she would introduce herself in that situation. The contextual clue is further reinforced by the following question that is translated, enquiring Nuuti's name.

Certain phrases regarding courtesy were often conveyed through situational clues, as illustrated by the following examples:

(44) Dora: ((kehuu Rediä)) **How beautiful**. Sinä olet kauniin punainen.
Red: **Thank you**. (Episode 3.1, p. 27)

(45) ((Mr. Tucan antaa Doralle ja Nuutille vakoojan välineet ja esittelee salaisen tehtävän))
Dora & Nuuti: **Thank you**!
Mr. Tucan: **No problem**! (Episode 3.3, p. 34)

In example (44), Dora compliments Red, and in that situation it is natural for Red to thank Dora for the compliment. The viewer should easily understand the message. In example (45), Mr. Tucan gives Dora and Nuuti a secret mission and spy gear to accomplish their mission. Dora and Nuuti are grateful and it is natural they would thank Mr. Tucan. Mr. Tucan's reply is also easy to anticipate; *thank you* is usually followed by *no problem* also in the viewer's native language. These two phrases occurred often in

the data, and because the context in these situations was quite obvious, there was usually no other method applied, repetition being an exception. Sometimes *no problem* was replaced by *you're welcome*.

Very often the extracts analyzed as including situational clues had a strong positive or negative tone which was depicted in the message. The following examples illustrate cases like this:

(46) Kukko: Kurkkuni on kipeä, en pysty kiekumaan.
Dora: Oo, Punainen Kukko, **I'm so sorry**. (Episode 1.2, p. 4)

(47) Dora/Nuuti/Kartta/Reppu: "-**We did it**, **we did it, we did it,** hei! Hyvin meni. **We did it**. Mä sain tähtitaskun isoäidiltä tänään. **We did it, we did it, we did it,** hurraa! Mutta Velmu tulikin ja vohki sen. **He did it, he did it.** ((Velmu lentää ilmapallolla ohi, laulaa:)) **I did it. He did it**! Tuikku auttoi loistollaan ja haiden yli hypättiin. Seikkailutähdet etsittiin, juhuu, hurraa! **We did it**!" (Episode 1.3, p. 10)

(48) ((katsoja on Repun avustuksella etsinyt Doralle vaihtoehdoista oikean, pitkän köyden))
Reppu: … **Long rope, yes**. Pitkää köyttä. **Very good**! Nam nam nam (("syö" tavarat jotka menevät takaisin Reppuun)), **delicious**. (Episode 1.4, p. 13)

In example (46), Dora meets a rooster that is ill. Dora's reaction in the situation is natural: she feels sorry for the rooster and verbalizes her sympathy. If the viewer can relate to this, he or she will most likely understand the message. Example (47) is a song that recurs at the end of each episode. The first *we did it* was always analyzed as including situational clues because it was always followed by the positive statement *hyvin meni*. In every occasion similar to example (47), the characters were celebrating an accomplished task, so the message should be quite clear, even though it is not entirely unambiguous. In this particular case, the song also includes two new target words. The characters blame Velmu for stealing something, and sing: *he did it*. Then Velmu appears in the image and sings: *I did it*. The subject of the target phrase changes in both cases, but the situation along with the picture should guide the viewer to understand the changing subject.

In the data, there were often situations similar to example (48): the viewer is asked to help the characters and when he or she is assumed to have solved the problem, he or she gets credit for this. Complimenting target phrases in such situations were usually analyzed as containing situational clues, because the element of positive feedback was strongly present, like in example (48). The example also includes another target word, *delicious*. It, too, was analyzed as conveying the message through context. Reppu "eats"

the items - in other words, the items go back inside the backpack - and makes noises telling he enjoys what he is "eating", so the comment *delicious* describes his opinion and action well. This particular situation and target word occurred repeatedly in the data.

In the data, instances where an English question was followed by a Finnish answer or vice versa were analyzed as including situational clues. The following examples illustrate this:

(49) Dora: Etsitäänpä se joki. **Where is it?** Löydätkö joen? (Episode 3.4, p. 38)

(50) Reppu: **Hello spies**! Dora ja Nuuti tarvitsevat jotain jolla voi seilata joella. ((Reppu kysyy katsojalta mikä vakoojan välineistä voisi auttaa)) Missä se on? --- ((nuoli klikkaa palloa jonka voi muuttaa veneeksi)) **Yes, there it is**. … (Episode 3.4, p. 38)

In example (49), Dora contextualizes the English question in Finnish before and after the target phrase: first she asks the viewer to find the river with her, then the target phrase follows, and afterwards Dora asks if the viewer sees the river. Because of the context, the viewer should understand the target phrase quite easily. In example (50), Reppu asks a question in Finnish and answers it in English. Because of the connection of the question and the answer, the viewer should understand the target phrase in this particular context.

Family relations in the data were often depicted through situational clues. This is indicated in the following examples:

(51) ((Ötökkärouva pyytää Doralta apua, on hukannut yhden vauvoistaan, katsojan avulla Dora löytää vauvan piilostaan))
Ötökkävauva: **Mommy**!
Ötökkärouva: **My baby**! ((halaavat)) (Episode 2.2, p. 17)

(52) Nuuti: Käymme juuri päivälliselle Doran perheen kanssa. ((ruokapöydän ääressä Dora, Nuuti, 5 latinohenkilöä, Ötökkäorkesteri, Venni, Iisa ja Tico))
Dora: Tuossa on **my daddy** ((isä kuvassa, kohottaa lasia tervehdykseksi)), **my mommy** …
Äiti: **Hello**! ((äiti kuvaan isän viereen, vilkuttaa))
Dora: … **Grandma** ((kuva mummiin)), serkkuni **cousin** Diego ja **cousin** Daisy ((kuva serkkuihin, vilkuttavat vuorotellen)) ja **my friends** Venni, Iisa, Tico ja Ötökkäorkesteri. … (Episode 2.4, p. 22)

In example (51), a bug asks for Dora's help in order to find her missing baby. When the baby bug is found, she cries *mommy* and the mommy bug cries *my baby*. Because the viewer already knows what the relation between those two is, the target words should be

easy to understand. In example (52), there are people at a dinner table. Nuuti explains that the people are Dora's family members, so when Dora starts to introduce the people to the viewer, figuring out who is who should not be too hard. In this case both situational clues and picture give assistance to the viewer. Because the viewer knows that the people are Dora's family members, the man and the younger woman seen in the image are likely to be her parents and the older woman her grandmother, so the meaning of *daddy*, *mommy* and *grandma* should be comprehensible.

Situational clue as a way of teaching vocabulary was used 147 times in the data and was found in every episode, as illustrated by figure 6.

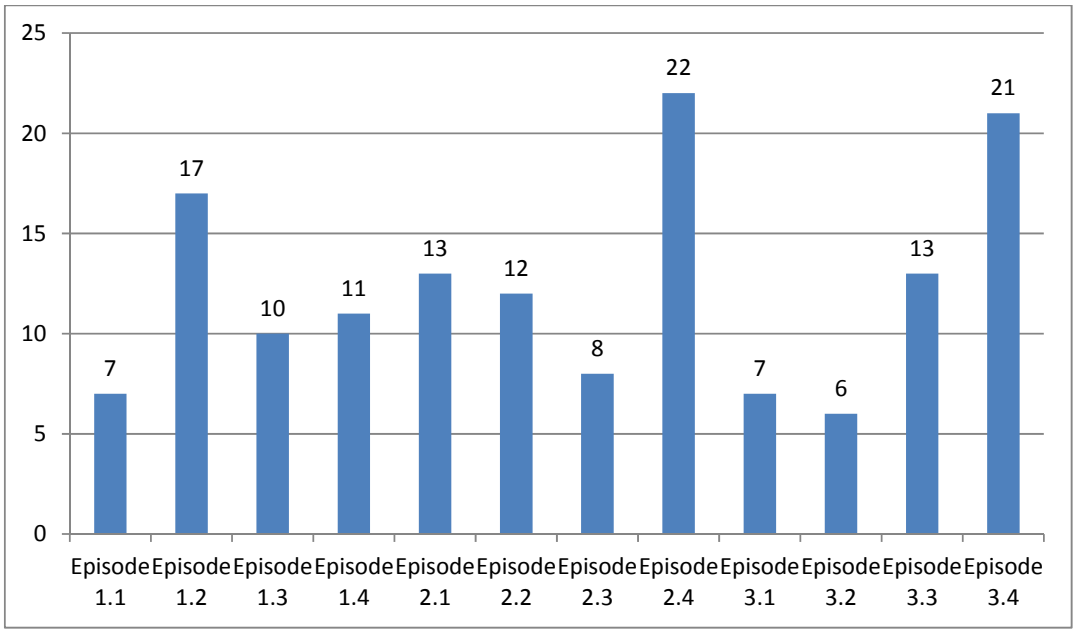

Figure 6. Situation (N=147) as a method of teaching vocabulary in the data

Situational clues were found quite evenly in all twelve episodes, its occurrences varying from at least six times per episode to twenty-two times per episode at the most. Its use was quite consistent throughout the data and as a method of teaching vocabulary, it was pretty common. All in all, situational clues were used in the data in various ways in order to convey the meaning of different types of vocabulary items.

6.2.5 Oral drill

The fifth most frequently used method of teaching vocabulary in the data was using an oral drill. Similar to repetition, oral drill is not a means of presenting vocabulary as discussed by Thornbury (2007), but it was taken into account in the analysis because it was often used as the only way of teaching vocabulary in the data. In the analysis, situations where Dora would directly ask the viewer to say something with her or repeat something after her were regarded as oral drills. Also situations where the oral drill was not stated but rather implied were counted. The most important feature in an oral drill was that the viewer was given the chance to say the target word or phrase out loud. In the following examples in this section, the lines considered oral drills are underlined.

A common way of using an oral drill in the data was when Dora asked the viewer to say something in a situation where someone was given directions. The following examples illustrate this:

(53) ((hahmojen täytyy kiivetä tikkaita pitkin korkealla olevaan vaunuun))
Dora: Tico menee ensimmäisenä. Tico puhuu englantia. Kun Ticon pitää kiivetä, sano **climb**. Osaatko sanoa **climb**? --- Hienoa. Sano **climb**. --- ((Tico kiipeää)) Tico ymmärsi ja alkoi kiivetä tikkaita. ((Iisa kuvaan)) Nyt on Iisan vuoro. Sano **climb**. --- ((Iisa kiipeää, Venni kuvaan)) Nyt on Vennin vuoro. Sano **climb**. --- ((Venni kiipeää, Nuuti kuvaan)) Nyt on Nuutin vuoro. Sano **climb**. --- ((Nuuti kiipeää, Dora kuvaan)) Nyt on minun vuoroni. Sano **climb**. --- ((Dora kiipeää)) … (Episode 1.1, p. 3)

(54) ((Dora varoittaa katsojaa käärmeistä joita tulee vastaan))
Dora: Käärmeet puhuvat englantia joten kun haluat niiden pysähtyvän, sano **stop.** Osaatko sanoa **stop**? --- Sano **stop**! --- Hienoa. Nyt se alkaa. ((1. käärme tulee vastaan)) Se pitää pysäyttää. Sano **stop**! --- **Stop!** Käärme kuuli ja pysähtyi heti. ((2. käärme tulee vastaan)) Sano **stop**! --- **Stop**! ((3. käärme tulee vastaan)) Sano **stop**! --- **Stop**!
Nuuti: Huh, se pysähtyi.
((kuuluu sihinää, 4. käärme tulee vastaan))
Dora: Sanotaan yhdessä: **stop**! ((5. käärme tulee vastaan)) Vielä kerran: **stop**! …
(Episode 3.2, p. 32)

In example (53), there are six occurrences of an oral drill. In each case Dora asks the viewer to repeat the same target word and the viewer is given time to say the word out loud. In example (54), there are seven oral drills and as in the previous example, the target word is the same in each case. In the first five cases, Dora asks the viewer to say the target word after her and a small pause follows enabling the viewer to say the word out loud. In the third, fourth and fifth oral drill, Dora repeats the target word after the viewer. In the last two cases, the viewer is not given time to say the word alone but

Dora asks him or her to say the word together with her. In the last oral drill, Dora does not directly ask the viewer to repeat the word but rather implies so.

In the previous examples, the same target word was repeated several times, but in many cases the target word or phrase was only repeated once or twice using an oral drill. The following examples illustrate this:

(55) Dora: Kutsutaan tähtiä sanomalla **stars**. Sanotaan yhdessä:
Dora & Nuuti: **Stars**. (Episode 1.4, p. 11)

(56) Dora: Hei, minä olen Dora! Tässä on ystäväni Nuuti ja ihana mummini, **my grandma**.
Osaatko sanoa **grandma**? --- Sano **grandma**. --- (Episode 2.1, p. 14)

Example (55) includes a situation which occurred several times in the data: Dora needs the help of the stars and asks the viewer to call the stars with her. Here the target word is repeated only once. In example (56), Dora introduces her grandma to the viewer and asks whether the viewer can say *grandma*. There is a small pause during which the viewer can try to say the target word out loud. Then Dora asks the viewer to say the target word again, and the viewer gets a chance to repeat the word.

Numbers were often taught by using an oral drill, as illustrated by the following example:

(57) Dora: Aivan, palloja pitäisi olla viisi. Lasketaan Ticon kanssa englanniksi ja katsotaan löysimmekö kaikki pallot. Toista perässämme.
Dora, Nuuti & Tico: **One** --- **two** --- **three** --- **four** --- **five.** --- (Episode 2.2, p. 17)

In the example, Dora asks the viewer to repeat the numbers after her and the other characters. The request is clearly stated: *toista perässämme* ‘repeat after us’. After each number is said by the characters, there is a small pause which enables the viewer to repeat the numbers. This kind of joint counting occurred also in many other episodes, but not always as directly as in this example.

Compared to the previously discussed methods, using an oral drill was not that common in the data. Figure 7 illustrates the amount of oral drills in each episode.

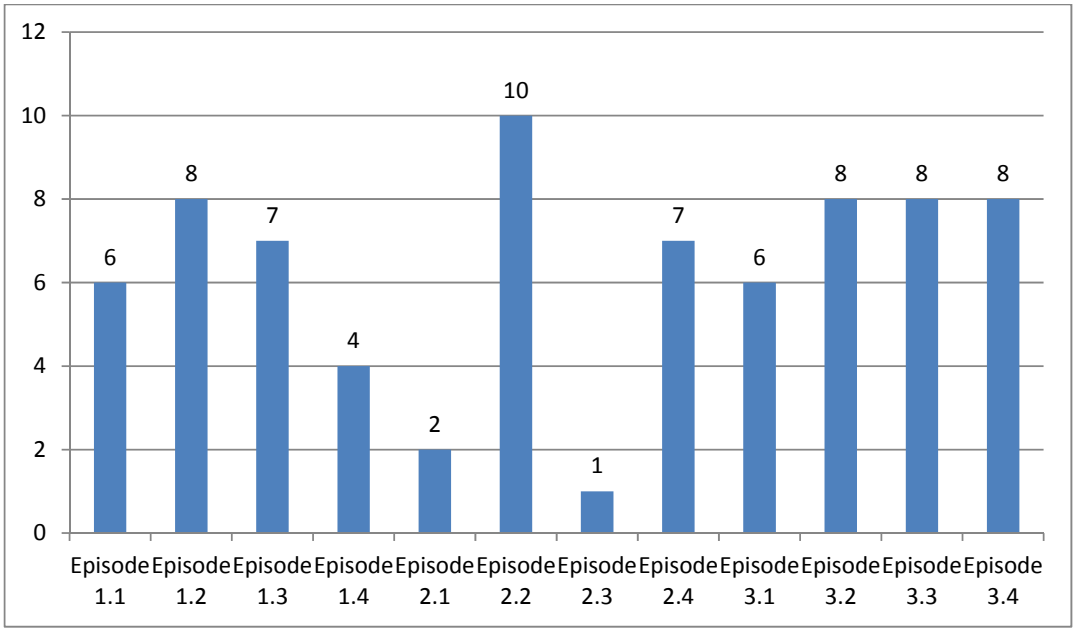

Figure 7. Oral drill (N=75) as a method of teaching vocabulary in the data

Oral drills were used 75 times in the data. They were found in every episode, but never more than ten times per episode, whereas the methods discussed previously occurred more than ten times per episode quite often. Compared to using situational clues, which was the fourth most frequently used method in the data, oral drills were used only about half of the occurrences of situational clues. In many episodes the occurrences of oral drills came from only one or few scenes where the same target word was repeated several times or the viewer was asked to count with the characters.

6.2.6 No method

On many occasions, it was impossible to analyze an extract to contain any of the methods of teaching vocabulary. When no clear instructional method was used when English vocabulary was presented, the sample was analyzed as including no method at all. In such cases, the form of the target word or phrase was present, but the meaning was not conveyed in any way at that time or in that context. A sample could be analyzed into this category even though in some cases the target word or phrase might have been later presented using one of the instructional methods reviewed. Emphasis was placed on the distance: if a target word or phrase was first presented using no instructional method and then taught in a later scene, the first appearance of that word or phrase had

to be analyzed as including no instructional method because the viewer could not possibly understand the word or phrase at that time when no help was provided.

It is quite difficult to give examples of situations where no instructional method was used, because the samples were defined by ruling out all possible methods and there was no clear indication of a sample belonging to this group. However, a few examples are provided with explanations on why the samples were analyzed as including no instructional method. The target words or phrases analyzed into this group are underlined. The first example was found at the beginning of the first episode:

(58) ((jakso alkaa; Dora, Nuuti, Venni, Tico, Iisa, Kartta ja Reppu esittelevät itsensä; Mr. Tucan lentää paikalle))
Mr. Tucan: **Attention! Attention!**
Dora: Katsokaa, tuolla on Mr. Tucan.
Mr. Tucan: **If you play hide and seek and find all of your friends you will win a big trophy.**
Dora: Oo. **Mr. Tucan** kertoi että jos leikimme piilosta ja löydämme kaikki ystävämme voitamme tuon suuren pokaalin. (Episode 1.1, p. 1)

In the example above, Dora and her friends are introducing themselves to the viewer when Mr. Tucan turns up. He flies into the image and yells *attention*. The target word is not presented through an oral drill or a definition, translated, depicted in the image or conveyed by gesturing, the latter two being difficult to execute anyhow due to the abstract meaning of the target word. Repetition occurs when Mr. Tucan repeats the word but the first appearance of the word cannot be a repetition, nor is the word presented through situational clues. The context could perhaps imply that Mr. Tucan is greeting the other characters, but there is no apparent reason before or after his line for him to call their attention in such a way. He does in a way give a mission to the characters and therefore requires their attention, but that is quite far-fetched and there are too many other possibilities concerning what he could be saying for this sample to be analyzed as containing situational clues. Furthermore, the first and also the next line do not suggest anything about the coming mission, but it comes only later and is detached from the target word. The same kind of distance between the target word or phrase and its possible explanation is also present in the next example:

(59) ((Dora ja Nuuti tapaavat kukon jonka pitäisi kiekua herättääkseen auringon, mutta kukon kurkku on kipeä eikä hän voi kiekua; Dora lohduttaa kukkoa))
Kukko: Mitä ihmettä minä teen nyt? ((voivottelee, yrittää kiekua, ei onnistu))
Dora: **Mom, mom, come quickly!**
((Dora lähtee juoksemaan taloa kohti, kukko ja Nuuti seuraavat perässä))

Mom: ((avaa oven, seisoo oven raossa)) **What's wrong**?
Dora: Kukon kurkku on kipeä, hän ei pysty kiekumaan ja herättämään aurinkoa.
(Episode 1.2, p. 4)

In example (59), Dora calls her mom and starts running towards the house where mom is, but her action is surprising and the viewer cannot anticipate what is coming. When Dora calls *mom*, her mother is nowhere to be seen and has not yet been mentioned so there is really no way of knowing who Dora is calling, or even if she is calling someone. Because the context or image do not help and all other methods are also absent, the first target word of Dora's line was regarded as not being taught by any instructional method. A moment later mom appears in the image and perhaps then the viewer realizes who Dora was calling, but there is a gap and at the time when Dora is calling her mom, the meaning of the word is not clear. The second appearance of the word *mom* was analyzed as repetition, and the target phrase *come quickly* was analyzed based on the same criteria as the first target word: all other methods are absent and the context does not provide any clues which would enable the viewer to anticipate what Dora is saying. Mom's reply, *what's wrong*, was analyzed including situational clues because Dora is clearly worried, which naturally leads to mom's response.

In the following example the target word occurs in the middle of Dora's line:

(60) ((Dora ja Nuuti saavat Mr. Tucanilta tehtävän: heidän pitää lähteä Ticon syntymäpäiville estämään Velmun suunnittelema lahjavarkaus; Dora ja Nuuti lähtevät matkaan))
Dora: Meidän pitää päästä Ticon juhliin **fast**, mutta emme tunne tietä.
(Episode 3.4, p. 37-38)

The target word *fast* is not presented by using any instructional method: there is no translation, definition, repetition, picture, action or gesture, oral drill or situational clues. The viewer knows that Dora and Nuuti are going to Tico's birthday-party, but it is not indicated in any way that they should be getting there in a hurry. As far as the viewer is concerned, the word *fast* in the middle of Dora's line could mean anything. A similar situation with the same target word occurred also in episode 3.2. All occasions of presenting vocabulary in the data without using an instructional method are illustrated in figure 8.

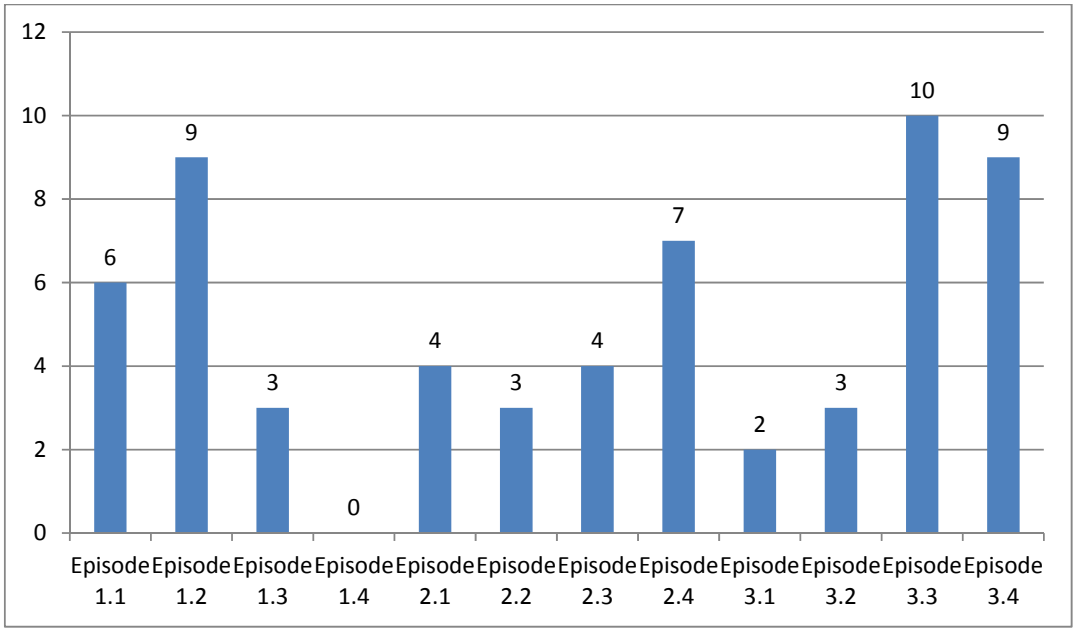

Figure 8. Occasions (N=60) of no instructional method used when presenting vocabulary in the data

Among the eight categories of the analysis, occasions where no instructional method was used were on the sixth place: only using an action or a gesture and a definition were found less frequently. The number of occasions of no method used was 60, and only in episode 1.4 every sample was regarded as being presented through some instructional method. Usually the amount of occasions of using no instructional method was quite small in each episode, but in three episodes such occasions were found nine or ten times, which is quite a lot when considering the amount of all existing samples in those episodes.

6.2.7 Action/gesture

Using an action or a gesture to convey the meaning of a word was the second least frequently used of the methods found in the data. All samples where a character's action or gesturing was seen to enhance the learning of the presented target word or phrase were taken into account. Similar to using a picture or a real thing when teaching a word, also in this case the visual aspect of the data was very important when conducting the analysis, and is therefore described in detail in the following examples. Furthermore, the target word or phrase taught by using an action or a gesture is underlined.

The types of vocabulary items taught by using an action or a gesture were quite scarce, probably due to the fact that only certain types of words can be presented by an action or gesturing. The words or phrases that were presented in such a way usually occurred repeatedly in the data. The most common target phrase presented by using an action or a gesture was *let's go*. The way it was taught by using this method is illustrated in example (61):

(61) ((Dora ja Nuuti tapaavat Vennin, kertovat mihin ovat matkalla))
Venni: Pääsenkö mukaan?
Dora: Toki, mutta nyt on kiire. **Let's go!** ((viittaa kädellään seuraamaan))
(Episode 2.4, p. 25)

In the example above, the target phrase is conveyed by a calling gesture: Dora raises her hand and sways it towards herself as if to invite Venni and the viewer to come along. The same action recurred every time this target phrase was taught by using an action or a gesture.

Other common target words were those related to greeting. The following examples indicate how greeting was conveyed with the help of an action or a gesture:

(62) Dora: Taisimme löytää Oravatammen.. **Hello squirrels!** ((vilkuttaa oraville jotka vilkuttavat takaisin)) (Episode 1.1, p. 2)

(63) Dora: **Good morning!** ((vilkuttaa katsojalle)) (Episode 1.2, p. 4)

In both examples, Dora is greeting someone and simultaneously boosting her message by waving. The action and its meaning are surely familiar to the viewer, so understanding the message should be easy. Using an action to convey the message when greeting was also done in another way, as illustrated by example (64):

(64) **Hello**, olen **cowboy**-Dora! ((ratsastaa paikalle Nuutin kanssa, kohottaa hattuaan tervehdykseksi)) (Episode 3.2, p. 30)

In example (64), Dora raises her cowboy hat in order to greet the viewer. The episode where the sample was found had a wild west theme, so this particular action along with the greeting were suitable in that context. However, the action and its meaning might be a bit strange for the viewer, especially if he or she is not familiar with the theme or the traditional custom of raising one's hat as a greeting.

Besides greeting, also introducing oneself was often depicted with the help of an action. This is indicated by the following example:

(65) Dora: **Hello, I'm Dora.** ((osoittaa itseään kädellään)) (Episode 1.3, p. 8)

In the example, Dora points towards herself, so the viewer should understand that she is talking about herself. Because the viewer also knows that Dora is Dora, the meaning of *I'm* should be quite obvious. Besides the verb *am*, also a few other, more concrete, verbs were conveyed by an action or a gesture. The following examples illustrate this:

(66) ((Dora ja Nuuti kohtaavat käärmeitä joiden päälle ei saa astua, Dora pyytää katsojaa auttamaan käärmeiden pysäyttämisessä))
Dora: ((ensimmäinen käärme tulee vastaan)) Se pitää pysäyttää. Sano **stop!** --- **Stop!** ((samanaikaisesti näyttää kädellä pysäytysmerkkiä)) (Episode 3.2, p. 32)

(67) ((Dora ja ystävät seuraavat sokkeloisessa tunnelissa lepakkoa äänen perusteella))
Diego: Tunneleita on kolme. **Listen!** ((laittaa käden korvansa taakse kuunnellakseen tarkasti)) (Episode 3.4, p. 39)

In example (66), Dora puts her hand in front of her, her palm facing the snake that she wants to stop. This action clearly signals the meaning of the verb and is universal, meaning that the viewer should be familiar with it. In example (67), Dora's cousin Diego asks Dora, Nuuti and the viewer to listen closely and also conveys the message by putting his hand behind his ear to listen closely too. By modeling the verb, he conveys the message quite explicitly.

Lastly, an action or a gesture was used to present vocabulary sometimes when something was ”lost” and then found, usually with the help of the viewer. This is illustrated by the following example:

(68) ((Dora ja Nuuti miettivät missä Lohikäärmevuori on, katsoja ”näyttää” missä vuori on))
Dora: **Yes, there it is!** ((osoittaa vuorta sormellaan)) (Episode 1.3, p. 9)

In example (68), the viewer supposedly helps Dora and Nuuti by showing them where the mountain they are looking for is. This is indicated by a clicking computer cursor. Then Dora sees the mountain and says the target phrase, and at the same time points her finger at the mountain. Her action strongly guides the viewer to understand the meaning of the target phrase.

As mentioned earlier, the types of vocabulary items taught by using an action or a gesture in the data were few, and the total amount of occurrences of the method was quite small. Figure 9 indicates the occurrences of the method in each episode.

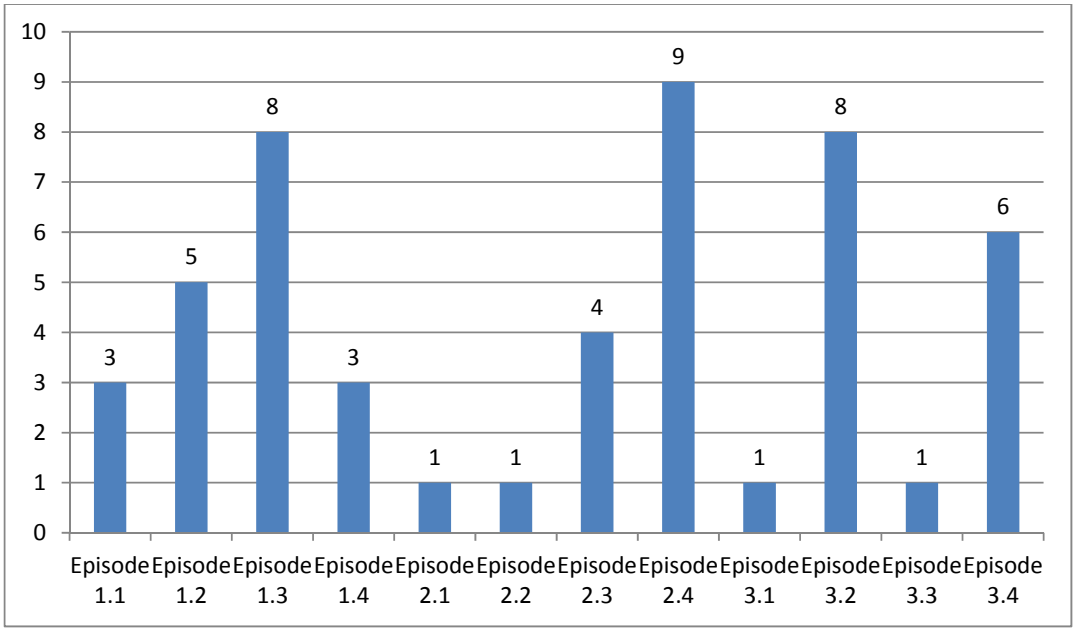

Figure 9. Action/gesture (N=50) as a method of teaching vocabulary in the data

The method was used 50 times in the data, and almost half of the occurrences concerned the two most common target words or phrases. *Let's go* was taught by using an action or a gesture 15 times and *hello* 11 times. Using an action or a gesture when presenting vocabulary was found in every episode, but in four episodes it was found only one time, which is not much. In episodes 1.3, 2.4 and 3.2, which included the most occurrences of the method, the same target words and phrases were repeated several times.

6.2.8 Definition

When conducting the analysis, a definition as a method of teaching vocabulary was determined to be a verbal way of explaining a word's meaning without using a translation. Furthermore, the definition had to be given in the target language, English. It turned out that definition was not used at all. There were some instances of giving a synonym or otherwise explaining the meaning with words without giving a direct translation, but because the language used in those situations was Finnish, the samples had to be categorized as indirect translations.

7 DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the findings of the study are reviewed and compared to theoretical issues concerning the findings. The findings regarding the first research question are discussed first, followed by the findings concerning the second research question. After the findings and their implications are discussed, the limitations and merits of the study are considered. Finally some suggestions for further study are presented.

7.1 Reviewing the findings concerning the vocabulary found in the data

The findings concerning the amount of English vocabulary found in the data indicated that occurrences of English vocabulary items were numerous. English words and multi-word units occurred 1724 times. When considering that the data included twelve episodes, approximately 24 minutes long each, the data consisted of about 288 minutes of video material. This means that on average, about 6 English words or multi-word units occurred in one minute of video material. Of course the amount of Finnish vocabulary was significantly higher, since most of the characters spoke only Finnish, but the presence of English was still notable.

When the vocabulary items found were categorized by word class, each category was represented. The largest group of words was pronouns, followed by nouns, verbs, adjectives, multi-word units, miscellaneous words, adverbs, determiners, prepositions and conjunctions. The three groups of words occurring the least frequently included *grammatical* or *function words*, as discussed by, for example, Thornbury (2007: 3-4). Their main task in a sentence is to serve a grammatical purpose, as opposed to *content words* which carry a higher information load. Because the target audience of the program is preschool children who have probably not studied English before, the level of provided input should be kept low. Therefore, it makes sense that grammatical words occurred more rarely than content words. The combined amount of occurrences of determiners, prepositions and conjunctions was 105, which is not much when compared to the total amount of occurrences of English vocabulary items in the data.

However, pronouns, which are also categorized as grammatical words, made an exception: surprisingly, they were the most frequently occurring words. This was mostly due to one phrase: *we did it*. It occurred over ten times at the end of each

episode, and because it included two pronouns, *we* and *it*, they were both repeated dozens of times and contributed significantly to the number of pronouns occurring in the data. Out of 421 occurrences of pronouns, *we* and *it* together accounted for 315. Their impact on the results cannot be overlooked, because without the constant repetition of the phrase, pronouns would have not ranked so high.

Groups of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) ranked in 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 7th place. Nouns were found 340, verbs 332 and adjectives 190 times. They were the most common words in the sense that they occurred throughout the data and the number of different types of words was the largest among nouns, verbs and adjectives. The data presented 76 different nouns, 48 different verbs and 38 different adjectives; the variation in other groups was slighter. Words in these three groups are usually very concrete and can easily be presented in pictures. When considering the target audience and the format of the data, the fact that concrete content words occurred that often seems carefully considered. Furthermore, as suggested by Gairns and Redman (1986), concrete items should be easier to learn than words with abstract meanings. Hence it could be argued that nouns, verbs and adjectives should form the majority of input in an educational program designed to teach vocabulary.

The fourth group of content words, adverbs, was rarer. However, even though categorized as content words, adverbs are not very concrete and are definitely difficult to present in pictures, so this could be one reason adverbs were among the least frequently occurring words along with grammatical words. The order of frequency of the four groups of content words is in accordance with findings of Horst and Meara (1999, as quoted by Milton 2009), who found that when reading a comic book in a foreign language, learners acquired nouns the best, followed by verbs, adjectives and adverbs. If this is the case and learners are most likely to learn nouns and least likely to learn adverbs when picture cues are provided, the program should promote the learning of vocabulary well, as it presents the “right” kind of vocabulary, i.e. vocabulary that the viewers are most likely to learn by watching the program.

Besides the four groups of content words and four groups of grammatical words, the analysis also included two additional groups: multi-word units, which was the fifth most frequently occurring group of words, and miscellaneous words, which was the sixth most frequently occurring group. Multi-word units were such that could not be taken to

parts, because the meaning would have changed. They were also treated as entities, because they are widely recognized as such (e.g. Gairns and Redman 1986; Thornbury 2007; Moon 2009). Usually multi-word units are perceived as being difficult to learn (Moon 2009), and therefore it was a bit surprising that they were found in the data as often as they were. However, the number of occurrences of multi-word units consisted of only 19 different items, of which many were repeated quite often (*thank you, let's go, good morning, no problem, watch out*). The majority of the items categorized as miscellaneous words were numbers: 12 out of the 20 different items found were numbers, and the rest were interjections.

It was also discovered that words were usually presented in their basic form. Out of 340 occurrences of nouns, 62 were plurals; out of 332 occurrences of verbs, 147 were in the past tense; out of 190 occurrences of adjectives, 13 were comparatives. Hence, the majority of occurrences of nouns and adjectives were in the basic form, without inflections. The number of past tenses of verbs is explained by one word: *did.* It occurred 143 times because it was repeated in the phrase *we did it* at the end of each episode. Excluding this one word, the number of past tenses occurring in the data would be only four. When *did* is included, the past tense occurred only of four different verbs, when the amount of different verbs was 48. In that sense, verbs commonly occurred in the present tense. The fact that inflected words were less common than words without inflections suggests that the level of the provided input has been intentionally kept low.

7.2 Reviewing the findings concerning the methods of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language found in the data

Usually when English vocabulary was presented, it could be analyzed as being taught by using instructional methods of teaching vocabulary in a foreign language. Only 60 samples were such that could not be categorized into any of the groups of methods, whereas instances of using one of the 7 methods listed occurred 1237 times. The number of occurrences of methods was smaller than the amount of vocabulary items presented (1724), because in many cases a whole line including several words was presented by using only one method. By contrast, sometimes one word was taught by using several methods. All possible methods were considered in such cases, with one exception: other methods were seen to overrule the situational clues because the context was seen to aid learning only when no other methods of presenting vocabulary were

present. Only repetition could occur along with situational clues because repetition is not a way of presenting a word but rather a means to reinforce the learning.

Of the methods used, repetition was used far more often than the other methods, 624 times, whereas the second most frequently used method, translation, occurred 182 times. Even though repetition is not a means of presenting vocabulary, it was taken into account in the analysis because it occurred so frequently in the data. Its frequency suggests that the designers of the program have wanted to do more than just present the audience with new words and their meanings; they have also wanted to enhance the learning of the words met. Repetition as a method of strengthening learning is essential in learning vocabulary (e.g. Pavicic Takac 2008; Nation 2009; Sökmen 2009). Because some words were repeated so often in the data, it seems that those were the words the designers had decided to emphasize. The most frequently occurring words or phrases were, for example, *we, it, Mr., Tucan, chocolate, cowboy, stars, did, is, red, yellow, blue, delicious, thank you, let's go, hello,* and *yes.*

Of the words listed above, some were repeated only within one episode (*chocolate, cowboy, red*) whereas others were repeated more systematically throughout the data. Nation (2009: 76) discusses these two forms of repetition: the first is called *massed repetition,* meaning that the chosen words are repeated numerous times within one session, and the latter is called *spaced repetition*, meaning that the words are repeated over a longer period of time. Dempster (1987) has found spaced repetition to result in better learning outcomes than massed repetition, and therefore it could be assumed that the words the viewers of the program learn the best are those that are repeated in several episodes.

Translation was the second most frequently occurring method of presenting new vocabulary. According to Nation (2009: 86), translation is an easy and quick way to access the meaning of a new word. Perhaps this is the reason it occurred so frequently in the data, 182 times. As the program is targeted at preschool children, it makes sense that the methods used would be straightforward and as simple as possible. When considering which one was presented first when translating, the translation or the target word or phrase, it was discovered that the translation came first 97 times whereas the target word or phrase preceded the translation 85 times. The difference is not major, so there was no visible trend in the order of presenting the meaning and the form. Thornbury

(2007: 76) argues that when presenting the meaning first, learners should feel the need to learn the form and the learning would be more efficient, which would imply that presenting the meaning first could have been done more often. However, because the viewers of the program are probably watching it for other reasons besides language learning, it is unlikely that they would feel the need to learn the form anyhow.

It was also noted that translation was used in different ways: sometimes the translation was a direct one and the target word or phrase and the translation followed each other immediately, at other times there were some lines between the target word or phrase and the translation. Model translations and paraphrases were also seen as translation, as were instances where the message was conveyed but the form of the translation was not identical to the form of the target word or phrase. Some translations were very vague and were categorized as translations because it was possible for the researcher to identify the translation included in such samples. However, it is very unlikely that the viewer would be able to interpret such samples as translation, which means that the meaning of the target word or phrase is probably not conveyed. There is a risk that such translations, as well as the fact that translations were used in very different ways, confuse the viewers and lead to false assumptions.

The commonness of the third most frequently occurring method, using real things or pictures which occurred 159 times, is probably at least partially due to the medium of the data: because a television program combines both sound and image, the use of visual aids is easy. It is also considered to assist the learning, and teachers are encouraged to use visual aids when presenting new words (e.g. Sökmen 2009, Nation 2009). Nation (2009: 85) argues that the benefit of using an action, object, picture or diagram is that “learners see an instance of the meaning and this is likely to be remembered”. Thornbury (2007: 78-79) suggests that using visual aids, such as real things, pictures and actions or gestures, is especially suitable when teaching beginners, as is the case with the program. Gestures, however, were not used nearly as often as real things or pictures, which were seen in the analysis as one category. Gestures were used to illustrate the meaning the second least frequently, only 50 times. This could be due to the fact that gestures are an important aspect of human communication and presenting them with the help of cartoon characters can be a bit difficult since the human interaction is excluded.

The situation as a means of presenting the meaning was used almost as often as using visual aids, 147 times. Usually samples categorized as including situational cues involved a situation which clearly contextualized the target word or phrase. As guessing from context is emphasized as being one of the most important skills a language learner can acquire (Thornbury 2007; Nation 2009), the frequency of situational or contextual cues in the data can be seen as a positive thing. Nation (2009: 232) argues that this type of incidental learning when guessing words from context is actually "the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning" and identifies watching television and films as possible situations of guessing from context. Even though contextual cues as a method of presenting the meaning are valued by many, their use in the program is a bit controversial. As was the case with some very vague translations, also some situations were such that required considerable linguistic knowledge for the meaning to be conveyed. In such cases the viewer is unlikely to understand the meaning. In other cases, however, the context was more transparent and the meaning should be conveyed.

Oral drills were also added to Thornbury's categorization. Like repetition, also oral drills, when occurring in the data, were clearly used as a means of teaching vocabulary. Oral drills occurred 75 times and they were characterized by the fact that the viewers were clearly asked to repeat a word or phrase, or at least it was implied. Furthermore, there usually was a pause allowing the viewer to repeat the oral drill. Even though Thornbury (2007) does not count oral drill to be a method of presenting vocabulary, he encourages teachers to use it after the meaning of a new word has been presented, because it is important to give learners the chance to produce the words learned and an oral drill provides learners with a great chance to "feel out" the word.

Definition as a method of presenting vocabulary did not occur at all in the data. This is probably due to the fact that because definition is given in the target language, learners should already be familiar with the language. This is most likely not the case with the viewers of the program. Furthermore, as Thornbury (2007: 83) notes, using a definition requires more effort from both the teacher and learner. In this case the problem concerns the learner; even though the viewers would be familiar with the target language, their skill level is bound to be low and therefore simpler means of presenting the meaning should be used. Also Nation (2009: 90) argues that the explanations of meaning at the initial stages of presenting vocabulary should be kept simple and brief in order to avoid

unnecessary confusion. This actualizes the best when definitions in the target language are avoided.

Overall the findings concerning both vocabulary and methods used in the data indicated that a reasonable amount of English input was provided and many instructional methods of teaching vocabulary were used. The types of words occurring most frequently were such that, based on previous research, could be evaluated as being easier to learn than those words that occurred more rarely. Out of the methods of presenting vocabulary, the ones that can be used to provide the simplest and most memorable explanations of meanings were used most often. Furthermore, repetition, which is a precondition for real learning to occur, was used very often. Considering all these factors, the input the program offers could be evaluated as being of good quality and the chances are that the viewers actually acquire English vocabulary while watching the program.

7.3 Limitations and merits of the study, suggestion for further study

One of the major limitations of this study concerns the role of the researcher. No matter how objectively the analysis was conducted, decisions had to be made and some of them might have affected the findings more than others. This also means that another researcher might have made different decisions and the findings would have been diverse. One big decision affecting the findings was, for example, whether to count tokens, types of words, lemmas or word families. The decision to count tokens was made based on the aim to describe the data accurately and also considering the skill level of the target audience. Also “smaller” decisions had to be made: when to separate the words of a phrase and when to treat them as a multi-word unit; which words to count as English words; how to treat samples where multiple methods were used. The more there were decisions to be made, the more the role of the researcher was emphasized, but when making each decision, all options were considered as carefully as possible.

When categorizing the words found by word class, the process was quite objective because that is not a matter of opinion. However, it required more elaboration from the researcher to categorize the samples by the methods used. Sometimes making a decision as to whether a sample included situational cues or no instructional method at all was quite difficult. It was also challenging to decide how far away the translation could be

from the original target word or phrase and yet be categorized as translation. When making these decisions, the point of view of the researcher affected the outcomes. Despite of these issues, the objectivity of the analysis was maintained by forming clear rules concerning the analysis and by following those guidelines throughout the analysis. The primary goal was to be consistent from the beginning to the end, and it feels that this goal was achieved.

The aims of this study were to investigate how much and what kind of vocabulary the data presented and whether some instructional methods were used when vocabulary was presented. The reasons behind such analysis were the urge to describe the content of the data and evaluate the quality of the input provided. These aims were achieved, so the study succeeded in what it was designed to do. However, many questions emerged from the findings. Now that the content of the program has been described and it could be assumed that learning vocabulary in a foreign language can happen as a “by-product” of watching the program, it would be interesting to study whether that assumption is actually realized. This could be done by conducting an empirical study with preschool children who could be tested on vocabulary knowledge before and after watching the program. If the words tested were such that occurred in the data, the possible learning outcomes should be seen in the after-test. Children could also be interviewed to find out what they have actually gained from watching the program.

In this study the words found were categorized by word class and their possible learnability was discussed from that point of view, but other possibilities could be examined as well. For example, it would be interesting to study how the vocabulary found compares with high-frequency words. Since many argue that high-frequency words are the easiest words to learn, and also important to learn, it could be analyzed whether the vocabulary items found in the data are high-frequency words or not. The words could also be analyzed from other perspectives. For example, the relation of L1 and L2 forms of the words could be studied and the words could be analyzed according to semantic aspects affecting the learning of words. While answering the two research questions set at the beginning, the study inspired several new questions and further study is recommended.

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APPENDIX 1

Transcription symbols used in the study

normal typing	Finnish speech
bold typing	English speech
(xxx)	unclear speech
---	pause, expected response from the viewer
((nauraa))	description of events, comments of the researcher
(x:lle) / (D:lle)	line directed to the viewer / other character
“ “	singing
…	Finnish dialogue left out of the transcription
- - x3	repetition
(klik)	a cursor appears in the image, clicks something