The Effects of Media Literacy-Based Activities on Writing Skills in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract. This study explores the effectiveness of media literacy-based activities on writing proficiency and affective domains in the EFL setting. A quasi-experiment was conducted during the 2021 academic year with 148 college EFL students selected as participants from three classes from a private university in Seoul, South Korea. Participants were divided into three groups based on proficiency levels: upper proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and lower proficiency. The assigned activities included four steps: (1) watching video clips made by a teacher, (2) group discussion, (3) individual presentation, and (4) individual writing. For these activities, participants used multimedia like YouTube, Fanfiction.net, Reddit discussion boards, and blogs to understand the topic, evaluate the content, and express their thoughts. Popular franchises, including the Marvel Cinematic Universe (MCU), the Potterverse, and the Twilight saga provided material for the activities. The study's results reveal that students significantly increased their writing skills, regardless of proficiency level. Moreover, the higher the linguistic ability, the more the writing ability improved. In a survey, students also showed significant changes in all affective domains (anxiety, interest, confidence, and engagement), except for the lower proficiency group's confidence domain. The study presents a detailed summary of the activities and derives meaningful implications.

Keywords: media literacy; EFL writing; affective domains, pop culture; movie franchises

1. Introduction

Writing is one of the most critical skills that second language learners must develop (Hyland, 2019). Owing to rapid globalisation, writing skills have become more important than ever (Guo et al., 2021; Naghdipour, 2016). However, writing is a highly demanding task that requires cognitive processing (Cancino & Panes, 2021; Majidi et al., 2020) and that takes greater time and effort to develop than other language skills (Belkhir & Benyelles, 2017; Myhill, 2008). From a

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psychological perspective, second language writing is a complex, multifaceted problem-solving process (Cho, 2019; Cumming, 1990). Second language writing requires significant effort and presents a heavier psychological burden than other skills, leading to avoidance and a lack of interest in writing in a target language (Lee, 2019a). These elements cause anxiety and pressure for learners when writing in L2, negatively affecting their writing performance. South Korea emphasises reading and listening skills in English in secondary schools as required for entrance examinations, making writing activities more unfamiliar to learners. According to Jang and Rha (2014), 53% of Korean university students who participated in their study experienced anxiety symptoms while writing; additionally, the more anxious they felt, the less competently they were able to write. The present study seeks to improve South Korean students' writing proficiency and reduce their anxiety when writing in English. Importantly, this study argues that the traditional focus on grammar, linguistic knowledge, and/or genre is not enough to mitigate students' anxiety about writing.

Before identifying the most appropriate teaching and learning methods, it is necessary to understand who the students are. Currently, college students who are referred to as "Generation Z" or digital natives (Prensky, 2001) are familiar with numerous media platforms. They post their thoughts, share information, and communicate with others through social media, blogs, and YouTube. They are "very comfortable with collecting and cross-referencing many sources of information and with integrating virtual and offline experiences" (Francis & Hoefel, 2018, para. 1). They actively explore and understand new information about their likes and interests. Of course, not all students engage actively with media in these ways, but clearly media have become deeply embedded in their lives.

This study considers learners' attitudes toward the media by applying a media literacy perspective to EFL writing. Media literacy can be defined as the ability to access various forms of media: for example, movies, dramas, YouTube, blogs, games, and articles. It also refers to the capacity to analyse and evaluate media content and express one's thoughts through such media. This research employs a quasi-experiment to investigate the effects of media literacy-based activities on writing skills and on affective domains. While media literacy topics vary widely, the present study focuses on popular culture. The research questions addressed here are:

First, how do media literacy-based activities affect writing proficiency in the EFL setting?
Second, how do media literacy-based activities impact affective domains in EFL writing?

2. Literature
2.1. Definition of Media Literacy
The term "literacy" usually suggests the ability to read and write. It is true that in the modern era, most people have expressed their thoughts and opinions through texts. However, people are currently using many different forms of media to

express themselves and communicate with others through various internet-based platforms. Because texts have expanded from print to online spaces, we must consider literacy from a new perspective. Teachers "need to broaden our definitions of texts and recognize that our bias toward written text is a result of our own socialization in a print-dominated world" (Schwartz & Rubinstein-Ávila, 2006, p. 43). Kalantzsis and Cope (2013) argued, "In today's learning environments, we need to supplement traditional reading and writing with these multimodal representations, and particularly those typical of the new, digital media" (p. 3963). Multimedia technologies have led to a fundamental shift in the concept of literacy. A variety of terms describing new perspectives regarding literacy have emerged, including media literacy (Bilosterkovets et al., 2021; Dvorghets & Shaturnaya, 2015), digital literacy (Andriushchenko et al., 2020; The Aspen Institute, 2009; Patti, 2020; Tabieh et al., 2021), visual literacy (Alyahya, 2019; Peña & Dobson, 2021), and multimodal literacy (Camiciottoli & Campoy-Cubillo, 2018; DePalma & Alexander, 2018; Wawra, 2018). There are slight differences between these terms, but their core impetus is similar. The term media literacy is often "used interchangeably with other terms related to media and media technologies" (The National Association for Media Literacy Education, 2017). Thus, this study uses "media literacy" as an umbrella term containing these other, similar terms.

In 1992, 25 representative leaders of the media literacy movement defined media literacy as "the ability of a citizen to access, analyze, and produce information for specific outcomes" (Aufderheide, 1993, p. 6). According to The National Association for Media Literacy Education (2017), media literacy is "the ability to encode and decode the symbols transmitted via media and synthesize, analyze and produce mediated messages." The Office of Communication (2008) defines media literacy as "the ability to access, understand and create communications in a variety of contexts" (para. 5). Potter (2008) considers media literacy as "a set of perspectives that we actively use to expose ourselves to the media to interpret the meaning of the messages we encounter" (p. 19). Literacy is related to the ability to read and write as an action in and of itself. Media literacy also involves people's willingness and ability to understand others and express themselves.

Moreover, media literacy is critical for citizens' sense of belonging within a society. The Center for Media Literacy asserts that media literacy "builds an understanding of the role of media in society as well as essential skills of inquiry and self-expression necessary for citizens of a democracy" (Jolls & Thoman, 2008, p. 22). Hobbs (2010) stated that media literacy includes "the use of texts, tools and technologies; the skills of critical thinking and analysis; the practice of message composition and creativity; the ability to engage in reflection and ethical thinking; as well as active participation through teamwork and collaboration" (p. 17). Hobbs and Jensen (2009) also suggested that one's ability to connect, engage digitally, and communicate within society aligns with the civic qualities necessary for one's community, country, and even the world. Media literacy is a vital skill for expressing oneself, sharing knowledge and opinions, and communicating effectively. It enables people to socialise within their community and become

exposed to different sociocultural perspectives. Thus, media literacy affects whether and how people thrive at the community level.

2.2. Media Literacy & Education

The concept of literacy has also changed in the educational field. The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) (2019) argued, "As society and technology change, so does literacy. The world demands that a literate person possess and intentionally apply a wide range of skills, competencies, and dispositions. These literacies are interconnected, dynamic, and malleable." The Knight Commission (The Aspen Institute, 2009) concurred: "Recommendation 6: Integrate digital and media literacy as critical elements for education at all levels through collaboration among federal, state and local education officials" (p. 45). In other studies, Facione (2013) claimed that media-literate students are more likely to evaluate quality and to be more flexible in their opinions when faced with new ideas. Wong and Yunus (2020) have argued that students today need to initiate their own learning, collaborate with others, and acquire knowledge through a range of media. Dvorghets and Shaturnaya (2015) noted that media-literate students should be able to better understand the information they receive, and Ajayi (2009) stated that multimodal literacy can provide opportunities for ESL students to learn about different text types in ways that enhance interpretation. Media literacy is an indispensable skill, so it is essential to teach and strengthen it. Given that Chvala (2020) and Hornberger (2006) have argued that English education prepares students for their current and future out-of-school lives, we must teach English from media literacy perspectives in L2 as well as L1 education.

2.3. Media Literacy & Language Learning

Camiciottoli and Campoy-Cubillo (2018), and O'Halloran et al. (2016) have insisted that media literacy helps students use semiotic modes beyond verbal language to understand and create messages in target languages effectively. According to Wawra (2018), multimodality is ubiquitous; therefore, media literacy is a crucial skill that must be developed in secondary and higher education. Gaston (2020) has stated that, since EFL and ESL teachers must develop students' English proficiency, some of the responsibility of media literacy education falls on their shoulders. Bilotserkovets et al. (2021) explored how students' media literacy improved in the EFL virtual classroom. Their case study included 138 first-year students from a university in Ukraine and employed analysis, synthesis, and generalisation of scientific data to determine a set of requirements. They designed the experimental group's media literacy education to include activities like social media projects, critical analysis, and the production of social media content. The experimental group's reflective-evaluative, collaborative, and searching-creative skills advanced, as did their English proficiency. Dvorghets and Shaturnaya (2015) have suggested the practice of integrating mass media into the ELT classroom in Russia, particularly when addressing global and social issues. Their project featured a "pre-viewing" discussion about a topic featured on BBC One's Hardtalk. "While-viewing" activities taught students to analyse media, clarify the key points, give cultural references, and/or explain behaviours unfamiliar to students. "After-viewing" activities included project work, debates, critical review assignments, and role-playing. Students reported dramatic progress in their knowledge of English-

language media format specificity and improvement of their English-language ability. In another study, Black (2009) harnessed the concept of media literacy in writing. The researcher investigated English-language-learning youths' engagement with popular media by composing and publicly posting stories on facfiction.net. On this website, fans of movies, TV dramas, and books write and post fan fiction stories. The researcher analysed three participants' fan fiction texts and reader reviews of these texts and then interviewed the participants. The various media enjoyed by the participants, as well as their culture, acted as a scaffold for developing their writing skills. Gruba (2006) used a media literacy perspective of video-mediated listening for L2 and suggested playing a videotext. Australian students learning Japanese watched digitised news as they talked aloud. A qualitative analysis of their retrospective verbal reports revealed that learners play and replay media texts. The researcher argued that adopting a literacy perspective with digital media can develop L2 listening comprehension. These studies demonstrate that media literacy-oriented activities provide various forms of language input and improve language skills through language output activities. Lee (2019b) has emphasised that members of Generation Z are digital natives who need a new teaching approach. The researcher used the novel, "Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone", and its film adaptation in an EFL setting. Providing Korean college students with the story's background, key episodes, and main characters enabled them to enjoy and become immersed in the Potterverse. The students made group presentations on Harry Potter-related topics that displayed their abilities to use multiple media fluidly. Wawra (2018) has also argued that multimodal literacy should be integrated into the curriculum, demonstrating how teachers can use political cartoons in the English language classroom to develop students' multimodal literacy.

The benefits of teaching a language from a media literacy perspective have drawn significant scholarly attention. However, in South Korea, the effect of using this concept in English writing skills remains under-explored. Given prior studies' positive results, this study expects to uncover positive findings when English writing and media literacy are employed together to teach South Korean college students.

3. Method
3.1. Participants
The study included 148 freshman students enrolled in general English classes at a university in Seoul, South Korea. A 75-minute quasi-experiment was conducted for 15 weeks, twice a week. This general English class is a mandatory course for university freshmen, and students are automatically assigned. Three of the researcher's classes were used for the study. All participants were Korean and had over 10 years of English-learning experience in Korea. They were attending humanities and social studies colleges, with majors including Korean literature, political diplomacy, education, sociology, law, and journalism. The gender distribution was 80 females and 68 males. At the beginning of the semester, all participants took an online diagnostic evaluation. The first class was conducted through Zoom in real time. The teacher created the test questions using Google Forms and provided the test link to participants through the Zoom chat feature.

Students then had to answer the questions within 30 minutes. Based on the results, the students were divided into upper (Group A), intermediate (Group B), and lower (Group C) groups. The evaluation tested grammar and reading and contained 30 questions, each worth one point. Students who scored 30 to 21 points were allocated to Group A, 20 to 11 points to Group B, and fewer than 10 points to Group C. Ultimately, 52 students were allocated to Group A, 65 to Group B, and 31 to Group C.

3.2. Materials
This study adopted *Media Matters* (Ryu et al., 2021), an English learning textbook that contains 12 units on popular culture, focusing on franchises such as Marvel Comics. Each class studied eight of the 12 units (see Table 1). The textbook introduces 10 vocabulary words necessary to understand each unit and features reading, listening, and writing activities. Four classes were devoted to each unit. The textbook distinguishes itself by its vocabulary introduction, which presents vocabulary to understand the content. For example, the sentences "Steve Rogers: A young man who wanted to join the army but was not healthy enough. Army scientists tested a super serum on him and changed him into Captain America, also known as Cap" (Ryu et al., 2021) appear in Unit 1, Comic Book Heroes. It is fundamental to know Captain America's background to understand the Marvel Cinematic Universe. The teacher interpreted the vocabulary in class and showed YouTube videos, movie clips, animation clips, documentaries, comic books, and/or blogs to help students get the gist of the franchises.

Table 1. Contents of the Material

Unit Title	Contents
Comic Book Heroes	Introduction of the Marvel Cinematic Universe
The Popularity of K-pop	History of K-pop and its powers
Let the Video Games Begin	Video games and their educational effects
Return to the '80s	Effects of 80's culture on the present
Vampires vs. Werewolves	Origins of vampires and werewolves and their meanings
The World of Harry Potter	Good vs. evil in the Potterverse
The Revival of Disney	The new era of the Disney animation studio
Batman	Characteristics of Batman

3.3. Procedures
Students studied each unit four times over a period of two weeks. Each step was covered in real-time Zoom classes, except for the first. The teacher taught the first step using video clips through the university's learning management system (LMS). She explained the vocabulary and interpreted the reading via multimedia, using YouTube videos, Reddit's discussion rooms, and original novels and comics to provide background information and fans' opinions. For example, Unit 1's reading section includes, "Captain America undergoes large personal changes during the storyline and develops as a character." The teacher explained the

sentence by showing scenes in which Steve Rogers was frozen in ice during the war and then found 70 years later. The teacher used English-language media and briefly explained the contents in advance. The second step featured group activities, for which the teacher used Zoom's meeting rooms to create groups of four to five students, introduced a question, and asked the groups to find interesting information about the topic in the media. The questions were, for instance: "Between Doctor Strange and Scarlet Witch, who has the most powerful ability? Who is the most powerful character in the Twilight saga? Which wizard has the purest talent, Harry Potter or Voldemort?" The students discussed and selected the most thought-provoking answers in their groups and shared them with the other groups. When teaching the vampires vs. werewolves component, the teacher asked students, "Who is the strongest character in the Twilight saga?" At the time of this experiment, a giant container ship had accidentally blocked the Suez Canal. One group answered the question by submitting a meme in which the character of Emmett Cullen lifts the stranded ship. They said they found the meme in Reddit's Twilight community and that Emmett Cullen was the only character in the saga who would be able to lift the stranded ship from the Suez Canal. For the third step, students individually created three-minute video clips in English about their preferred unit, highlighting their critical thinking. Each student sent their presentation to the teacher by e-mail before class; the teacher then provided feedback and shared the videos with other students in the third class. Students received a rubric to grade the presentation videos. For the fourth step, students were assigned individual English composition activities. The teacher presented various topics related to the class materials and students chose their favourite topics to write about in English. The class then read the compositions that the teacher singled out for excellence.

3.4. Data Collection

During the 8th and 15th weeks of the class, two English composition evaluations investigated the effect of media literacy-based activities on students' writing proficiency. The first evaluation asked students to use English writing to introduce a favourite character from the Marvel franchise, DC Comics, the Potterverse, Twilight saga, or Disney animation. The second evaluation asked them to expand the universes of these franchises. The writing evaluation criteria scored language areas, compositional areas, and content areas. A questionnaire (refer to Appendix 1) explored the effect of media literacy-based activities on affective domains during the 1st and 15th weeks. The evaluations and the survey were conducted through Zoom in real time. Table 2 shows the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient. The questionnaire consisted of four categories with three items each and employed a five-point Likert scale. The numerical value of 5 meant "strongly agree," while 1 denoted "strongly disagree". The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the 12 questionnaire items was above .750, indicating that the items had adequate internal consistency.

Table 2. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient

Domain	Cronbach's alpha		Number of questions
	Pre-survey	Post-survey	
Anxiety	.878	.857	3
Interest	.874	.750	3
Confidence	.887	.847	3
Engagement	.851	.767	3

3.5. Data Analysis

The study analysed the data obtained with SPSS statistical software version 18. Paired sample t-tests were administered to examine whether there were significant mean score changes within each group. One-way ANOVA tests and Scheffe post-hoc tests were also performed to verify significant differences between groups.

4. Results & Discussion

4.1. Effects of Media Literacy-based Activities on Writing Proficiency

This study aimed to verify the effects of media literacy-based activities on students' writing skills. Two writing tests were conducted during the 8th and 15th weeks of the study and scored on a scale of 0-15. Paired sample t-tests determined the changes in writing skills in every group. Table 3 presents the results of the t-tests with descriptive data.

Table 3. Paired Sample t-Test on Writing Tests

Group	N	1st Test		2nd Test		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
A	52	10.71	1.46	13.60	1.12	-17.118***	.000
B	65	8.98	1.21	10.98	1.77	-.8.362***	.000
C	31	7.58	1.09	8.16	0.82	-2.816**	.009

** p <.01, *** p <.001

Table 3 reveals significant changes in the mean scores of students' writing skills within each group. Students in Group A significantly improved their writing skills. Their first test score (mean) was 10.71, while their second score was 13.60. Students in Group B also showed statistically significant mean score changes between the first and second tests, from 8.98 to 10.98. Likewise, students in Group C noticeably increased their writing scores from 7.58 on the first test to 8.16 on the second test. Thus, the three groups substantially improved their writing skills through the study's media literacy activities. Overall, media literacy-based activities positively affected students' writing skills, improving them for learners of all levels.

Table 4. One-Way ANOVA on Mean Differences in Writing Tests

Group	N	M	SD	F	P	Scheffe
A	52	2.89	1.22			
B	65	2.00	1.93	21.187***	.000	C<B<A
C	31	0.58	1.15			

*** $p < .001$

The researcher conducted one-way ANOVA with the group as an independent variable and the two tests' score changes as a dependent variable to verify which group exhibited the most change in writing skills. Groups A, B, and C exhibited a 2.89, 2.00, and .58 mean score change between the first and second tests, respectively. One-way ANOVA results showed statistically significant group differences (F=21.187, p=.000) and notable group disparities in mean score changes. In other words, participants benefitted differently from the activities. Thus, the researcher ran Scheffe post-hoc testing to investigate which groups significantly differed. The post-hoc test results revealed that Group A had the largest improvement in writing skills, followed by Group B, and then Group C with the smallest improvement. Therefore, the higher the linguistic ability, the more the media literacy-based activities positively impacted learners' writing ability.

In sum, the study's media literacy-based writing activities played a positive role in improving learners' writing skills across all language levels. This finding supports previous studies (Bilotserkovets et al., 2021; Black, 2009; Dvorghets & Shaturnaya, 2015) suggesting that activities based on media literacy have positive effects on English language ability. Activities such as analysing media (Dvorghets & Shaturnaya, 2015), producing social media content (Bilotserkovets et al., 2021), and writing fan fiction (Black, 2009) were effective in increasing English proficiency. The scope of currently available media is wide, and there are various ways to apply the media literacy perspective in the classroom. Depending on teachers' goals for learning, the media literacy-based methods will vary, but the effects have been shown to be positive overall.

Media literacy-based writing activities were especially effective for learners with higher proficiency. This result coincides with the view that writing in a foreign language involves knowledge of linguistic patterns, vocabulary choices, and syntactic patterns (Hyland, 2019). That is, the more linguistic knowledge learners have, the more likely they are to have competent writing skills. Crucially, though, learners with lower language skills also showed improvements in writing skills. The students performed different activities, including watching the teacher's videos, engaging in group discussions, delivering individual presentations, and writing. Media literacy—the ability to access media, evaluate information, and create a voice through media—underpinned each activity. Students received content by watching media and researched collaboratively through group activities. Furthermore, they expressed and shared their thoughts through

individual presentations and writing assignments. These activities developed learners' writing skills, regardless of proficiency levels. These findings demonstrate that even learners with lower language skills can improve their writing skills through media literacy-based activities.

4.2. Effects of Media Literacy-based Activities on Affective Domains

This study administered surveys at the beginning and end of the experiment to investigate students' affective writing circumstances. Twelve questionnaire items related to anxiety, interest, confidence, and engagement were employed on a five-point Likert scale. Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA were used to compare students' attitudes toward writing in English.

Table 5. One-Way ANOVA on Affective Domains in Pre-survey

Domain	Group	N	M	SD	F	p	Scheffe
Anxiety	A	52	11.88	2.39	0.549	.579	-
	B	65	12.09	1.84			
	C	31	12.35	1.45			
Interest	A	52	5.81	1.86	1.439	.241	-
	B	65	5.26	1.87			
	C	31	5.52	1.06			
Confidence	A	52	8.88	2.43	42.961***	.000	C<A, B
	B	65	9.20	1.95			
	C	31	5.32	1.14			
Engagement	A	52	10.83	2.12	4.633*	.011	C<A
	B	65	10.08	1.45			
	C	31	9.77	1.23			

*p <.05, *** p <.001

Table 5 presents the pre-survey descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA results regarding affective domains. Group A scored 11.88, Group B 12.09, and Group C 12.35 in the area of anxiety. The group differences in this area were not statistically notable. Regardless of their language levels, learners revealed high levels of anxiety toward writing in English. Despite Group A's higher proficiency level, they had similar anxiety levels to the other groups. Groups A, B, and C scored 5.81, 5.26, and 5.52 in the level of interest, revealing slight variation among the groups. Students at all levels displayed low interest in writing in English and high levels of anxiety. In contrast, the three groups differed significantly in their confidence levels (F=42.961, p=.000). Group A's mean score was 8.88, while Group B's was 9.92. Group C was less confident in writing than the other groups, with a mean score of 5.32. It is possible to assume that Group C students had low linguistic proficiency, resulting in low confidence in writing. Finally, Group A had a mean score of 10.83 regarding engagement, while Group B scored 10.08 and

Group C scored 9.77. Group A differed notably from Group C by exhibiting a much higher engagement level.

The pre-survey results are notable in two ways. First, learners' high anxiety and low interest in writing must be addressed. Waninge, Dörnyei, and De Bot (2014) stated that motivation for L2 development is not a stable individual difference factor. Instead, process-oriented models and a growing understanding of how complex dynamic systems work influence it. In other words, motivation is a changeable factor. Cho and Chung (2014) have argued that teaching methods are the main factor in demotivation. Thus, teaching methods can affect motivation shifts in language learning. Teachers must devise ways to relieve learners' anxiety and enhance their interest in writing to spark their motivation. Second, Group C's low confidence and engagement in writing confirms Brown and Lee's (2015) assertion that there is a correlation between learners' confidence in a foreign language and their achievement. Thus, it is necessary to implement activities that will encourage learners with low proficiency not to give up writing in English.

Table 6. One-Way ANOVA on Affective Domains in Post-survey

Domain	Group	N	M	SD	F	p	Scheffe
Anxiety	A	52	8.88	1.79	19.748***	.000	A<B, C
	B	65	10.82	1.85			
	C	31	10.84	1.66			
Interest	A	52	11.54	2.39	1.835	.163	-
	B	65	10.82	1.69			
	C	31	11.00	2.16			
Confidence	A	52	10.71	1.86	98.629***	.000	C<A, B
	B	65	10.85	2.14			
	C	31	5.48	1.12			
Engagement	A	52	13.21	1.73	.988	.375	-
	B	65	12.74	2.19			
	C	31	12.74	1.75			

*** $p < .001$

The post-survey on affective domains was conducted at the end of the experiment. Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA results of the post-survey. There were no significant differences between the groups regarding interest and engagement; however, such differences were found in the anxiety and confidence domains. Group A's mean score of 8.88 demonstrated lower anxiety than the other groups, while Group C's confidence remained the lowest, with a mean score of 5.48.

Table 7. Paired Sample t-Test on Affective Domains

Domain	Group	N	Pre-test		Post-test		t	p
			M	SD	M	SD		
Anxiety	A	52	11.88	2.39	8.88	1.79	9.810***	.000
	B	65	12.09	1.84	10.82	1.85	4.165***	.000
	C	31	12.35	1.45	10.84	1.65	3.430**	.002
Interest	A	52	5.81	1.86	11.54	2.39	-14.500***	.000
	B	65	5.26	1.87	10.82	1.69	-17.115***	.000
	C	31	5.52	1.06	11	2.16	-11.231***	.000
Confidence	A	52	8.88	2.43	10.71	1.86	-4.976***	.000
	B	65	9.20	1.95	10.85	2.14	-5.091***	.000
	C	31	5.32	1.14	5.48	1.12	-1.718	.096
Engagement	A	52	10.83	2.12	13.21	1.73	-.7.793***	.000
	B	65	10.08	1.45	12.74	2.19	-10.475***	.000
	C	31	9.77	1.23	12.74	1.75	-9.489***	.000

**p < .01, *** p < .001

Paired sample t-tests were used to verify the changes within each group. Table 7 shows the effects of media literacy-based activities on affective domains in EFL writing. Group A changed its anxiety score significantly from 11.88 on the pre-survey to 8.88 on the post-survey (t=9.180, p=.000); in other words, Group A's anxiety decreased. Likewise, Group B and Group C decreased their scores from 12.09 to 10.82, and 12.35 to 10.84, respectively. The three groups significantly improved their interest in writing: Group A increased its score from 5.81 to 11.54, Group B from 5.26 to 10.82, and Group C from 5.52 to 11. The extent of the score changes was remarkable. All three groups displayed significant mean score changes in their engagement levels. Group A increased from 10.83 to 13.21 (t=-7.793, p=.000), Group B from 10.08 to 12.74 (t=-10.475, p=.000), and Group C from 9.77 to 12.74 (t=-9.489, p=.000). Significant improvements were also found in the confidence domain for Groups A and B. Group A's pre-survey score was 8.88, while their post-survey score was 10.71. Group B also exhibited notable mean score changes between the pre- and post-surveys (t= -5.091, p=.000). However, Group C showed no significant change. Although its score changed from 5.32 to 5.46, the difference was not meaningful. In sum, the study's media literacy activities positively impacted students' affective domains, except for Group C's confidence domain.

Table 8. One-Way ANOVA on Mean Differences in the Affective Domains

Domain	Group	N	M	SD	F	p	Scheffe
Anxiety	A	52	-3.00	2.21	8.177	.000***	B,C<A
	B	65	-1.28	2.47			
	C	31	-1.52	2.46			
Interest	A	52	5.73	2.85	.098	.907	
	B	65	5.55	2.62			
	C	31	5.48	2.72			
Confidence	A	52	1.83	2.65	5.523	.005**	C<B,A
	B	65	1.65	2.61			
	C	31	.16	0.52			
Engagement	A	52	2.38	2.21	.803	.450	
	B	65	2.66	2.05			
	C	31	2.97	1.74			

**p <.01, *** p <.001

One-way ANOVA and post-hoc tests were then performed with the survey score changes as a dependent variable to examine which group demonstrated the greatest changes in the affective domains. Table 8 shows the descriptive data and the results of one-way ANOVA. There were no major group differences in the interest and engagement domains. The paired sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA results demonstrate how well the media literacy-based activities increased students' interest and engagement in writing. That is, these activities positively impacted learners' interest level and writing, regardless of language level. Tables 7 and 8 present statistically significant changes regarding anxiety within each group. Group A decreased its anxiety score more than the other groups (F=8.177, p=000). At the same time, Group A and Group B showed considerably greater improvement in confidence than Group C.

Although Group C showed positive changes in anxiety, interest, and engagement levels, as well as an improvement in writing test scores, there was little change in their confidence. Hyland (2019) has claimed that students often report an inadequate grasp of vocabulary and grammar, and frequently express frustration at their inability to convey their thoughts effectively. Hyland's (2019) argument suggests that Group C's students were aware of their lack of linguistic proficiency, which adversely affected their English writing confidence. Providing a glossary for the writing topic in advance would help students to write in these cases. Moreover, teachers should encourage students during group discussions to identify sentences and patterns they want to use when writing. As Pifarré and Fisher (2011) have claimed, moving from a few words to extended and more complex prose supports students. When they are encouraged to witness their

development process, their confidence is boosted. Therefore, providing regular feedback to learners helps them recognise their improvement in writing.

5. Conclusion

Today, college students are digital natives who are familiar with various forms of media. With the aid of diverse media platforms, students may engage in multimodal practice with feedback, practise writing with large amounts of available language data, and produce higher quality essays (Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016; Elola & Oskoz, 2017). The present study proposes wielding media literacy to improve writing in EFL classrooms.

The study's experiment featured 148 college students from South Korea placed into upper proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and lower proficiency groups. The teacher made video clips to teach the students, who collaborated through group discussions, expressed their ideas through individual presentations, and practised their writing skills. All three groups showed significant improvement in writing, regardless of proficiency levels; however, the degree of improvement was proportional to their language skills. Through the study's two surveys, the three groups demonstrated positive changes in the domains of anxiety, interest, and engagement. However, the lower proficiency group's confidence level did not change noticeably. These results show that media literacy-based activities changed students' writing proficiency and affective attitudes toward writing. Moreover, additional help in writing for lower proficiency students is necessary.

This study has some limitations. First, to replicate the study's conditions, teachers would be required to spend significant time and effort preparing pop culture-oriented classes. Since the study's researcher (and teacher) is already a fan of pop culture, she was able to produce a variety of up-to-date material. For teachers who might not be interested in the study's teaching topics, preparing the lessons could be difficult. Second, all participants had majors related to the college of humanities or the college of social sciences. Thus, participants did not find the topics or activities covered in class to be unusually challenging. It is impossible to know whether the subjects and activities covered in the experiment would be positively accepted by students from other majors.

Media-based class activities must be developed for media-literate students who express themselves and understand the world through media. Teachers must shift from "educators' traditional perceptions of literacy as an autonomous set of skills to be mastered to a view of literacies as a range of social practices affected by social factors" (Schwartz & Rubinstein-Ávila, 2006, p. 42). Writing lessons that reflect learners' unique characteristics must continue to be developed.

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Appendix 1. Survey Questions

1. I feel nervous when I write in English.
2. I get nervous when I write in English.
3. I am worried when I write in English.
4. English writing activities are fun for me.
5. I am interested in English writing activities.
6. I am looking forward to English writing activities.
7. I am confident in writing English.
8. I can write what I want to say in English.
9. I think I am good at writing sentences in English.
10. I try to write in English.
11. I want to be good at writing in English.
12. I actively participate in English writing activities.