

Learning Vocabulary from Subtitled Videos:
An investigation into the effectiveness of using
subtitled videos for intentional vocabulary
learning in Saudi Arabia with an exploration of
learners' perspective

Author Name: Ghadah Saleh Aloqaili
University of Southampton

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Abstract:

This study investigates the effectiveness of intentional vocabulary learning from videos with reference to three types of subtitles, Arabic, English and dual subtitles (Arabic and English together). It explores learners' attitudes towards video-based learning materials, drawing on the opinions of forty-eight secondary students aged 17 years old, who took part in the study. The participants were divided into four groups; one being a control group and the other three constituting the experimental groups. Each experimental group was exposed to a seven minutes video clip with different subtitle types. Group A watched with interlingual subtitles (Arabic), group B watched with intralingual subtitles (English), and group D watched dual subtitles (Arabic and English). The participants in the experimental groups were explicitly instructed to focus on subtitles to learn the ten target words and to assess the effect of intentional learning. The control group was also exposed to subtitles without video and was not instructed to pay attention to acquiring specific words. A Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) was used as a pre- and post-test to assess the effect of the subtitles. The finding showed that participants in all four groups improved significantly in the post-test, but that there was a highly significant difference between the learners in the experimental groups and the control groups. No significant difference was found between the three experimental groups. The presence of subtitles with Intentional vocabulary learning, as opposed to incidental learning was thought to be crucial to the three experimental groups' positive results, whereas the audio-visual materials used in the study was believed to facilitate vocabulary learning among all four groups. The data collected from the questionnaire surveys showed participants have positive attitudes toward learning from subtitled videos, both inside and outside schools' boundaries. The study suggested that subtitled videos can be used as an effective learning tool in the second language classroom.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Audio-visual materials in the contemporary language classes:

In reporting a training session targeted languages teachers in *Using Film To Teach Language* in February 2010, Chan and Herrero (2010) wrote:

"To prepare students for the challenges presented by our globalised, networked, culturally diverse world, educators should put into practice strategies and activities that underpin the new media literacies involved in accessing, analyzing, interpreting, understanding and creating visual messages in a multimedia environment. Therefore these experiences with technology need to be recognised by language teachers as valuable and powerful learning tools that should be incorporated into school-based practices.

Due to the increasing importance of visual and media images, films have a great potential in the language classroom, as they bring 'together a large variety of modes' (Kress, 2010: 30). Films are rich multimodal texts containing linguistic meaning, but they also contain other modes that are sometimes more difficult to illustrate or provide in the standard language lesson, such as the gestural component. Films are perfect vehicles for introducing students to different types of popular culture and engaging them with critical questions about the relationship between information and power, through the critical analysis of socio- political issues and intercultural relationships" (p.11)

The above words reflect the technological, communicational, cultural and linguistic moves that the new generation experience today and demonstrate the demand for remapping the instructional mediums to parallel these changes. Despite the conservative view in using "digital natives", "Generation Y" or "Net Generation" in the educational discourse, the fact is that technological devices and internet-based communication surrounded contemporary age learners which is in turn at uneven degree affect their communicational and literacy practices outside the classroom environment.

With such moves, using audio-visual materials, such as films, online news, movies or other kinds of videotexts, is reinforced with the pervasive of multimodal texts and the introducing of genuine use of the target language which may allow for more engagement of learners

interest, practices and activities outside the school. Additionally, the ubiquitous accessibility of such texts makes films a promising learning source for self-directed learning. Cross (2011, 44) pointed out that " Advances in satellite, digital video and broadband technology mean that news videotext services are readily available to viewers across the globe. L2 users form a large part of the world-wide audience, with news videotexts providing them with an authentic sociocultural, linguistic and educational resource which can be exploited for language learning inside and outside the classroom. " However, this research investigates the effectiveness of using authentic films for improving language learner linguistic abilities specifically the effect of watching subtitled video texts on vocabulary acquisition in one of Saudi classrooms and, also, explores learners' attitudes towards learning English via watching subtitled video inside and outside the classroom.

1.2. Context of the study:

1.2.1. Saudi learners accessing social networks and using digital devices outside of the school environment:

Saudi learners outside of the classroom environment can be classified as digital natives due to their extensive consumption, both receptively and productively, of digital texts through digital devices such as iPads and iPhones. These mobile digital devices facilitate constant access to screen-based text, allowing one to read, write, design and interpret through blogging and engaging with social media sites such as Facebook, YouTube and Twitter. Black (2013), in a report for The Independent newspaper about Saudi citizens' consumption of social media sites said that Saudi Arabia "boasts world's highest use of sites per capita". This is further evidenced by statistical information provided by the BBC Arabic website (2013), showing that Saudi Twitter users represent the highest percentage growth, internationally, of the total number of active Twitter accounts.

However, as the scope of this research relates to the use of video content in the classroom context, the focus of discussion will be on social networks that offer video-based communication. In this arena, the most popular website offering video services is YouTube. YouTube is a video sharing service that allows for distribution, sharing and accessing of a wide range of video clips. Regarding the contribution made by YouTube to second language learning, Nejati points out that YouTube is an "unlimited resource for language acquisition/learning," and further points out that one can "listen to all kinds of spoken

language (formal, neutral, informal) and genres (songs, parodies, debates, political speeches, talk shows, lectures) and learn a lot of vocabulary in context, which, without a doubt, will help memorisation” (2010: 91-92). YouTube is another social network showing a recent growth in consumption among Saudi youth, according to the BBC Arabic website. However, YouTube remains relatively unused in the classroom context, as Alwehaibi (2013) claims, “In Saudi Arabia, this technology has not been exploited much for educational purposes” (p.937)

1.2.2. Using technology in Saudi classrooms:

In this section, an overview of teaching English in Saudi classroom will be provided. The focus of the discussion will be English classrooms in primary, intermediate and secondary education. Teaching English in Saudi classroom tends to be traditional; that is, it is more teacher-centred rather than learner-centred, as teachers hold the position of power, seen as the knowledge interpreter and content transformer. Additionally, the material that is used tends to be made up of text-based materials rather than screen-based ones (Al-Seghayer, 2011). In Saudi English classroom, teachers therefore depend heavily on the textbook as a medium for instruction, and the use of technology to enhance learning has not yet been profoundly exploited (Khan, 2011). This observation can be attributed to two factors; one the one hand, Saudi teachers are in charge of teaching the English curricula within a specific period of time, which provides little opportunity to incorporate extra teaching aids, such as technology, particularly in light of their very busy schedule they have. According to Badawi (2005), workload and time constraints both impede on teachers likelihood of developing extra materials and using technology in classroom sessions. On the other hand, Saudi teachers also lack the academic knowledge and appropriate training programmes that would enable them to deploy technology and digital devices in their teaching practices (Al-Seghayer, 2011).

1.3. Research questions:

This research aims to answer the following questions:

- I. What is the effect of watching videos with Arabic, English and dual (Arabic and English) subtitles on incidental and intentional vocabulary acquisition for Saudi secondary level students?

This question aims to explore the subtitles' effect on intentional vocabulary learning and determine which subtitle type that is most conducive to vocabulary learning among Saudi learners.

- II. What are Saudi secondary level students' attitudes towards watching subtitled videos as a learning tool?

This question aims to elucidate the following points:

- Whether subtitled video is an interesting learning tool.
- Whether watching subtitled video is an effective and easy learning strategy.
- Whether subtitled video is an appropriate resource for independent learning.
- The preferred subtitled mode among learners.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction:

Theoretical basis for using audio-visual materials in the language teaching and learning context:

This chapter will review some language theories and pedagogical perspectives that underpin the use of audio-visual material such as films, movies and video clips in the language teaching and learning context. First, the pedagogical value of using audio-visual materials for vocabulary learning will be discussed with highlighting the visual dimension in audio-visual materials and the importance of vocabulary in language learning. Second, the perspective of ‘new literacy’ will be discussed, with a focus on current emphasis on the multimodality of text. Third, this chapter, also, will highlight the importance of exposure to video materials as a source of input, focusing on intentional and incidental learning issues. Fourth, the appropriateness of subtitled video for independent learning will be discussed. Finally, it will discuss the role played by subtitles when watching subtitled video in language learning generally and vocabulary acquisition specifically, with some review of relevant studies.

2.2. The pedagogical value of audio-visual materials for vocabulary learning:

2.2.1. The visual dimension of video:

The potential effectiveness of visual clues in the learning environment is documented in several scientific theories and educational perspectives (Miller, 2012). In relation to vocabulary learning specifically, visual representations encourage learning, as emphasised by Smith (1997) and Miller (2012), who assert the positive effect on vocabulary learning that is achieved when students are able to represent new words visually.

The argument for the significance of the visual factor of using video in language learning in general, and vocabulary acquisition in particular, can be presented in two ways. First, the use of audio-visual materials in the classroom as an educational tool represents the ‘pictorial turn’ witnessed in the new era (Felten, 2008; Walker & White, 2013). The use of video in the classroom context is underpinned by the current pedagogical trend aiming toward greater engagement with learners’ culture and practices outside of the school environment. It can be

argued that use of video meets learners' expectations, as they live in a highly visual environment (Callow, 2005). Also arguing for visual literacy, Felten (2008) points out that the role of images in the contemporary world has gone beyond an illustrative role, becoming central in communication and meaning making. As a result of the advancement and spread of digital technology, societies are now overwhelmed with visual components found in materials such as films, television and, more recently, new emergent websites and applications consisting of millions of images, such as Flickr and Instagram. This visual explosion has become the foundation of the visual literacy perspective, which argues that learners must be equipped with visual literacy skills. Visual literacy "involves the ability to understand, produce, and use culturally significant images, objects and visual actions" (Felten, 2008: 60). The skills and practices required for this new literacy generally, and visual literacy in particular, will be detailed in the next chapter.

Second, the visual input of videos offers rich contextualisation cues that assist language learners' overall comprehension. That is, in authentic video, where second language speech is delivered naturally, occasionally at high speed, with the overlapping of various accents, and often tending to be naturally ephemeral, the visual cues either in still or kinesthetic form, such as eye contact, facial expression, body language or actions and movement offered by characters are found to be factors that support learners in listening to comprehend the video content. A study conducted by Secules and Tomasello (1992) documents the effectiveness of visual cues empirically, where the researchers compared video-based instruction with traditional approaches that mainly focus on exercises and drills for university English speakers learning French. Their findings show that the video-based instruction group outperformed the traditional approach group across comprehension tasks.

In relation to the combination of visual and audio channels in video materials, visual components are found to participate in conveying the intended message, not to impede understanding or distract attention. According to the dual-coding theory of Paivio (1971), verbal information, such as the audio track, and written text in the case of subtitles, as well as non-verbal information, such as images and actions within the video, are sorted separately in the receiver brain, but are linked by referential connection, which connects the two systems in a complex associative network (Clark & Paivio, 1991). Therefore, when learning a word that

has more than one mode, the word will be coded dually, which may facilitate a successful retention of the word. A study by Johns and Plass (2002) compares two treatments of listening comprehension among English speakers learning French: listening to audio with and without visual support. The findings of this study indicate that participants who have access to images while listening outscore those who do not in vocabulary retention. In relation to visuals through video, a study by Brett (1997) compares the effect of text accompanied by audio with text conveyed with video, in which audio and visual elements are available to learners, on the comprehension of advanced English language learners. Learners in the group with video treatment scored higher than those who listened without visual support, although there was no statistical significance, which means that the finding cannot necessarily be confirmed as more than a confidence (Dörnyei, 2007).

Additionally, high semantic match between the audio and visual channels in the video materials was found to be an effective factor in comprehension and vocabulary retention (Bianchi & Ciabattini 2008, Cross 2009, Okey 2007, and Brosius et al 1996). In other words, the potential effectiveness of audio-visual materials increases when the verbal message either in the auditory form or textual form, such as in the case of subtitles, is consistent with the visual display in the form of kinesthetic or actions. This was approved empirically in some studies. For instance, Brosius, Donsbach, and Birk(1996), investigate the effectiveness of three conditions of audio-visual materials on learners comprehension and information recall. These three conditions were; audio content only, audio-visual where the two channels information are corresponded, and finally, audio-visual materials where the two channels are divergent. The findings approved the facilitative role played with the correspondence between the audio and visual elements in the videotext as the subjects in the audio-visual correspondence group showed highest percentage of information uptake. More recently, Bianchi & Ciabattini (2008), investigated the effect of two films on second language learners' comprehension and vocabulary recall. The two films were Harry Potter where there is a semantic match between the visual and auditory and Fantasia where the visual dimension was not crucial in understanding the videotext. The researchers found that the great semantic match between the audio and visual content in Harry Potter film offered significant support to participant comprehension and vocabulary retention.

2.2.2. The importance of vocabulary in language learning:

The area of vocabulary learning is giving significant attention within second language teaching discourse. Vocabulary plays a fundamental role in language learning, as is indicated in the commonly cited quote, “without grammar little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins, 1972: 11). For a long time, the emphasis in second language classrooms was on teaching grammar, whereas vocabulary was neglected. However, there has been increased emphasis on the need to equip learners with adequate lexical tools to facilitate their performance of receptive (reading and listening) and productive skills (speaking and writing) (Schmitt, 2008). For example, in terms of receptive skills, without sufficient vocabulary knowledge, learners may face difficulties in reading comprehension (Laufer 1998; Coady et al., 1993). Additionally, with regard to productive skills, without a satisfactory vocabulary repertoire, learners may be unable to perform communicative tasks where they have to speak in the language in an interaction. Furthermore, a correlation has been identified between vocabulary size and writing quality (Astika, 1993; Laufer & Nation, 1995). Ellis (2012) also points out that, for beginner learners with a low proficiency level, input-based tasks where learners are exposed to and learn vocabulary and other linguistic features are more beneficial than output-based tasks.

Moreover, the importance of vocabulary learning is underpinned by the lexical approach to vocabulary learning, as proposed by Lewis (1993). In this approach, Lewis argues that second language learners must learn to identify frequent lexical chunks of language when they are exposed to authentic second language input. Lewis’ view is derived from what is perceived to be the fundamental role played by vocabulary, as encapsulated in the quote, “grammaticalised lexis not lexicalised grammar”. Here Lewis argues that mastering a language requires not only a knowledge of grammar and isolated vocabulary, but also competence in “multi-word prefabricated chunks” (1997:3). The lexical approach helps learners to acquire a rich and diverse vocabulary, which may lead to fluent and accurate production of sentences (Boers et al., 2006). However, it can be argued that films and movies are also rich resources for chunk expressions of language due to introducing authentic use of language.

2.2.2.1. *What is meant by ‘knowing’ a word?*

According to vocabulary acquisition literature, ‘knowing’ a word implies more than just meaning identification and form familiarity (Johnson & Pearson, 1984; Nagy & Scott, 2000, Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). The nature of word knowledge can be described as multifaceted,

multi-dimensional, incremental and having a receptive/productive duality. That is, word knowledge is gained incrementally, as each encounter with a word contributes to the depth of knowledge of the multi-dimensional aspects of the word. For example, often one can understand or recognise a word encountered in speech or in written text, but are unable to use it in our own production of the language (Schmitt, 2001). This situation indicates that word knowledge has various dimensions; understanding and recognising a word when reading or listening to spoken language is known as ‘receptive knowledge’, whereas being able to use a word in discourse is ‘productive knowledge’. Different aspects of the word knowledge have been identified (Schmitt, 2001), including:

- The meaning(s) of the word
- The written form of the word
- The spoken form of the word
- The grammatical behaviour of the word
- The collocations of the word
- The register of the word
- The associations of the word
- The frequency of the word

Richard (1976), adds further dimensions, such as:

- The limitations of use of the word
- The place of the word in a network of association

An understanding of most of the above aspects of words is required by learners in order for them be competent with the use of a word across a wide range of language use situations. It is worth noting that different types of word knowledge are not necessarily acquired simultaneously. That is, often, a learner may know the pronunciation of a word but is unable to spell it correctly. This, again, reinforces the incremental nature of word knowledge, as types of word knowledge are acquired gradually, at variable rates. However, the test used in this study does not cover all of the aforementioned aspects of vocabulary knowledge. The focus of this study is uncovering participants’ knowledge of the syntactic behaviour of a word, as well as their knowledge of the meanings of words. Participants’ knowledge of the

meanings of words can be indicated either by a synonym or the Arabic equivalent, due to an acceptance of the claim made by Ellis (1997:133) that "...the acquisition of L2 words usually involves a mapping of the new word from onto pre-existing conceptual meanings or onto L1 translation equivalents as approximation".

2.3. Multimodal literacy:

2.3.1. New literacy in contemporary times:

In our technological era, contemporary societies have been repetitively portrayed and described as global, wired, networked, diverted, flexible and fluid (Jewitt, 2008 and Castells, 2001). However, these descriptive terms demonstrate both social shifts and technological developments. These developmental changes have significantly generated and reconfigured the communicational patterns in the 21st century (Jewitt, 2008). The essential issue of this reconfiguration pertinent to this study is the elaboration of communication from a unique communicational mode to now involving a wide range of modes, such as sound, image, movement and action. This new representation of the communicational landscape has expanded profoundly to involve ubiquitous aspects of everyday life and various social institutions, including schools, although this has occurred to an uneven degree. In the school context, one of the recent changes is the emergence of a new perception of literacy in light of the new conditions outlined so far.

For several decades, the term ‘literacy’ has been attributed to the capacity for oral and written decoding in reading and writing in the traditional sense. However, in the present day, being ‘literate’ is no longer restricted to just reading and writing abilities. The word literacy is now pluralised and multiplied; the term ‘literacies’ is now used in present educational and scholastic discourses, which in turn underlines the new perceptions of available meaning making tools (Rowse & Walsh, 2011; Jewitt, 2008). The pluralised version of literacy signals the wide range of possibilities of literacy models that can be adapted, reformed and reconfigured in accordance with different contexts, people’s ideologies in certain contexts and different textual genres. Some literacy practices are therefore described as ‘new’ today to reflect new approaches, theories and identities that contribute to meaning creation. Furthermore, new approaches perceive literacy practices to be socially embedded, as they consider students’ out-of school practices, either at home or in communities (Marsh, 2003; Sefton-Green, 2006). Rowse and Walsh (2011) have identified further new perspectives on the meaning of literacy elicited from scholarly works considering literacy within educational boundaries. These new views and beliefs can be characterised as:

- A reduced emphasis on cognitive development, instead focusing on cultural practices.
- Extension of educational work to involve the home and community.
- Examination of the relationship between literacy and the identities of those achieving.
- Greater emphasis on screen textual structure as opposed to book textual structure.

- Expansion of literal abilities from print logic, reading and writing, to screen logic, such as designing, redesigning and remixing.

In the field of new literacy studies, the New London Group (1996), a group of educators and researchers, has introduced multiliteracies to educational discourses. The emergence of this new type of literacy was a response to social and communicational changes in contemporary societies. The multiliteracies model demonstrates two interrelated changes in communicational patterns in the current century. These changes are embedded, first, in the diversity of cultural and linguistic components of societies and, second, non-linguistic representations of text, with the inclusion of more mode or multimodal meaning representation. Therefore, the multiliteracies perspective goes beyond mastering reading and writing abilities, to involve the multiple cultural and linguistic forms of literacy that reflect the global world, local communities and the multimodal design of communicational multimedia technological texts. Therefore, according to multiliteracies pedagogy proposed by the New London Group discussions, being ‘multiliterate’ refers to the ability to deal with and interpret not only paper-based text, but also computer-based or digital text, where different modes are combined (Chan & Herrero, 2010). Overall, multiliteracies remap the boundaries between in-school and out-of-school student practices and generally can be perceived and characterised as “effective critical engagement with student values, identities, power and design” (Jewitt, 2008: 245). However, new literacy studies are concerned not only with the plural nature of the new pedagogical literacy, but also with the multiple modes available for use in the new communicational landscape. This observation will constitute the pivotal discussion point for the following section.

2.3.2. Multimodal literacy:

Multimodal literacy is “meaning-making that occurs at different levels through reading, viewing, understanding, responding to, producing and interacting with multimedia and digital texts” (Walsh, 2010: 213). The introduction of multimodality in literacy practices was, on the one hand, to reflect the linguistic and cultural changes of modern societies, and the technological developments that reshape communicational representation among social groups on the other. Literacy is no longer viewed as solely the decoding and encoding of linguistic elements, or as only related to print format; Kress (2003) emphasises these themes in the following words:

“It is no longer possible to think about literacy in isolation from a vast array of social, technological and economic factors. Two distinct yet related factors deserve to be particularly highlighted. These are, on the one hand, the broad move from the now centuries long dominance of writing to the new dominance of the image and, on the other hand, the move from the dominance of the medium of the book to the dominance of the medium of the screen. These two together are producing a revolution in the uses and effects of literacy and of associated means for representing and communicating at every level and in every domain” (2003: 1)

In a recent multimodal theory, Kress (2003) challenges the dominance of writing as a communicational mode in traditional texts, and argues for acknowledging the contribution of other modes in the current digital and technological era. In a multimodal text, ‘modes’ refer to “regularized sets of resources for meaning making” (Walsh & Rowsell, 2011: 55). According to multimodal theory (Kress, 2003), meaning, in multimodal text, is established through various communicational modes in which language is but one source. That is, action, movement, sound, image, words, animation, gestures, body language, space, and so on, all form resources for meaning-making, and appear either in isolation or in combination, such as audio-visual materials, within a text.

Two basic themes inform the argument for multimodal literacy; the first is the effect of technological development on decoding and encoding on-screen texts, compared with traditional print-based text; second, social changes in literacy practices as a result of the development of Web 2.0 technology expanding the use of social media as a means of communication.

2.3.2.1. Approaching digital texts:

With regard to processing of on-screen text, reading and writing skills are utilised differently in relation to multimodal digital and visual texts than they are for printed text. Reading strategies for on-screen text will be the focus of discussion in this section, due to its relevance to the current research. For print-based text, reading is done in a linear and sequential way, with left-to-right text processing (Leu, 2000; Lankshear & Knobel, 2003). However, for digitalised texts with multimodal meaning representation, interacting with the texts entails the simultaneous processing of various modes, such as sound, image, text and gestures (Kress

2003). The multimodal theory perspective on on-screen text reading is supported empirically by a study carried out by Bearne *et al.* (2006), conducted in conjunction with the United Kingdom Literacy Association. Their study shows that students interacting with on-screen digital texts demonstrate ‘radial browsing’, in which synchronous processing of different modes occurs. Their findings proved that students are able to process sounds, images, linguistic symbols, animations and music in order to access the information contained within the text. On this point, Gee (2003) claims that students in the contemporary age show rapid adaptation to the navigation and multiple processing of different modes, and that this is apparent in their consumption of digital products such as the iPad or iPad. Kress further points out that film provides “a large variety of modes” (2010: 30); thus, the use of video and films in a classroom context offers a valuable resource for recreating the multimodality environment that learners are exposed to outside of the classroom.

2.3.2.2. The wide diffusion of social networks:

The second argument supporting the theory of multimodal literacy relates to changes in social literacy practices. These changes are apparent in the acceleration of growth in the popularity and mobility of social networking sites such as Facebook, YouTube, Twitter and others. These social communication networks enable various online communicational processes, such as ‘wikis’ and ‘blogs’, and the diverse involvement of people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, an appropriate theory of literacy education should move beyond simply the decoding and encoding of literacy practices to acknowledge the practices, beliefs and activities of students within their social communities. Therefore, the second language teacher must equip learners with appropriate practices and strategies, such as the ability to access, evaluate, interpret and analyse visual text in a globalised, culturally diverse world.

2.4. Input in regard to subtitled video and Intentional and Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

2.4.1. Input significance in language learning:

Input plays a significant role in second language learning; the importance of input in second language acquisition studies is related to its role in first language acquisition in the very early years of childhood, where children with relatively poor cognitive and physical abilities are able to master a significant amount of their native language items solely through input exposure via their caregivers (Johnson, 2008). Therefore, some second language acquisition perspectives and theories are based on the ultimate necessity of input exposure for acquisition, for example Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982). From a pedagogical perspective, input has gained significance in the field of second language instruction; Ellis (2012) emphasises the importance of input-based instruction over output-based instruction for beginner learners of a language who have a low level of proficiency. Low proficiency learners, in terms of limited semantic and syntactic knowledge, may not be able to successfully perform certain tasks that conducive to language production. Therefore, learners should receive adequate exposure to second language input, particularly foreign language learners who have limited interaction with native speakers or more competent users of the target language.

It can be argued that video materials constitute rich and sufficient input for second language learners. Furthermore, the oral format of the input obtained from audio-visual materials such as video clips and films may be more effective than input from a written format, such as printed materials, for different reasons. First, oral input offers more contextualisation cues, which help learners to infer the meaning of unknown vocabulary via interactions, or by observing the interaction between two interlocutors, as is the case in certain films. Oral input is more effective at offering contextual cues than written input, through gestures, intonation and body language. Nagy and Herman confirm this view, stating that:

“Written context will, therefore, generally not be as rich or helpful as oral context in providing information about the meanings of new words” (1987: 24).

Second, learning with the help of video materials may contribute positively to the emotional aspect of learners and hence motivate them to learn. However, learners’ feelings and emotions

play significant role in second language learning as Krashen (1982) proposed in Affective Filter Hypothesis. According to Krashen (1982), the affective filter behaves as the barriers between second language input and acquisition in which learner can benefit from the input. Three factors contribute to the affective filter; anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence. That is, when learner with low-anxiety level will have low affective filter which consequently results in getting the full advantage from second language input. In respect to the Audio-visual materials such as films may decrease learners' affective filter in two distinct ways (Tschirner, 2001). First, the audio-visual content of films and movies is interesting to learners, which may increase their motivation to learn, as some studies have indicated (Honan, 2008; Graham, 2009; Harrett & Benjamin, 2009). Also, watching movies and films in the classroom does not require learners to participate in online production of the language, as is often the case with interaction tasks, which in turn can reduce learners' anxiety (Tschirner, 2001).

However, the way second language learners process received input is a subject of debate. While some linguists, such as Krashen(1982), advocate incidental learning from input, which means exposing learners to input without directing them to pick out linguistic items specifically, other linguists, for example Schmidt(2001), argue that exposure to input alone is not sufficient, and that a degree of consciousness is required for learners to notice the input and hence convert it to become intake. According to Schmidt, “people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to” (2001: 30). Debate about this issue has resulted in a dichotomy, with two types of learning and instruction advocated: incidental or implicit learning or instruction, and intentional or explicit learning or instruction. The two approaches will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4.2. Explicit versus Implicit Instruction:

Second language learning and instruction is categorised into two approaches: explicit and implicit. However, before embarking on a discussion explicit and implicit learning, and vocabulary instruction, it is necessary to first differentiate between the two approaches. According to the cognitive psychological view, implicit learning is described as “automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material” (Ellis, 1994:214), whereas explicit learning is “a conscious process of searching, building and testing of hypotheses and assimilating a rule following explicit instruction” (Hunt & Beglar, 2005:25).

In terms of pedagogical instruction, Doughty and William point out that "... Knowledge can be gained and represented either implicitly or explicitly and both contribute to learning" (1998: 232). However, explicit instruction aims to actively direct learner attention, whereas implicit teaching implies indirect attraction of learner attention, "while minimising any interruption to the communication of meaning" (Doughty & William 1998: 231). The choice to teach vocabulary implicitly or explicitly is a controversial issue, and has therefore attracted empirical research. The following discussion will analyse research that has investigated explicit and implicit instruction.

2.4.2.1. Incidental Vocabulary learning:

Research on second language learning has distinguished between two types of learning: incidental and intentional learning. Incidental learning implies that a learner is able to pick out L2 features, either lexical or grammatical, while attempting to understand the content of the message, without any deliberate intention towards such (Ellis, 1994). The effectiveness of incidental learning through exposure to either written or oral input has been investigated in several studies. With regards to written input, Krashen (1995), as well as other proponents of incidental learning, emphasise the role of reading in acquiring lexical items, in particular. Krashen (1995) argues for the importance of what is known as 'voluntary reading' for literacy attainments in general, whether writing ability, vocabulary acquisition, grammatical knowledge or spelling improvement. Krashen provides evidence from both inside and outside the school environment to support his claim of reading effectiveness. For example, in supporting his view, Krashen claim that there were some studies that documented a positive influence of sustained silent reading (SSR) programmes on vocabulary acquisition, in which a certain amount of time in the school day is allocated to voluntary reading.

However, there are also studies showing incidental acquisition from exposure to oral input through watching audio-visual materials, either films or video clips. Ciccone (1995) argues for the importance of sustained classroom instruction with authentic videos, citing the comprehensibility of input offered in these videos. That is, learners are able to decode linguistic features through contextual cues, although some grammatical forms and lexical items cannot be fully decoded. Empirically, the effectiveness of videos exposure for vocabulary acquisition has been verified by several studies. The major claim of using videos for language learning is that authentic videos provide visual, audio and sometimes text, such as in the case of subtitled videos, clues, which in turn make video input more comprehensible for learners. Supporting Krashen's claim, learners may also resort to extra-linguistic cues,

such as the facial expressions and gestures of actors or TV presenters, for contextualisation of the video content and their world knowledge to increase the opportunity for second language acquisition generally, and vocabulary expansion in particular. A significant number of studies (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999, Pavakanun & d'Ydewalle 1992) investigating the effectiveness of subtitled videos have interpreted their findings as supporting the theory of incidental learning.

2.4.2.2. Intentional vocabulary learning:

The pedagogical value of intentional learning has been examined in terms of both written and oral input. Regarding written input, the study conducted by Chen and Han study (2010) will be discussed. In this study, the researchers compared the effectiveness of both intentional and incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. The participant 'Anne' is a fluent Chinese speaker living in the United States; although her speech is fluent, her literacy ability is far behind. In the study, Anna received the research treatment in which she was asked to read certain Chinese passages repeatedly, and in each passage was asked to identify 4-5 words as target words, learned intentionally. Both intentional and incidental word attainment were tested, and the findings show that Anna demonstrated better attainment from intentional learning.

Second, a study by Melodie (2013) focused on the issue of intentional learning via oral input. In this study, the researcher investigated the effectiveness of watching subtitled films with an intentional focus on vocabulary learning. The study participant, Neil, is an English-speaker learning French, and was asked to select a film series for the study. Neil was asked to focus on the subtitles and to pause the film whenever he encountered an unknown linguistic item. After each viewing, Neil was given a vocabulary test, and was asked to keep a diary of different issues he encountered, such as difficulties and motivation. The findings of the study show that intentional learning has a positive effect on learning outcomes which, according to Melodie, exceeds that found by studies of incidental learning. Likewise, a study by Vanderplank (1990) involving three months of observation of learner strategies, supports the effectiveness of intentional decoding when watching subtitled video. In this study, Vanderplank found that learners who did not utilise conscious learning strategies, such as taking notes, fail to retain some linguistic items present in the video, or to produce correct language in comprehension tasks. The conclusion Vanderplank draws from this study is that a level of consciousness and attention are necessary for the student to convert the input into intake and hence be more likely achieve successful long-term retention.

2.4.3. The effectiveness of intentional vocabulary learning:

Based on the above review of vocabulary instruction literature, it can be said that although both explicit, as represented in intentional learning, and implicit, represented in incidental learning, vocabulary instruction methods are pedagogically valuable, explicit instruction is more effective, particularly for low proficiency learners, for several reasons. First, the positive effect of explicit vocabulary instruction is underpinned both by first and second language research that examines explicit decontextualisation of vocabulary. For example, certain empirical studies and academic publications investigating direct decoding of vocabulary; one concludes "...an early and explicit emphasis on the medium (on word recognition and decoding) was more effective for reading achievement" (Chall, 1967: 10). Moreover, other studies compare the two approaches, and findings are in favour of explicit vocabulary decoding (Folse, 2004; Hunt & Beglar, 2005). Second, inferring vocabulary meaning from context may be problematic for less proficient learners, particularly those who have very poor vocabulary repertoire (Folse, 2004), as the successful inference of a word in a reading text requires the reader to be able to recognise approximately 98 per cent of the surrounding words. In addition, it can be said that reading for comprehension causes learners to ignore unfamiliar words, which may consequently result in a lack of progress with regard to vocabulary knowledge (Scmitt, 2008). Finally, in some cases, there are linguistic ambiguities or textual complications, which may lead to partial or totally unsuccessful inferences of word meanings. These obstacles can take the form of, for example, lack of linguistic clues, multiple possible semantic interpretations of a single lexical item, and failure to perceive the morphological or semantic and syntactic clues (Huckin & Coady, 1999). Despite all of the arguments in favour of intentional vocabulary learning, Ellis points out that incidental and intentional learning actually complement each other, as it is impossible to attain a native-like vocabulary intentionally, and incidental learning should exist as many words are learnt through context.

However, previous research investigating the effect of subtitled videos on vocabulary acquisition has focused on the incidental learning perspective, with relatively few investigations into intentional vocabulary learning via video exposure. Therefore, this research will investigate the effect of watching subtitled video clips in terms of explicit vocabulary instruction. It will do so for the following two reasons; first, due to the perceived value of intentional vocabulary learning, particularly for low proficiency learners, although

maintaining a belief that both approaches can be combined so that incidental learning complements and supports intentional learning. Second, intentional vocabulary acquisition has been examined extensively in regards to written input such as reading, whereas there is a shortage of empirical research exploring intentional learning from oral input, such as watching films. However, the possibility of both learning intentional and incidental learning will be examined in this research. (See chapter three for more details)

2.5. Multimedia and Autonomous Approaches to language learning

2.5.1. Why autonomous learning?

Autonomous learning has received much attention in language learning and teaching literature. Many policies of educational institutions and authorities assert the importance of preparing learners to pursue further learning beyond formal education. Therefore, some school policies now aim to equip learners with the skills for life-long learning, whereby learners become more persistent and inclined to continue their education, and to overcome future learning challenges.

There has been an increasing emphasis on learner-centred classrooms, supported by the emergence of communicative approaches to language learning. That is, since language is a social phenomenon, the goal of language learning is to equip learners with the communicative competence required to communicate effectively in the social setting. However, language classrooms are made up of diverse learners with different attitudes, needs, perceptions and intentions with regards to language learning. In a classroom with such diversity of needs, it may be extremely difficult to accommodate and meet the individual goals and objectives of learners using just a prescribed textbook and class teacher. In numerous cases, teachers have teaching plans that must be implemented and certain instructional materials to be used according to the agenda of the educational institution to which they belong. Thus, learners' practice is limited to the classroom environment, and their needs may not be sufficiently met by the teacher's instruction, which will consequently affect their progress. Learners may differ not only in their aims, but also in their learning styles and learning medium preference. Therefore, encouraging and promoting autonomous learning beyond the classroom is necessary if teachers are to support and reinforce the classroom learning process, particularly considering the availability of learning opportunities outside the classroom. Little points out that:

“Autonomy in language learning is not merely a matter of control over learning activities and resources. It is also a matter of a particular orientation towards language learning, in which ‘for the truly autonomous learner, each occasion of language use is an occasion of language learning, and vice versa’” (1997: 99).

Achieving success in Language learning demands a great deal of independent learning, as learners have countless opportunities to practice the language use and are not restricted to two or three hours of classroom time. Thus, it can be said that there is a correlation between proficiency level and the degree of autonomous practice by a learner who is motivated to extend the scope of their linguistic training and practices (Ramos, 2006).

Multimedia technology, such as digital video, can be a fertile source of autonomous learning in two ways. First, the appropriateness of multimedia materials for autonomous learning practices, and second; the potential effectiveness of using subtitled video in the classroom context will be demonstrated.

2.5.1.1. Multimedia materials and autonomous learning:

Technology based audio-visual materials present in most individuals' lives can make a significant contribution to capacities for independent learning in several ways. First, Taylor (1980), and Walker and White (2014) claim that technology can play one of three roles, a tutor, tutee or tool in a learner's independent learning environment. In relation to multimedia applications, such as watching films, digital video and films can be used as a tutor (Benson & Voller, 1996). Brett (1998) argues that multimedia-learning materials are teacher-less and free-standing, and so can be used autonomously. With the availability of more than one medium of information representation, audio, visual and text, learners with access to multimedia can choose, adapt or tailor these applications to their needs, strategies and learning styles. Both Mills, Herron and Cole (2004) and Vanerplank (2009) describe how learners utilise numerous strategies when watching video, such as rewinding, pausing, re-playing taking notes and freeze-framing, "for their own exploitation" (Vanerplank, 2009: 24). It should be noted that learners can use video autonomously so long as they are aware of the effectiveness of subtitled video and are equipped with the appropriate strategies to use these resources. Additionally, watching subtitled videos can grant learners access to authentic text and expose them to real use of the target language in daily life in a foreign context where their contact with native speakers is limited. This was confirmed by a study carried out by Umino (1999) on self-instructional broadcast (SIB) materials; the study shows the value of broadcast and visual programmes in providing further opportunities for exposure to genuine second language use. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, authentic video can be used to

enhance language learning in various ways, and weak learners may be able to improve their reading, listening or learning vocabulary learning. Moreover, the convenient accessibility of video materials, whether designed for language learning or not, reinforces the appropriateness of their usefulness as a resource for autonomous learning. The ease of accessing video material is underpinned, first, by new technological innovations, such as the production of iPhones and iPads, which allow access to the internet anywhere, and the corresponding emergence of social networks like YouTube, which provide a wide-range of video content in various languages. Jaffar (2012) carried out a study regarding the use of YouTube as a resource for autonomous learning in general, and found that 98% of the student participants use this website as a source of information. Jaffar (2012) concludes that YouTube therefore supports independent learning. Fallahkair, Masthoff and Pemberton (2004), in their investigation of interactive television, suggest that learners access video content in the odd moments of their day, such as when travelling.

2.5.1.2. Potential effectiveness of using subtitled video inside the classroom:

Learners in the language classroom environment have different levels of motivation or enthusiasm to learn, and beliefs about how language is learnt. One type of student can be characterised as ‘active learners’, who are constantly searching for learning opportunities. By contrast, passive learners are ill equipped, and rely heavily on their teacher’s instruction as the only learning source. Thus, it may be effective for a language teacher to engage in what is known as ‘learner training’ (Dickenson, 1987; Holec, 1985; Hedge, 2000) and involves helping learners, both psychologically and practically, to have effective strategies and a positive attitude towards language learning. Learner training can be defined as “a set of procedures or activities which raises learners’ awareness of what is involved in learning a foreign language, which encourages learners to become more involved, active, and responsible in their own learning, and which helps them to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning” (Hedge, 2000: 85). Using subtitled video in the classroom is one possible strategy for increasing learners’ awareness of metacognitive strategies, or attracting their attention to the learning resources available beyond the classroom. Zanon (2006) argues for the benefit of subtitled video, which he said would “...motivate students to study English outside the classroom context, especially by watching TV and cinema, listening to the original dialogues” (p.44). However, learners should be supported and equipped with

the appropriate strategies to exploit subtitled video resources effectively; Mills *et al.* indicate that learners may feel lost and frustrated if they are not receiving support from their teacher.

2.6. Literature on using subtitled videos for language learning:

2.6.1. What are subtitles?

Subtitles are captions displayed at the bottom of a cinema or television screen, and translate or transcribe the dialogue or narrative (Online Oxford Dictionary, 2014). The terms ‘subtitles’ and ‘captions’ are sometimes used interchangeably, although there is a slight difference between the two. Technically, subtitles tend to be associated with a translation of the audio track in written text at the bottom of the screen, whereas captions are usually linked to the original audio transcription and displayed in written text. From the language learning literature on the use of video, four types of subtitles can be identified: reversed subtitles, Interlingua subtitles, intralingua subtitles and dual subtitles. The definitions of these types are as follows:

2.6.1.1. *Interlingual subtitles:*

These subtitles are also known as ‘standard subtitles’ or ‘L1 subtitles’. In this type of subtitles, the audio track is in the target language, or the original language of the film or video, and the accompanying textual display is a translation into the viewer’s native language. Creating Interlingual subtitles should be carried out with careful consideration, as it crucial to enable accurate understanding. Ivarsson & Carroll (1998) in ‘Code of Good Subtitling Practice’, have proposed certain criteria that should be taken into account when creating subtitles, which are as follows:

- Accurate at a grammatical and lexical level.
- Considers the cultural and idiomatic differences of the original source.
- Use appropriate register of language.
- Written in easily understandable grammatical text.

This is the mode of subtitles used in the present study; the following image represents how these subtitles are used in this research:

Figure 1 Interlingual subtitles



2.6.1.2. *Intralingual subtitles:*

These kinds of subtitles are also known as ‘bimodal subtitles’ or ‘L2 subtitles’, and refer to the display of a transcription of the sound track in the form of captions. This type of subtitle is also investigated in this research, and figure 2 below represents their usage:

Figure 2 Intralingual subtitles



2.6.1.3. *Reversed subtitles:*

This type of subtitle refers to target language textual display of a sound track in the viewer’s native language. However, this mode of subtitle is not used in the current study.

2.6.1.4. *Dual subtitles:*

Dual subtitles refer to the simultaneous appearance of both viewers’ native language, or L1 subtitles, and target language, or L2 subtitles on the screen. This type of subtitle is rarely available in mainstream media production, such as DVD; DVDs usually offer the option of adding just one subtitle mode on the screen.

Figure 3 Dual subtitles



2.6.2. The potential effectiveness of subtitled video on second language learning:

Subtitled video has been broadly utilised in language classrooms, for various purposes. There are three channels that contribute to conveying the content of subtitled video; the aural channel (soundtrack), the verbal visual channel (subtitles) and the non-verbal visual channel (the visual images) (Austad, 2013). Baltova (1999) points out that the simultaneous existence of these three channels reinforces learning more than un-subtitled video, or texts provided with accompanying images. This challenges the previous assumption (Reese & Davie, 1987) that subtitles distract viewer attention and encourage laziness among viewers, as they rely on the textual visual support of subtitles and ignore listening. These assumptions have been further challenged by numerous empirical studies indicating the dual processes of the two channels, auditory and visual written text. d'Yewalle and De Bruyker (2007) argue that reading standard subtitles is a compulsory behaviour with paying attention to visual clues. In a widely quoted study, Bird and Williams (2002) add further emphasis; as well as arguing that although subtitles are automatically read, the soundtracks are also automatically processed by viewers. Studies by Borrás and Lafayette (1994) and Vanderplank (1988) also prove that reading and listening co-occur through processing subtitles.

However, there are some other factors affecting the processing of subtitles and the extent to which they may contribute to improving the ability of language learners. The first factor is the degree to which subtitles are familiar to the language learner; this factor is discussed extensively by Danan (2004), who claims that when learners are not familiar with subtitles, they may not be able to process them effectively so as to benefit from them. A study conducted by Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) also confirms this perspective; in this study, the researchers made a comparison between Dutch children of two different age groups. The first group were aged between nine and ten, and received no formal second language instruction; the second group were aged between eleven and twelve and received formal instruction in the second language. Both age groups were divided into two groups as one was exposed to subtitled film and the second to non-subtitled film. The age and instruction variables had no effect on the results, but there was an observable difference in vocabulary gaining between those who watched the films with subtitles and those without in each age groups. One of the interpretations of these findings is that familiarity with using subtitles has an important effect as children who are familiar with using subtitles while watching film at home, as subtitling is common in the Netherlands performed better than those who are not familiar.

The second factor is the language proficiency level of viewers; the results of research concentrating on this area are mixed. The findings of a study by Markham (1993) indicate that subtitles are helpful when the video content is complex and abstract. For beginners, or low proficiency learners, Guillory (1998) suggests that subtitles are effective and facilitative. She further claims that key-word captions or subtitles are more helpful than whole sentence subtitles. Additionally, Taylor (2005), compared two groups of Spanish learners; one group consisted of first year university Spanish learners, and the other of third and fourth year university Spanish learners. Both of these groups were then allocated to a subtitle or non-subtitle group as they watched Spanish language film. In a comprehension test, fourth year students in the subtitled group outperformed their first year counterparts. However, learning level had no effect on the groups who were exposed to video without subtitles. From this, it can be proposed that learners must already have a certain degree of competence in order to benefit from watching subtitled videos.

Finally, subtitle type has also attracted the attention of researchers, and different perspectives exist regarding the type most conducive to learning. Standard subtitles, or Interlingual, are found to be useful for those who have not yet established good reading or listening skills in regards to the target language, either due to their age or proficiency level (Bianchi & Ciabatt, 2008). Another important advantage of standard subtitles is that they prevent inaccurate inferences of words meaning (Miterer & MaQueen, 2009). In terms of intralingual subtitles, it is found that they are helpful for advanced learners with high level proficiency, have good listening skills, and an ability to read rapidly (Danan 2004 and Markham & Peter, 2003). Additionally, they are found to facilitate comprehension, particularly when the video material is complex; Danan (2004) hereby refers to them as a 'hearing-aid'. More importantly, intralingua subtitles can help learners link the aural form of the word with the written form. Overall, it can be said that interlingual subtitles is more helpful for low proficient learners while learners with high proficiency level can get more advantage from intralingua subtitles.

2.6.3. Previous studies that investigate the potential effectiveness of subtitled video:

Subtitled videos have been used in language classrooms to develop various aspects of second language learning. For example, some studies investigate the use of subtitled video in relation to potential improvement of language skills, either receptive skills (reading and listening) or productive skills (speaking and writing). Furthermore, the use of subtitled videos to learn language features (vocabulary and grammar) has also been well documented in much research. In the following discussion, studies that investigate the use of subtitled videos to develop language skills will be reported in the first section; then the discussion will concentrate on studies that specifically investigate the effectiveness of subtitled video on vocabulary acquisition, due to the domain of the current research.

2.6.3.1. Subtitled video and overall language learning development:

A study by Hayati and Mohamadi (2011) considers the use of subtitled video for listening comprehension for Iranian university learners. In this study, three video treatments were used, these included: a video segment with English subtitles; a video segment with Persian subtitles; and, finally, a video clip with no subtitles. The participants were ninety university students, who were each allotted one of the three video treatments. After six weeks of exposure to a documentary video clips, the participants undertook a multiple choice comprehension test. The statistical findings reveal that the English subtitles group outperformed the other two groups. Despite the limitation of the comprehension test, the researchers claim that viewers with intermediate proficiency level were able to connect the spoken language to its written form, and hence benefit more from English subtitles.

Research by Hwang and Huang (2011) concentrates on using subtitled video to enhance learners' reading comprehension. Eighty freshman students at the University of Taiwan took part in the study, and were divided into two groups: a control group and an experimental group. Both groups watched video episodes once a week for ten weeks; the control group watched the film with no subtitles, whereas the experimental group had English subtitles. To assess their comprehension, two tests were used. The first was the 'Content Specific Test', which was developed by the researchers and assessed vocabulary recognition, content comprehension and listening comprehension. This test was administered immediately after watching the film. The second test was a 'General English Proficiency Test' (GEPT), which

was used both before and after the experiment. However, the statistical information extracted from this experiment shows no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

Regarding the effect of subtitled video on oral production improvement, Borrás and Lafayette (1994) conducted a study to elucidate this area. Forty-four university learners of French were assigned to four treatments, which combined subtitle variables and oral task level variables. The four groups were: a) subtitled video and lower-level task; b) un-subtitled video with lower-level task; c) subtitled video with higher-level task; and, finally, d) un-subtitled video with higher-level task. The statistical data derived from the oral performance scores demonstrates a significant effect of subtitled video on subjects' task performance, regardless of the task type variable.

2.6.3.2. Subtitled video and vocabulary learning:

There are several empirical studies that examine the relationship between watching subtitled video and vocabulary development. These studies have diverse content, either regarding the type of subtitles or the vocabulary test format. In terms of subtitle types, studies investigate the effect of various subtitle treatments, such as interlingual, intralingual, and reversed subtitles. In terms of assessing vocabulary improvement, studies use different vocabulary test formats, such as multiple choice tests, 'fill in the blank', matching target words with their equivalents in the native language, and finally a 'vocabulary knowledge scale', which is the test used by this investigation. In the following section, studies will be reported in accordance to subtitle type.

2.6.3.2.1. Intralingua subtitles:

This subheading contains studies that compare the effect of Interlingual and intralingual subtitles. A study by Zarei & Rashvand (2011) examines the effect of watching videos with four different treatments: verbatim Interlingual subtitles; non-verbatim Interlingual subtitles; verbatim intralingual subtitles; and, finally, intralingual non-verbatim subtitles. Verbatim subtitles include every aspect of the spoken language, for example pause fillers, repetition, hesitation, and so on, whereas non-verbatim subtitling summarises the most important information without transcribing elements that are considered superfluous in mainstream subtitling practices, such as repetition. The participants of this study were 120 second

language learners, assigned to four groups, who each received a different subtitle treatment. After watching the videos, they were assessed using two tests; the first test was vocabulary comprehension, whereby participants were asked to complete a multiple-choice task; the second test was a vocabulary production task in a ‘fill in the blank’ format. Regardless of whether they were verbatim or non-verbatim, intralingual subtitles were found to be more conducive to vocabulary learning.

Likewise, a study by Stewart and Pertusa (2004) draws the same conclusion; participants in the intralingual subtitle group for their study reveal more vocabulary gain than those in the Interlingual subtitle group, although there is no statistical significance. Furthermore, when exploring participants’ reactions to the subtitle types, the participants in the intralingual subtitle showed confidence with this type of subtitled as they reported that they were able both to hear the words and see them written.

2.6.3.2.2 Interlingual subtitles:

In an empirical study conducted by Koolstra and Beentjes (1999), the effectiveness of three types of subtitled programmes was examined in relation to vocabulary acquisition. Two groups of Dutch children participated in this research; the first were elementary school students, aged between nine and ten, who were not receiving foreign language instruction; the second group of children were receiving formal foreign language instruction and were aged between eleven and twelve years old. Both groups watched an English programme with Interlingual (standard) subtitles, reversed subtitles, or no subtitles. Their findings show that no statistically significant difference in relation to the instruction variable, but there a statistically significant difference regarding the subtitle type variable. For this study, Interlingual subtitles result in significantly more vocabulary acquisition compared with the other subtitles groups.

However, some researchers (De Bock, 1977; Katchens, 1997; Koolstra *et al* 2002) claim that Interlingual subtitles allow learners to acquire knowledge of a word by reading its equivalent in their first language, while listening to its auditory form. Tsai’s (2009) survey of learners’ perspectives supports this claim; in his study, Taiwanese university students report that they “Learn more words from what they heard in English and what they read in Chinese” (2009: 8) and, “The subtitles help me check my understanding of the words spoken” (2009: 9)

2.6.3.2.3. Dual subtitles:

The effectiveness of dual subtitles either for language learning in general or vocabulary improvement in particular is less researched area. To the knowledge of the researcher, there are only two studies that have so far addressed the effectiveness of dual subtitles. These studies are those by Chang (2003) and Raine (2012). Despite the positive effect of dual subtitles on general comprehension shown by Chang's study, the following discussion will concentrate will be on the research conducted by Raine, as it deals with dual subtitles from the perspective of vocabulary acquisition. In Raine's study, thirty-nine Japanese students were assigned to four different groups: an English subtitles group, Japanese subtitles group, dual subtitles group (English and Japanese) and, finally, a no subtitles group. By using the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale as a test both before and after the experiment, all four groups failed to show significant gain from the audio-visual materials. One significant interpretation of the findings is that students' failure to retain the target words was due to incidental learning as opposed to intentional, which fosters active language acquisition.

3. Methodology

3.1. Introduction:

For this research, two different methods are combined: experiment, and questionnaire survey. According to Dörnyei (2007), using mixed methods for research serves various purposes, such as helping the researchers to investigate complex educational issues and enriching the researcher's thoughts, enabling them to draw conclusions. Additionally, combining more than one strategy means that they are able corroborate each other and hence increase the validity of the research. In relation to following up the experiment with a quantitative data analysis method, as is the case for this study, Dörnyei points out that "...Including a qualitative phase to explore the nature of such processes is a natural and potentially highly fruitful design that can greatly enhance the study's validity" (2007: 173). It should also be noted that, in this research, the experiment stage was followed up with a survey containing both qualitative, open-ended questions and quantitative, close-ended questions.

Regarding the experiment of this study, the norms and principles of experimental study were applied. An experimental study can be characterised as a study in which the quantitative cause-effect relationship data is obtained in a scientific way (Dörnyei, 2007). Typically in experimental study design, participants are assigned to one of two groups, the experimental group, whose members are exposed to special treatment or certain condition, and the control group, who receives normal instruction or operate in standard conditions. This distinction marks the point of departure for a comparison between the two groups, and to measure the effects of the intervention. The effects of the intervention are typically measured using a pre- and post-test format. In this research, the intervention is watching a video with three different subtitles types. The participants were assigned to one of four groups as one was the control group and the other three groups were the experimental groups. The control group was exposed to video clip without subtitles and each experimental group was exposed to a video with a different subtitle mode. The experimental groups were: an Arabic subtitles group; English subtitles group; and, a dual subtitles group. (See procedures section 3.4. below)

The truly experimental study design necessitates the random assignment of a sufficient number of participants, in order to make the average participants across the two groups comparable. However, a truly and entirely experimental study for this research was not feasible, as the participants are not sufficient to easily establish an average, and so the researchers instead used a quasi-experimental design solution. In this type of experiment, the participants are not randomly assigned, in order to avoid incomparable groups. To this end, certain procedures were put in place; first, the class teacher was asked to evenly distribute

students who have high level of English ability, based on their monthly exams, among the four groups; second, volunteer participation in the treatment groups was avoided; finally, all participants undertook a placement English test for further assurance of groups homogeneity, as well as some other considerations (see section 3.3. below)

3.2. Participants:

A total of 48 second-grade students at Alangal Secondary School agreed to take part in this study. The participants were all girls, aged between 16 and 17 years old. Their native language is Arabic, and so there was no need to exclude any participants. As the participants are all under the age of 18, permission was needed from their careers, to satisfy ethical requirements. Thus, a consent form was sent to the parents of the participants seeking permission for their daughters' participation in the research (see appendix G and appendix H for Arabic version of the consent form).

In the second grade of this particular secondary school, students specialise either in science or art. At this level, English is a compulsory subject, and students have been learning English for seven years; learners in this grade receive English instruction over four sessions per week. The Saudi educational system generally tends to be quite traditional; among the traditional features of this system, firstly, is examination-oriented assessment, in which written exams are the only form of assessment. Second, grammatical knowledge of language predominates classroom instruction. Third, there is a heavy dependence on textbooks as the only teaching material used in the classroom. The assigned textbook for this level is titled '*English for Saudi Arabia*', and is produced by the Saudi Educational Ministry, in collaboration with foreign experts and King Fahad University. Generally, this book can be characterised as a culturally-oriented book and tends to place a greater emphasis on imparting information and knowledge rather than developing the four key skills.

3.3. Materials:

To answer the research questions, the following resources were used:

- I. An online placement test.
- II. A video clip extracted from an authentic young children's film.
- III. The Vocabulary Knowledge Scale by Wesche and Paribakht (1996)
- IV. A questionnaire survey consisting of both closed-ended and open-ended questions.

3.3.1. The placement test:

For this research, all participants completed a placement test to determine their English proficiency level. The rationale behind such a procedure consisted of two reasons; first, to ensure homogeneity and equality among the three groups, as the study is a quasi-experimental study and so it was necessary to eliminate any inconsistent variables. Second, as was indicated earlier, language proficiency level was found to be crucial in influencing the effect of the treatment. The test chosen for this study was the Oxford Online Placement Test, which is designed to place respondents in the appropriate level, and also to test their general language ability. The test consists of two sections, use of English that tests the respondent's grammatical knowledge, and a meaning and listening section, which tests the learner's ability to identify the literal, intended and implied meanings communicated through auditory passages. According to the automatic scoring, the average level of participants in this study is A1, which means that they are beginners, or basic users.

3.3.2. The video clip and selection criteria:

During the first phases of this research, the intention was to select a video clip extracted from a children's cartoon film, in order that it would be culturally appropriate. However, after a deep investigation, this type of films does not clearly demonstrate body language, such as facial expressions and gestures (Sherman, 2003). Therefore, an authentic young children's film was chosen for the purposes of this research, for two main reasons; first, the film deals with a popular school level moral phenomena, school bullying, and so would stimulate students' interest. Second, as the film is aimed at young girls, it is culturally appropriate. The name of the film is 'An American Girl: Chrissa Stands Strong', produced by Sobini Films 2009 available at <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KgfZr9jlVYA>.

Subtitles were inserted by a company that specialises in media services. The Arabic subtitles were reviewed by both the researcher and an Arabic expert. The general plotline of the film is about a kind girl named Chrissa, who tries to become the friend of three girls, who themselves the 'Bees Group', but she is bullied by them instead. However, Chrissa becomes

the friend of Gwen, a homeless girl; Chrissa promises to keep her new friend's social status a secret. Unfortunately, the Bees Group overhear the two girls talking and decide to embarrass Gwen in an incident where Tara, the group leader, intentionally cuts Gwen hair, carelessly, to make fun of her appearance. The Bees Group and Chrissa are sent to the head teacher to discover the truth. The three girls are punished, and Gwen knows that Chrissa did not tell her secret. They become best friends with Sonali, one of the Bees Group, who apologises for her behaviour (see appendix E for video clip transcription and appendix F for the Arabic version of the transcription)

3.3.2.1. Selection Criteria:

A seven-minute clip of the film described above was extracted. However, certain criteria were considered in selecting the research clip. The selection criteria were developed based on the proposed assessment criteria of previous researchers (Borras, 1993; King, 2002) for the selection of audio-visual material, either films or video clips. The selection criteria were as follows:

- Linguistic appropriateness (grammatical and semantic difficulties) to learners' language level
- High visual quality
- Supporting the dialogue with visual input or audio-visual correlation
- Delivering the speech at suitable speed
- Appropriate content
- Inherent interest within valuable content
- Matching cultural values
- Suitable length.

3.3.3. Vocabulary Knowledge Scale:

In order to assess the influence of watching subtitled video on intentional vocabulary acquisition, a Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS), developed by Wesche and Paribakht (1996) used as pre- and post-test for all the four groups (see Appendix A). To avoid confusion and misunderstanding among study's participants, this vocabulary test was translated into Arabic (see Appendix B). Originally, this scale was developed as an instrument for research into incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading. The specific purpose of this scale is to be a "practical instrument for use in studies of the initial recognition and use of new words"

(Wesche & Paribakht, 1996: 29) Therefore, as this research has a similar scope, this scale is a useful instrument for this project.

The scale consists of five self-reported levels, whereby learners assess how well they ‘know’ a word in terms of both receptive and productive knowledge. The major difference between this scale and vocabulary test is that it demands verification of a learner’s claim to knowledge. The five self-reported statements are the following:

- i. I don’t remember having seen this word before.
- ii. I have seen this word before, but I don’t think I know what it means.
- iii. I have seen this word before, and I think it means _____. (Synonym or translation).
- iv. I know this word. It means _____. (Synonym or translation)
- v. I can use this word in a sentence: _____.

However, as indicated earlier, the construction of word knowledge occurs incrementally. Some incremental stages have been suggested to capture the continuing nature of world knowledge development (see for example Bravo & Cervetti, 2008). Piggott(1981) is of this view, arguing that “it is possible that in learning a second language many vocabulary terms move along a continuum from passive to active” (1981: 4). The different stages of such a continuum relate to different levels of understanding and comprehension (Henriksen, 1996). Henriksen (1996) suggests that word knowledge is a long continuum ranging from initial recognition, vagueness and uncertainty, to mastery of the word meaning, in which sense, “the better word meaning is known, the further along the continuum one moves” (Waring, 2002:5)

However, as is the case with many issues in language learning literature, Waring, (2002) has criticised VKS on several points. One of the issues raised is that the scale concentrates heavily on receptive knowledge, allocating four stages to it, whereas productive knowledge is demonstrated at just one stage (Waring, 2002). Moreover, VKS lacks internal consistency; this is evident in the use of the verb ‘know’, as it is quite possible that one may know a word in terms of identifying it in written texts, but may not know its pronunciation. More importantly, Waring (2002) argues that the VKS scoring scheme is difficult to interpret. For example, in the case that a student’s pre-test score is 2.1, and post-test it is 4.8; Waring(2002)

questions how these numbers can be interpreted in terms of vocabulary acquisition, as he said ‘*What it means?*’ to have these numbers. However, to avoid such limitation, further analyses were run to indicate how the subtitled video clips helped the participants in learning the target words (see section 3.5.). Furthermore, it should be noted that as the participants in this experiment will both hear and see the target words, as in the English group dual group, we add the verb (hear) to the statements as it is quite possible that a learner may hear a word before but never see it.

3.3.3.1 *The target words:*

Drawing on the study by Raine (2012), the target words for the VKS pre- and post-tests were selected based on the results of processing the transcript of the film using the Laufer and Nation four-way word sorter, online version. This programme analyses target texts and sorts the words into four categories. The first category is K1 words, which consists of all words in the transcript belonging to the first 1000 most commonly used English words. The second category is K2 words, which involves the second 1000 most commonly used English words. The third category is the academic word category, and includes all the words in the transcript that belong to the academic words list (AWL). The final category is the off-list category, which involves all the other words in the transcript that do not belong to one of the first three categories.

Table 1 Voco profile analysis of a video clip transcript extracted from Chrissa American girl film

	Types	Tokens	Percent
K1 Words	189	644	86.10%
K2 Words	21	30	4.01%
Academic Words	6	6	0.80%
Off-list Words	29	68	9.09%
Total	245	784	100%

The above table shows that the K1 word category constitutes the majority of the transcribed words, representing 86.10% of the total words. The K2 category has fewer words, 30 words in total, and so constituting just 4.01% of the transcript. This is followed by the academic

word list category, in which there are just 6 words, forming only 0.80% of the total words. The final category is the off-list word, containing 68 words and constituting 9.09% of the total words.

The selection of the target words was based on two factors. The first is words that have a clear and direct Arabic equivalent. The second is words that are repeated more than once, as the focus is on intentional acquisition and hence the input should be enhanced in order to be noticed.

Overall, the target words comprised ten words, of which three were chosen from the K1 category words, two were chosen from academic word list category (AWL), and, finally, five words were chosen from the off-list category. Table 2, below, shows the target words, the category to which they belong, their Arabic equivalent translation and the words in the context in which they appear in the English transcript. A full breakdown of the video transcript is provided in appendix I.

Table 2 Target words for the vocabulary pre- and post -tests

Words										
	Homeless	Devastated	Bangs	Fantastic	Suspended	Secret	Hairdresser	Eyebrows	Incident	Truth
Category	K1	Off-list	Off-list	Off-list	Academic	K1	Off-list	Off-list	Academic	K1
Arabic translation	مشرده	محطمة	غره	رائع	مفصولة	سر	مصففه شعر	حواجب	حادثة	الحقيقة
Word in context	now you really look like a homeless person	She's now been devastated.	I really want bangs	gosh this is fantastic	so Jayden and sonali you are suspended for a day	chrissa did not tell Tara your secret	Tara mom is a hairdresser	where your eyebrows are	an incident like this is never going to happen at this school again	it is hard telling the truth

3.3.4. Participant attitudes questionnaire survey:

When introducing technological materials to the classroom context, it may be beneficial to explore learners' attitudes. That is, positive attitudes of learners, or users, play a crucial role and contribute to the successful implementation and utilisation of technological materials (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2002; Manojehri & Sharif, 2010). Additionally, Rosenberg (2001) claims that in order to develop an effective e-learning environment it is necessary to chart learners' attitudes, such as their motivations, distractions, frustrations or dislikes. Thus, in this research project, a questionnaire survey was used in order to prompt participants to express their attitudes and opinions in relation to watching the subtitled videos clips they experienced for this research. To avoid misconception, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic so that the participants can easily understand the questions (see appendix D). Additionally, for ethical consideration, the participants were told that their answers and thoughts will be anonymous and will not affect their English subject grades.

The questionnaire was distributed to participants in the experimental groups only as they have experienced watching subtitled video for vocabulary learning. However, as some items in the questionnaire require participants to demonstrate their attitudes and opinions of all the three subtitle types used in this study, participants in all the three experimental groups were exposed to video clip with the two subtitle types they have not experienced. That is, when an experimental group completed all the procedures, doing pre-test, watching the video clip twice and doing pre-test, the video clip was played again with the two other subtitles types for participants to watch the same video clip with different type of subtitles.

The questionnaire was designed both quantitatively and qualitatively, in that it contains both closed-ended and some open-ended questions (see appendix C). The questionnaire survey is divided into four sections; the first section aims to discover participants' general attitudes about watching subtitled videos for vocabulary learning purposes, such as whether or not watching subtitled videos is an interesting way of learning, whether the presence of subtitles makes learning vocabulary easy, whether they prefer to learn vocabulary from subtitled video rather than from a book, and finally, whether or not subtitles distract their attention. In this section, participants give their response in a Likert-scale format, matching their belief to one of the following statements:

- i. Learning vocabulary from subtitled videos is interesting.
- ii. I prefer to learn vocabulary from subtitled video rather than from a book.
- iii. The appearance of subtitles on the screen distract my attention.

iv. Subtitled video makes vocabulary learning easy

The second part of the questionnaire aims to reveal participants' preferences regarding the subtitle treatment mode when watching to learn vocabulary. This section is also in the format of a Likert scale, with three statements regarding the three types of the subtitle treatments. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement. The statements are the following:

- i. I prefer watching video with Arabic subtitles.
- ii. I prefer watching video with English subtitles
- iii. I prefer watching video with dual subtitles (Arabic and English).

The third part of the questionnaire aims to elicit learners' opinions regarding the appropriateness of the use of subtitled video clips as a tool for the autonomous learning environment, either inside or outside a classroom context, as an extra activity. This section attempts to stimulate learners' opinions and thoughts through open-ended questions. As this questionnaire combines both closed-ended and open-ended questionable items, it offers opportunities to encourage learners' freedom of expression and hence can obtain more enriched data than exclusively closed-ended items (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, learners' responses offer expressive quotes, illustrative examples and even raise unanticipated issues and concerns which may help the researcher in interpreting the complex issues. This part of the questionnaire attempts to gain further information on the following issues:

- i. Learners' justifiable thoughts of the effectiveness of watching subtitled visual texts (films, videos or movies) for vocabulary learning purposes.
- ii. Learners' points of view on the effectiveness of watching subtitled videos as an autonomous learning activity outside of the classroom context.
- iii. Their habits of watching audio-visual materials for learning purposes.
- iv. The available subtitle modes outside of the classroom, and which kind they would like to be available.

Finally, the last part of the questionnaire is also open-ended, and aims to uncover whether participants acquire any other words incidentally, besides the intentional acquisition of the target words. It asks the participants the following question:

- i. Do you acquire words other than the target words? If yes please mention them?

3.4. Data collection procedures:

First, the 48 participants of this research were split into four groups: A, B, C and D. After assigning them into one of the four groups, the participants were given a brief explanation of the experiment, and told how to answer the VKS test, clarifying the meaning of each statement. The participants in the experimental groups were also asked to note the kind of video treatment they were exposed to on their pre- and post-test forms. The VKS pre-test was distributed among the participants, whether they were in the control group or in the experimental groups, so that they could rate their knowledge of ten words; they were given ten minutes to complete this task. Then, for the three experimental groups, a video clip was played twice to each group separately, with subtitles as follows:

- Group A were exposed to a video clip with Interlingual subtitles (Arabic)
- Group B were exposed to a video clip with intralingual subtitles (English)
- Group C were exposed to a video with dual subtitles (Arabic and English)

As this research is investigating intentional vocabulary acquisition, replicating the Melodie study (2013), participants in these three experimental groups were asked to focus on the video content and especially subtitles in order to acquire the target vocabulary. However, the control group (group D) was exposed to the same video clip twice but without subtitles and was not instructed to pay attention to pick up the target words. However, participants in all the four groups, after watching the 7-minute video clip, re-rate their knowledge of the target vocabulary, for which they were again granted ten minutes. Finally, the experimental groups' participants were then asked to complete the questionnaire survey, and were allowed to take it home and return it next day if they wished.

3.5. Vocabulary Knowledge Scale scoring scheme:

In a replication of the techniques employed by Raine (2012) and Yuksel and Taniriverdi (2009), the participants' test responses were assigned a score according to the level of VKS chosen by the participants for each word. For example, if a participant chooses level II ("I

have seen/heard this word before, but I don't know what it means"), the researcher gives assigns two points. If participants fail to provide an accurate translation of a target word, or to use it in a grammatically correct sentence in level III, IV or V, the response score is lowered by one level. For example, if a participant chooses level III ("I have seen this word before and I think it means"), but provides an incorrect Arabic equivalent of the word, their response is scored as level II, which is two points. In the case of translation or synonym provision, the researchers referred to the dictionary and accepted all possible answers.

However, to be able to interpret the post-test score and know what kind of improvement in the post-test caused by watching subtitled video in the experimental groups, further analyses were made. The participants' answers in the post-test were classified into three categories as the Following:

- No improvement: this category involves participants' responses that do not change and remain the same in the pre- and post-test.
- Improvement to recognition level: this category involves participants' responses that improve from level I (zero knowledge of the target word) in the pre-test to either level II, III, IV (recognizing the target word) in the post-test.
- Improved to production level: this category involves participants' responses that improve from either level I, II, III or IV in the pre-test to level V in the post-test in which a participant able to use this word productively.

4. Results

4.1. The VKS test results:

4.1.1. Experimental groups' results:

The Table and Figure below show the marks that the experimental groups' students obtained in vocabulary knowledge scale before and after viewing the videos. The gain was calculated as the difference between the score after and before viewing the videos. The means and standard deviations were calculated for each group. The difference between post and pre score for each group was tested using paired samples one tailed t tests. One tailed t test was used as it is hypothesized that the post score is expected to be higher than the pre score. A paired rather than independent t tests were used as the two scores for each student (pre- and post) are expected to be correlated. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also carried out to test if the gain between the three groups is statistically different.

The means and standard deviations of pre scores were 13.33 and 2.53 for Arabic subtitle group, 21.00 and 10.32 for English subtitles group, and 19.75 and 7.7 for dual subtitles group. The means and standard deviations of post scores were 21.25 and 4.52 for Arabic subtitle group, 29.08 and 11.84 for English subtitles group, and 27.17 and 9.64 for dual subtitles group. Comparing the means of pre- and post-scores for each group, the results of the three *t*-tests were all highly significant ($p < .001$). This shows that there is a high significant increase in the post score compared with the pre score for all the three groups.

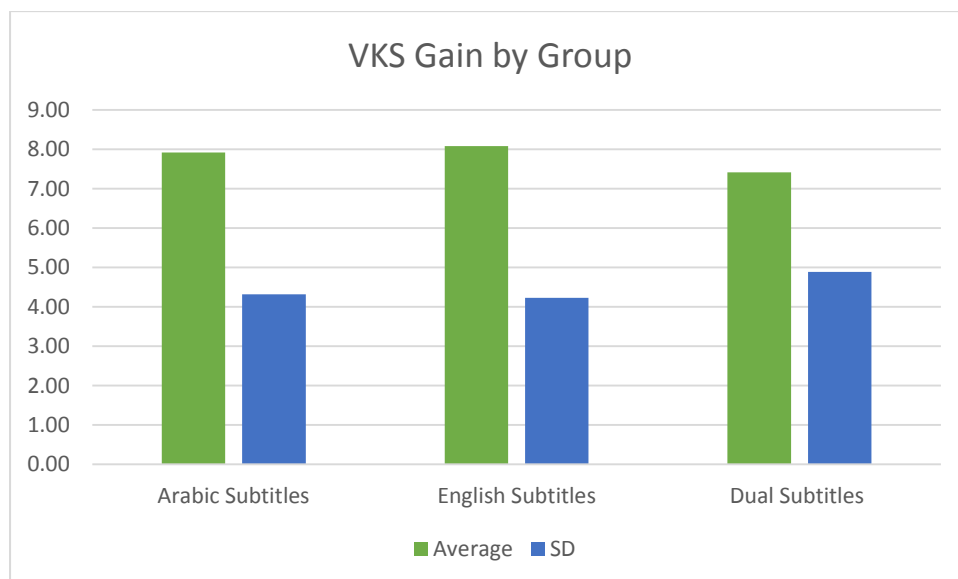
Table 3 Pre- and post-test scores for the three experimental groups

Group	Student ID	Mark before	Mark After	Gain
Arabic Subtitles	1	10	16	6
	2	18	22	4
	3	14	22	8
	4	11	21	10
	5	11	28	17
	6	15	29	14
	7	11	16	5
	8	15	16	1
	9	15	24	9
	10	13	20	7
	11	11	17	6
	12	16	24	8
Mean		13.33	21.25	7.92
SD		2.53	4.52	4.32
t-test Post-Pre (p-value)		<0.001		
English Subtitles	1	29	44	15
	2	32	45	13
	3	27	41	14
	4	14	23	9
	5	19	25	6
	6	11	18	7
	7	18	19	1
	8	13	20	7
	9	19	28	9
	10	12	19	7
	11	13	19	6
	12	45	48	3

Mean		21.00	29.08	8.08
SD		10.32	11.84	4.23
t-test Post-Pre (p-value)		<0.001		
	1	18	21	3
	2	35	35	0
	3	14	20	6
	4	12	15	3
	5	16	23	7
	6	17	20	3
	7	15	24	9
Dual Subtitles	8	30	41	11
	9	14	22	8
	10	19	35	16
	11	16	24	8
	12	31	46	15
Mean		19.75	27.17	7.42
SD		7.70	9.64	4.89
t-test Post-Pre (p-value)		<0.001		

However, the average gain for the three groups were very similar and were 7.92, 8.08 and 7.42 for Arabic, English and dual subtitles groups, respectively. The corresponding standard deviations for gain of the three groups were 4.32, 4.23, and 4.89 for Arabic, English and dual subtitles groups, respectively. ANOVA test was carried out to test if there is a significant difference in VKS gain between the three groups. The results of ANOVA test showed that there is no significant difference in VKS gain between the three groups ($F(2, 33)=.07$, $P =.93 >.05$).

Figure 4: VKS Gain by Experimental Groups



4.1.2. Control Group results:

The table and figure below show the marks that the students obtained in vocabulary knowledge scale before and after viewing the videos without subtitles "Control Group ". The gain was calculated as the difference between the score after and before viewing the videos. The mean, median and standard deviation were calculated for students' marks before and after viewing the video along with the gained marks.

Unlike the other groups, i. e. , Arabic, English and Dual Subtitles, to test the difference between pre- and post-test score, we use one tailed Wilcoxon matched paired signed ranks test rather than one tailed paired t test due to violation of normality assumption of paired t test.

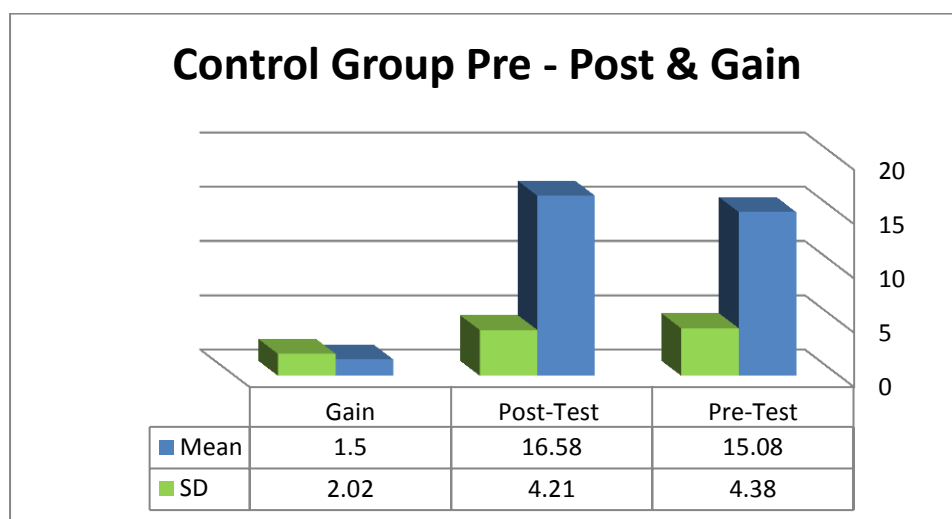
Finally, one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by post hoc test was carried out to test if the gain between the four groups is statistically significant, and make a comparison between each two groups.

Table4 : Control group pre- and post-test scores

Group	Student ID	Mark Before	Mark After	Gain
Control Group	1	22	23	1
	2	20	20	0
	3	13	13	0
	4	16	16	0
	5	10	13	3
	6	11	12	1
	7	18	18	0
	8	16	22	6
	9	10	13	3
	10	13	17	4
	11	21	21	0
	12	11	11	0
Mean		15.08	16.58	1.5
Median		14.5	16.5	0.5
SD		4.38	4.21	2.02
Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test*, Post-Pre (P - Value)		0.016 < 0.05		

* Wilcoxon signed rank test used to compare the median of two samples with repeated measures, and it is used when the assumption of t test is violated.

Figure 5: Control Group pre- and post-test Gain



The mean, median and standard deviation of pre scores were 15.08, 14.5 and 4.38, while the mean, median and standard deviation of post scores were 16.58, 16.5 and 4.21 for the control group. The mean, median and standard deviation of gained score after viewing the video is 1.5, 0.5 and 2.02 which indicates that mean and median for the post score is larger than them for the pre score.

The previous table also shows the result of comparing the median of pre- and post-scores for the control group, the results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test were significant ($p = 0.016$). This shows that there is a significant increase in the post score compared with the pre score for the control group.

4.1.3. The difference between control group and the three experimental groups in VKS scores:

For better understanding to the effect of different subtitles on learning vocabulary words, one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out for the gained score for the four groups.

Figure 6: VKS Gain by All the Four Groups

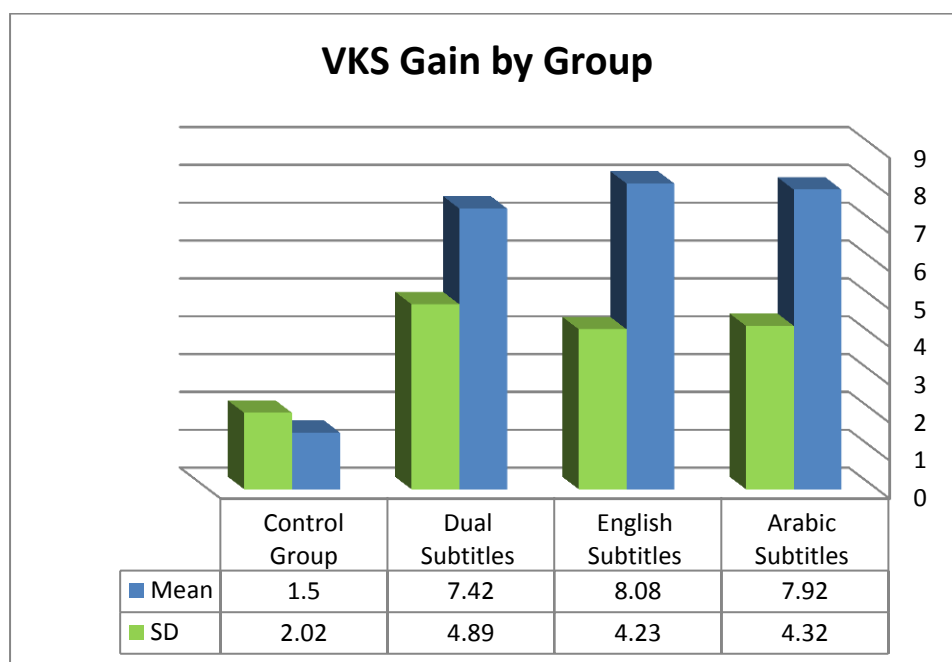


Table 5: The Four Groups Gain by ANOVA

ANOVA Table

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	360.729	3	120.243	7.454	< 0.001
Within Groups	709.750	44	16.131		
Total	1070.479	47			

The ANOVA table shows that the significance value is less than 0.001 which means that there is a highly significant difference between the gained score for all the four groups, i. e. , Arabic, English, Dual Subtitles, and Control group. However, to determine specifically which

groups are different from each other a Tukey post hoc test was carried out and the results are summarized in the table below.

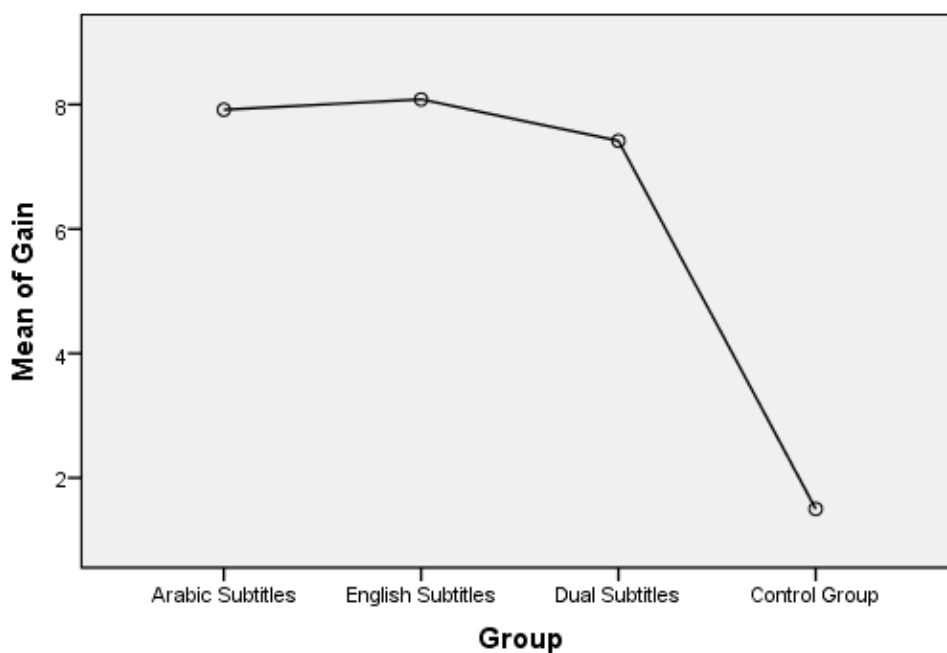
Tukey Post Hoc Tests

Table 6: The Four Groups Differences by Tukey Post Hoc Tests

Group (I)	Group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Arabic Subtitles	English Subtitles	-.167-	1.000
	Dual Subtitles	.500	0.990
	Control Group	6.417 *	0.002
English Subtitles	Arabic Subtitles	.167	1.000
	Dual Subtitles	.667	0.977
	Control Group	6.583 *	0.001
Dual Subtitles	Arabic Subtitles	-.500-	0.990
	English Subtitles	-.667-	0.977
	Control Group	5.917 *	0.004
Control Group	Arabic Subtitles	-6.417- *	0.002
	English Subtitles	-6.583- *	0.001
	Dual Subtitles	-5.917- *	0.004

From the table, we can see that the three groups Arabic, English, and Dual subtitles does not differ significantly from each other. However, those three groups are significantly different from the control group, and the negative mean differences between the control group and the three groups indicates high significant increase of gained score for each Arabic, English, and Dual subtitles groups when it compared with the control group. The difference between groups is confirmed graphically by looking at the Plot of Means shown below.

Figure 7: The Four Groups Means Differences



Thus, the differences between Arabic, English, and Dual subtitle groups is not statistically significantly. However, the differences between each group and the control group is statistically significant which indicates that the improvement of gained marks of the students is not due to chance variation and can be attributed to the subtitles accompanied the video.

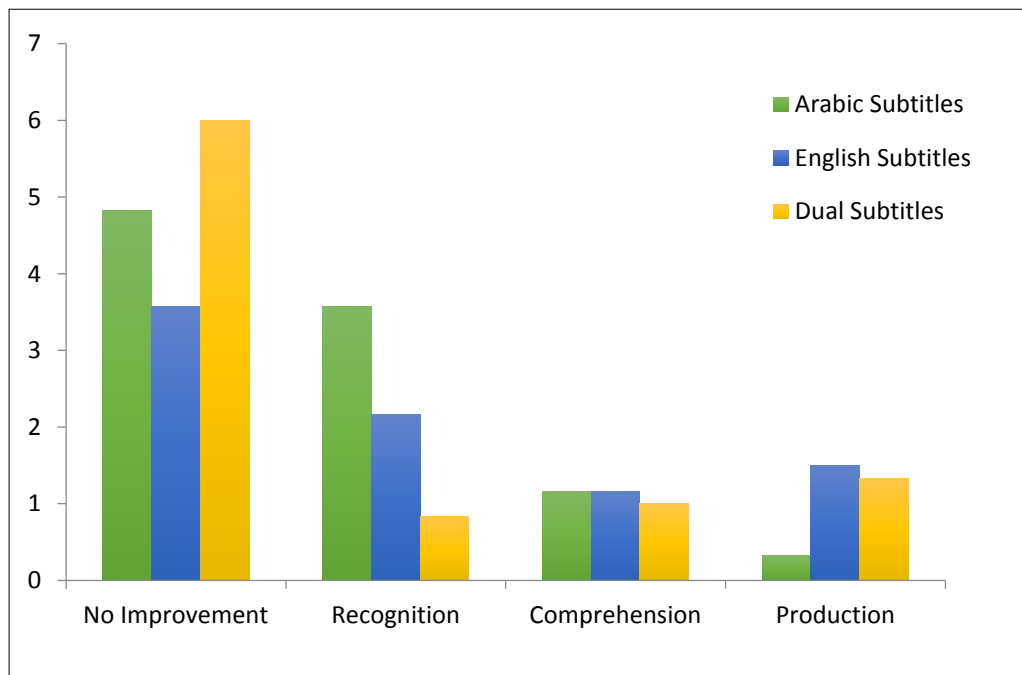
4.1.4. Experimental groups' performance in the post-test:

To examine how subtitles affect participants vocabulary knowledge in the post-test based on their subtitled video watching, we can examine their changes on the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale. Participants answers have been classified into four categories: no improvement/changes; improvement to recognition; improve to recognition for comprehension in which a participant was able to give accurate synonym or Arabic equivalent; improvement to acquisition for production

To compare the scores, means and standard deviations were calculated for each subgroup and an one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was ran for each possible score (no improvement/changes; improvement to recognition; improve to acquisition for comprehension; improvement to acquisition for production). If the ANOVA was not significant, there were no differences in scores amongst the groups. If the ANOVA was significant, one group differed from another group in scores and this difference was reported.

In the 'no improvement/changes' category, the dual subtitled group, on average, had 6 words, whereas the English subtitled group had 3.58 words, and the Arabic subtitled group had 4.83 words stay the same on average ($SD = 2.44$). The dual subtitled group had significantly more words ($M = 6.00$, $SD = 2.86$) that stayed the same/no improvement than compared to English group ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 2.57$), $p = .031$. For the 'improvement to recognition' category, there were also significant differences between groups, $F(2, 35) = 5.192$, $p = .01$. The Arabic subtitled group had the most words ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 2.16$) and significantly more words that improved to recognition as compared to the dual subtitled group ($M = .83$, $SD = .71$), $p = .003$. The English group improved to recognition, on average, 2 new words ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 2.58$). The third category 'improvement to recognition for comprehension' did not show any differences between groups. All groups acquired for comprehension, on average, one new word. The fourth category 'improvement to acquisition for production' did show difference between groups. The English subtitled group ($M = 1.50$, $SD = 1.73$) and the dual subtitled group ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 1.37$) improved with learning more words than the Arabic subtitled group ($M = .33$, $SD = .65$). See Table 1 for complete descriptive statistics. See Figure 1 for a bar graph of means for each of the four categories for each subtitled group.

Figure 8: Means of Post-test Changes by Experimental Groups



4.2. Attitudes about Learning from Subtitles

After watching the video clips, participants answered a few questions concerning their attitudes toward learning from subtitled videos. One a scale from 1 (“Strongly Agree”) to 5 (“Strongly Disagree), participants ranked their thoughts.

Attitudes were also assessed using a number of different questions. If the question was asked on a scale from 1-5 then means and standard deviations were calculated and ANOVAs were run to see if any there were any differences between groups. If the question was a yes/no question, then percentages were reported.

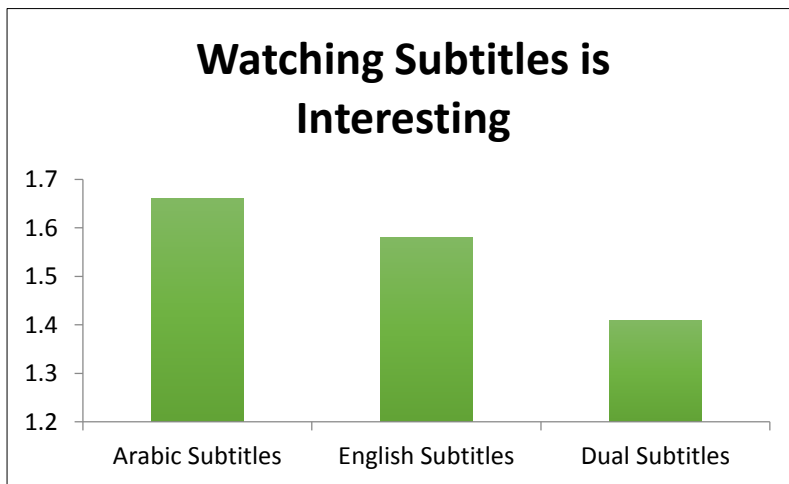
4.2.1. Part one: General attitudes towards watching subtitled videos:

I. Watching Subtitles Is Interesting:

The first question asked if learning vocabulary from subtitled videos is interesting.

The pie chart below summarize participants’ responses to this statement.

Figure 9: Watching subtitled video is Interesting

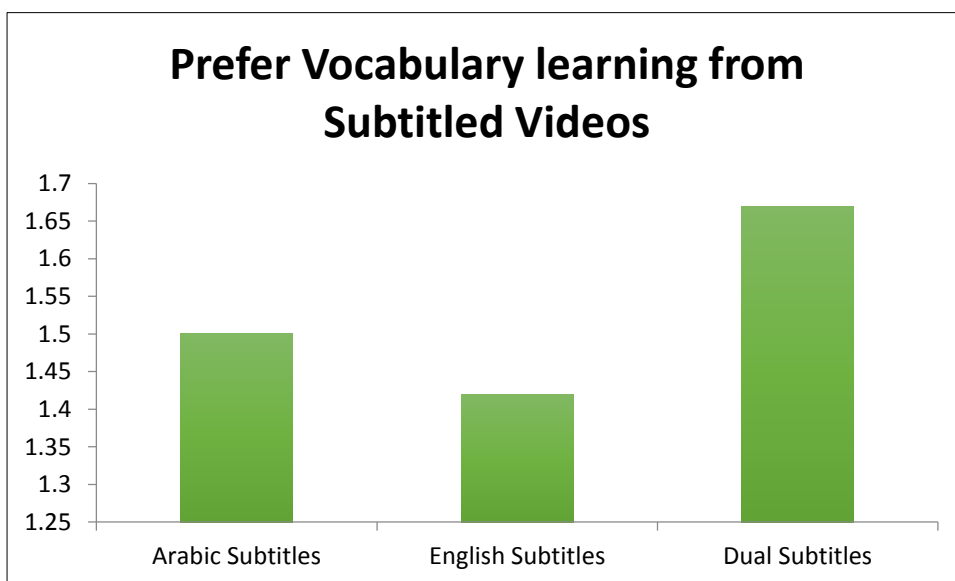


As the above chart indicates, Participants overwhelmingly agreed with this statement ($M=1.56$, $SD=.73$) and there were no differences in this between the three groups.

II. Learning Vocabulary from Subtitled Videos:

The second question asked if the participant prefers to learn vocabulary from subtitled videos. The 36 participants' responses are shown in the following chart:

Figure 10: Preferring Vocabulary Learning from Subtitled Video

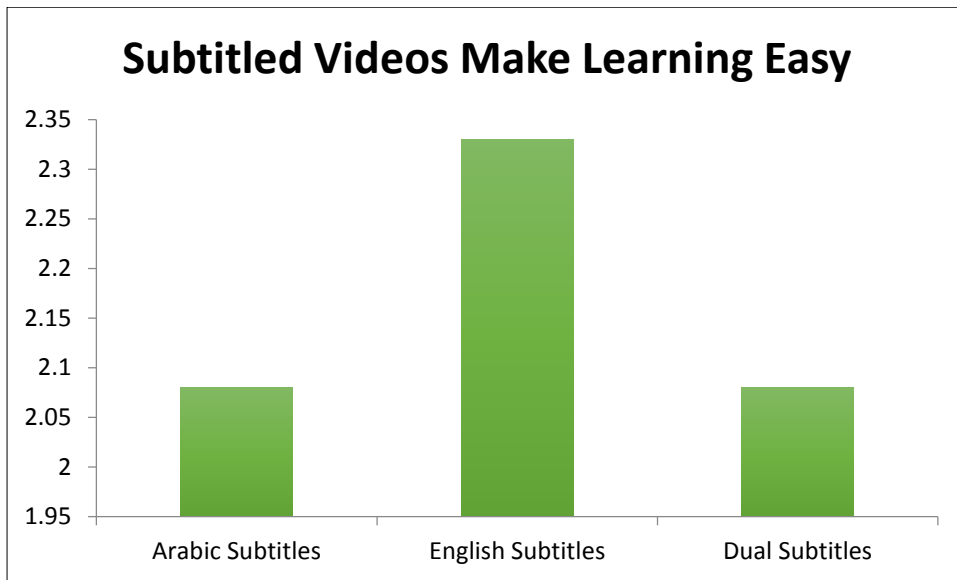


Again, participants overwhelmingly agreed with this item ($M = 1.53$, $SD = .61$) and there were no differences in attitudes between groups for this question.

III. Subtitled Videos Make Learning Easy

The third question asked if subtitled videos make learning vocabulary easy. The following chart shows participants responses:

Figure 11: Subtitled Video makes Learning Easy

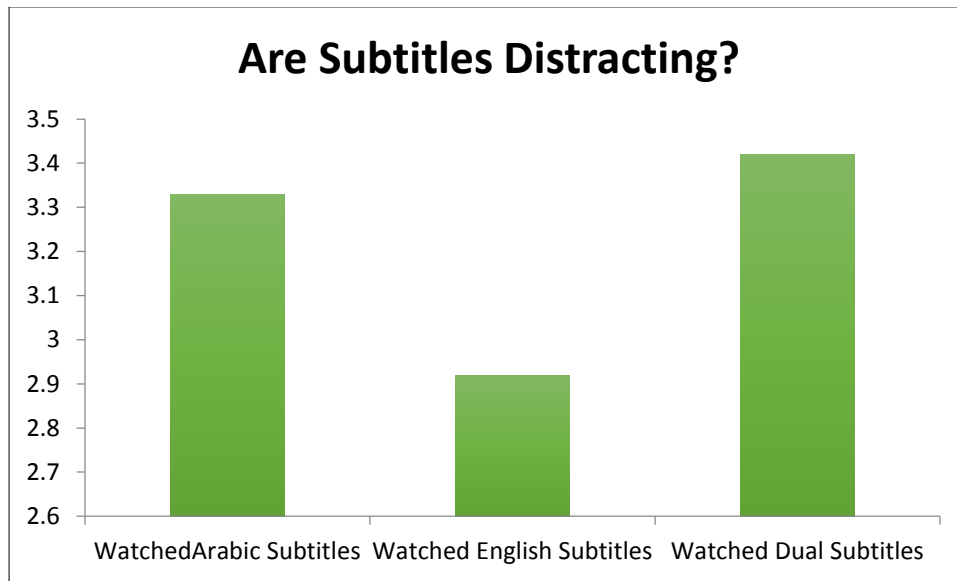


This chart shows that participants, again, on average, agreed with this statement ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 1.08$) and there were no differences based on groups.

IV. Are Subtitles Distracting?

One question asked if dual subtitles were distracting their attention. The 36 responses of all groups are shown in the chart below:

Figure 12: Subtitles Distracting

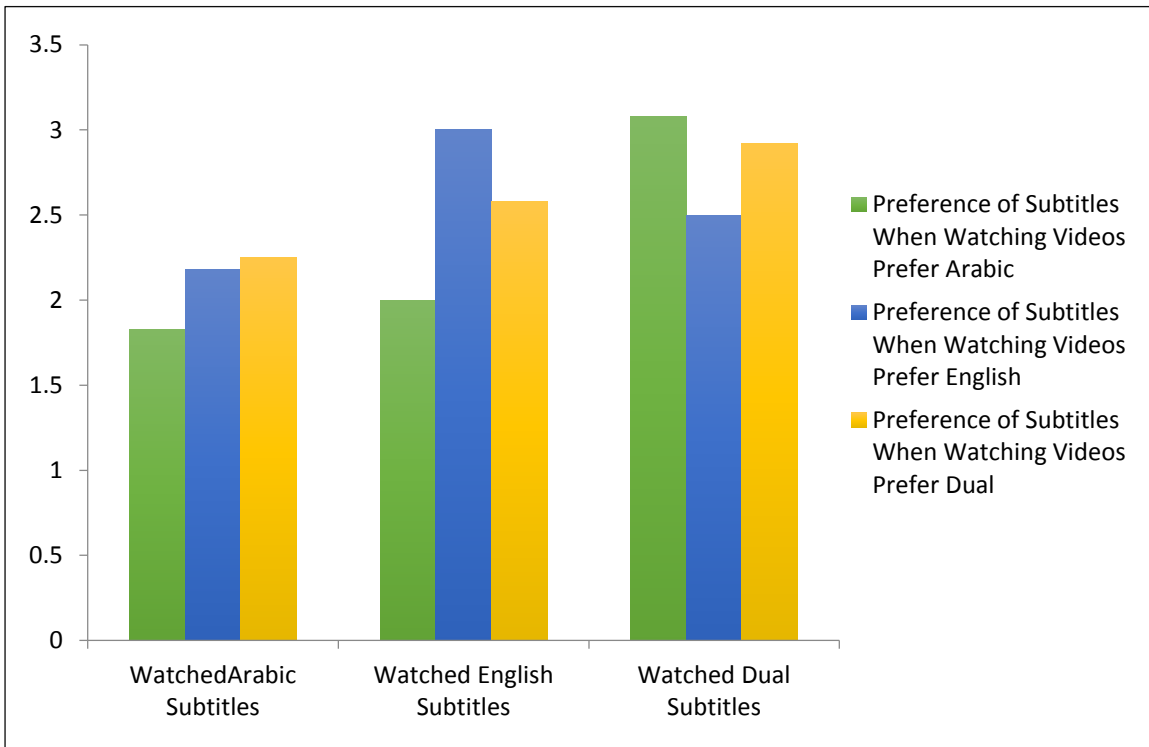


The chart indicates that Students were neutral on this ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.38$) topic and there were no differences between groups.

4.2.2. Part Two: Subtitles preference:

Three separate questions asked whether the student preferred watching videos with Arabic subtitles, English subtitles, or both. Students' responses to these three statements are represented in the chart below.

Figure 13: Subtitles Types Preference



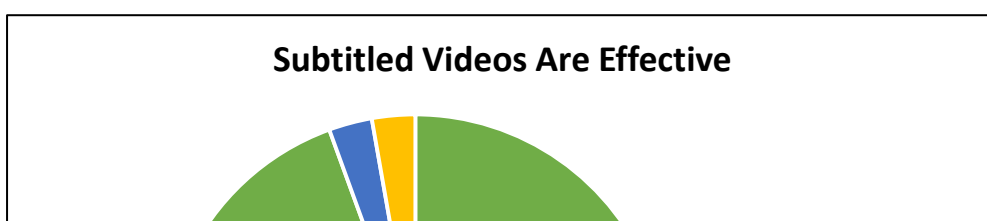
As the chart indicates, Students, on average, agreed with all three questions. Dual subtitles had slightly higher agreement of being preferred ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.03$) than the Arabic subtitles ($M = 2.09$, $SD = 1.09$) and the English subtitles ($M = 2.53$, $SD = 1.23$). Those who had watched the Arabic subtitles seem to prefer English subtitles ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 1.21$) more so than they preferred dual subtitles ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .79$). See Table 2 for all comparisons.

4.2.3. Part three: subtitled video and autonomous learning:

I. Subtitled Videos Effective Way to Learn Vocabulary:

Participants also answered a number of yes/no questions. One question asked if subtitled videos was an effective way to learn vocabulary. Participants' responses are indicated in the following chart:

Figure 14: The Effectiveness of Subtitles

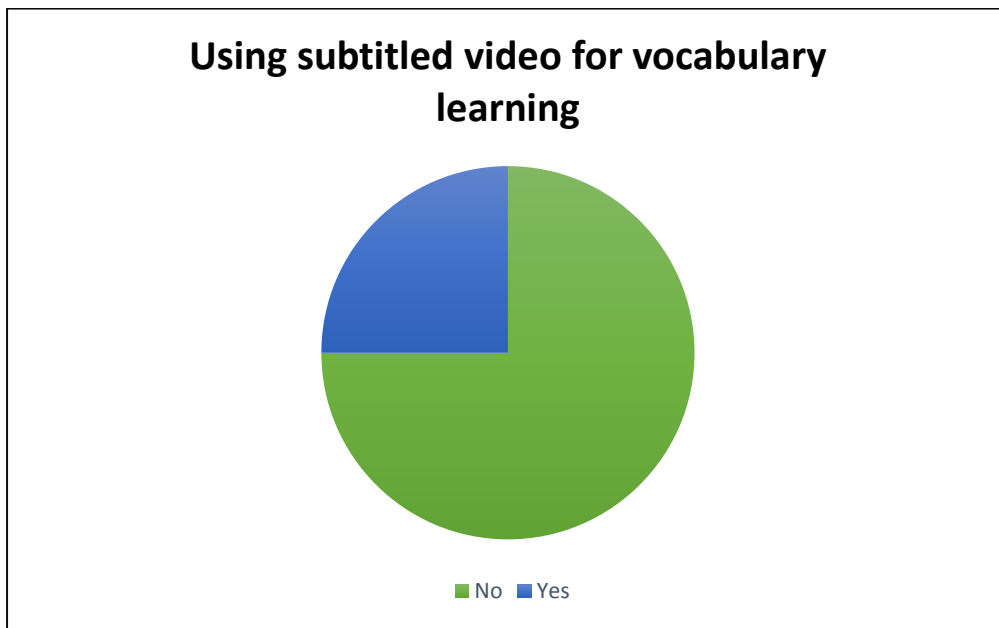


This chart shows that participants overwhelmingly responded yes to this question and that ‘yes’ constitutes (94.4%) of the responses whereas ‘no’ responses constitutes (3%) and don’t know is also form only (3%) of the responses.

II. Use of Subtitles to Learn Independently.

The participants were asked whether they have ever used subtitled video for independent learning. However, few students are using subtitles to independent learn English vocabulary (only 25% said they were) whereas the majority, around 75%, said no. The chart below summarizes participants’ responses.

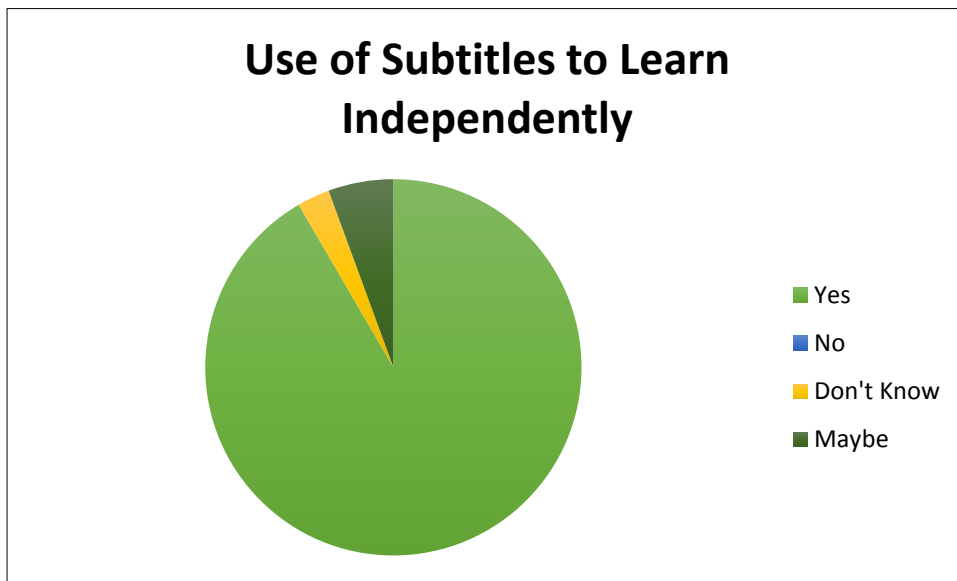
Figure 15: Learning Habits from Subtitles



III. Using Subtitles to Learn Outside of Classroom as an independent learning:

The participants were asked whether they think that subtitled videos are appropriate for independent learning outside the classroom boundaries. Though the large majority (91.7%) thought using subtitled videos was an effective way to learn outside of the classroom. The chart below represents participants' responses.

Figure 16: The Effectiveness of Subtitles for Autonomous Learning



IV. Subtitled Video Availability

This question asks participants about the subtitles types that are available for them outside the school and which subtitle type they want to be available. The majority of the sample (77.8%) reported that Arabic subtitled videos were available for them currently; however, a majority (66.7%) wanted dual-subtitled videos to watch.

Figure 17: Subtitle Type Available Outside the Classroom

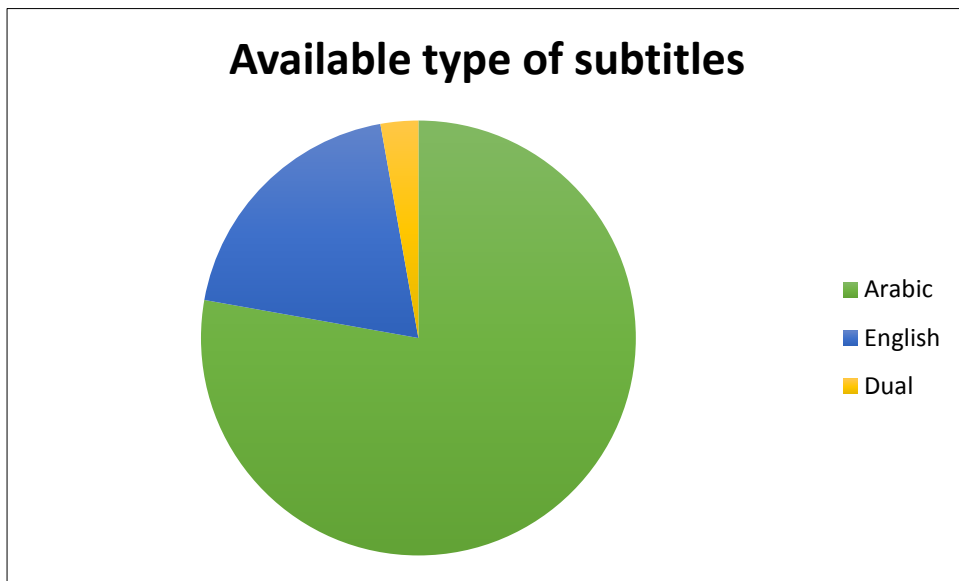
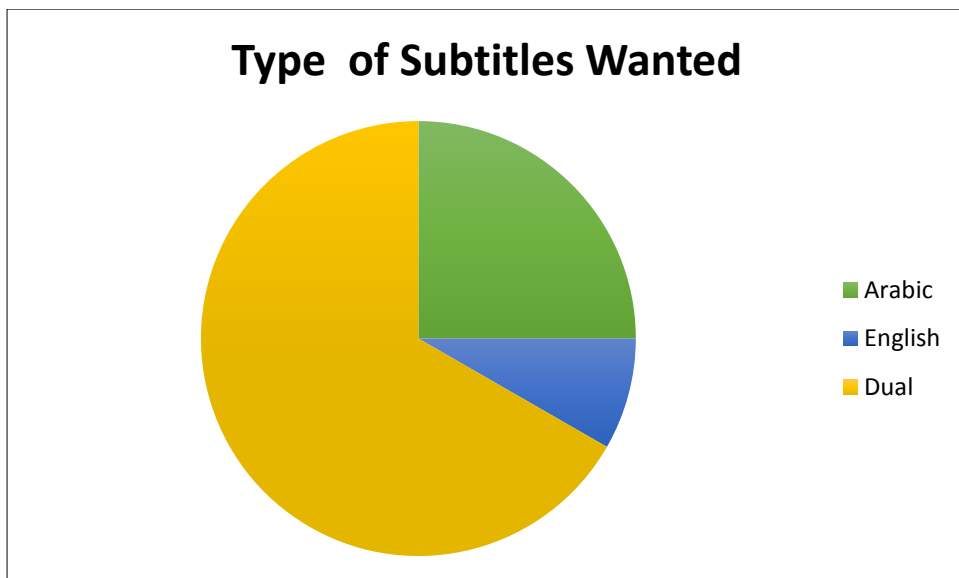


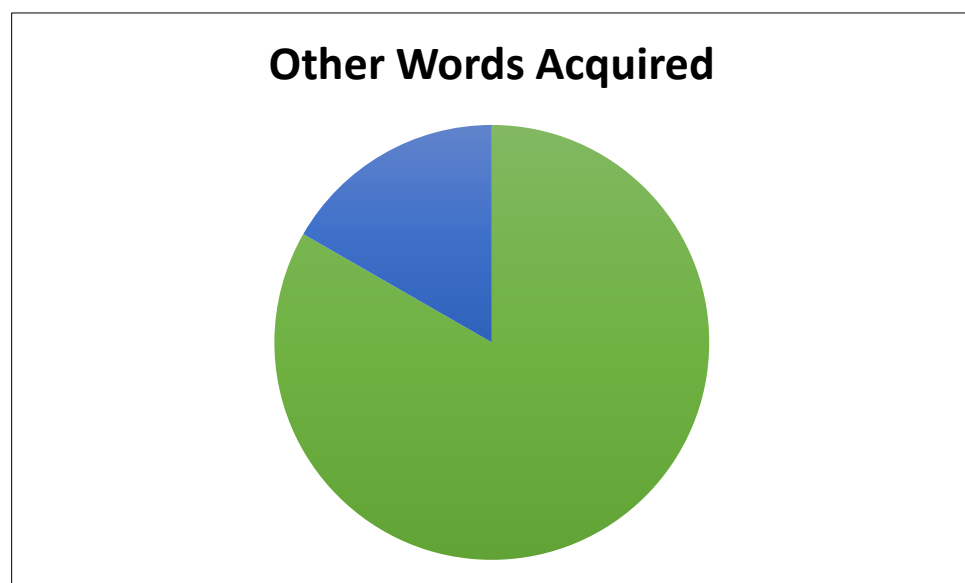
Figure 18: Subtitle Type availability Preference



4.2.4. Part four: Other Words Acquired:

This part of the survey aims to explore whether the participants acquire other words as incidental learning beside the target words presented in the VKS. However, six participants responded that they did (one person from the Arabic group, 2 from the English group, and 3 from the dual subtitled group) whereas the majority (83%) said no. These statistical information are represented in the chart below:

Figure 19: Acquired Other Words



5. Discussion

5.1. The effect of using subtitled video clips on vocabulary acquisition:

5.1.1. Vocabulary Knowledge scale (VKS) results:

After analysing pre- and post-scores for the vocabulary knowledge scale test for each participant, three results were apparent in the statistical information. Firstly, the analysis of the control group pre- and post-test scores, indicated a significant difference between control group participants' vocabulary knowledge before and after watching the video. The means of the pre- and post-test scores for the control group were 15.08 and 16.58 respectively. Secondly, the analysis of the three experimental groups' scores showed a highly significant gain in the post-test scores for all the participants, regardless of the group to which they belonged. That is, no significant difference was found between the three groups in terms of their vocabulary gain. The means for the pre-test were 13.33, 21.00 and 19.75 for the Arabic subtitled group, the English subtitled group and the dual subtitled group respectively. Whereas the means for the post-test scores were 21.25, 29.8 and 27.17 for the Arabic, English and dual subtitles groups correspondingly. Thirdly, by comparing the experimental group's and control group's scores in the post-test, a significant difference emerged between the experimental group's scores and the control group's scores. This illustrates that the vocabulary gain after watching the video was significantly higher in those groups watching a video with subtitles. The fact that each group's mean score rose by a similar amount, regardless of their subtitle treatment group, or their pre-test score, suggests that there is a positive effect on intentional vocabulary learning from watching subtitled videos, whether the subtitles are in Arabic, English or Arabic and English combined.

However, the above results are in the line with the finding of previous studies that investigated the effect of subtitles on vocabulary acquisition and documented vocabulary gain as a consequence of watching subtitled videos. For example, Harji, Woods and Alavi's study (2010), and Yuksel and Tanriverdi's (2009) findings showed significant vocabulary gains. In both of these studies, statistically significant differences were found between the control group, who watched a video without subtitles, and the treatment group, who watched with English subtitles.

Conversely, this research study's findings contradict those studies that are most relevant in terms of either subtitle types examined or the test used. For example, Aurstad's (2013) study

is comparable to the current study because it investigated intralingual and interlingual subtitles. Her research examined how three subtitle modes effected comprehension and vocabulary recognition. Forty-nine Norwegian students, aged about 17 years, were divided into an English subtitle group and a Norwegian subtitles group, and a no subtitles group formed the control group. The findings indicated a positive effect on the immediate comprehension test when using English and Norwegian subtitles but no effect from subtitles was found as a result of the delayed word definition task and the lexical decision task across all three groups. Aurstad (2013) accounted for the results as a reflection of the students' proficiency level. The second study of note was Raine's (2012) study, which is comparable to our study in three ways; the subtitle types tested, the study focus, and the vocabulary test used. Raine's study (2012) focused on the effect of subtitles on vocabulary acquisition and examined the influence of three types of subtitles; interlingual subtitles (Japanese), intralingua subtitles (English) and dual subtitles (Japanese and English). The pre- and post-test scores for the vocabulary knowledge scale demonstrated no significant gain in vocabulary, regardless of subtitle treatments. Raine (2012) suggested some factors leant predictability to the results, such as unnoticed input due to the incidental vocabulary earning, and participants' proficiency level. However, the interpretation of the current study data will also consider the procedures followed to conduct this experiment as an influence, by highlighting the differences between them and those followed in previous studies.

In this study, there was a significant difference reported between the experimental groups' gains and the control group's gains, which can be attributed to both the presence of subtitles on the one hand and explicit vocabulary instruction, whereby participants watched with intentional vocabulary learning tasks in mind. That is, the participants were instructed to explicitly focus on the subtitles to acquire target words. According to Schmitt (2008), intentional vocabulary learning is more effective with low proficient learners than incidental vocabulary learning. It can be asserted that the study findings support this claim. There are notable factors that appeared to assist learners in their intentional learning when watching the video clip. These included exposure to the target vocabulary before watching the video, explicit instruction to attend to the subtitles to learn the target words, repeated playing of the video, and the presence of subtitles; all these factors supported the participants in various ways in their intentional learning. When supporting this perspective, one participant indicated how intentional learning instruction affected their processing input. This participant, in responding to whether she acquired other words beside the target words, commented that '..... . no I don't acquire other words as I am concentrate on the target words only'.

Overall, it appears that the intentional vocabulary learning followed in this study may account for the difference in results between this study and Raine's study (2012). That is, in Raine's study, statistical analysis of the data showed no significant vocabulary gain after watching the video, either among the three experimental groups who watched video clip with subtitles or in the control group who watched without subtitles. In Rain's study, the participants were not instructed to pay attention to the subtitles, whereas in our study the participants watched the video with the intention of acquiring specific words. This can suggest the pedagogical value of intentional vocabulary learning, especially for learners with low competence in the target language, as was the case with the participants in this study.

However, some linguists propose second language learners do not have adequate time to access all L2 vocabulary through intentional learning, and that incidental learning must also be a factor when encountering vocabulary in various contexts (Ellis 1999 & Schmitt 2008). One of the aims of this research was to investigate this issue, as participants were asked to report if they acquired words other than the target words. Only six participants reported that they acquired additional words. This may support the idea that intentional and incidental approaches to vocabulary learning are not mutually exclusive, but co-occur (Ellis, 1999). The low percentage of participants acquiring other words in this research could be attributed to their low proficiency level.

In reference to subtitles' assistance in processing audio-visual input, subtitles were found to increase the comprehensibility of the words, and hence were more likely to be noticed by the participants; otherwise the words may have been lost in the stream of auditory input (Zarei, 2009). Wilson (2002) pointed out that the presence of subtitles helps learners to consciously notice vocabulary and idioms, and hence facilitates intake. Thus, it can be said that that subtitles compensate for the gap between learners' low proficiency level and fast speech in authentic materials, by providing learners with access to the form of the spoken language (English subtitles), direct decoding of the spoken language (Arabic subtitles), or access to both form and meaning (dual subtitles). However, in this study, it is impossible to reach a conclusion regarding the effectiveness of the subtitles, as the statistics show no difference between the three groups. Danan's claim (2004) that Interlingua subtitles are more beneficial for low proficiency learners, and intralingua subtitles are more effective for high proficiency learners cannot be confirmed here. In fact, the effect of the three subtitle types was unclear, provoking demand for further investigation to explore the potential effectiveness of each of the subtitle types used in this study; interlingua, intralingua and dual subtitles.

However, in order to build an in depth understanding about how watching film affects participants' scores, the participants' responses in the post-test were classified into three categories. These categories were: (1) responses that improved the status of an unknown word to a recognised word; (2) improvement in word knowledge from either unknown or recognised to comprehended and accurately translated; and (3) word knowledge, which improved from either unknown, recognised or comprehended to, able to be produced in a grammatically and semantically accurate sentence. Arabic subtitles group had more words in improvement to recognition category than English and dual subtitles groups whereas these two later groups outperformed Arabic subtitles group in improved to production category. This can be attributed to individual differences in terms of proficiency level. Overall, according to the statistical information on all three groups, the average number of words that improved to "recognition" status in general (i.e. level II, III and IV in the knowledge scale) was higher than word knowledge that improved to production level. By taking a more analytical look at the data, we can observe that participants' knowledge improvement in regard to word recognition resulted from demonstrating initial recognition of the target words, rather than from demonstrating the ability to give an accurate translation of these words. In other words, a high percentage of the participants' responses in the post-test were improved from level I (I don't remember having seen this words before) to either level II or III (I have seen this word before, but I don't think know what it means and I have seen this words before and I think it means _____). When comparing these results across the three experimental groups, with control group performance in the post-test, the control group participants were able to improve their vocabulary knowledge from unknown to recognition only. Five participants demonstrated partial knowledge of some target words, through self-reported testing, and only one participant successfully gave the accurate Arabic equivalent of one of the target words. However, in terms of productive ability, no participants in the control group were able to use one of the target words in a grammatically accurate sentence. This can be viewed as additional evidence of the positive effect of subtitles on vocabulary learning when exposing learners to audio-visual materials.

However, this information should not be considered to contradict evidence showing a significant difference between participants' pre- and post-test scores. Instead, it can be claimed that the findings support positive outcomes from video watching. Initially, when agreeing with Schwarz (2013), who used the same vocabulary test in his study, participants choosing level II or III were able to acquire partial knowledge of the target words, as they were able to identify them. This was reinforced by the theoretical basis of the VKS as word

knowledge that exists on an incremental scale, rather than comprising two simple categories of “known” or “unknown”. Wesche and Paribakht (1996) pointed out that “its purpose is not to estimate general vocabulary knowledge, but rather to track the early development of knowledge of specific words in an instructional or experimental situation” (p.33). In support of this claim, one student wrote beside one of the target words in the post-test, that she remembered the action on the video when the word was used but has forgotten the exact meaning. Thus, it can be understood that the video clip helped him to construct initial recognition. However, the salience of the input and intentional learning in this study may positively affect participants’ retention of words in the VKS pre-test, as Schmitt (2008) claims, intentional vocabulary learning ‘..... almost always leads to greater and faster gains, with a better chance of retention and of reaching productive level of mastery’ (p.341).

In this study, the statistical analysis indicated that participants were more successful at recognising the target words than they were able to produce them in a meaningful grammatical sentence. Schmitt (2008) pointed out that the productive mastery of words cannot be acquired automatically after mere exposure, and that productive mastery is much more difficult than receptive mastery (recognising a word). Therefore, we can attribute the low percentage of productive ability demonstrated in the post-test to limited exposure, as the productive mastery of a word demands more elaborate engagement with it, such as with extensive exposure and engagement in productive tasks. In relation to this point Schmitt (2008) stated, ‘it seems clear that acquiring productive mastery of vocabulary is more difficult than acquiring receptive mastery’ (p.345). Overall, we can assert that subtitled videos helped the participants with word recognition, more fully than complete acquisition, such as is shown by demonstrating various meanings and the use of the words, or ability to use them productively.

When comparing the above results across the three experimental groups, with the control group’s performance in the post-test, control group participants were able to improve their vocabulary knowledge from unknown to recognition only. Five participants demonstrated partial knowledge of some target words through a self-reported test, and only one participant was successful when giving the accurate Arabic equivalent of a target word. However, in terms of productive ability, no participants in the control group were able to use any of the target words in a grammatically accurate sentence. This can be viewed as additional evidence of the positive effect of subtitles on vocabulary learning when presenting audio-visual materials.

However, as illustrated earlier, the statistical information in our study shows audio-visual materials positively affect all four groups of participants' vocabulary gain in the post-test, with a significant outperformance of the subtitles groups over the non-subtitles group. This may suggest the role played by other factors. By reviewing the literature, two factors were thought to be influential. Firstly, the strong facilitative aspects of the audio visual materials, which allowed learners to acquire some of the target words, even when subtitles were not available, such as in the control group, or when the available subtitles did not permit direct decoding, such as in the case of the English subtitles group. Secondly, some factors related to input were thought to increase learners' abilities to acquire target words, such as the entertainment aspects of authentic film, and the repeated exposure to input. These two factors will be explained in the following discussion.

5.1.1.1. The role of the audio-visual materials:

The audio-visual materials used in this study were predicted to help participants to acquire the target words. Overall, as illustrated earlier, audio-visual materials such as subtitled films and movies offer content via three representational channels; nonverbal visual (images), aural (sounds), and verbal visual, such as subtitles. All three components of the audio-visual materials contribute effectively to learning, according to Baltova (1999), who pointed out, 'these three channels combined might well create a better environment for learning than exposure to un-subtitled video or written text accompanied by visual information' (p.35). However, it can be said that the video clip used in this study assisted the participants to acquire the target words in three different ways.

First, as the video clip was an authentic video, the role played by the visual cues was thought to be highly facilitative, and hence assist in acquisition. That is, unlike cartoons and animation, authentic films and movies present genuine situations and authentic characters, such that kinaesthetic cues, such as facial expression, gestures, hand movements, and contextual cues, such as actions, significantly facilitate comprehension. For example, Okey (2007) examined how visual elements in audio-visual materials assist learners to understand content. By analysing participants self-report of how visual elements helped them, Okey (2007) found that facial expressions and gesticulation in the videotext assisted the participants' comprehension. Although the focus of this study is vocabulary acquisition, it can be said that visual cues also help participants acquire vocabulary, especially in the English subtitled group, as an Arabic translation was not available, as the participants were able to comprehend the meaning of the target words.

The second way in which the video clip in this study appeared to help participants was the correspondence between aural and visual input. That is, information about the visual and auditory modalities of the video clip was semantically matched and made redundant (Walma van der Molen, 2001 and Bianchi & Ciabattin, 2008). The correspondence between the visual and aural information was found to support comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, as Bianchi and Ciabattin's (2008) study demonstrated. In their study, they examined the effect of two films; first, *Harry Potter*, where the visual element is essential in understanding the content and there is a semantic match between the visual and verbal (written or oral) channels, and secondly Disney's animated cartoon *Fantasia*, in which the visual element was not crucial in understanding the content, as there was no semantic correspondence. The findings showed a significant semantic match between visual and verbal representation of the video content, as after viewing *Harry Potter* participants performed significantly better in a comprehension and vocabulary task, than they did after viewing *Fantasia*. In comparison with Raine's study (2012), the video clip used in the study was not a film, but was taken from a TED Talk. Therefore, it can be said the shortage of visual and contextual cues in that video may have limited the subtitled video's effect on participants' vocabulary acquisition. This is unlike the video used in this research, where the visual cues are crucial to conveying the message and in some scenes, there is a high match between the visual and verbal messages.. The figures below are some scenes from the video clip, demonstrating the visual cues and semantic match between visual and verbal channels.

Figure 20: The Correspondence between Visual and Auditory



Figure 21: The Correspondence between Visual and Auditory

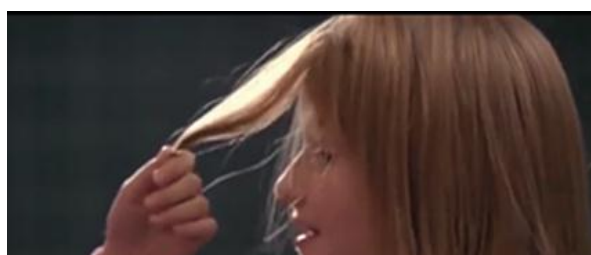


Figure 22: Facial Expression



5.1.1.2. Possible factors related to the input:

In addition to the previous points, there are some features of audio-visual input used in this study that may contribute to the positive results. The first feature is that the study used authentic film, which can increase learners' interest, motivation and therefore allow greater engagement with the input, as Schmitt noted in relation to vocabulary learning 'Students motivation and attitudes also matter, as even the best materials are little good if students do not engage with them' (2008, p.338). Authentic films, 'designed for non- learning purposes' present real language use in real situations, incorporating various cultural aspects to entertain the audience. Unlike documentary films, movies are linked to entertainment. Therefore, they have the ability to address viewers' emotions and increase their motivation and affective learning. Commenting on the effect of using videos in learning, Marshall (2002. p.7) pointed out 'the ability of the entertaining media to engage the learners, activate emotional states, initiate interest in topic, and allow for absorption and processing of information. ' Based on this, it can be asserted that the film in this study affected participants' attitude to learning by increasing interest levels and motivation, resulting in greater engagement.

The second feature that might contribute is the amount of exposure to input. Unlike Raine (2012) and Aurstad's (2013) studies; in this study the participants had two opportunities to watch the film. According to Ellis (1994:46), the level of exposure to a certain word is crucial in acquiring it; he said 'There is plenty of evidence to suggest that the number of encounters learners have with a word is a major factor in whether they learn it or not'. In this study, aside

from playing the video clip twice, some words were repeated more than once in the video. Therefore, we suggest repeated exposure may have increased learners' ability to acquire the new words.

5.2. Participants' attitudes towards learning from subtitled videos:

5.2.1. The questionnaire survey results:

5.2.1.1. *General attitudes towards learning from subtitled videos:*

In general, the participants demonstrated a positive attitude regarding learning English vocabulary from subtitled videos. This finding is in line with previous studies, such as those by Vanderplank (1988) Danan (2004) and Raine (2012), which similarly concluded that learners can positively express their attitudes toward learning vocabulary from subtitled videos. In relation to whether learning from subtitled video is interesting or not, participants overwhelmingly agreed it was; 20 (55%) of the participants strongly agreed and 14 (38%) agreed. This can be attributed to the entertainment factor when viewing films, as well as the presence of subtitles and the video content which contribute to stimulating participants' interest. The participants' agreement here supports Cross's (2009) claim that films 'raise learners' interest level' (p.46). In relation to subtitles, Danan (2004, p.74) claimed subtitled films create a 'low-anxiety environment' and therefore impact on affective learning. Thus this can lead to the conclusion, which many other studies have observed, that using subtitled videos in the second language classroom is a motivational strategy influencing learners' affective filter in learning.

However, participants were also asked about whether they prefer to learn vocabulary from subtitled videos, regardless of subtitle type, rather than from books. The participants positively reacted to this statement, as they are overwhelmingly agreeing with this statement. This result is in accordance with previous studies, such as that by Shan (2010), in which 70.6% of the participants preferred multimedia applications and audio-visual based materials to learn vocabulary from rather than print-based materials. In this study about 33 participants responded either agree or strongly agree, i.e. 91.6% of participants. This high percentage of respondents preferring learning vocabulary from subtitled videos may result from the fact that audio-visual materials better represent their literacy practice outside school. That is, learners may prefer learning vocabulary from subtitled videos because video materials match their practice outside school, where screen-based text is more commonly encountered than print-

based text. Students of today are consumers of digital devices, screen text, social network sites, more so than ever before. Particularly, in the Saudi environment, as mentioned earlier, digital devices and digital texts play a significant role in students' daily activities, as Saudi people are ranked among the world's most regular users of web applications and technological devices. In Walsh's (2010) broad research study, that investigated students' use of internet, digital texts and paper-based texts outside school, according to a questionnaire survey, students are digital readers, with browsing the internet listed as their preferred leisure time activity. In addition, 50% of the male students believed that 'reading is boring'. Walsh (2010) points out that '.... . research that has shown that, outside school, students are more likely to be engaged in activities with digital and mobile technology such as instant messaging, gaming and social networking' (p.218). Therefore, Walsh went further, suggesting that the school curriculum should incorporate both print-based texts and digital-based texts to maintain students' motivation and engagement in representation of communication. Thus, it can be said that learning vocabulary from screen-based text links participants' interest and experiences out-of-school with in-school activities and literacy practices, which is crucial for stimulating their preferences, expectations, motivation and interest in learning. However, remapping the boundaries inside and outside school literacy practices is a key point highlighted in new literacies and multimodal literacies literature, which argues for accommodating students' out-of-school activities and communication patterns into their literacy practices inside school. Stein and Mamabolo's study (2005) and Marsh's study (2006) explore the relationship between students' life at home and in the community and inside school practices. These studies suggested 'possibilities for [a] curriculum that connects with students' out-of-school multimodal repertoire' (Jewitt, 2008).

The third statement, that investigated participants' attitudes towards subtitled videos, asked whether subtitled videos make learning English vocabulary easy. The participants, again, overwhelmingly agreed with this, regardless of the group they belonged to. However, I would suggest two factors that may explain such agreement. On the one hand, the visual clues that accompanied the soundtrack may play a role in facilitating comprehension, and therefore easier recognition of words and their meanings. This has been documented in several academic publications such as those by Okey (2007), Cross (2009) and Wagner (2008). All these studies indicate the contribution of visual elements in facilitating comprehension. As illustrated earlier, visual clues are evident from facial expression, hand gestures, lip movement, moving image and body movements and so on. It should be noted that the video clips used in this research study are rich with visual cues. Furthermore, what affects

participants' decisions on the ease of learning, as attributed to the processing of videotexts, is the high degree of correspondence between audio content and visual representation in some frames of the video. Molen in her study (2001) found that a direct correspondence between the audio and visual was potentially more effective in facilitating comprehension. Two participants in the English and Arabic subtitles groups referred to the contribution of visual clues albeit they did not overtly mention the type of visual clues, as one of them said 'the image help me to understand the meaning of the English words'.

A second factor that may affect participants' perception of the ease of learning from subtitled videos, is the existence of subtitles. This was supported by 12 participants from the three groups, all of whom commented on the open-ended questions, agreeing that subtitles help them when they fail to hear certain words. This result confirmed the facilitative role subtitles play when authentic audio-visual materials are used. This corresponds to some study findings, such as Vanderplank's (1988), which highlight that subtitles enable learners to follow the TV programme's videotext easily, especially with 'fast, authentic speech and unfamiliar accent' (p.278). Additionally, Mitterer and McQueen (2009) also concluded that subtitles may help second language learners to perceive target language speech easily.

In regard to distractions that may be caused by dealing with multimodal texts, participants in this study were broadly neutral in their opinion, with a slightly higher percentage (47.4%) of the participants either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the idea that subtitles distract from attention, compared with participants who neither agreed or disagreed with the statements, as they form (27.7%) and (25%) of the participants' responses respectively. However, the neutral stance that the participants adopted may relate to unfamiliarity with these learning tasks and lack of experience, which made the participants less confident of their ability to attend to sounds and subtitles simultaneously. There were two bodies of evidence in the collected data that underpinned this interpretation. First, when the participants were asked open-ended questions about whether they had experienced learning vocabulary from subtitled videos, the majority of responses were 'no'. This confirms that the participants were mostly inexperienced in use of subtitled videos for vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, watching twice, was probably not sufficient exposure to the method to become competent and accrue benefits. Secondly, one student in the dual subtitles group wrote, 'subtitles distract my attention but I think that in time I will become accustomed to/familiarized with them'. This is more evidence that a lack of experience informs neutrality. In regard to responses that disagree with the notion that subtitles distract attention, 47% of overall participants believed

that subtitles do not distract their attention. . However, a slightly high percentage reported for this opinion is consistent with previous studies that investigate audio-visual processing and demonstrate the complementary role each modality plays in communicating the message and the dual processing of the videotexts. d'Yewalle and Gielen (1992), and d' Yewalle and De Bruyker's (2007) studies confirmed that automatic reading of subtitles does not inhibit auditory processing. Nevertheless, d' Yewalle and Van de Poel (1999) also claim that audio content and subtitles are processed in parallel. In this study, some participants' responses regarding the effectiveness of subtitles confirmed that they were able to listen and read simultaneously, as one student wrote 'English subtitles help me to hear the word and see its written form'. Regardless of subtitle type, this confirmed the dual processing of both channels. Although the participants expressed unfamiliarity with learning tasks, this does not mean that they have not experienced multimodal texts. From the statistical information about Saudi people's social networking consumption, we can assume that they are experienced in dealing with multimodal texts, especially for non-learning purposes. Therefore, participants' rejection of subtitles as a distraction can be interpreted in accordance with multimodal text processing, due to the frequent exposure to a virtual environment. Theoretically and empirically, present day students are frequently exposed to multimodal texts via digital devices, and so are able to process different modes quickly and simultaneously. Rowsell and Maureen (2011) have reported their observation of a group of elementary boy students in grade three using iPads for playing a game named 'A Monster Ate my Homework'. They commented on their observation in the following words:

'The vignette that begins our article describes a moment in time in a classroom in Oakville, Ontario. The moment encapsulates the way that children are able to respond quickly and effectively to the digital technologies that permeate their world' (p.54)

This observation proves the ability of students today to communicate using multiple modes when reading, writing, viewing and interacting with on-screen texts.

5.2.1.2. Subtitle Preference:

Another area investigated in this questionnaire survey is participants' subtitle type preferences for effective in vocabulary learning. Although dual subtitles were slightly preferred over the two other types according to the answers to the closed-ended questions, participants overwhelmingly agreed in the open-ended questions (around 66.6%) that dual subtitles were their preferred subtitle type. This result is consistent with Raine's (2012) study finding, as the majority of the Japanese participants preferred dual subtitles. However, in the

current study 19 participants (79.1%), of those who preferred dual subtitles, justified their opinion by stating dual subtitles allow them to recognise the English form of the target word and also its Arabic equivalent. Thus, according to them, dual subtitles assist them in two ways. Firstly, L2 subtitles help them know the form (spelling); as mentioned in Tsai's study (2009) where participants claimed 'I can know how words are spelt' (p.12). Secondly, that it provides an Arabic translation. Likewise, word translation was reported as an advantage of L1 subtitles by Tsai's (2009) participants.

In regard to translation, it appears that a significant number of participants believe in the importance of L1 translation when learning new lexical items. Translation is viewed as an important vocabulary learning strategy, especially for beginners with a low proficiency level, as their L2 vocabulary knowledge is not sufficient to help them infer the meaning of a word from its context (Karimian & Talebinejad 2013). Theoretically, Kroll and Stewart (1994) have provided a model (Revised Hierarchical Model abbreviated as RHM) indicating the significant role L1 translation plays in word acquisition for second language learners in the early stages. In other words, for beginners, the link between a concept and its L1 word representation is strong; hence, in order to arrive at a conceptual representation of an L2 word, it must be mediated through L1 word equivalent. This may justify Tian and Macaro's (2012) claim that L1 has a positive effect on vocabulary learning.

In addition to the cognitive effect of interlingual subtitles (Arabic), it may have an affective effect on learners in terms of offering them a relaxing and low-anxiety watching experience especially with their deficient linguistic ability. The affective dimension of the interlingual subtitles was confirmed in some studies (Danan, 2004) but its effect on the participants of this study remains unknown, as no participants directly mentioned this aspect. However, participants who preferred English subtitles (around 11.1%) justified their choice, by arguing that English subtitles help them to access both the form and the pronunciation of the target word. One participant commented that 'for learning, it should be English subtitles, as the presence of Arabic will make me read without paying attention to the audio'. This negative effect of the presence of Arabic subtitles was also reported by Tsai's (2009) participants: 'I rely too much on Chinese'. Another mentioned 'For learning I prefer English subtitles, for entertainment I prefer Arabic subtitles'. This may be interpreted as meaning when this participant intentionally wants to learn English she prefers intralingua subtitles with a focus on the form, whereas she uses Arabic subtitles when the purpose is just comprehension, and this may lead to incidental learning. This supports Becelaere's (2012) claim that intralingua

subtitles are typically used for intentional vocabulary learning, and interlingual subtitles for incidental learning. However, further evidence is still required.

5.2.1.3. Subtitled video and autonomous learning:

The questionnaire survey used in this research also explored participants' habits when watching videos for language learning outside school, and tried to uncover their beliefs about the plausibility of using subtitled videos for independent language learning and why. As indicated earlier, the participants demonstrated positive attitudes toward learning from subtitled audio-visual materials, as around 94.4% thought subtitled videos were an effective learning strategy. Two reasons can be proposed for their decision on the effectiveness of using subtitled videos in language learning. The first reason is that learning from such materials contain both entertainment and learning. Secondly, subtitled video affords access to both phonological and orthographical form and meaning. While the majority support the effectiveness of subtitled videos, a small number of participants, around 25% experienced learning from a subtitled video, compared to 75% who never used it. This discrepancy between their positive attitude and watching videos for independent learning habits may indicate lack of awareness of the English input resources available to them outside the school environment. This supports Guo's (2011) claim that students in foreign contexts are often unaware of the English input in mainstream life. Guo(2011) study's findings show Chinese university level students do not pay attention to the English surrounding them outside the classroom, such as the English used in street signs, shops signs and products.

In this study, a small number of participants reported using subtitled videos to increase their vocabulary size or improve their English in general. It has been suggested that they have been exposed to English movies and films with Arabic subtitles for pleasure, but that they lack knowledge of its learning advantages and pedagogical value. This claim is supported by participants' responses regarding the type of subtitles available to them outside school. Around 78% of the participants said that videos, films and movies are available with Arabic subtitles, whereas the availability of English subtitles was reported by only 19.4%. This may suggest that they watch films or movies with subtitles but do not know how to actively use subtitles for studying.

Additionally, the participants were also asked whether they think subtitled videos are effective to support independent learning outside school. Approximately 92% believe that subtitled video is effective for independent learning. However, albeit the brief responses provided by the participants, their responses to 'why' can be summarised according to three

reasons. The first one is ‘because subtitled video is easy to use independently’. This may have two interpretations. The first is that subtitled video is easy to use without the existence of the teacher. This may support the claim that technology for learning can be used by tutors (Taylor, 1980 and Walker & White 2013). In this case, subtitled audio-visual materials function, as tutors and learners receive the audio and subtitles and benefit from them as long as they are aware of their advantages, and whilst they are equipped with the necessary strategies. An interesting response that may convey this meaning is that one participant wrote ‘...subtitled video is better than my teacher because it tell be the correct pronunciation’.

The second potential meaning related to the visual elements, the availability of the verbal language that offers correct pronunciation and the assistance of written language (subtitles), all three factors rendered subtitled video a meaningful learning source compared to print-based materials, such as books. The second reason for subtitled video being appropriate for independent learning, according to the participants, is that ‘video is available everywhere’. In this case, the availability and ease of access to authentic video with subtitles makes them an appropriate tool for independent learning. This reason was also reported by Umino’s (1999) study participants who emphasised convenience of access in relation to self-instruction materials. The third reason reported by the participants in this study was that watching subtitled videos combines ‘learning and entertainment together’. This may suggest that an entertainment dimension to the video, added to the presence of subtitles, provides an easy, non-stressful and relaxed-environment making them optimal learning sources when watching for pleasure. As mentioned earlier, this underlines the affective aspects of learning using video, films and movies, as was emphasised in other studies (Vanderplank, 1988 and Danan, 2004).

5.3. Limitations of the work:

While the study findings support the effectiveness of watching subtitled video in vocabulary learning and demonstrate participants’ positive attitudes toward learning from subtitled video both inside and outside school, some limitations in the current study should be acknowledged. The first source of limitation is the use of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale as a pre- and post-test. This is because this test requires participants to self-report their knowledge of a particular vocabulary item. In a self-reported test, participants may underestimate or overestimate their word knowledge. For example, when a participant chooses Level II in the test (I have seen/heard this word before, but I don’t know what it

means), it cannot be assumed for definite that the participant has heard or see this word before, especially as this level does not require evidence from the test taker. Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2011) point out that self-reported data may reflect bias and prejudice. Therefore, it can be said that the research validity is threatened due to the deficiency of the vocabulary test in providing an accurate estimation of participants' vocabulary knowledge before and after watching the video.

The second source of limitation is the non-homogeneity of the four groups. This was noticed when comparing all four groups of participants' pre-test scores. The mean of the pre-test scores for the Arabic subtitles group and control group was lower than the mean of the pre-test scores for the English and dual subtitles groups. Although the researcher undertook some procedures to ensure the quality of English competence across the four groups, such as adopting the placement test, it seems that participants' linguistic ability was not equal. Thus, this limitation should be considered when assessing the reliability of the study results.

The third source of limitation is the participants' misunderstanding of the concept of 'independent learning'. Although the participants discussed what independent learning means, the data from the questionnaire indicated that not all the participants had established a clear understanding of the concept. This may be due to the participants' unfamiliarity with it. In fact, this limitation can be attributed to the weakness of the questionnaire. Dörnyei (2007) pointed out that one of the weakest aspects of the questionnaire was the probability of misperceptions, because of items of unclear and straightforward questioning. Thus, we think that this study could have avoided such weaknesses by using an alternative methodology, such as interviews, as the researcher can effectively explain what this concept refers to.

6. Conclusion

6.1. Summary of the research and the main findings:

This research study was conducted to explore two issues. First, the effect of watching a video clip with three different subtitle modes on intentional vocabulary acquisition and, second, participants' attitudes towards and opinions regarding the effectiveness of watching subtitled to learn English vocabulary, and whether subtitled video is helpful for autonomous learning. Forty-eight second grade secondary school Saudi girl students aged about 17 years old took part in this research. However, certain procedures were considered to fulfil the research objective. First, the participants undertook the Oxford Online Placement Test to acquire an accurate idea about their English level, and hence ensure homogeneity among participants and an increased reliability. Second, to investigate the effect of watching subtitled video on intentional vocabulary acquisition, the participants were divided into four groups; three of these groups constituted experimental groups and one group constituted a control group. Each experimental group watched the video in different subtitle modes; Arabic, English or dual subtitles (Arabic and English), whereas the control group was exposed to a video without subtitles. Third, to uncover participants' attitudes and beliefs about the effectiveness of watching subtitled videos for vocabulary learning inside and outside school, they were asked to complete a questionnaire survey.

In regard to watching subtitled video for intentional vocabulary learning, the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test was used as pre- and post-test to show the differences in participants' vocabulary knowledge before and after watching the subtitled video clip. Three findings were observed from the statistical analysis. First, all the groups, including the control group, performed in the post-test, significantly better than in the pre-test. Second, there was a highly significant difference between the control group and the three experimental groups in terms of vocabulary gain after watching the video, as the statistical analyses of the post-test showed. Third, there was no significant difference in vocabulary gain between the three groups; the Arabic subtitles group, the English subtitles group and the dual subtitles group. This can be perceived as evidence of the effectiveness of subtitled video for intentional vocabulary learning. That is, watching subtitled video clips for intentional vocabulary learning was viewed as crucial to positive results. In other words, unlike incidental learning, the participants watched the video intentionally to insure vocabulary learning, which allowed them to focus on the target words and notice the subtitles, and hence acquire the vocabulary. Nevertheless, in our experiment, two factors were suggested as contributors to the positive

results in all four groups. First, the subtitled audio-visual materials used in this study have features that helped the participants to acquire the target words by assisting their intentional or incidental vocabulary learning. That is, the contribution of the visual dimension, the correspondence between the visual, aural and subtitles, and the presence of a textual aid. Second, some characteristics of the audio-visual materials used in this study were thought to be supportive of successful acquisition. These characteristics are first represented by the entertainment feature, which is linked to watching films that are thought to provide participants with a low anxiety learning environment, increase their motivation and positively affect their learning in general. On the other hand frequent use of some words in the film and repeated playing of the video clip was believed to help participants' vocabulary recognition and retention. Generally speaking, even with the limitations of the instrument used for measuring the effect of video watching, it can be concluded that the subtitled video was a potentially valuable and powerful learning tool that could help learners build a wide vocabulary. In our study, a major improvement was derived from word recognition, although we believe that repeated exposure will increase participants' ability to master the productive level.

In relation to the participants' attitudes toward the effectiveness of watching subtitled video for vocabulary learning purpose, either in school or outside school, analysis of the questionnaire indicated that participants have positive attitudes in general toward learning vocabulary from subtitled videos. Concerning the participants' attitudes after watching video clips, they mostly agreed that learning from subtitled video is an interesting way to learn, and that the presence of subtitles makes learning from audio-visual materials easier. The majority of the participants agreed that they prefer learning using subtitles. This can be understood by the entertaining nature of watching films, the facilitator role played by subtitles, the dominance of visual modality in subtitled videos, and the match between video and the participants' literacy practices outside school, all of which encourage participants to favour learning from subtitled videos and to have positive attitudes toward the practice in general. In respect to the distraction caused by subtitles, participants in general adopted a neutral stance. Lack of familiarity and limited practice were used to explain participants' uncertainty regarding the issue. Overall, participants' positive attitudes towards learning from subtitled video reinforced the claim that subtitled video can be used as a motivating and effective teaching strategy.

Finally, the notion of the appropriateness of using subtitled video as a source of independent learning received remarkable support from participants. Three reasons can be identified from the participants' responses, to justify their opinions. These reasons are the ease of using subtitled video, the availability and ease of access to subtitled video, and the entertainment aspects of subtitled videos. All these aspects, from participants' perspectives, increased the appropriateness of subtitled video for independent learning. However, although the majority stated that subtitled audio-visual materials were available to them outside school, only a minority had experienced using those materials for language learning. This may indicate that participants were unaware of the English resources available outside school. Thus, this demonstrates the importance and benefit of using subtitled video inside the classroom, to draw learners' attention to the available learning resources beyond the classroom.

Despite the fact that the findings of this study show watching subtitled video assists participants in word recognition, rather than in their ability to produce the target words, it should not be taken as a caution against using subtitled video in the second language classroom. Subtitled video can be a valuable teaching material. For example, language teachers can expose learners to audio-visual materials several times, hence enabling learners to pick up the target words and acquire mastery of them. Unlike the research experiments, in normal classroom practice, teachers may have sufficient time to play with videos, to pause and review videos; so potentially, learners can benefit from exposure to linguistic items. Thus, we may recommend that teachers engage learners in production tasks after exposing them to video clips, as Schmitt (2008) pointed out. The second reason justifying the importance of using subtitled video as a teaching material is the positive attitudes of students toward learning from audio-visual materials. Positive attitudes toward subtitled videos have been documented in various researches, and this research study adds further evidence to this issue. The entertainment factor linked with audio-visual materials, and the correspondence between learners outside and inside school literacy practices, insure videos can offer a motivating teaching strategy to learners in the digitalised world.

6.2. Avenues for future investigation:

This research investigated the potential effectiveness of using subtitled video for facilitating vocabulary acquisition. However, two areas of investigation can be suggested as offering potential for further studies examining the effectiveness of subtitled audio-visual materials. First, as the comparative effect of the three subtitle types investigated in this study for

learners with Arabic background remains unclear, this research can be replicated with more participants, avoiding the limitations of the vocabulary tests used in this study, either by improving it or developing more precise and effective pre-tests, as an evaluation of the effect of the subtitles. Second, by reviewing literature when using subtitled videos for language learning, it seems that there is still a gap in the knowledge, and areas that need to be explored with regard to using subtitled videos. For example, the effectiveness of subtitled video has been explored extensively in terms of listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, but there is a lack of research in respect to the acquisition of lexical chunks. In fact learning and teaching lexical chunks, also known as prefabricated patterns (Hakuta, 1976), and speech formulae (Peter, 1983), are underlined in the lexical approach to language teaching, which holds a middle position between extensive focus on teaching grammatical knowledge about the language, and the communicative approach to language teaching, which focuses on developing appropriate use of the language. According to Richards and Rodgers (2008) ‘a lexical approach in language teaching holds that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching, but lexis, that is words and word combinations’ (p.132). One of the great advantage of the acquisition of lexical chunks is developing second language learner fluency. Therefore, when a second language learner establishes a wide range of lexical chunks, collocations, and lexical phrases, she/he may be able to draw on that knowledge to produce speech easily and fluently, without hesitation. Lewis (1997) highlighted this, stating ‘fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items (p.15)’. Therefore, it can be said that subtitled authentic video, films and movies may be an optimal source of acquisition of lexical chunks for two reasons. First, as authentic videos were not designed for learning purposes, they contain genuine use of language, in which phrases, collocations and lexical chunks form a large portion of the language used. Second, in contexts where contact with native speakers is very limited, subtitled video becomes a valuable resource, offering easy and low-cost access to native speakers’ language, as used in daily life. Thus, future research investigating the effect of exposure to subtitled authentic video on developing second language learner’s knowledge of lexical chunks would be a valuable study, informing both second language educators and learners.

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8. Appendixes:

Appendix A

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale

Name: _____

Dear Student,

This is a vocabulary test that measure your knowledge of a word. However, you will find below ten words and each of these words followed by five statements. Read the word and the five statements well. After that, choose the statement that best describe your knowledge of that word. If you choose level III or IV you have to provide either Arabic translation, English synonym or word definition in English for the target word. If you choose level V, you have to answer Level IV and then write a sentence using the target word.

Finally, be sure that you answers will remain anonymous and will not affect you grads in English subject.

Thank you for your time.

1-Homeless

- I. I don't remember having seen this word before.
- II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)
- IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)
- V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)
.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

2-Devastated:

- I. I don't remember having seen this word before.
- II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)
- IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)
- V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)
.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

3-bangs:

- I. I don't remember having seen this word before.
- II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)

IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)

V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)

.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

4-fantastic:

I. I don't remember having seen this word before.

II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)

IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)

V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)

.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

5-suspended:

I. I don't remember having seen this word before.

II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)

IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)

V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)

.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

6-secret:

I. I don't remember having seen this word before.

II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)

IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)

V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)

.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

7-hairdresser:

I. I don't remember having seen this word before.

II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.

III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)

IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)

V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)

.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

8-eyebrows:

- I. I don't remember having seen this word before.
- II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)
- IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)
- V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)
.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

9-incident:

- I. I don't remember having seen this word before.
- II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)
- IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)
- V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)
.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

10-truth:

- I. I don't remember having seen this word before.
- II. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
- III. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)
- IV. I know this word. It means (Synonym or translation)
- V. I can use this word in a sentence: (Write a sentence)
.....

(If you do this section, please also do Section IV.)

Appendix B

Vocabulary knowledge Scale

Arabic version

الاسم:

المجموعة :

عزيزتي الطالبه،،

الإختبار الذي بين يديك هو اختبار يقيس مدى معرفتك بكلمة معينه. ستجدين في الأسفل عشر كلمات وأسفل كل كلمه خمس جمل. عليك أولاً قراءه الكلمه والخمس جمل جيداً بعد ذلك إختاري الجمله اللتي تمثل مدى معرفتك لهذه الكلمه. اذا اخترتي الإختيار الثالث أو الرابع فعليك بكتابه ترجمه للكلمه أو مرادف لها باللغه الإنجليزيه أو تعريف للكلمه باللغه الإنجليزيه. أيضاً ،لو اخترتي الإختيار الخامس ،فعليك بأن تختاري الرابع لتكتبي الترجمه وبعد ذلك اكتبي جمله باستخدام الكلمه المطلوبه.

في النهايه تأكدي عزيزتي الطالبه بأن إجاباتك ستبقى موضع السريه ولن تؤثر على درجاتك في ماده اللغه الانجليزيه. شاكره لك على تعاونك.

Homeless-1

- I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل.
- II. لقد شاهدت اسمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.
- III. لقد شاهدت اسمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل واعتقد. ان معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمه أو مرادف لها باللغه الإنجليزيه)
- IV. اعرف هذه الكلمه و معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمه باللغه الإنجليزيه)
- V. استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمه في جمله.

(اكتب جمله باللغه الإنجليزيه باستخدام هذه الكلمه)

:devastated-2

- I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل.
- II. لقد شاهدت اسمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.
- III. لقد شاهدت اسمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل واعتقد. ان معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمه أو مرادف لها باللغه الإنجليزيه)
- IV. اعرف هذه الكلمه و معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمه باللغه الإنجليزيه)
- V. استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمه في جمله.

(اكتب جمله باللغه الإنجليزيه باستخدام هذه الكلمه)

bangs -3

- I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل.
- II. لقد شاهدت اسمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.
- III. لقد شاهدت اسمعت هذه الكلمه من قبل واعتقد. ان معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمه أو مرادف لها باللغه الإنجليزيه)
- IV. اعرف هذه الكلمه و معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمه باللغه الإنجليزيه)

V. استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

-4-fantastic:

I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.

II. لقد شاهدت/سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.

III. لقد شاهدت/سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV. اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V. استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

-5-suspended:

I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.

II. لقد شاهدت/سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.

III. لقد شاهدت/سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV. اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V. استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

-6-secret:

I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.

II. لقد شاهدت/سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.

III. لقد شاهدت/سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV. اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها. (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V. استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

-7-hairdresser:

I. لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.

II لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.
III لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها..... (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة
أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها.....
(أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.....

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

eyebrows -8

I لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.
II لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.

III لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها..... (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة
أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها.....
(أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.....

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

:incident-9

I لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.
II لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.

III لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها..... (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة
أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها.....
(أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.....

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

truth -10

I لا أتذكر إنني قد شاهدت أو سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل.
II لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل ولكن لم استطع التعرف على معناها.

III لقد شاهدت\سمعت هذه الكلمة من قبل واعتقد ان معناها..... (أكتب ترجمه الكلمة
أو مرادف لها باللغة الانجليزية)

IV اعرف هذه الكلمة و معناها.....
(أكتب ترجمه الكلمة باللغة الانجليزية)

V استطيع أن استخدم هذه الكلمة في جملة.....

(اكتب جملة باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام هذه الكلمة)

Appendix C

Questionnaire Survey

Name:

Group number:

Dear participant,

4-The appearance of subtitles on the screen distract may attention.

• Strongly disagree	• disagree	• don't know	• agree	• strongly agree
---------------------	------------	--------------	---------	------------------

After watching the three video clips, kindly please complete the following survey about your opinion of and attitudes towards watching subtitled video for language learning. It should be take 5 to 10 minutes of your time.

Note: independent learning means learning by yourself without teacher directing such as learning at your home or in the library.

I. Part One: General attitudes:

1-Learning vocabulary from subtitled videos is interesting way

• Strongly disagree	• disagree	• don't know	• agree	• strongly agree
---------------------	------------	--------------	---------	------------------

2-I prefer to learn vocabulary from subtitled videos rather than from books.

• Strongly disagree	• disagree	• don't know	• agree	• strongly agree
---------------------	------------	--------------	---------	------------------

3-Subtitled video makes vocabulary learning easy

• Strongly disagree	• disagree	• don't know	• agree	• strongly agree
---------------------	------------	--------------	---------	------------------

II. Part Two: Subtitles Preference:

1-I prefer watching video with Arabic subtitles.

• Strongly disagree

• disagree

• don't know

• agree

• strongly agree

2-I prefer watching video with English subtitles.

• Strongly disagree

• disagree

• don't know

• agree

• strongly agree

3-I prefer watching video with dual subtitles.

• Strongly disagree

• disagree

• don't know

• agree

• strongly agree

III. Part Three: Subtitles and autonomous learning:

1-Do you think that subtitles video is an effective way to learn vocabulary and why?

2-Have you ever use subtitled video to learn English vocabulary? If not do you think that it is effective way to use this strategy independently outside the classroom and why?

3-What subtitles mod (Arabic, English, Arabic +English) is available for you outside the school? And which one would you like to be available and why?

IV. Part Four: Acquiring other words:

1-Do you acquire words other than the target words? If yes please mention them?

Appendix D

The questionnaire

Arabic version

الاسم:
المجموعة :

ظهور الشريط النصي في الشاشة يشتت انتباهي

عزيزتي المشاركة ،،
بعد مشاهدته مقطع الفيديو بثلاث انواع من الشريط النصي ،أجيبني على الاستبانة الآتية من فضلك. هذه الاستبانة عبارته عن
أسئله لمعرفة رأيك عن تعلم الكلمات من مقاطع الفيديو المدعومة بشريط نصي
قد تستغرق الإجابة عليه من خمس الى عشر دقائق
ملاحظه:التعلم الذاتي يقصد به التعلم من غير توجيه المعلمه كالتعلم مثلا في البيت ،المكتبه او اي مكان خارج المدرسه

اولاً: الميول العامه

- تعلم الكلمات من مقاطع الفيديو المدعومة بشريط نصي طريقه تعلم ممنعه.

معارضة بشدة	معارضة	لست موافقة أو معارضة	موافقة	موافقة بشدة
-------------	--------	----------------------	--------	-------------

الفيديو المدعوم بنص يسهل عمليه تعلم الكلمات

معارضة بشدة	معارضة	لست موافقة أو معارضة	موافقة	موافقة بشدة
-------------	--------	----------------------	--------	-------------

- أفضل الفيديو المدعوم بشريط على الكتاب عند تعلم المفردات الانجليزيه

معارضة بشدة	معارضة	لست موافقة أو معارضة	موافقة	موافقة بشدة
-------------	--------	----------------------	--------	-------------

• موافقة بشدة	• موافقة	لست موافقة أو معارضة	• معارضة	معارضة بشدة
------------------	----------	----------------------------	----------	----------------

ثانياً: الشريط النصي المفضل

أفضل ان أشاهد الفيديو المدعوم بشريط نص عربي				
• موافقة بشدة	موافقة	• لست موافقة أو معارضة	معارضة	• معارضة بشدة

أفضل ان أشاهد الفيديو المدعوم بشريط نص ثنائي عربي وانجليزي				
• موافقة بشدة	• موافقة	لست موافقة أو معارضة	• معارضة	• معارضة بشدة

ثالثاً:التعلم الذاتي و الفيديو المدعوم بشريط نص

هل تعتقدي ان مقاطع الفيديو المدعومة بشريط نص وسيله فعاله لتعلم المفردات الإنجليزيه؟ولماذا؟

هل سبق وأن إستخدمتي مقاطع الفيديو المدعومة بنص لتعلم الكلمات؟إذا كان الجواب لا هل تعتقدين انها وسيله فعاله للتعلم الذاتي خارج المدرسه ولماذا؟

ماهو نوع الشريط النصي المتوفر خارج المدرسه(عربي،إنجليزي ،عربي او إنجليزي)؟وماهو نوع الشريط اللذي ترغبين في توفره ولماذا؟

أفضل أن أشاهد الفيديو المدعوم بشريط نص إنجليزي				
• موافقة بشدة	• موافقة	• لست موافقة أو معارضة	معارضة	• معارضة بشدة

رابعاً:اكتساب كلمات اخرى

هل أكتسبت كلمات اخرى غير مذكورة في اختبار الكلمات ؟إذا كانت الإجابة نعم اذكريها؟

Appendix E

Transcription of the video clip extracted from Chrissa Stands Strong film

-Oh my gosh, guess what.

— What?

-My mom, she got the job she wanted, and we're moving into an apartment.

-And so it's out of the shelter?

Yeah!

-Gosh, this is fantastic!

-Goodbye, Sunrise House. Goodbye, dormitory.

Helleo We should have a party, you know, like a I'm moving into an apartment. lo, my own room.

— No more Sunrise House!

— Isn't that the homeless shelter?

-We're going into an apartment.

— I had no idea. Come on!

-I'm not sure about this

-Come on, Chrissa, cut.

-I've never cut anyone's hair before

-Chrissa, I know you can do it.

-I really want bangs.

-Okay.

-You're doing that all wrong, Chrissa. I could cut your hair for you, Gwen.

-I don't think so.

-Tara's mom is a hairdresser.

-She is really good.

-she's seen a million people get their hair cut.

-I think you'd look really pretty. Your bangs should come right about where your eyebrows are. Come on, please. You'd look adorable. Precious.

— Okay.

— Okay, face me

-This is how you cut bangs. My mom showed me.

-Do you like it?

-Yes! I love it.

-You look great, Gwen

-Come on.

-Now you really look like a homeless person

-Come on girls.

-How could you

-If you girls thought that this was some kind of a joke, well I can assure you that Gwen Thompson didn't think it was funny. I want to hear what happened in that bathroom.

-well

-We were trying to help her. After all, she is homeless

--And how do you know that she's homeless?. That's a private piece of information

-Chrissa told me.

-told me that she confided in you

-and that she didn't tell anyone else.

-no I didn't

-Neither did I. . Honest, I promise.

-What happened?

-I didn't see anything.

-Now I find that hard to believe.

-Tara started to cut Gwen's hair. . . and there was an accident.

-You know it's very hard for someone in Gwen's circumstances to come to school every day.

-She's now been devastated. She's afraid to come back to school.

-It wasn't Chrissa who told Tara about Gwen being homeless. We overheard them talking in the music room. That's how Tara knew.

-An incident like this is never going to happen at this school again.

Tara, I am going to suspend you for three days. And while you're at home, I want you to think about what Gwen is feeling. How would you feel if the same thing happened to you?

-I will, Mrs. Ziminsky.

I understand this is not the first time that you three girls have ganged up on her. So Jayden and Sonali, you're suspended for a day.

-Will this go on my record?

-It's hard telling the truth. It's not always an easy thing to do.

-I'm glad that Gwen has a friend like you.

. let's call your parents.

-That must have been so hard on you, sweetie. Watching those girls do that to your friends. I can't believe they would call Gwen homeless unless they really wanted to hurt her feelings.

-Well they did want to hurt her feelings. Those girls are bullies.

-You know, when I was a girl, there was a saying: Sticks and stones may break your bones, but words can never hurt me.

— I've heard of that.

— Yeah, well it's not true.

-Words can hurt. They can do a lot of damage. And once they're out there, you can't take them back.

-I know

-You guys got that?. The three branches of government.

— Sunrise House? Hello? Is Gwen Thompson there, please?

-She's not here anymore.

-She moved already? - yes, she did.

-Well, do you think I can have her new number?

-I'm sorry, I can't give that information.

-oh ok

-Is there anything else I can do for you?

-Okay, thanks anyway

-I need to talk to you.

-I don't want to talk to you.

- Gwen, Chrissa didn't tell. . .

-Sonali, let's go.

-Gwen, Chrissa didn't tell Tara your secret.

-We heard you guys talking in the music room. . That's how Tara knew. I'm really sorry about how mean I've been to you.

-You know, Tara's going to be really mad.

-You know what, Jayden?. I don't care.

-Wait a second.

Appendix F

Transcription of the video clip extracted from Chrissa Stands Strong film

Arabic version

الترجمة العربية لمحتوى مقطع الفيديو

جوين ياإلهي!الذي خبر ماذا تظنين؟ماهو؟
جوينحصلت أمني على الوظيفة التي كتمت تريدها وسنسكن في شقه
كريساوهل هي خارج منطقته الإيواء؟
جوين:نعم إنها كذلك
كريسا:ياإلهي هذا أمر رائع
جوين:وداعا إيواء الشروق وسكن الطلاب ومرحباً بغرفتي الخاصة
كريسا: لايد من الإحتفال بانتقالي لشقه مستقله
جوين لا لإيواء الشروق بعد الآن -أليس ذلك هو مقر الإيواء؟
تارا:سننتقل الى شقه-لم أكن أعلم بذلك
تارا:هيا بنا
كريسا:لست مطمئنة لعواقب مانفعل
جوين لا تترددي ياكريسا ،قصيه
كريسا:لم أقص شعر احد من قبل
جوين انا واثقه من قدرتك على قصه
جوين:انا ارغب في الحصول على غره
كريسا:حسنا
تارا:انت مخطئه في طريقه قصفك ياكريسا
تارا:انا أستطيع قصه يا جوين
جوين:لاأظن
تارا :كفى عنك ذلك يا جوين
جايدن:فوالده تارا مصففه شعر ولقد شاهدت الملايين من الناس وهم يقصون شعورهم
سونالي :نعم هاذا صحيح إنها بارعه
تارا:ستبدين جميله ،غرثك يجب أن تقص بما لايجب حاجبيك
تارا:لا تترددي ،ستبدين جميله يا صديقتي الغالية ،أرجوك
جوين:انا موافقه
تارا:حسناً انظري إلي،هكذا تقص الغره فقد علمتني أمني.
تارا :هل يعجبك هاذا؟
جوين :نعم أحب هاذا.
تارا:أثبتت قليلاً ،عداراً لقد أخطأت قليلاً ،الآن تبدين حقاً كشخص مشرد.
تارا:هيا لترحل يا بنات
تارا :هيا ياسونالي سونالي

كرسا: جوين
جوين: كيف لك أن ترتكبي هذا.
جوين: أنا أنا. . .
سيده زيمنسكي: إن إعتقدتم بأن مافعلتم كان مزاحاً فأنا أكّد لكم بأن جوين لم تظنه لطيفاً
سيده زيمنسكي: أريد أن أعرف حقيقه ما جرى في المرحاض.
تارا: في الحقيقة. . . كنا نحاول مساعدتها ولكنها في في نهاية الامر مشرده
سيده زيمنسكي: كيف علمتني أنها مشرده. هذه معلومة حساسه
تارا: أخبرتني كريسا بذلك.
كريسا: كلا انا لم أخبرك بذلك.
سيده زيمنسكي: كريسا، جوين أخبرتني بأنها تثق بكولم تخبر أحداً سواك
كريسا: وأنا لم أكن تثقها وأقسم أنني صادق
سيده زيمنسكي: ماذا عندك يا جوين؟ مالذي حدث؟
جوين: لم أرا شيئاً
سيده زيمنسكي: من الصعب تصديق ذلك
سيده زيمنسكي: سونالي سونالي
سونالي: بدأت بدأت تارا في قص شعر جوين ولكن حدث شي لم يكن متوقفاً
سيده زيمنسكي: من الصعب لأحد في ظروف جوين بأن يحضر إلى المدرسه يومياً إنها محطمة وهي الآن خائفه من
الرجوع للإنضمام للمدرسه.
سونالي: لم تكن كريسا من اخبر تارا بأن جوين مشرده أو على الأقل لم تعتمد ذلك. لقد تترامى الى مسامعنا حديثهم في
الغرفه.
وهذا عرفت تارا
سيده زيمنسكي: حادثه كذلك لن يسمح لها أن تحدث في المدرسه مجدداً. أنت مفصولة ياتارا لمدته ثلاثه ايام وأرديك أن
تفكري بما تمر به جوين في تلك الفترة وبماذا منت سنشعرين إن كنت في موقفها.
تارا: سأفعل يا سيده زيمنسكي
سيده زيمنسكي: ليست المره الاولى اللتي تتكاليون فيها عليها، سونالي وجايدن أنتما مفصولتان ليوم واحد.
جايدن: هل سيسجل هذا في ملفي؟
سيده زيمنسكي: أود أن أشرك ياسونالي. من الصعب قول الحقيقة في كثير من الأحيان. أما انت ياكريسا فأنا مسروره بأن
لجوين صديقه مثلك. حسناً يا بنات لنتصل بأولياء أموركن.
الجد: كريسا لقد كانت تجريه قاسيه بالنسبة لك شاهدت فيها صديقتك يساء إليها من هؤلاء البنات. لأصدق كيف نعتوا
جوين بالمشرده إلا إن كانوا قاصدين إهانتها.
كريسا: إنهم قصدوا إهانتها.
الجد: هؤلاء البنات من المضايقين. عرفت حكمه منذ طفولتي تقول :
يمكن للعصى والحجاره أن تؤلم ولكن الكلمات لا تستطيع.
الأم: لقد سمعت ذلك من قبل.
الجد: ولكن ذلك غير صحيح. يمكن للكلمات أن تؤذي الإنسان بدرجه كبرى.
الأم: حقاً
المعلم: هل فهمتم ذلك ثلاثه أفرع للحكومة.
كريسا: إنها محطمة وهي الآن خائفه من الرجوع للإنضمام للمدرسه.
كريسا: ملجأ الشروق-مرحباً-هل جوين موجوده هنا.
ملجأ الشروق: ما عادت تسكن هنا.
كريسا: هل تركت المكان؟
ملجأ الشروق: نعم تركته
كريسا: هل لي أن أحصل على رقم هاتفها الجديد ؟
ملجأ الشروق: المعذره لا يحق لي ذلك.
كريسا: حسناً
ملجأ الشروق: هل من شيء اخر يمكنني مساعدتك به؟
كريسا: كلا شكراً على آيه حال. مع السلامه.
كريسا: أريد التحدث إليك
جوين: لأرغب بالتحدث إليك.
سونالي: جوين كريسا لم تخبر تارا بسررك. لقد سمعناكم تتحدثون في الغرفه وهكذا عرفت تارا، أيضاً يا جوين أود بأن أعتذر
لك عن خداعي لك.

جايدن:ستغضب تارا جداً
سونالي:هل تعلمين يا جايدن شيئاً لا يهمني ذلك

Appendix G

Consent Form

Re: Participation in a Research Study

Dear Parent,

My name is Ghadah and I am an AM student at Southampton University. I am conducting research on Vocabulary learning from subtitled video to meet my degree requirement. Second grade classrooms were selected to be the research participants. Thus, the purpose of this form is to provide you (as the parent of a prospective research study participant) information that may affect your decision as to whether or not to let your daughter participate in this research study.

This study investigates the effectiveness of watching subtitled video on vocabulary acquisition. Your daughter participation will take to forms:

- Watch a video for seven minutes.
- Do a vocabulary test.
- Complete a questionnaire.

Although your daughter will receive no direct benefit from participating in this study, she can learn some new English words and enjoy watching the video. Please note that your daughter participation in this research is completely voluntary and whether she participates or not will not affect her marks in English subject.

With many thanks

Ghadah

Consent Form

Please complete and return to the headteacher.

Name of the participants:

Class.....

I do / do not want my daughter to take part in this study.

Print name.....

Signature.....

Date.....

Appendix H

Consent Form The Arabic version

الموضوع: مشاركة في بحث.

عزيزي ولي الامر،،

اسمي غاده باحثه وطالبه ماجستير في جامعه ساوثهامبتون. سأقوم بإجراء بحث في هذه المدرسه من اجل الحصول على الدرجة العلميه. ولذلك تم اختيار الصف الثاني ثانوي كي يكون عينه البحث. وبما أن ابنتكم من طالبات الصف الثاني ثانوي، فإننا نريد موافقتكم للسماح بان تشارك ابنتكم في البحث. فيما يلي بعض المعلومات عن البحث من أجل تزويدكم بفكره عامه عن اهم الاجراءات اللتي ستقوم المشاركة في البحث القيام بها:
البحث بصفه عامه عباره عن فحص مدى فعاليه مشاهدته مقاطع الفيديو المدعومه بنص على اكتساب الكلمات الإنجليزيه والمشاركات سوف يقمن ب:

١- مشاهدته مقطع فيديو لمدته ٧ دقائق.

٢- اجراء اختبار للكلمات.

٣- إكمال استبيان.

على الرغم انه لا توجد فائده مباشره للمشاركة جراء هذه المشاركة، الا ان المشاركة قد تستفيد وتكتسب بعض الكلمات الإنجليزيه.

وأخيرا أوزود ان انوه ان مشاركة الطالبه اختياريه تماماً ولن يؤثر قرارها على درجاتها في ماده اللغه الانجليزيه.

مع خالص شكري وتقديري

نموذج موافقة

اكملني هذا النموذج وسلميه لمديره المدرسه.

اسم المشاركة:

الصف:

أوافق / لا أوافق على مشاركته ابنتي في الدراسة.

الاسم:

النوع:

التاريخ:

Appendix I

Type List

1k types: [families 145 : types 189 : tokens 644] a_[13] about_[5] after_[1] again_[1] all_[2] already_[1] always_[1] am_[6] an_[6] and_[9] any_[1] anyone_[2] anything_[2] anyway_[1] are_[8] at_[2] back_[2] be_[1] been_[3] before_[1] being_[1] believe_[2] branches_[1] break_[1] but_[1] call_[2] can_[10] care_[1] come_[8] could_[2] cut_[6] day_[1] days_[1] did_[9] do_[11] doing_[1] easy_[1] else_[2] everyday_[1] face_[1] feel_[1] feeling_[1] feelings_[2] find_[1] first_[1] for_[5] friend_[1] friends_[1] get_[1] girl_[1] girls_[5] give_[1] glad_[1] go_[2] going_[4] good_[1] goodbye_[2] got_[2] great_[1] had_[1] happen_[1] happened_[3] hard_[4] has_[1] have_[7] hear_[1] heard_[2] help_[2] her_[6] here_[1] home_[1] homeless_[6] house_[3] how_[7] i_[35] idea_[1] if_[2] in_[5] into_[3] is_[24] it_[10] kind_[1] knew_[2] know_[8] let_[2] like_[5] look_[4] love_[1] may_[1] me_[5] mean_[1] million_[1] mom_[3] more_[2] moved_[1] moving_[2] mrs_[1] music_[2] must_[1] my_[5] need_[1] neither_[1] never_[3] new_[1] no_[3] not_[19] now_[3] number_[1] of_[6] oh_[2] on_[8] once_[1] out_[2] own_[1] party_[1] people_[1] person_[1] piece_[1] please_[2] pretty_[1] private_[1] promise_[1] really_[7] record_[1] right_[1] room_[3] same_[1] saying_[1] school_[3] second_[1] secret_[1] see_[1] seen_[1] she_[13] should_[2] showed_[1] so_[4] some_[1] someone_[1] started_[1] stones_[1] sure_[1] take_[1] talk_[2] talking_[2] tell_[3] telling_[1] that_[19] the_[9] their_[1] them_[2] there_[5] they_[5] thing_[2] think_[5] this_[8] those_[2] thought_[1] three_[3] time_[1] to_[23] told_[3] true_[1] truth_[1] trying_[2] understand_[1] unless_[1] up_[1] very_[1] wait_[1] want_[5] wanted_[2] was_[6] watching_[1] we_[6] well_[5] were_[2] what_[6] when_[1] where_[1] while_[1] who_[1] will_[2] words_[2] would_[4] wrong_[1] yes_[2] you_[36] your_[7]

2k types: [21:21:30] accident_[1] afraid_[1] bones_[1] damage_[1] funny_[1] government_[1] guess_[1] hair_[4] hello_[1] honest_[1] hurt_[4] information_[2] joke_[1] lot_[1] mad_[1] parents_[1] precious_[1] shelter_[2] sorry_[2] sticks_[1] thanks_[1]

AWL types: [5:6:6] assure_[1] circumstances_[1] incident_[1] job_[1] suspend_[1] suspended_[1]

OFF types: [?:29:68] adorable_[1] apartment_[3] bangs_[3] bathroom_[1] bullies_[1] chrissa_[7] confided_[1] devastated_[1] dormitory_[1] eyebrows_[1] fantastic_[1] ganged_[1] gosh_[2] guys_[2] gwen_[12] hairdresser_[1] helwe_[1] jayden_[2] lo_[1] ok_[1] okay_[4] overheard_[1] sonali_[2] sunrise_[3] sweetie_[1] tara_[8] thompson_[2] yeah_[2] ziminsky_[1]