



Third Cycle of Studies

Doctoral Dissertation Topic:

“The effects of watching subtitled movies on incidental vocabulary acquisition of adults”

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Declaration

I am aware of and understand the university's policy on plagiarism and I declare that this thesis is my own work, except where indicated by referencing, and the work presented in it has not been submitted in support of another degree or qualification from this or any other university or institute of learning.

Alisa Sadiku

Abstract

Learning new vocabulary comprises a significant factor for success within language learning, since without the adequate knowledge of words and their meaning, learners are not able to use the target language efficiently. Moreover, vocabulary tends to be forgotten if it is not acquired and used through the right methods that will provide learners with language input in genuine target language environment. In this regard, the increasing access to different multimedia and technological resources facilitates spontaneous vocabulary acquisition for the contemporary age learners. In particular, movies with subtitles can be a great tool in bringing students closer to authentic vocabulary for real life communication.

Previous studies have found several benefits of using subtitled movies by confirming that subtitles indeed improve vocabulary acquisition. The present research had the aim to confirm these findings by examining the usefulness of subtitles in different settings. Specifically, to investigate the usefulness of subtitled movies in vocabulary gains, three groups of students were observed in three different conditions, one exposed to movies with interlingual (Albanian) subtitles, one with intralingual (English) subtitles and the third group exposed to movies without any subtitles, with the aim to determine which type of subtitles renders the best results. To collect the data, several instruments were administered such as: questionnaires, English proficiency test, direct observation, Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test (VKS test, adapted by Chen, 2006) and two feature movies. The results of this study indicate that interlingual subtitles facilitate better vocabulary acquisition for short term memory, specifically when they are shown to students in intentional learning environment, i.e. with the assistance and instructions from the teacher.

Keywords: *subtitles, incidental language learning, vocabulary acquisition.*

Abstrakt

Të nxënit e fjalorit të ri paraqet një faktor të rëndësishëm për suksesin e mësimit të gjuhës, pasi që pa dijeninë adekuate të fjalëve dhe kuptimit të tyre, studentët nuk janë në gjendje të përdorin në mënyrë efikase gjuhën e huaj. Për më tepër, fjalori ka tendencë të harrohet nëse nuk mësohet dhe përdoret përmes metodave të duhura që do t'u ofrojnë studentëve fjalë nga gjuha e huaj në mjedis të vërtetë. Në këtë drejtim, rritja e qasjeve në burime të ndryshme multimediale dhe teknologjike lehtëson përvetësimin spontan të fjalorit për studentët bashkëkohorë. Në veçanti, filmat me titra mund të jenë një mjet i shkëlqyeshëm për t'i afruar studentët me fjalorin autentik të komunikimit të vërtetë.

Studimet e mëparshme kanë zbuluar disa përfitime nga përdorimi i filmave të titruar duke konfirmuar se titrat me të vërtetë përmirësojnë të nxënit e fjalorit. Ky hulumtim kisht synim të konfirmojë këto gjetje duke shqyrtuar dobinë e titrave në mjedise të ndryshme. Konkretisht, për të hetuar dobinë e filmave të titruar në pasurimin e fjalorit, tre grupe pjesëmarrësish janë vëzhguar në tre kushte të ndryshme, njëri i ekspozuar në filma me titra në gjuhën amtare (gjuhën shqipe), tjetri me titra në gjuhën angleze dhe i treti në filma pa titra, për të përcaktuar se cili lloj i titrave jep rezultate më të mira. Për të mbledhur të dhënat, janë administruar disa instrumente, edhe atë: pyetësorë, testi i aftësive në gjuhë angleze, vëzhgimi i drejtpërdrejtë, testi i shkallës së njohurive të fjalorit (testi VKS, i përshtatur nga Chen, 2006), si dhe dy filma. Rezultatet e këtij studimi tregojnë se titrat në gjuhën amtare lehtësojnë më së shumti përvetësimin e fjalorit për kujtesën afatshkurtë, veçanërisht kur studentët janë të ekspozuar në mjedis të mësimit të qëllimshëm, pra me ndihmën dhe udhëzimet e mësuesit.

Fjalë kyçe: *titra, mësimi i gjuhës së rastësishme, përvetësimi i fjalorit.*

Апстракт

Учењето на нови зборови претставува значаен фактор за успех во учењето на јазици, бидејќи без соодветно познавање на зборовите и нивното значење, учениците не можат ефикасно да го користат јазикот кој го учаат. Згора на тоа, вокабуларот може да се заборави доколку не е стекнат и не се користи преку методи кои на учениците ќе им го доловат јазикот во неговата автентична форма. Во овој поглед, зголемениот пристап до различни мултимедијални и технолошки ресурси го олеснува спонтаното збогатување на вокабуларот кај учениците. Конкретно, филмовите со преводи можат да бидат одлична алатка за приближување на студентите до вокабуларот кој се користи во секојдневната комуникација.

Претходни студии откриле неколку придобивки од користењето на преведените филмови, потврдувајќи дека преводот навистина го подобрува учењето на вокабуларот. Ова истражување има за цел да ги потврди овие наоди со испитување на корисноста на преводот во различни услови. Поточно, за да се испита корисноста на преведените филмови за подобро стекнување на нов вокабулар, три групи на ученици беа набљудувани во три различни услови. Првата група беше изложена на филмови со превод на мајчин јазик, другата на филмови со англиски превод и третата беше изложена на филмови без превод, со цел да се утврди кој тип на превод дава најдобри резултати. За да се соберат податоците, беа користени неколку инструменти, и тоа: прашалници, тест за познавање на англиски јазик, директно набљудување, тест на скала за познавање на вокабуларот (адаптиран од Chen, 2006) и два филма. Резултатите од оваа студија покажуваат дека преводите на мајчин јазик го збогатуваат вокабуларот за краткорочно памтење, особено кога на учениците им се прикажуваат филмовите во намерна средина за учење, односно со помош и инструкции од наставникот.

Клучни зборови: *преводи, инцидентно учење на јазик, учење вокабулар.*

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the study

1.1.1. Learning English as a foreign language

Language is “one of the most essential and important aspects of one’s existence” (Herreweghe, 2014, p.6). Children acquire native language in informal exposure without special instructions or set of rules. Instead, they learn the language by being naturally surrounded by it. By age two, children use around 200 words. When they are three, they have a vocabulary of more than 2000 words, whereas by age five their vocabulary exceeds to over 4000 words (Crystal, 2005, as cited in Nation & Waring, 1997). With that being said, from very young age, people start to develop their native language by acquiring three to four new words a day, mostly by being informally exposed to the language on daily bases.

Additionally, as a result of the vast globalization and the mass development of international relations and trade, learning foreign languages has become a common ambition among the population. Besides this, “learning a new language not only develops individual intelligence, but also gives learners, permission to enter another culture and prepares them with the essential skills to succeed and change their behavior in a rapidly changing world” (Chan & Herrero, 2010, as cited in Tahir, 2015, p.11). Particularly, English being one of the most dominant languages spoken at a global level, has been widely recognized and learnt as a second and foreign language and is expected to continue expanding in the upcoming years (Graddol, 1997 and 2006, as cited in Bris, et.al. 2009). According to a report from TESOL, only in 2014, there were over 1.5 billion English language learners worldwide (Bently, 2014).

However, learning English has always been regarded as a complex process to most language learners. The most popular model of learning English is by getting the basic language proficiency in primary school which is later advanced in the secondary school and university studies. In some countries and schools, learners also get the chance to learn English as instruction language for the

other school subjects. According to Bris (et.al, 2009), most of Europeans believe that the best way to learn the English language is at school. Nevertheless, others believe that visiting a country or communicating with native speakers, that is, through informal language exchanges one can acquire the language even more effectively. Still, teachers and learners endeavor to find practical ways in making English more accessible for learning. Additionally, the educational system is also imposing a demand for more innovative teaching techniques that will make the process of language learning more effective.

1.1.2. Importance of vocabulary knowledge in language learning

Learning a foreign language constitutes of learning different skills which are equally important and worthwhile to investigate. However, one of the most essential linguistic features is learning vocabulary, which is a building block of all languages. It represents a significant factor for success within language learning since without the adequate knowledge of words and their meaning, learners are not able to use the target language efficiently. To support this, O'Rourke (1974, as cited in Spraggins, 1986) adds that besides the effects of vocabulary on language learning, its development affects students' thoughts, actions, aspirations, and success too, especially in academic achievement. In such case, "vocabulary represents an essential mean of interchanging ideas and of acquiring new experiences and man's growth in ideas has always been accompanied by a corresponding expansion of his vocabulary" (Gray, 1939, as cited in Fage, 2017, p.2).

Likewise, a robust vocabulary provides solid foundation in developing the four language skills, i.e. writing, reading, listening and speaking. This means that while learning vocabulary, one has the potential to improve their language knowledge as a whole. In this regard, Nation (1994, p.8) notes, "Vocabulary is not an end in itself. A rich vocabulary makes the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing easier to perform."

In addition, as most language learners have the ultimate goal to develop successful communication and literacy skills, retaining a wide vocabulary repertoire is a vital component in achieving this. "No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds are mastered, without words to express a wider range of meanings, communication just cannot happen in any meaningful way" (McCarthy, 1990, as cited in Al-Sarhan, 2013, p.11). In other

words, lexical errors can cause communication breakdowns since majority of meaning is carried out lexically. In addition, "it is considered that effective communication relies less upon the mastery of grammar rules than on the possession of an adequate and appropriate vocabulary" (Vermeer, 1992, as cited in ibid). Consequently, learners need to learn enough words and to know how to use these words correctly as very little can be said with grammar, but almost anything can be said with words (Thornbury, 2002). Carter (1998, as cited in Raine, 2012) explains this by saying that one can use words such as 'shoot', 'goal', 'yes', 'there', 'up', and 'taxi' without the need of grammatical structuring, as these words can stand on their own and can still convey meaning.

Correspondingly, learners' vocabulary size can most of the time determine their language proficiency, since learners are very often required to achieve a threshold level of target vocabulary in order to understand authentic texts or spoken language (Laufer & Ravenhorst - Kalovski, 2010 as cited in Mohebbi, 2013). According to a study by Schmitt et al. (2011, ibid) in order to comprehend a text learners need to know 98% of the words within the text. Corson (1995, as cited in Sadeghi & Farzizadeh, 2013) refers to this linguistic obstacle, of not having enough vocabulary in disposal, as "lexical barrier". Thereby, the more words one has in their disposal the better they can learn, and the more vocabulary learners know, the better they are able to comprehend and develop their knowledge. To put it differently, by having a significant knowledge of vocabulary one is able to learn new words from the context they appear since "learners who know more words are able to use those known words to learn even more" (Folse, 2004, p.10)

Overall, most learners find vocabulary learning a cognitively challenging task to undertake. As such, mastering vocabulary is of utmost importance in language learning and demands great attention in implementing various strategies in order that learners gain thorough knowledge of vocabulary. Hereby, vocabulary development has received increasing attention in the language teaching and learning process.

1.1.3. What is vocabulary

Vocabulary teaching and learning - two complex processes - have attracted considerable academic interest. In order to analyze the different attributes of these two processes in more

details, some of the basic vocabulary definitions will be discussed first. Ergo, the word vocabulary comes from Medieval Latin “vocabulary” which means a list of words; more specifically from the word “vocare” which means to name, call (Online Etymology Dictionary). According to Meriam Webster Online Dictionary, vocabulary is “a sum or stock of words employed by a language, group, individual, or work in a field of knowledge”. Cambridge Online Dictionary defines vocabulary as words that exist in a particular language or subject, whereas in Oxford Online Dictionary, vocabulary can be found as a body of words used in a particular language.

Likewise, Richards and Renandya (2002, as cited in Mashhadi & Jamaliftar, 2014, p.298) explain vocabulary as “a core component of the language proficiency which provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen and write”. Yet, Williamson (2014) defines vocabulary as “a collection of words, a particular person, group of people, socioeconomic group, profession, and so on, knows and uses”. He also adds that the technical term for vocabulary is lexis. However, these two terms are different in the sense that vocabulary represents a set of words that a person uses, depending on the elements like nation, region or specific field they belong to, whereas lexis comprises of all the words that a specific language has. Hence, broadly defined, vocabulary deals with knowing words, their meanings and their proper usage.

1.1.4. Vocabulary classifications

Similarly to the various definitions of vocabulary, different vocabulary classifications have also emerged. One of the basic classification of vocabulary falls within two classes:

- *Receptive vocabulary* – words that we hear and see, and
- *Productive vocabulary* – words that we speak or write.

Nation’s vocabulary classification is divided based on the frequency and communicative dimension, such as frequency vocabulary, academic vocabulary, technical vocabulary and low frequency vocabulary (2001, as cited in Baharudin & Ismaili, 2014). Corresponding to Nation’s classification, the vocabulary categorization by Common Core State Standards (Education World), is as follows:

- *Academic Vocabulary* – words that students are exposed to during any subject and are encountered in academic texts but are not used only on a specific field of studies,
- *Content Vocabulary* – words that appear on a particular subject area and are presented as concept words, and
- *Support Vocabulary* – the remaining words that language learners need to know in order to understand a sentence or a phrase within a lesson.

Williamson (2014) adds two more categories to this classification:

- *Literary Vocabulary* – words that appear in special language of literary works, and
- *Interesting Vocabulary* – words that can be encountered in newspaper articles or oratories of speakers and attract one's interest.

Furthermore, Educational Research Data Works classifies vocabulary into the following categories:

- *Tier One* – words used in everyday speech and are acquired through regular speech,
- *Tier Two* – general academic words, and
- *Tier Three* – domain specific words.

Additionally, Crystal (2006, as cited in Williamson, 2014) categorizes vocabulary into:

- *Active Vocabulary* – words which are used expressively (in writing, speaking or signing), and
- *Passive vocabulary* – words recognized and understood, although not necessarily used expressively. In adults, passive vocabulary is usually one third larger than their active vocabulary.

1.1.5. Popular vocabulary teaching methods

Vocabulary teaching methods have gone through a great deal of improvements up to now and have gained a lot of popularity among researchers and teachers of second and foreign

language teaching. Traditionally, it was assumed that vocabulary can be only acquired incidentally in an automatic manner, thus more attention was put on the other aspects of language such as grammar, reading or speaking (Brown, 2000¹, as cited in Mashhadi & Jamaliftar, 2014). Even though at the time, certain vocabulary teaching methods appeared to show good results, in certain situations, some of them have been proven to be ineffective nowadays. With the change of the teaching approaches, learners' needs and the vast improvement of technology throughout the years, the ways vocabulary is taught has also changed. On that account, it is noteworthy to look back at the progress of the teaching approaches, which have developed throughout the history of language teaching and learning and have remarkably changed the outlook on the importance of vocabulary.

One of the first methods that was used for vocabulary teaching was the *Grammar Translation method* which emerged in the 1500s and dealt with translating words in students' mother tongue in order to convey meaning. This method was shown to be more beneficial for teaching abstract rather than concrete words. In this case, the interaction was more in the direction teacher to student with very little student initiation and almost no opportunities for student to student interactions (Al-Sarhan, 2013).

By the end of the nineteenth century, with the emergence of the *Direct Approach* the main goal in language teaching shifted to using the language rather than analyzing it. Consequently, vocabulary received more attention than grammar. Presented in context, vocabulary was supposed to be acquired naturally as a result of lesson interactions. Objects, pictures and physical demonstrations were used to explain the meaning of concrete words, whereas abstract words were taught by grouping words according to topics or through association of ideas (Zimmerman, 1997, as cited in Ketabi & Shahraki, 2011).

In 1920s, with the advent of the *Reading Approach*, it was believed that reading knowledge can be improved if words and grammatical structures were introduced gradually. In return, with the intensive and extensive reading of passages, it was thought that learners would be able to expand their vocabulary. Again, the focus of this approach was more inclined towards vocabulary than learning grammar.

Later on, in the 1950s, with the implementation of the *Audio Lingual Method*, vocabulary was practiced through drilling and repeating and little attention was paid to content. In this case, students' mother tongue was not allowed to be used. Instead, this method engaged students into

using the target language automatically without stopping to think of their native language first. In such environment, the focus started to shift back on students' engagement.

Subsequently, with *Total Physical Response* meaning was conveyed by students receiving orders and figuring out themselves the meaning of the words. In this way, commands were given to students in order that they learn their meaning by performing the actions. Accordingly, the teacher could understand whether or not the learners know the words.

With the *Communicative Approach* which was developed in the 1970s, the attention transferred to communicative competence and knowledge of the rules of language. Having the focus on fluency over accuracy, learners were encouraged to communicate with whatever language resources they have available in order to convey meaning. In this way, there was no direct vocabulary instruction but vocabulary was rather considered as a support for successful communication (Decarrico, 2001, as cited in Ketabi & Shahraki, 2011).

One of the latest approaches, the *Lexical approach* which was proposed by Lewis (1993), gave huge consideration to vocabulary learning by encouraging learners to acquire rich and diverse vocabulary. According to Lewis (1993, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005), when learning a language, learners are exposed to authentic language input and thus need to identify frequent lexical chunks of language. In other words, Lewis states that to master a language one needs to have not only knowledge of grammar and isolated vocabulary but also competence in "multi-word prefabricated chunks" (1997, *ibid*, p.3). This in turn leads to learners' significant improvement of fluency and production of accurate sentences.

In general, most of vocabulary learning in the past has occurred from textbooks, by encouraging students to recite from word lists and by stimulating them to rigorously focus on form rather than meaning. Words were most often learned as a process of translation to students' mother tongue equivalence or teachers' explicit instructions. What is more, students were most often expected to work themselves on the vocabulary by memorizing the words without actually knowing how to use them, despite the fact that "students most effectively learn through meaningful use of language, and not by rote memorization" (Alkhatnai, 2010, p.1). In this regards, Nasab & Motlagh (2017) add that the traditional way of rote memorization of the translated target language vocabulary, (parrot like learning, Zhang, 2009) might fail many learners in internalizing the words as they are not encouraged to apply these words in different contexts.

Unfortunately, these traditional methods of learning vocabulary are still present in some teaching settings around the world, where vocabulary is still taught unsystematically without much

instruction or guidance (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994, as cited in Mashhadi & Jamaliftar, 2014). Nation (1997) adds that as a result of this, the reason behind seeing vocabulary learning as a complex process, is actually the traditional view to teaching vocabulary which has been more harmful (ibid). However, with technology starting to be more present in schools and society, language teaching is not focused on using only blackboard and chalk as primary teaching tools, but rather new effective ways of learning vocabulary have emerged.

1.1.6. The role of technology in vocabulary learning

With technology becoming increasingly powerful, fundamental changes have occurred in language learning and teaching process, as education and technology have a tight relation and perfectly complement one another. “From the days humans carved figures on the walls of caves, until now, when students are given technological devices, technology pushed educational abilities to new levels (“The Evolution of Technology in the Classroom”, 2015, as cited in Tahir, 2015, p.9). To begin with, technology and its immense capacity has changed the way people get information. Particularly, it provides a unique opportunity for learners to encounter language in real context and to access a great variety of authentic materials.

Not only that, “utilizing various kinds of technological equipment gives learners the sense of freedom, motivation, and encouragement they need for the learning process” (Genc- Ilter, 2009, as cited in Tahir, 2015, p.11) and also makes the lesson more efficient (Akyol, 2010, as cited in ibid). Most importantly, through technology learners get the chance to become aware of the words they study by actually experiencing them. Moreover, they get engaged in tasks which make them remember the target words while having fun in a relaxing environment. Additionally, the implementation of technology has shifted the instruction model from teacher centered to student centered learning and it has stimulated learners’ different learning preferences.

In this regards, Prensky (2001, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014, p.35) states that “students have changed radically and that today’s students are no longer the people our educational system was designed to teach”. He also adds that today’s learners, “the digital natives”, are growing up in an environment surrounded by multimedia, and do not fit in the traditional teaching-learning model, thus they prefer learning vocabulary in rich and natural experiences. By putting learners in

an environment where they feel comfortable, they form positive attitudes and perceptions towards learning English and what they can achieve with the language (Lamboy, 2003).

To sum up, new vocabulary learned through textbooks only, tends to be forgotten if it is not acquired and used through the right methods. In this regards, the rapid acceleration of technology, as a significant educational component, has shown a great impact in the field of language learning, particularly vocabulary learning. Therefore, one of the biggest challenges for today's teachers is to find appropriate materials and techniques which relate to teaching and learning situations and help learners incorporate new technological requirements.

However, there are also negative aspects of incorporating technology in language teaching. According to Dolidze (2011, p.1), using technology in classrooms "increases student's amount of sedentary time and decreases their amount of active time". She continues by saying that students need to be physically engaged in the process of learning, but instead, "with the increased use of technology, the physical aspect of learning is often neglected" (ibid). Dolidze also adds that the exposure to virtual language learning often closes the possibilities for real world and face to face encounters which offer students the opportunity to learn "social nuances and unspoken social rules of another culture" (ibid). Other negative elements of technology include increased incidences of plagiarized assignments, lack of correctly written words or sentences as well as usage of shortened forms of full words and sentences. Nevertheless, in order to harvest the positive aspects of technology, teachers need to make a balance regarding the implementation of technological tools in their classroom and be careful with the overuse of technology and overloading students.

1.1.7. Movies as a source of target language vocabulary

As a result of the fast development of technology and its ubiquitous presence in society, multimedia technology (such as TV, Computers, DVDs, MP3s, mobile phones, video sites etc.) has played a great role in providing learners with authentic materials with a range of vocabulary exposure. Hence, the audio-visualized materials, particularly movies, are one of the best tools in facilitating spontaneous vocabulary acquisition for the contemporary age learners by integrating real-life situations with target language exposure. In addition to that, they rank high in preference among language learners along with internet and music.

Compared to the rest of the language learning tools, movies are relatively new within the foreign and second language teaching. Still, they are quite quickly accepted by the majority of language teachers and education experts. "Since the early 1970s, video materials have made its way into the EFL classrooms, promoting authenticity and diversity for student learning language through the use of popular foreign films via digital media" (Faqe, 2017, p.2590).

As such, movies offer a great deal of affordances. To start with, the worldwide accessibility of different movies have enabled language learners to encounter languages other than their native language. "In many countries, television is a part of children's everyday life from the age of 2 to 7 years, who watch various programs including movies on daily basis. It is also a leading source of information and acquiring new knowledge for adults as well" (Ina, 2014, p.81). Moreover, natural language cannot exist in vacuum (Gee, 2001), hence vocabulary "should not be presented in isolation and should not be learned in rote memorization" (Al-Sarhan, 2013, p.7). In this light, movies give language learners the opportunity to enrich their vocabulary and naturally understand target native language utterances.

Furthermore, movies represent a source of enjoyment and pleasure by bringing to learners refreshing learning experience. As a powerful language tool, movies are also quite significant in stimulating the desire to learn vocabulary. King (2002, p.2) asserts that "learning English through movies compensates for many of the shortcomings in the EFL learning experience by bringing language to life."

In addition, movies provide a great opportunity for learners to encounter content presented with different channels of understanding, such as visual, aural and textual input. Besides, certain themes of vocabulary can be encountered, depending on the topic of the movie such as law, medicine, business language, conversation in a restaurant etc. Another useful characteristic of movies as a language learning tool is that they are a lifelong learning resources, which learners can use not only in class but also outside educational premises. Bates (1985, as cited in Sokoli, 2006) also mentions some other significant attributes of movies such as assisting in abstract information, narrative visualization, information recognition and identification by the student. When it comes to implementing movies as a language teaching and learning resource, there are numerous benefits for the teachers and learners. Still, the challenges arise when they need to be properly utilized. In order to explain these and many other movie affordances in details, they will be further discussed and supported with background studies and theories in Chapter 2.

1.1.8. The evolution of movies

The primary element of movies, which can help define the word movie itself in the simplest way is its audio-visual content. However, there are also several other definitions of movies. For instance, according to The International Film & Television School EICAR in Paris, movies represent “artifacts created by specific cultures, which reflect those cultures, and, in turn, affect them. They are an important art form, a source of popular entertainment and a powerful method for educating or indoctrinating citizens”. Likewise, Champoux (1999 as cited in Rokni & Ataee, 2014) describes movies as comfortable familiar medium, which can be used by contemporary learners while holding their interests in different abstract language elements.

The very beginning of movies dates back in the late 1880's when several people experimented with the difficult process of blending photos in order to create short illusions of motion pictures, a term which nowadays is also used for movies. The first movie that was created through that revolutionary technology was “*The Horse in Motion*” in 1878 by an Englishman called Eadweard Muybridge and showed a horse galloping. The intention behind the creation of this movie was to solve the debate by horse owners whether the horse has “all four hooves off the ground at the same time” (Wonderpolis, 2015). However, according to Guinness Book of Records, the oldest surviving movie in existence, technically is Louis Le Prince's “*Roundhay Garden Scene*”, created in 1888 (ibid).

Movies were silent until sound technology was created in the 1920's. Precisely, in 1927, the Warner Brothers created the movie called “*The Jazz Singer*” which was the first movie with synchronized sound and motion picture. Because of the expensive process of adding colors, colored movies were not used until 1932, even though the first colored movie was created in 1915. (ibid).

Later on, with the improvement of technology, film production companies started to flourish and soon became part of a multi-billion-dollar industry. Big movie theatres started to open all over the world, now offering various innovative special effects and big screens. According to Cintas (2009, as cited in Sadeghpour & Omar, 2015) the real flurry of movies can be traced to the late 1990's Golden Age.

As movies have undergone a vast development, they have not lost a bit of their influence on society. Nowadays, movies have become available worldwide through television, private cable channels, satellites, DVDs (Digital Versatile Disks) or web-based movie platforms, not only for

recreational purposes but also as a language learning medium. On top of that, there is also a great choice of movies available for people with different tastes and needs. One of the basic classification of movies, which is relevant for this study, is in the following two categories:

- *Pedagogical movies* – movies which are specifically produced for teaching and contain theoretical knowledge as a complement of textbooks. King (2002, as cited in Wang, 2016) adds that this type of movies explain in details the concepts being learned while engaging the viewers to be consciously aware of the process. They contain real life, specific domain language which learners cannot encounter quite often in their textbooks.
- *Feature movies* – movies which can be featured in advertising (Wonderopolis, 2015) and are of standard length, usually more than 50 minutes. These movies present real life communication with contextually rich content and useful language learning settings since learners lack exposure to target language communication. They represent a proof that movies “help bring the outside world into the classroom” (Tomalin 1986, as cited in Seferoglu, 2008, p.1).

Other categorizations include the different movie genres such as: Action, Adventure, Animation, Anime, Biopic, Comedy, Crime, Drama, Horror, Musical, Sci-Fi, War, Western, Short, Silent and Serial (Show) movies.

1.1.9. The genesis of subtitles

Depending on learners’ level of language proficiency and the vocabulary presented in the movie, learners might sometimes face difficulties in understanding the content and the plot of the movies. Thus, without being given additional assistance such as subtitles, the vocabulary acquisition might not be as effective as with their presence. As such, subtitles make movies more accessible to people who are not acquainted with the spoken language in the movie. Therefore, when subtitled movies are shown, the viewer can hear the original soundtrack along with subtitles in their first or target language.

Generally, most countries use the basic rules of subtitling which is placing two-three lines of white text (sometimes against a black background) at the bottom center of the screen with maximum 32 characters each, which are displayed for about 6 seconds. Usually, the movies shown on TV programs, online movie platforms as well as DVDs provide viewers with the option of choosing different types of subtitles or dubs. Dubs represent spoken translations of the utterances in the movie, synchronized with the lip movements of the actors. With the intention to understand the usefulness of subtitles in vocabulary learning, their definitions and origins are provided next.

According to Zarei (2009, p.68) subtitles are “textual versions of the dialog in films and television programs, usually displayed at the bottom of the screen”. Alternatively, Bravo (2009, p.23) explains subtitles as “subordinate or additional title of a literary work”. Mustapic (2015, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) sees subtitles as dialogues translated in the written form. Moreover, d’Ydewalle (2002) suggests that subtitles are “translations of the voices” heard on the soundtrack (as cited in Bravo, 2009, p.24). In addition Gottlieb gives a definition of subtitles according to the following parameters 1) written, 2) additive, 3) immediate, 4) synchronous and 5) polymedial translation” (1992, as cited in *ibid*, p.71)

Regarding their origins, subtitles date back to 1929. In the beginning, with the presence of silent movies, intertitles were shown between sequences in order to narrate the story. According to Kratochvilova (2014, p.10) intertitles are “written sequences of characters dialogues on a paper that were then placed between individual sequences of the movie” and first appeared in the movie “*The Uncle Tom’s Cabin*” in 1903 in order to support audience comprehension of scenes. Later on, with the invention of sound movies, there was no need for intertitles.

However, as a result of the vast distribution of movies and the needed assistance for people who were deaf or hard of hearing or those who simply could not understand what the actors were saying, subtitles were provided with several translation versions of the films (Saed & Yazdani, 2016). Particularly, in 1929 in Paris, the first sound film, “*The Jazz Singer*” was shown with the written form of actors’ dialogues in French subtitles (Ivarsson, 2004, as cited in Carter, 2008). As a result, language teachers and researchers quickly discovered the benefits of subtitles for the language learning process (Price, 1983; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990, as cited in Perez et al., 2013) and started to implement this tool in their language teaching settings.

Nevertheless, even though subtitles are quite popular nowadays, there are still some countries that choose dubbing over subtitling. In this light, a study from the International English Training School has produced a research which discusses the correlation of the English Proficiency

Index and dubbed or subtitled movies distribution across 54 countries with a sample of just under 2 million people (Haonowshaokao, 2013). Republic of Kosovo, being one of the smallest countries in Europe imports mostly foreign movies and thus the broadcasted movies are aided with subtitles rather than dubbing which are used generally for children only. The reason behind this is that dubbing is usually more expensive and time-consuming than subtitles. In order to provide an overview of the presence of subtitled movies in the countries of Europe, a map from the above mentioned study is shown in Figure 1.

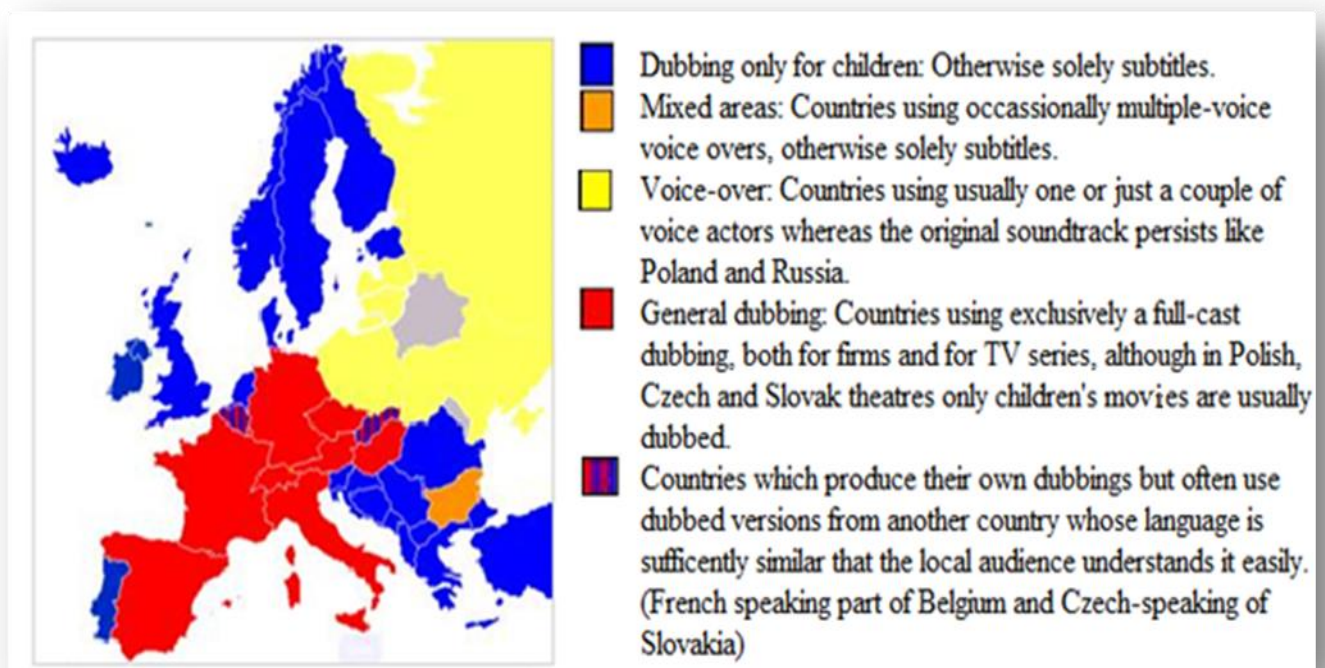


Fig. 1: Subtitles and dubbing distribution in Europe (Haonowshaokao, 2013)

1.1.10. Types of subtitles

Nowadays, with the development of technology, a great number of subtitles have come into being. There are various features according to which contemporary subtitles can be divided. Moreover, there are subtitles modes which can be found with different terminology across different researches. For a start, the five basic modes of subtitles are presented next, along with a few explanations and sub classifications:

- *Standard (interlingual) subtitle* – the audio is in the target language (L2) whereas the subtitle is in viewers' mother tongue (L1). This type of subtitles is the cheapest and the quickest to create and keeps the original voice of the actors, thus avoiding the issue of lip synchronicity (Koolstra, Peeters, & Spinhof, 2002, as cited in Bisson, et al., 2014).
- *Bimodal (intralingual) subtitles (captions)* – both, the audio and the subtitle are in L2. According to Vandergrift (2007), "captions may be defined as redundant text that match spoken audio signals and appears in the same language as the target audio" (as cited in Janfaza & Jelyani, 2014, p.81). They are primarily aimed for the deaf and hard of hearing viewers. Furthermore, King (2002) adds that captions not only transcribe the conversation of the speakers in the movie but also indicate all the other sounds, such as: music, lyrics, rain, phone ring etc. Given that, there are also two types of captions:
 - a) *Closed captions* - captions that are always visible, i.e. cannot be turned off.
 - b) *Open captions* - captions that are visible only when selected, i.e. can be turned off.

Another subcategory of captions are as follows:

- a) *Controllable bimodal subtitles* – the dialogues can be repeated. According to Rostam, (et. al, 2016), with controllable bimodal subtitles learners are able to reiterate the vocabulary that they have not recognized several times.
- b) *Uncontrollable bimodal subtitles* – the dialogues are unrepeated.
- c) *Reversed Subtitles* – the audio is in L1 whereas the subtitles in L2. While watching reversed subtitled movies, learners try less to understand the aural input due to their familiarity with the audio language (Gorjian, 2014, as cited in Kazemi & Zarei, 2015) and focus more on the written form of L2.
- d) *Keyword captioning* – only important words are shown in order to understand the meaning of the content. They are meant to help learners listen more and read less (Guillory, 1998 as cited in Bensalem, 2016).

In addition, Díaz Cintas and Remael (as cited in Kratochvilova, 2014, p.17) sort the above mentioned subtitles according to the following aspects:

a) Linguistic perspective:

- Intralingual subtitles
 - For the deaf and the hard-of-hearing (SDH),
 - For language learning purposes,
 - For karaoke effect,
 - For dialects of the same language,
 - For notices and announcements.
- Interlingual subtitles
 - For hearers,
 - For the deaf and the hard-of-hearing (SDH).
- Bilingual subtitles

b) The time available for preparation:

- Pre-prepared subtitles (offline subtitling),
 - In-complete sentences,
 - Reduced.
- Live or real-time subtitles (online subtitling)
 - Human-made,
 - Machine-translated.

c) The division with regard to the technical parameters:

- Open subtitles – cannot be removed or turned off,
- Closed subtitles – can be turned on and off as the viewer wishes (e.g. on DVD).

d) According to the method of projecting:

- Mechanical and thermal subtitling,
- Photochemical subtitling,
- Optical subtitling,

- Laser subtitling,
- Electronic subtitling – the most recent used in television and DVDs.

e) The distribution format that is determined by what purpose are the subtitles made for:
Cinema, Television, Video, VHS, DVD, and the Internet.

In some cases, even though not very popular, *dual subtitles* can be used. This type of subtitles includes both subtitles, the viewers' native language subtitle and the target language subtitle at the same time. Moreover, *partial subtitles* are another mode of subtitles which are dedicated for language learners in order to simplify the process of understanding the spoken words. The movies with partial subtitles do not show the subtitles until the viewer pauses the movie and quickly receives the translated version of the difficult words of a particular segment in the movie (Wang, et.al, 2003, as cited in Bagheri & Ghoorchaei, 2014).

With this wide repertoire of subtitles, learners have the opportunity to choose the subtitled mode that suits them the best for their learning style. However, in this research only two subtitles modes will be observed, the "interlingual (L1) subtitles" and "intralingual (L2) subtitles". Thus, in order to avoid repeated, confusing label changes, these two terms will be used throughout the study. Nevertheless, "captions", L1 and L2 subtitles can be also used interchangeably depending on the terms used by the researchers cited in the used literature.

1.1.11. The role of subtitled movies in learning vocabulary

Watching foreign language movies with subtitles is a significant educational component that has shown great contribution in facilitating various language properties, especially vocabulary acquisition. In such conditions, the vocabulary acquisition occurs spontaneously since the learners try to understand the content of the material by accessing spoken and written language that they are not fully acquainted with. In particular, movies with subtitles can bring students closer to authentic real life communication vocabulary. Subtitles help language learners monitor conversations in the movies that could probably be lost without their presence. In addition to that, subtitles can reinforce the learners' understanding of English expressions and idioms, which are

difficult to acquire if not presented in suitable context (Zanon, 2006). Among other things, Grgurovi and Hegelheimer (2007) state that through subtitled movies students can learn how to pronounce many new words and can increase their listening skills as they get to hear expressions uttered in original dialogues.

Furthermore, King (2002) asserts that when exposed to movies, students can learn various vocabulary and phrases as well as improve their target language simultaneously (as cited in Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016). Danan (2004) also claims that using audiovisual materials, which have been enhanced with subtitles are very powerful educational tools for various reasons. First, "because they improve listening comprehension skills of second/foreign language learners. Second, they facilitate language learning by helping learners visualize what they hear; and third, they increase language comprehension and lead to additional cognitive benefits, such as greater depth of processing" (p.67). These elements help to preserve maximum of the original vocabulary content and authenticity of the movies. As a result of many affordances, especially in the field of learning vocabulary, subtitles have received significant scholarly works. These benefits will be discussed in more details in Chapter 2.

1.2. Statement of the problem

1.2.1. The situation in the Republic of Kosovo

In the Republic of Kosovo, English is taught as a compulsory course in elementary, middle and high school (Core Curriculum of Ministry of Education of Republic of Kosovo, 2017). Learners that need additional assistance usually enroll to extra-curricular English courses offered by private institutions. Moreover, in the majority of universities and colleges students are also required to learn English as a mandatory subject in their undergraduate studies. In addition, they are required to have a proof of good English proficiency, examined by standardized tests in order to be admitted in graduate studies. Additionally, with companies having businesses internationally, most of job openings require for their candidates to have solid English language proficiency. Studying English is

also essential for students of the Republic of Kosovo who wish to study or work abroad where they are usually required to pass English proficiency tests as a prerequisite for an interview.

Most of learners in the Republic of Kosovo study English for at least 10 years before they enroll their university studies. However, a large number of students still do not have sufficient knowledge of English and cannot use the language properly. There are a lot of reasons behind this, one of which is that when teaching, too much attention is being devoted to vocabulary drilling and rote memorization which can be dull and unstimulating for students. Another reason is that teachers depend heavily on textbooks as the only medium for teaching and the language exposure for communicative purposes outside the classroom is quite limited. Similarly, due to the sub-skills such as vocabulary being rarely emphasized and mostly decontextualized, the majority of students have limited communication resources when they are provided with native-like situations. Moreover, with the teacher-centered teaching techniques which are still quite dominant in the country, teacher generally focus on theoretical knowledge of the language which are outdated and not relevant for today's learners, without giving them the chance for practical application. In other words, the teacher centered techniques, albeit sometimes proving to be helpful and solid methods of teaching, do require some kind of adjustment for the new, 21st century language learners.

In the context of the Republic of Kosovo, the curriculum structure is mostly focused on teaching reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. However, learners are exposed to vocabulary in a passive manner as they rarely use the learnt vocabulary for production, but rather rely on reading wordlists presented from the textbooks. Besides, they are focused on defining, and explaining grammar functions of words by being receptive rather than productive participants in the language learning process. In addition, as teachers are mostly non-native English language speakers they translate the words into the learners' L1, as a result of sharing the same mother tongue.

Into the bargain, the evolution of technology has provided a vast number of opportunities to learn vocabulary into the everyday vernacular of the population in the Republic of Kosovo, especially youngsters that are becoming more and more technologically literate. They are surrounded by English on daily basis, through internet and technologies such as smartphones, tablets, media-players, TVs and computers. In addition, these appliances offer learners a vast number of online apps and platforms where they can watch a great number of foreign subtitled movies, and can be exposed to other language contents besides their native language.

With a few exceptions, language teaching in the country is not really on the cutting edge of technology and very little attention has been paid in taking initiative to change the current

situation. Specifically, engaging learners into watching movies is generally neglected and not quite popular as a language learning resource. Also, not all public or even private schools have TVs or projectors to show movies in class, thus students are taught to rely mostly on textbooks rather than screens. The very few projectors in some schools are usually used to show movies at the end of the term as a reward for the students, playing the movie from the beginning to the end of the class without aiming to challenge students linguistically.

According to my personal observation, even though the conditions for implementing language teaching methodologies with high technological standards are provided, there is still lack of teacher training in using the same for teaching vocabulary through watching subtitled movies. According to Schuck, (2002, as cited in Gibson & Peacock, 2006) the reasons why some of the teachers are constrained to do this is lack of time and confidence in using technology and the fear of technology replacing the teacher. Thus, this research is important to note that the role of movies in ELT (English Language Teaching) is to assist the learning/teaching process.

1.2.2. Justification and significance of the study

Learning vocabulary is one of the crucial aims of most language learners. Even more important is that by acquiring vocabulary learners intend to use the target language in real context, beyond classroom settings. Likewise, movies as new teaching means can have a great impact on achieving these goals.

Since multimedia language materials, especially movies, are a powerful tool in assisting language learning, investigating their benefits is a significant approach in ELT. There have been a lot of extensive research that have addressed the potential of movie subtitles in enhancing students' vocabulary acquisition. However, to our best knowledge, studies in the Republic of Kosovo, regarding the investigation of usefulness of subtitles in vocabulary acquisition are still quite limited. Thus, this study will expand the previous researches by examining different factors that may have an impact on learners' vocabulary acquisition through watching subtitled movies.

This research is important, first, because the usage of movies is an important factor in education, and the educational process itself demands improvement of the traditional methods, as well as introducing more sophisticated teaching techniques, to cater for the new 21st century

learners (the digital natives). It will give researchers and educators a detailed insight on how watching movies with subtitles can have a big potential in developing learners' vocabulary acquisition. It will also show which vocabulary acquisition techniques teachers can incorporate when engaging learners in watching movies with subtitles and what difficulties learners might face when exposed to such activities. This research is also significant because it will show how movies can impact the understanding of the vocabulary usage in real context while providing authentic environment for vocabulary gains. The findings from this research will aim to benefit not only teachers, but also learners as well as curriculum and course designers who need to develop materials that will include subtitled movies as a part of the curriculum. What also makes this research important is that it intends to summarize the advantages and disadvantages of using movies in improving vocabulary skills.

Thus, through the data provided in this research, teachers can get an insight into which type of subtitles is more useful in achieving the target vocabulary aims and how to put this tool as an important part of educational materials when it comes to developing learners' vocabulary. This research will also motivate teachers to investigate themselves the potential of movies for vocabulary learning. Finally, it is assumed that being exposed to this research, students will gain greater autonomy and responsibility in the process of learning a language through movies, which will furthermore enable and prepare them for its appliance.

1.2.3. Aims of the study

The starting point of this study is to gather data that will show whether or not watching movies with subtitles has an impact on learners' vocabulary acquisition. The rationale behind this is to see if the visual representation of events accompanied with subtitles will help students learn incidental vocabulary in real context. It will also seek to discover if learners uptake and retain their vocabulary as a result of their effort to comprehend the content of the movies. In other words, this research will focus on understanding if this tool facilitates vocabulary gains as a byproduct i.e. listening/reading for comprehension and if the learners are able to recognize and recall the same vocabulary for further language production.

This research intends to unveil how learners balance the simultaneous input of audio, video and text and if the repetition of the same vocabulary has an impact on learner's vocabulary retention. It will investigate if displaying different type of subtitles brings different results in showing the affordances of watching movies with subtitles. A crucial element of investigation is to see how many and which type of words are likely to be acquired and if repeated viewing is more effective. Finally, this research will observe learners' attitudes held towards learning vocabulary through watching movies and if this tool can reduce students' frustration and boredom when learning vocabulary.

1.2.4. Research hypotheses

For the purpose of finding the effectiveness of watching movies with subtitles, this thesis will gather data to test the following hypotheses:

1. Watching movies with subtitles improves learners' vocabulary acquisition.
2. There is a difference in the degree of vocabulary acquisition when watching subtitled movies based on the different subtitling.
3. There is a difference in the amount of vocabulary acquisition in incidental and intentional language learning through watching subtitled movies.
4. When watching movies with subtitles, vocabulary is acquired for long term retention.

1.3. Organization of chapters

This thesis is divided into six chapters and is organized in the following manner. Chapter 1 provides the background and purpose of this study by offering basic understanding of the concepts and shedding light on the importance of vocabulary, movies and subtitles in language teaching/learning. Chapter 2 consists of relevant theoretical approaches that explain the benefits of subtitled

movies in vocabulary acquisition, such as second language acquisition theories, input hypotheses, incidental and intentional vocabulary learning, affective filter hypothesis, dual coding theory, etc. In Chapter 3, the methodology and the analytical tools used in this study are presented, including the description of the participants, the data collection and the instruments used for collecting data that lead to the final results which are summarized and described in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5 these results are discussed in the light of the theoretical framework and finally Chapter 6 leads to the conclusions, which also highlights the implications and limitations of the research as well as the recommendations for further studies.

2. Literature review

2.1. What does it mean to know a word?

Word knowledge is a rich and complex process. It is not simply an all or nothing state but it in fact represents an incremental acquisition which comprises a wide range of obscure knowledge. As such, knowing a word is not limited to identifying the form, function or the meaning of the word alone because “the meaning of a word is not fixed and unique but it varies according to the context in which the word occurs” (Herreweghe, 2014, p.18). One cannot rely only on word definitions from dictionaries which mostly present the basic elements of a word and rarely consider the additional meanings of that word in different contexts. In this light, Laufer (1997) and Dale (2000) state that knowing a word means to be familiar with all its features and to be able to distinguish one word from the other words with similar meanings or forms (as cited in Hicking, 2015). In other words, the phenomenon of mastering a word involves one’s competence of understanding and using the word in different language situations. Since knowing a word can be seen from different perspectives, some of the most significant word knowledge properties will be discussed next. For a start, Schmitt (2000, as cited in Wu, 2009) implies that besides knowing the meaning (s) of the words, to know a word means also to know the following word elements:

1. *Register* – represents the link between the words and their referents. *E.g. persons, things, actions and situations* as well as the acceptable usages of words in certain language situations. In other words, it deals with the way one implies the meaning of a word in different contexts, depending on elements such as content, situation, purpose and the relationship between the sender and the receiver with the appropriate level of formality. *E.g. familiar, informal, formal and ceremonial word register.*
2. *Association* – expresses the various ways of the relation of words, and the process of grouping words according to word family, such as:

- coordination – a cluster of same group words. *E.g. apple, banana, pear;*
- superordination – words that can be used for an entire class of words. *E.g. animals for dog;*
- synonymy – words with similar or same meanings. *E.g. scared and afraid.*

3. *Collocations* – show two or more words that co-occur and match together in a discourse and people use them habitually. *E.g. save money.*

4. *Grammatical behavior* – signifies the usage of the correct grammatical form and the pattern of word occurrence such as word class (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, interjection) and morphology (including the process of inflection which refers to changing words forms in order to show grammatical changes, *E.g. the singular/ plural* form of nouns, *E.g. girl and girls*, and the process of derivation which represents the rules of constructing words to fit in a sentence by adding prefixes or suffixes to the root form, *E.g. happy and unhappy.*

5. *Form* – stands for the written word form (the correct spelling of written activities such as writing and reading) and the spoken word form (the identification and application of sound and pronunciation). In this regards, Miller and Gildea (1987, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014) add that employing and understanding both oral and written form of words in different contexts are equally important.

6. *General frequency of use* – tells how often a word occurs in usage and the probability of encountering a word in spoken or written form.

Besides these elements, Richard (1976) adds the following dimensions of word knowledge, such as: *the limitations of use of the word, the place of the word in a network association* (as cited in Aloqaili, 2005), *word connotations* (as cited in Khodashenas et al., 2014), *word's semantic value, syntactic behavior, and appropriateness* (as cited in Raine, 2012). Furthermore, Martin (1984) and McKay (1980) state that to know a word means to be able to use that word *syntactically, semantically and pragmatically or discursively* (as cited in Carter, 2008). Johnson et al. (2004, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014, p.18) add that “being able to take into consideration the various implications and connotations a word can have” is a significant element when it comes to learning a

word since “it includes the capability to understand idioms, jokes and other instances in which a word is used with an ambiguous meaning” (ibid).

Additionally, Cronbach (1942) describes five aspects of word understanding:

1. *Generalization* (students can define the word),
2. *Application* (students can select/ recognize the right situation to use the word correctly),
3. *Breadth* (students know multiple meanings of a word),
4. *Precision* (the ability of students to know when and when not to apply a word),
5. *Availability* (students can apply the word in discussion and writing).

However, there is a difference between knowing and using a word. Recognizing a word when encountering it is not enough when one wants to use it for production. There are such cases when one is able to recognize a word when coming across them either in speech or text but do not have the ability to produce sentences or utterances. This is due to one’s capability of receptive and productive knowledge which are two different degrees of knowing a word and which are explained by Schmitt (2000), as follows:

1. *Receptive (passive) knowledge* – is the knowledge of recognizing and understanding a word. This process is connected with listening and reading and is generally acquired first.
2. *Productive (active) knowledge* – is the knowledge of expressing meanings by producing sentences in spoken or written form of the target words. An example of productive knowledge is the process of translating target language words into L1.

In order to explain this further, Nation (2001, p.27) has provided the following table with the properties of receptive and productive word knowledge in the light of the aspect of form, meaning and use (Table 1).

Aspect	Component	Receptive knowledge	Productive knowledge
Form	spoken	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
	written word	What does the word look like?	How is the word written and spelled?
	parts	What parts are recognizable in this word?	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning	What meaning does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	concepts	What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
	referents and associations	What other words does this make people think of?	What other words could people use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
	collocations	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?
	constraints on use (register, frequency . . .)	Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word?	Where, when, and how often can people use this word?

Table 1: What it means to know a word on a more general level

Adapted from Nation (2001, p. 27)

Despite their distinct complexities, receptive and productive word knowledge are equally important and need to be considered as interrelated processes in vocabulary development. Consequently, this bond makes it easier for the learners to retrieve the information regarding the

words they learn. Yet, Nation (2001, *ibid*) argues that receptive learning is easier than productive learning for several elements:

1. *"The amount of knowledge* (productive learning of vocabulary requires more work load in order to learn how to use the words in different context and forms);
2. *Practice* (receptive vocabulary learning is usually practiced more often than the productive knowledge);
3. *Access* (productive learning is more challenging than receptive learning due to the fact that there are different competing paths to choose from, such as collocations, synonyms, opposites etc.)
4. *Motivation* (some learners lack the motivation, which is a result of various factors to use the words productively and thus remain as passive vocabulary)."

It is assumed that the process of acquiring a word starts when a learner encounters a new word and stores the information in their memory. Later on, each time the word is heard or seen, this information is reinforced in learners' memory. If the word is encounter more times, learners get the chance to pick up more information regarding that word in different contexts and gradually acquire it for later production (Nagy, Anderson & Herman, as cited in Lehr, et al., 2008). In addition, Ellis (1997, as cited in Raine, 2012, p.9) suggests that "the acquisition of L2 words usually involves a mapping of the new word form onto preexisting conceptual meanings or onto L1 translation equivalents as approximations". To explain this further, Edgar Dale (1965, as cited in Ganske, 2015), offers a description of four stages of word knowledge development:

1. "No knowledge of the word; we do not even know it exists
2. Awareness that such a word exists, but we don't know what it means
3. Vague notion of what the word means, in a particular context
4. Rich understanding; we know the word well and can use it"

Also, Brown and Payne (as cited in Kim & Gilman, 2008, p.114) present five steps of word acquisition:

1. “Having sources for encountering new words;
2. Getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new words;
3. Learning the meaning of the words;
4. Making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meanings of the words;
5. Using the words.”

Additionally, Nagy and Scot (2000 as cited in Lehr, et al., 2008) state that the elements that affect vocabulary acquisition is the needed exposure of the words in context. According to some researches even after 40 encounters with a word, “learners are still extending their knowledge of it” (National Centre of Literacy and Numeracy for Adults, 2012). To sum up, knowing a word is a complicated matter, thus, it is difficult to measure word knowledge. Also, there are no strict rules or conditions which provide 100% acquisition of new words. In this light, it is quite difficult to come up with adequate instructions to reach the desired goals of learning new words as only some of the components of knowing a word can be learnt at a certain proficiency level. Thus, different strategies should be incorporated for successful vocabulary acquisition in order that learners know and use the acquired vocabulary actively.

2.2. Theoretical approaches in support of vocabulary development through watching subtitled movies

Subtitled movies, as discussed in the first chapter, are beneficial for the teaching and learning process and support vocabulary development in different ways. Learning vocabulary through watching subtitled movies is not a new tool in the field of foreign language learning, as numerous researches have investigated their usefulness in and outside the classroom. Particularly, a whole range of second language acquisition theories and pedagogical approaches have been proposed as vital components in fostering vocabulary acquisition through watching subtitled movies.

Hence, second language acquisition and cognitive theories will be discussed next, following the elaboration of various factors that influence vocabulary acquisition, such as authenticity,

contextual learning, motivational effects of movies, incidental and intentional learning, multimedia theories, as well as the noticing and dual-coding theory. In support of this research, pedagogical affordances and drawbacks of subtitled movies will be also discussed. And lastly, a review of some relevant studies that underpin the pedagogical value of subtitled movies regarding vocabulary acquisition will be presented.

2.2.1. Second language acquisition theories

Second language acquisition theories play a significant role in understanding the effects of subtitled movies on vocabulary acquisition. This is as a result of second language acquisition being “an interdisciplinary area of inquiry which benefits from a broad range of theories and principles” (Chen, 2006, p.4). Krashen (1982) was the first one to come up with the theory of language acquisition. According to him “language acquisition is a subconscious process where the language acquirers are not conscious of the fact that they are acquiring the language”, however “they have a feel for correctness” (Herreweghe, 2014, p.15). Similarly, second language acquisition represents a subconscious process of informally acquiring a language for functional uses as an addition to the individual’s first language, often referred to as native language or mother tongue (Chomsky, 1975; Halliday, 1975 as cited in The National Captioning Institute, Inc, 1990). Saville-Troike (2012, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014) indicates that “a second language” is the same as the term “target language” and does not only refer to the language that is learned second in line, after the native language, but it can also refer to the third, fourth or even tenth language a person learns.

However, authors, such as McLaughlin and Gregg (1987 and 1984, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016), claim that there is no difference between the terms acquisition and learning as they both describe similar notions and cannot be separated. In this regards, Zafar (2009, as cited in *ibid*, p.4) adds that second language acquisition is “a process enriched by the learned system”. Nevertheless, according to some researches, such as Ina (2014), there is a significant difference between acquisition and learning since they develop in different directions. While acquisition is “incidental, randomly done, unsystematic and in non-educational conditions”, learning is “intentional, systematic, instructional and in educational settings” (*ibid*, p.83).

Krashen (1982, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) also believes that these two terms distinguish from one another in a way that learning is a process which requires for learners to apply rules and pay attention to form whereas acquisition is identical to acquiring first language, i.e. without consciously concentrating on language forms. In this regards, Krashen (1982, as cited in *ibid*) indicates that language learners focus on grammar rules and are able to talk about them, whereas language acquirers are not aware that they are acquiring the language. He also adds that acquisition is more important than learning because the acquired information usually leads to production of language and “only the language that has been acquired will be available for fluent performance, not the language that has been learned” (1985, as cited in Militello, 2013, p.5). To explain the distinction between acquiring and learning, Saville - Troike (2012, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014) suggests that language acquisition and learning can be subdivided into two different settings:

a) Informal settings

This type of learning happens in naturalistic contexts. Accordingly, Combs and Ahmad (1974 as cited in Bahrani, 2014) add that informal learning is a lifetime process and widely popular among people’s language development in un-institutional and unstructured settings. They continue by adding that this type of acquisition occurs as a result of individuals gathering knowledge and skills by being exposed to the environment other than classrooms (such as newspapers, music, movies, work, home, social interactions). In this light Rogers (2004, as cited in *ibid*) implies that when exposed to informal learning learners do not have any purpose or structure of what they are spontaneously learning but they are rather learning extensively. Most importantly, in informal settings language acquisition can occur in daily basis. However, Marick & Watkins (1990, as cited in *ibid*) add that informal language learning can also be within classroom settings but only when learners are not focused on producing correct language forms but rather interact with each other to convey meaning without following any structures or grammar rules.

This in turn leads to learner’s autonomy which “gives them a big chance to learn broadly” (Nunan, 1999, p.4). As a result of learners not being passive observers, informal learning can provide them with the opportunity to learn new words independently, without depending on teacher’s involvement. Moreover, learners do not need to be restricted to the limited classroom hours. Instead, they can be encouraged to actively explore different sources which can help them

spontaneously extend their vocabulary. In this regards, Brett states that “multimedia-learning materials, such as movies, are teacher-less and free-standing, so they can be used autonomously” (1998, as cited in Aloqaili 2005, p.27). Studies by different researchers (d’Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1995; 1997; Pavakanun & d’Ydewalle, 1992, as cited in Webb, 2010, p.503) have also tried to see the various effects of subtitled movies and concluded that “adult and adolescent students through watching subtitled television programs in informal settings indeed learn foreign language words”.

b) Formal settings

Learning in formal settings as opposed to informal learning usually happens in educational environments such as classroom settings and is rather teacher directed, structured and purposeful, with the focus on the language itself i.e. the form. This is in contrast with the informal learning which focuses mainly on the meaning of the language information (Rogers, 2004, as cited in Bahrani, 2014). In this light, a study by Vanderplank (1990, as cited in Rokni & Ataee, 2014) observing English language learners who were engaged in watching subtitled movies concluded that those who took notes while watching the movie or used other ways that helped them with formal word retention succeeded in overall comprehension of the movie and acquired more new words than those who did not take any notes. As a result, Vanderplank (1990, as cited in *ibid*) also concluded that attention and processing, which can be present in formal settings, are crucial when one wants to retain the information in their long term memory. In this light, Danan (2004, as cited in s cited in Kvitnes, 2013, p.1) suggests that “learners often need to be trained to develop active viewing strategies for an efficient use of captioned and subtitles material”.

However, formal and informal language learning settings complement each other and can both contribute to learners’ vocabulary development. Thus, the benefits of these two settings will be tested in the current study. This is because one of the aims of this research is to observe if watching subtitled or none subtitled movies are more efficient when it comes to vocabulary acquisition in formal or informal settings, i.e. incidental and intentional vocabulary learning.

2.2.1.1. Comprehensible input theory

In order for language to be acquired, learners need to receive enough language input since “input is an essential environmental ingredient” (Krashen, 1985, p. 2) and a “sine qua non (an essential condition) of acquisition” (Gass & Mackey, 2007 as cited in York, 2016, p.15). In other words, for successful acquisition it is necessary that learners receive a great amount of target language input (either in a written or spoken form), and are involved in activities such as reading, listening and other visual forms that help learning, otherwise acquisition cannot occur. In the same way “if one already knows a language, then proficiency can decline when it is not used, and even a first language can be forgotten” (Verspoor et al., 2009, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013, p.13).

More specifically, in agreement with Krashen’s (1985) input hypotheses, learners can acquire a language if the language they are exposed to is slightly above their current language proficiency. He refers to this hypothesis as the *i+1 hypothesis*, where *i* is the learners’ current language proficiency and *+1* is the slightly higher input that is presented to them, i.e. what the learner knows plus the additional new information. Namely, learners acquire language when they understand the message that they receive. “The reason why we are able to understand language above our current level is that we are able to use our extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the context and of the world, to decipher the input directed at us” (Krashen 1985, as cited in York, 2016, p.17). In the same vain, Al-Shehri and Gitsaki (2010) state that “the active processing premise signifies that one will select the most relevant information as input during information processing, and subsequently integrate the information with prior knowledge” (as cited in Janfaza & Jelyani, 2014, p.81).

Lee & Van Patten (1995, p.4) explain the effect of comprehensible input by pointing out that input is correlated with acquisition the same way as a car is connected to gas. In order the engine to work and the car to move we need to put gas in it. If we do not put gas, the car will not move. The same thing applies to language input. If we want acquisition to “keep going” we need to put sufficient input. However, not all types of gas are the same. Putting crude oil into gas tank will not get the car running, “and because gas is a refined petroleum product, some is better than others” same as “some input is better than others” (ibid).

Furthermore, Klein (1986 as cited in Nargis, 2014) illustrates comprehensible input with the example of the “Chinese Room”. He claimed that, if a learner is locked in a room where he/she is

exposed to Chinese sounds coming from the loudspeakers; no matter how often and how long this will go, he/she will not be able to speak Chinese. This shows that “input consisting only of linguistic data does not make learning possible; it is the information received in parallel to speech input” (ibid, p.10) that helps the learners acquire the language better. In other words, the language that learners are exposed to needs to be modified so it will not be too challenging for them.

Accordingly, different scholars (Brett, 1995; Egbert & Jessup, 1996; Khalid, 2001 as cited on Harji & Alavi, 2010) have proven that multimedia has a great significance in providing learners with language input. In particular, movies are a valuable source for providing optimal and abundant input. According to Aloqaili (2005), the rich input provided from audio-visual materials, such as movies is more effective than a written input from printed materials. Hence, to ensure that movies are a good source of input which lead to successful vocabulary acquisition, learners need to be provided with input under the following conditions. The input provided needs to be “at right level, not too demanding for the students but not too easy either” (Krashen, 1988, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011, p.21). Krashen (1985) also suggests that this input needs to be delivered with suitable techniques and needs to be “interesting and relevant, not form-focused, and quantitative” (as cited in Zarei, 2009, p.72), conditions that can be easily met by subtitled movies. Moreover, Krashen (1988, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011) adds that the interval of the input and the task needs to be short and in accordance with learners’ level of language proficiency. Similarly, the goal needs to be oriented towards identifying the main points of the input rather than analyzing every single word.

Lightbown and Spada (2006, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) state that comprehensible input given through listening and reading activities is the most successful one and movies with subtitles which provide realistic situation are a perfect resource for input. Indeed, the three dimensional characteristics of movies, written, aural and pictorial elements, make the movies highly qualified for providing comprehensible input and serve as three different individual sets of input put together to convey information. Moreover, since movies can be delivered sufficiently and suitably, the additional information that they carry provide extra linguistic cues such as gestures and intonation which help learners construct meaning of the message (Cintas and Cruz, 2008, as cited in ibid).

Into the bargain, subtitles help learners comprehend the movies, thus, make them a source of valid comprehensible input and more successful than watching movies without subtitles (Neuman and Koskinen, 1992, as cited in Eye, 2016). Danan and Vanderplank (2004, and 2010, as cited in Peters et al., 2016) add that subtitles help providing comprehensible input when

audiovisual input is slightly above learners' proficiency level. With the aim of investigating the impact of comprehensible input, Neuman and Koskinen (1991, as cited in Alkhatnai, 2010) observed the usefulness of subtitles videos as a source of comprehensible input in incidental vocabulary learning of 129, eighth grade Southeast Asian students who were 2-3 years below their expected language proficiency levels. They were shown videos, which were targeted for 8 to 12 year olds. One of the groups viewed the movie with subtitles, the second group without subtitles and the third one watched the movie with subtitles in printed form. The results showed that, the subtitled group had scored more points, which indicates that "on-screen representations of words aid learners in the acquisition of vocabulary and meaning when coupled with comprehensible input of different types, such as video and sound" (as cited in *ibid*, p.2).

According to Vandeplank's study (1988, as cited in Militello, 2013), intralingual subtitles have a great impact on assisting language acquisition by providing learners with a great deal of authentic and comprehensible input as a result of the connection between the image, sound and text which also makes learners feel more comfortable. In which case, "far from being a distraction and a source of laziness, subtitles might have a potential value in helping the learning process by providing learners with the key to massive quantities of authentic and comprehensible language input" (Vanderplanck, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014, p.29).

2.2.1.2. Intentional and Incidental language learning

When it comes to second language acquisition there are two other views on what it actually means. Some see it as acquiring the language intentionally by learning sets of words or grammatical structures whereas others see it as an opportunity to develop word knowledge subconsciously. Thus, Hulstijn (2003) proposes two ways language learners can learn a target language:

- a) *intentionally*, by being deliberately focused on memorizing words, their meaning, sound and spelling as well as grammar structures, or
- b) *incidentally*, by picking up language unconsciously as a by-product, through various activities which do not focus on linguistic problems, such as word memorization or grammar structures as the main goal.

In intentional learning settings, activities are planned beforehand and are goal directed, with the focus on form and usually involve the intention to learn set of new words by memorizing word lists, using dictionaries, direct vocabulary explanations, completion of written activities etc. Marsick and Watkins (1990, as cited in Khodashenas, et al., 2014, p.292) explain that intentional learning is “institutionally sponsored, classroom-based, and highly structured”. In other words, this type of learning is often regarded as a traditional teacher-centered method which is more common when the process of learning vocabulary happens in classroom settings.

In addition, Schmidt (1994, cited in Alemi & Tayebi, 2011, p.83) defines incidental learning as:

- “learning without the intent to learn,
- learning of one stimulus aspect while paying attention to another stimulus aspect,
- learning of one thing, when the learner's primary objective is to do something else,
- learning of formal features through a focus of attention on semantic features”

According to Schmidt (2000, as cited in El Ourf, 2015), incidental learning of second language functions more or less in the same way like children learn their first language. Parents do not teach their children all the vocabulary, but instead by being exposed to considerable amount of input children acquire around five thousand word families only by the age of four to five. This is as a result of the large number of input which they acquire incidentally. Later on, most of incidental learning occurs as a product of acquiring meaning rather than form, through activities such as listening and conversational tasks, extensive reading, listening to radio or watching movies which can occur both, in and outside classroom settings.

Most scholars, such as Krashen (1989) and Schmitt (2000) agree that incidental learning is more dominant and gives better results than intentional vocabulary learning (as cited in Gu, 2003). Also Huckin and Coady (1999, as cited in Shahrzad & Derakshhan, 2012) support this by adding that usually, the first thousand words are learned intentionally, whereas the rest of the words are predominantly acquired incidentally. According to Gass (1999, as cited in *ibid*, p.6) words can be learnt incidentally if:

- a) “there are recognized cognates between the native and the target languages,
- b) there is significant L2 exposure, or
- c) other L2 related words are known”.

Other aspects that influence learners' incidental vocabulary learning are "linguistic knowledge, prior viewing experiences and the number of encounters with the target words" (Rice & Woodsmall, 1988, as cited in Levesque, 2013, p.20). Likewise, Ellis (1999, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016, p.12) suggests that factors that influence incidental learning are as follows: "pronounceability, length of a word, correlation between form and meaning, frequency, availability of contextual cues, etc." In order to understand these factors better, in the next section they will be discussed in more details in the light of how they contribute to incidental vocabulary learning. Following these factors, the relationship between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning along with some empirical studies will be explained.

2.2.1.2.1. Factors that contribute to incidental vocabulary learning

2.2.1.2.1.1. The authenticity of materials

Considering the great variety of teaching materials, Tomlinson (2001, as cited in *ibid*), categorizes three types of teaching materials:

- a) *Instructional materials* – give information about the language, by showing the language rules.
- b) *Experiential materials* – provide exposure to the language, by applying the knowledge in different situations.
- c) *Elicitive materials* – stimulate the use of language, by exposing the learner to authentic language, an example of which is the usage of movies as a learning tool.

Undoubtedly, one of the most important elements in effective vocabulary acquisition is the exposure to authentic environments (Ina, 2014). According to Freeman (1998, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011) English taught in non-English speaking countries is different from that taught in natural environment. Most language learners have low frequency of exposure to target native language

surroundings and do not have the opportunity to study the language in natural environment outside their classes. Generally, teachers present new vocabulary relying on textbooks which “does not call forth a natural or authentic response in students” (Militello, 2013, p.2) as a result of which learners are less engaged with the learning material.

As stated by Gebhard (1996, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011, p.19) “authentic materials can reinforce for students the direct relation between the language classroom and the outside world”. In other words, authentic materials present learners with authentic, content rich language input in a more realistic manner by connecting the classroom with the real world, outside the classroom. As such, authentic materials, including movies, are not created for teaching and learning purposes of second language learners but rather represent materials produced by native speakers for native speakers (Benavent and Penemaria, 2001, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005). Thus, the language presented in movies is used to convey messages without being simplified for language learners. Therefore, the utterances are used in normal speech pace and contain variations of real dialects and accents. Expressly, “the language in the majority of current popular EFL authentic materials usually contains roughly 20% culture-specific expressions or concepts and can hence serve as smooth foray into the real English-speaking world” (Hwang, 2000, as cited in King, 2002, p.5).

In addition, with authentic materials learners get a glimpse of the culture of the target language speaker. This rich cultural experience depicts the way learners interact in everyday situations and get acquainted with their customs, which helps them interpret the meaning of vocabulary. With that being said, “English requires the right cultural background, and if the knowledge of that background is missing, that is, if extra linguistic opacity occurs, novel blends remain either incomprehensible or mis-decoded” (Silaski and Durovic, 2013, as cited in Safranji, 2014, p.170). Accordingly, by being exposed to movies and learning the target language culture, learners indirectly see “situations that are far beyond their classrooms” and infuse cross-cultural awareness, which include aspects such as attire, food, music and others (Harmer, 2001, as cited in Morat & Abidin, 2011, p.96).

Specifically, by watching movies learners can “observe linguistic, paralinguistic and nonverbal behavior” (Ruusunen, 2011, p.15) such as hear native speakers using slang, colloquialism, body language, gesticulatory language, different accents and dialects as well as culture costumes. Moreover, they have the opportunity to see movie characters’ eye contact, facial expressions, movement as well as notice the speakers’ “ages, gender, relationship, facial expressions, social status, setting, formal or informal situation etc.” (Cakir, 2006, p.5). This rewarding experience

provides learners with realistic situations which are represented in everyday conversational settings with greater feeling of reality and opportunity to learn abstract concepts.

However, there are also some disadvantages of using movies as authentic materials. Firstly, the language is spoken too fast and is not simplified for learners with lower level of language proficiency. Secondly, according to Militello (2013), authentic materials can create high level of insecurity and anxiety in learners since they might find it difficult to simultaneously listen and watch what is shown on the screen. However, Gilmore (2007, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) adds that it is possible to adapt authentic materials according to the different levels of learners' language proficiency by giving them specific tasks that correspond to their specific language abilities. In addition, even though "authentic videos can be challenging for the average student, the language can be understood with the help of subtitles" (Talavan, 2010, p.295). In the same vain Baltova (1999) argues that, "it is pedagogically healthier to provide L2 learners with authentic audiovisual material/input – particularly subtitled movies – than simplifying L2 input to suit the learner's level of proficiency" (as cited in York, 2016, p.21).

Thirdly, Gebhard (1996, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011) says that authentic materials are time consuming and require a lot of effort in finding the ones with suitable content. Nevertheless, different types of movies are available on TV, DVDs, apps and online platforms, and the selection of movies can be automatically filtered according to different characteristic such as genres and movie length. Another disadvantage of using movies as authentic materials in the classroom is that learners might see them only as entertaining time fillers rather than educational tools. Still, this does not prevent learners from accidentally acquiring new words without their awareness, in a relaxed learning atmosphere.

2.2.1.2.1.2. The context in which the words are used

Words cannot be learnt in isolation but rather need to be presented in a setting where they can be given functions and meanings (Rivers, as cited in Wang & Liu, 2011). This is as a result of the fact that "words are best defined in relation to each other" (Carter, 2008, p.7). The reason why learners might find the process of vocabulary learning boring is that very often words are decontextualized. Also, with the multiple meaning of words, their usage and form can change from

one context to another, which can be quite frustrating for learners, if this is not addressed with proper teaching techniques and materials. In favor of this, multimedia, including movies, offer learners opportunities other than presenting vocabulary in isolation and working on words separately as single items.

Fraser (1991, as cited in Karakas & Saricoban, 2012) claims that chances for incidental vocabulary learning to occur can happen when learners try to comprehend the material while trying to infer the word meaning from the context. In this regards, Nation (2001, as cited in Mousavi & Gouhlami, 2014) states that incidental vocabulary acquisition facilitates the process of vocabulary acquisition by providing meaningful context, while the learners' attention is in some other features of language. Hence, incidental vocabulary learning through movies is "contextualized, giving the learner a richer sense of a word use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired-associate exercises" (Huckin & Coady, 1999, as cited in Mahmat, 2009, p.53). In other words, acquisition of vocabulary from the context is an "active, deliberate, acquisition of a meaning for a word in a text by reasoning from context" (Rapaport, 2000, as cited in Ina, 2014, p.82). To explain this further, Zoghi & Mirzaei (2014) suggest two types of contexts:

- a) *Textual* – finding the meaning of words from the discourse, i.e. texts and sentences which help learners find the meaning of words by relating, tracing and linking the elements of the text.
- b) *Visual* – finding the meaning of words by observing how people communicate and use the language in real context, which can also be done while watching movies.

For that matter, Aloqaili (2005) adds that the contextual clues which correspond very well with the spoken language and the visual portrayal help learners understand the authentic input and get closer to real life language exposure. What is more, they are also able to "view", read, as well as listen to the message (Baltova, 1994, as cited in York, 2016). Put differently, subtitled movies, as valuable teaching materials have the advantage of providing real context, as well as repetitive occurrence of words, with the combination of audio and visual stimulation, verbal and nonverbal communication, which surely benefit the learner's vocabulary acquisition process (Wang & Liu, 2011). In this light, by watching movies, learners get multi-sensory language contexts and can resort to various contextual cues which help them decipher the word meaning. With that being

said, the affordances of movies make it possible for language learners to be exposed to both, textual and visual contexts.

Jenkins and Dixon (1983, as cited in Jung & Lee, 2013) also add that factors such as number of occurrences, proximity of recurrence, variability of contexts, and presence of relevant clues have a significant effect on vocabulary acquisition from context. Nevertheless, according to Groot (2000), one of the disadvantages of using authentic materials, such as movies, for incidental vocabulary acquisitions is that there are too many unknown words and the reoccurrence of these unknown words are insufficient. Therefore, it might be useless for learners to find a thorough understanding of the meaning of the words from the context. However, with the presence of subtitles, be that interlingual or intralingual, movies have the potential to help fill in this gap.

2.2.1.2.1.3. The need for an overall comprehension of the material

Incidental vocabulary acquisition might also come as a result of learners trying to understand what is said, written or sung in the movies (Kazemi & Zarei, 2015). When watching a movie with subtitles, learners are aided to follow a speech that can be most likely lost. This is a huge support for them to understand the new words and thus meaningfully comprehend the content as the visual representation is a great advantage for comprehension. According to Mayer (1997) and Mayer & Moreno (2002, as cited in Wang, 2012) this happens as a result of the coherent visual and verbal mental representation which are correlated with each other and are shown simultaneously. Gordon (2004, as cited in Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011) adds that the visual information such as gestures, facial expressions and body language also enhance comprehension.

More specifically, “visual elements (e.g., framing, montage, make-up, lighting), sound elements (i.e., non-linguistic information, such as noise or music), and linguistic elements (i.e., dialogues) participate to the understanding of a film (as cited in Grigon & Lavaur, 2007, p.2). Also, the display of transcription of utterances of a video, improve the learners’ performance on comprehension of a target language regardless of language background (Price, 1996; Markham 1989 as cited in Shabani & Zanussi, 2015, p.119). Briefly said, by trying to follow the plots and the events presented by the visual, aural and textual attributes of the movies, learners also benefit in learning new words which lead to the overall comprehension of the movie.

In this regards, Markham (1989, as cited in Danan, 2004) found that university-level ESL (English as a Second Language) students performed significantly better on general content comprehension when exposed to audiovisual material with target language subtitles than the participants that were not exposed to target language subtitles. Hinking (2009, as cited in Ching & Tchong, 2014) also observed the influence of subtitles on the comprehension of the content of the movies and found out that subtitles indeed help learners understand the content of the movie and at the same time assist them in learning the language. Besides, the results from Vulchanova et al.'s (2005, as cited in York, 2016) research showed that both interlingual and intalingual subtitles had a great effect on the comprehension of the plot of the movies but only for a short-term.

Not only that, a study by Nigoevic, et al. (2014, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) investigated the effects of subtitles on language processing ability among 100 Croatian secondary school students of intermediate and upper-intermediate level of Common European Framework which were divided into two groups: one group was engaged in watching a movie which lasted 8 minutes with interlingual subtitles, whereas the other group watched the same movie without subtitles. After watching the movie the subjects were asked to answer 15 general comprehension questions related to the movie. The findings showed that learners who watched the movie with subtitles found it easier to understand the content and the overall meaning of the movie, whereas those without subtitles faced difficulties in answering the comprehension questions.

2.2.1.2.1.4. Lexical repertoire in learners' disposal

To derive meaning from context, the number of unknown words which learners encounter in the text should be small. Incidental vocabulary acquisition can most likely occur when learners' target language proficiency level is that they know over 95% or ideally 98% of the words (Levesque, 2013). Huckin and Coady (1999, as cited in Marefat & Hassanzadeh, 2014) suggest that guessing and inferring word meaning can occur if learners know around 3000 word families. "This demands from the learner to be familiar with a sufficiently large vocabulary to support such guessing (Nation, 2001, as cited in El Ourf, 2015, p.5). Thus, if learners do not know the majority of words in the text, then they are not able to process effectively the meaning of the unknown words. When it comes to watching movies, Webb and Rodgers (2009, as cited in Peters et al., 2016) state that learners need

to know minimum 3000 words in order to watch movies and learning to occur, which corresponds to the 95% text coverage in the average length movies.

According to Bonk (as cited in Levesque, 2013), listening comprehension from audiotapes are poor source of stimulus as a result of which high percentage of lexical knowledge is required in order to understand a text, whereas in watching movies a significant benefit is the visual support. "There is a certain irony to this phenomenon (sometimes referred to as the "Matthew effect") in the sense that a learner can only pick up new words from authentic contexts if she/he already has a large vocabulary" (Horst, Cobb, & Meara, 1998, as cited in Groot, 2000, p.64). In such cases, when watching movies, the amount of words that need to be known does not have to be high since the other affordances that watching subtitled movies offer, such as the visual, aural and textual stimulus lead to vocabulary acquisition and compensate the lack of lexical knowledge in learners' disposal.

2.2.1.2.1.5. Repeated encounters of the words

Nation (1990) and Schmidt (2001 as cited in Karakas & Saricoban, 2012, p.6) indicate that incidental vocabulary acquisition depends largely on "the number of encounters of the words in different contexts and forms". The repeated encounters help the learners build vocabulary knowledge upon the previous knowledge until they enrich the knowledge of each word. If the encounters are not very often, the chances for these words to be stored in their long term memory are lower. In other words, this is a sequential process by which vocabulary knowledge increases gradually as a result of the frequency of the learners' interaction with the input (El Ourf, 2015).

The questions at stake is how does repeated encounter of words actually benefit vocabulary acquisition? Each time a learner encounters a word in context they are able to remember certain information about that word and when learners encounter the same word repeatedly they gain other information regarding that word's meaning (Sedita, 2005). Consequently, "vocabulary knowledge seems to grow gradually moving from the first meaningful exposure to a word, to a full and flexible knowledge" (Stahl, 1999, *ibid*, p.4). According to Ismaili (2012), if the words are repeated several times throughout the movie the chances are that learners can acquire around 3-5 new words. But, it is still unclear how often a word needs to be encountered in order to be learnt.

Based on the studies summarized by Gu (2003), Nation (1990) reports that learners need from 5 to 15 encounters to successfully acquire words. In addition, his experiment with low intermediate EFL (English as Foreign Language) learners, assigned to read a 109 page book, showed that participants obtained words that were encountered over eight times. Also, according to Saragi's study (et al, 1978, as cited in Webb, 2014) the necessary encounters for learning words is 10 or more times. As mentioned by Levesque (2013), in order for vocabulary acquisition to be successful, learners need to be given texts with approximately 98% known words and less unknown words which need to be repeated in various contexts.

As a matter of a fact, Thornbury (2004 as cited in Hashemi & Pourgharib, 2015, p.76) highlights that "unlike learning grammar which is a system with many rules, vocabulary is a subject of recalling", thus, regularly presenting learners with the same words leads to incidental vocabulary gains without the learners' conscious effort to do so. However, the frequency of word encounters cannot always predict if learners completely acquire the new words. Cook (2008, as cited in El Ourf, 2015, p.4) demonstrates this by saying that "common words like 'because' and 'necessary' are still spelt wrongly after students have been meeting them for many years", whereas "a swear word said accidentally when the teacher drops the tape recorder is likely to be remembered by the students forever".

According to Aloqaili (2005), words which are most often encountered in texts are function words (which show the grammar functions of words, such as auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, pronouns, quantifiers) rather than content words (which show the meaning of the words, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs). Additionally, Webb (2014, p.3) quotes some authors who note some of the factors that indicate why the number of encounters is relative in incidental word acquisition, such as:

- a) "word difficulty, like pronunciation, length, inflectional and derivational complexity, abstractness, and polysemous characteristics (Laufer, 1997);
- b) the different degree of word importance in understanding a text (Hulstijn, 1993);
- c) learners proficiency, as beginner level learners would require more encounters than those with higher level of language proficiency (Zahar, et al., 2001) since they require to focus more attention to the unknown words.
- d) the visualization that accompanies words"

Bearing in mind the last factor mentioned, the visualization of words in the movies can make the word acquisition possible even if there is less frequent occurrence of particular words in the subtitles. Moreover, if a movie can be watched several times and there is a specific theme to it, the repetition might also trigger vocabulary acquisition. In the same vain, movies offer the opportunity of acquiring words which are less likely to be stored in our memory for recall and can be repeated several times until they can be noticed by the learners. Therefore, when watching subtitled movies “learners might consistently encounter a particular vocabulary item that is triggered in learners’ minds in the same auditory, visual and printed form on each encounter, which allows students to gradually build learned responses” (McLaughlin et al., 1983, as cited in Militello, 2013, p.14). This is also a characteristic of the noticing hypothesis which will be discussed in more details later.

Vulchanova, Aurstad, Kvitnes and Eschuis (2015, as cited in York, 2016) explored the short-term and long term effects of subtitles among native Norwegian learners of age 16 and 17. 114 participants who had advance language proficiency watched 22 minutes of American cartoon “Family Guy” only one time. Their hypotheses was that when learners were exposed to subtitles, both interlingual and intralingual, the subtitles had short-term effects on comprehension and did not have any significant long-term effects on recalling vocabulary. When the researchers increased the number of watching the show from one to four times, thus from 22 minutes to 88 minutes, they noticed that there were long term effects of vocabulary acquisition from the subtitled movie.

Also, Rostam (et. al, 2016) conducted a research with the aim to compare the repeated) and uncontrollable subtitles. The findings revealed that the subjects who were exposed to movies with controllable subtitles outscored in content specific vocabulary test the group that watched the movie in uncontrollable subtitles. Controllable subtitles allowed the participants to pause, take notes and rewind the video, thus they did not miss a single word from the dialogues, instead this helped them understand the material and improve their vocabulary.

2.2.1.2.1.6. Motivational effects of materials on learners

The authenticity of learning materials, is a great factor in triggering learners’ motivation, which also plays a significant role on incidental vocabulary acquisition as a result of several

elements which constitute them, such as the attraction of learners' curiosity, interest, and attention (Tomlinson, 1998, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016). Movies, as enjoyable and stress-free authentic material, contribute positively in vocabulary acquisition by generating learners' motivation. This is as a result of learners' interest to know what is shown and said in the movies. As stated by Mianto (2015), this enjoyment leads to construction of meaningful learning which helps words to be stored in learners' long term memory through an impressing and meaningful experience.

According to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982) not all materials bring students to language acquisition in a relaxed and "unthreatened" environment, as a result of a mental block between the input and acquisition which can prevent learners from acquiring the language, in this case the vocabulary. Therefore, if the learner experiences low anxiety, the affective filter is low and they are open to receiving the language input by allowing it in. Krashen (1985, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011) also adds that in settings with a relaxed atmosphere such as those created by watching subtitled movies, learners have less or no anxiety and are more open to acquire words as they are so involved and captivated in the message that they are not aware of the fact that they are hearing and reading a foreign language. As a consequence, "an unmotivated learner will acquire less than a motivated one, a nervous learner less than a relaxed one, a self-hating learner less than a self-respecting one" (Gregg, 1984, as cited in Raine, 2012, p.14).

Another benefit of using movies as a vocabulary learning tool is that they are an ideal example of a medium that can be used by learners outside the classroom and can serve as a variation of the standard classroom instructional methodologies. In this respect, Gieve and Clark (2005, as cited in Webb, 2010, p.501) came up with the conclusion that watching videos is "the second most commonly used self-directed learning strategy among Europeans". Besides, with the existence of various movies, a wide variety of learners with different individual preferences and language proficiencies can be involved in watching and acquiring the target language vocabulary. Thus, movies need to be incorporated in the language teaching and learning process in a way that they are adjusted to learners preferences since "students derive pleasure from being able to understand the target language spoken at normal speed and with variations in register, accents and contexts" (Sherman, 2003, as cited in Militello, 2013, p.6).

However, Caspi, Gorsky and Privman (2005, as cited in Lin, 2010) add that learners can feel frustrated when they are supposed to watch a movie for language learning purposes, as this type of instruction requires that they watch and hear and sometimes read at the same time which might be

too demanding and might make them feel frustrated for not understanding the unfamiliar words. In this regards, Danan (2004) adds that subtitles in fact relieve the anxiety of those who feel tensed if they miss an important language input or feel lost while watching. This is because subtitles help learners “become more confident in their ability to understand and direct their mental energy to actual learning” (as cited in Militello, 2013, p.9). A study by Borrás & Lafayette (1994, as cited in *ibid*) also found out that learners who were exposed to subtitles had more positive attitudes than those who did not have access to them. Still, using movies as a vocabulary teaching support needs to be administrated carefully in order to provide a pleasurable atmosphere for the learners, with the aim that they can spontaneously acquire new words.

2.2.1.3. The relationship between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning

Even though incidental and intentional learning seem to show a significant overlap, there are still a few features that differentiate them. According to Hulstijn (2006, as cited in Alemi & Tayebi, 2011) the difference between intentional and incidental learning is that in the first one, learners are aware of what they are expected to learn whereas in incidental learning, learners are not instructed to focus on a particular type of information. The difference between these methods of learning is explained in further details by Ellis (1999, as cited in Shahrzad & Derakhshan, 2012, p.5) who says that while “intentional learning requires focal attention to be placed deliberately on the linguistic code (i.e., on form or form-meaning connections), incidental learning requires attention to be placed on meaning (i.e., message content)”. Others believe that what distinguishes these two is that incidental learning is usually preferred for learners with advanced target language proficiency, whereas intentional method is more effective with beginner students (Laufer & Hulstijn 2001, as cited in Wu, 2009).

Even though incidental and intentional learning methods bring their own significant benefits in vocabulary acquisition, they also have their limitations. When it comes to the drawbacks of incidental learning, Melodie (2014) says that in such environments there is less attention to form as the focus is rather on word meaning, as a result of which limited uptake and retention occurs. Accordingly, the number of words learned through incidental learning is smaller in comparison with the number of words learned through intentional vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1992, as cited in

Chen, 2006). As a process, it is also quite slow, time consuming and incremental. Likewise, beginner learners with limited word knowledge are less likely to perform effectively in incidental learning. However, in situations where learners are presented with multimedia such as visual and aural media, even beginner learners can profit from the incidental learning environment, since the meaning of words is derived from the multimedia information. "Therefore, to compensate for these limitations, the intentional vocabulary learning is needed" (Wu, 2009, p.12).

Nonetheless, intentional learning also has a few drawbacks. Codreanu (2016) suggests that telling a student what to learn disregards the learning intention, whereas showing the learners the whole picture of the learning process by giving them the chance to choose the relevant knowledge to be acquired is more effective. He also explains this further by quoting Benjamin Franklin's as follows "an involved learner is much of a learner than the one that is told (most often liable to forget) and taught (liable to remember, but not to learn yet)" (ibid, p.26). Moreover, Groot (2000) states that often with the lack of natural context, the word exposure is less intensive and varied. Hereafter, instructions given intentionally can promise enough vocabulary learning that must take place in the school year (Cunningham, 2005, as cited in El Ourf, 2015). With that being said, learning words in isolation makes the learners incapable of using the learnt word in context.

Seeing the advantages of both of these approaches of learning, there is a general consensus among researches that they are quite correlated and necessary for language learners. Huckin and Coady (1999, as cited in Alemi & Tayebi, 2011) stated that these two complement each other because the process of learning incidentally is not entirely incidental as learners still need to pay at least some attention to words in the material they are working on. In this regards, Dijunovic and Geld (2003, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) add that the fact that learners are able to notice new linguistic items of a given input tells that there is a degree of consciousness in the learning process.

In this light, as incidental learning often requires involving different levels of task, it is assumed that a combination of both, incidental and intentional learning, can contribute in vocabulary learning (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001, as cited in Gu, 2003). According to Brown (2007, as cited in Raine, 2012), both are helpful in learning a language so the only concern is "under what conditions, and for which learners, and for what linguistic elements is one approach, as opposed to the other, advantageous for second language acquisition?" (p.16). In this respect, incidental vocabulary learning is suggested to be used with advanced learners, whereas, intentional instruction is suggested for learners with limited language, who still have not developed comprehension skills and wide range of vocabulary which can help them decode the new words.

2.2.1.4. Empirical studies on the effectiveness of incidental and intentional vocabulary learning

According to Van de Poel and d'Ydewalle (1999, as cited in Danan, 2014) when one is exposed to watching subtitled movies, the acquisition is most frequently incidental as the learners hear the language without being conscious or putting any systematic effort to do so. Particularly, a research done by Neuman (1990, as cited in Rostam, et al., 2016) investigated the effect of subtitles in vocabulary acquisition of 129 seventh and eighth graders who watched subtitled videos which lasted around 5-8 minutes. The results showed that watching movies with subtitles had an impact on learner's incidental vocabulary acquisition.

In addition, Raine (2012) mentions a few studies which show that incidental learning is indeed useful for vocabulary acquisition, thus contribute to this section and are summarized next. Neuman and Koskinen (1992, as cited in *ibid*) discovered that English learners incidentally learnt vocabulary by watching captioned movies. d'Ydewalle and Van de Poel's (1999, as cited in *ibid*) showed that learners who were studying French and Danish learnt vocabulary from subtitled movies even though they did not pay attention to the language forms before or after watching the movies. Also Koolstra & Beentjes (1999 as cited in *ibid*) reported that in their study, a group of children were assigned to watch authentic videos and were able to acquire vocabulary without any subtitles or additional tasks. Contrary to this, Froehlich (1988, as cited in *ibid*, p.17) states that learners cannot "magically or by osmosis" learn a language when watching movies without the occurrence of intentional learning. In the same vain, Ladau and Harjulin (1992 as cited in *ibid*) said that watching a multidimensional information such as movies, learners receive "passive and vague impressions or pure entertainment". Consequently, watching movies needs to be an active rather than passive process (Allan, 1985; Stempleski, 1992 as cited in *ibid*).

Vanderplank (1999) states that incidental language learning is not completely automatic when watching a movie, as "viewers must pay more attention to the subtitles and be aware of how they process subtitles" (as cited in Kim, 2015, p.1). In the same light, Cakir (2006) suggests that learners need to be encouraged to watch movies actively while participating in activities and using supplementary materials such as worksheets that will support their learning. He adds that the learner should be "an active member in the triangle of the video, the teacher and the learner" (*ibid*, p.71). Milton (2008, as cited in Melodie, 2014) states that informal learning with intention to build vocabulary should be designed in order to focus on form and the learner to be willingly involved in

tasks that help them learn the vocabulary. Such conditions should offer pausing the movies, in order that the learner notices the form or rewinds the movie backwards and highlights important vocabulary.

Among many studies on intentional learning, Melodie (2013, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) investigated the intentional focus on vocabulary learning in relation to watching subtitled movies. The study was focused on one participant who was an English speaker studying the French language. He was encouraged to focus on the subtitles by pausing the movie whenever he came across unknown words. He was also asked to keep a diary in order to record the difficulties he encountered and his motivation while watching these movies. At the end of the sessions, he had to complete a vocabulary test which showed that intentional learning had positive outcomes on vocabulary learning.

Similarly, Vanderplank (1990, as cited in *ibid*) observed learners' strategies for intentional decoding while watching subtitled movies. He discovered that learners who were not using conscious learning strategies such as taking notes, did not acquire some of the linguistic items shown in the video, neither did they produce correct language in comprehension tasks. In this light, he adds that learners need to have a certain degree of consciousness and attention in order to convert the input into intake, which will further enable them to have these linguistic forms stored in their memory for long term retention.

2.2.2. The cognitive approach to vocabulary acquisition

Multi-sensory materials, such as movies, are highly supported by several cognitive approaches such as the cognitive theory of multimedia learning, cognitive overload theory, dual coding theory and the generative theory of learning. In general, according to the cognitive approach, second language acquisition can be better understood when investigating how learner's brain processes the new information (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, as cited in Ramirez, 2012). Accordingly, cognitive theories deal with activating learners' "prior knowledge and the meaningful connection of new information to the previously-learned information" (Zarei, 2009, p.72). In order to understand these theories better, the effects of the three media channels (visual, auditory and textual) of movies on vocabulary acquisition will be discussed first.

2.2.2.1. The effects of multimedia channels on vocabulary acquisition

Compared to traditional English teaching materials, movies are of a great value because they represent a combination of auditory channel (sound), the nonverbal visual channel (image) and sometimes the verbal visual channel (subtitles) (Baltova, 1999 as cited in Ghoneam, 2015). The combination of these three channels provides the learners with a great exposure for vocabulary acquisition. One of the reasons is that “people learn better from words and visual clues than from words alone” (Fletcher & Tobias, 2005 as cited in Perez, et al., 2013, p.722). Moreover, “the combination of visual and audio aids provide learners with multiple opportunities to access more parts of the brain and to process information more effectively” (Oxford and Grookal, 1990 as cited in Mardani & Najmabadi, 2016, p.53). As during watching movies, learners are subjected to these three different stimuli, each of them show positive contribution to vocabulary acquisition and will be discussed further in the next sections.

2.2.2.1.1. Visual and auditory support of movies

When it comes to watching movies, the visual and auditory support are important elements of making the vocabulary acquisition efficient. More specifically, when learners see what they hear, they remember the words better by relating the word to the visual element. Also, according to different scholars such as Mayer (2005, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014), Smith and Miller (2012, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) acquisition of new vocabulary is more successful when words are accompanied by visual representations rather than when they are presented alone. In other words, “we remember images better than words; hence we remember words better if they are strongly associated with images” (Wang, 2012, Jahanyfard, 2015, p.13) and as a plus when watching movies learners can rely on visual clues that are in motion and are accompanied by sound.

In addition, Oxford and Crookall (1990, as cited in Chen, 2006, p.35) have stated that “most learners are capable of associating new information to concepts in memory by means of meaningful visual images that make learning more efficient. Furthermore, the pictorial-verbal combination involves many parts of the brain, thus providing greater cognitive power”. According

to Akbulut, (2007, as cited in Yuksel & Tarniverdi, 2009), the visual cues of movies are more effective than providing learners with definitions of words, or the unnatural disembodied listening from audio players (Shrosbree, 2008). Salmon (1970, 1979, as cited in Champoux, 2007) asserts that when words are presented in verbal and visual form learners can more easily learn new, abstract words and concepts.

However, learners might still misinterpret the meaning of the words as visual clues do not clearly indicate the meaning of what is specifically being said (Guichon & McLornan, 2008; Harley et al., 1996, as cited in Tsai, 2010). In this regards, Canning-Wilson (2000, as cited in Wilson, 2000) adds that movies can also offer different paralinguistic cues that help learners see immediate meaning of the words they are exposed to, thus it helps them clarify the message, reinforce the language and provide meaning for vocabulary recognition. One of the reasons for this is that “the main component of using the movies in the class is actually enabling the reader to picture or to visualize the events, characters, narration, story and words in the context” (Ismaili, 2012, p.123).

2.2.2.1.2. The impact of subtitles on vocabulary acquisition

Besides the visual and auditory cues, watching movies might be even more efficient if learners are provided with subtitles, since they help learners make “connection between auditory and visual input” (Garza, 1991, as cited in Bensalem, 2016, p.453). The role of subtitles is not to replace but rather to supplement learning. With subtitles, learners can have different benefits. King, (2002, as cited in Bravo, 2009) mentions a few of them. By watching subtitled movies, learners can decode the dialogues in the movies, get the meaning of expressions and idiomatic meanings in context, can follow the plot by rapidly processing the text, and can help develop word recognition.

In addition, when learners cannot catch up with fast speeches and cannot process them quickly enough, they can simply rely on the subtitles. By doing so, learners simultaneously read and listen the target language. With this in view, a study by Brown, Waring and Donkaewbua (2008, as cited in Levesque, 2013) has reported that when reading-while-listening learners can most effectively acquire words incidentally. Nevertheless, a lot of studies have been conducted regarding the efficiency of subtitles, and it is still unclear which type can lead to a more successful vocabulary

acquisition. In order to see some of the subtitles' benefits, they will be discussed in separate sections below.

2.2.2.1.2.1. Interlingual subtitles

It is generally believed that interlingual subtitles are processed automatically and that they represent a smoother cognitive process for the learners. In the same vain, Ivarsson & Carrol (1998, as cited in York, 2016) add that while being simultaneously exposed to their native language and the audio of the target language, learners receive cognitive assistance for learning the language. Into the bargain, this type of subtitles can be mostly preferred by the less skilled language learners who cannot find the meaning of the words from the context.

Talavan (2007, p.3) adds that interlingual subtitles can be helpful for advanced learners as well, since they can "be conscious of new and unfamiliar vocabulary items that might otherwise be simply lost without the support of subtitles". In other words, interlingual subtitles might serve them as a connection between the audial and visual clues via the translation which can also contribute to confirming their understanding of what they listen to. Similarly, Pavesi and Parego (2008, as cited in York, 2016) indicate that when using interlingual subtitles, the translation helps learners decrease the cognitive effort while processing the language and thus easily facilitate second language acquisition. Hence, "the more opportunities that can be found for formal transfer between foreign and mother-tongue words, the better the chances for retention" (Carter & McCarthy, 1988, as cited in Talavan, 2007 p.3).

2.2.2.1.2.2. Intralingual subtitles

According to York (2016), as a result of the unfamiliar mappings of words and sounds, learners face difficulties in understanding words in the target language. For this reason, Williams (2002) and Schmidt (2007, as cited in Nasab & Motlagh, 2017, p.3) indicate that the best way to

acquire words is through intralingual subtitled videos since “word boundaries are clearer”. Ghia (as cited in York, 2016, p.24) adds that this helps learners “establish correspondences between the graphic form of a word and its phonetic realization”. Likewise, this also enhances learners’ skill of processing the input by switching between the three channels: visual, auditory and textual.

Put differently, through intralingual subtitles learners map the phonology of the words in a written form (Bisson, et al., 2011). Accordingly, the presence of intralingual subtitles signals to learners which words are being spoken and can prepare them for the upcoming utterances. This also links the gap between the listening and the reading skills. Thus, when exposed to interlingual subtitles, learners “will not likely miss the aural cue of a captioned expression the next time he/she encounters it” (Garza, 1991, as cited in Bird & Williams, 2003 p.2).

Froehlich (2016) adds that intralingual subtitles are helpful as a verification for aural comprehension where learners check if they have heard what they think they have heard. Other benefits of intralingual subtitled listed by King (2002, as cited in Kusumarasdyati, 2006) are that they help learners follow a plot easily and get involved in plot development. Moreover, with intralingual subtitles learners have better chances to acquire colloquial, context-bound expressions and slang. In a study by Borrás & Lafayetter (1994) intralingual subtitles “may also help the foreign/second language learner associate the aural and written forms of words more easily and quickly than videos without subtitles” (p.70).

2.2.2.1.2.3. The effectiveness and drawbacks of using subtitles in vocabulary acquisition

There is a long standing debate regarding which type of subtitles facilitates better vocabulary acquisition. According to Mitter and McQueen (2009, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) intralingual subtitles are more effective because they can show which words are exactly spoken and thus help learners understand the words better. In a study by Vanderplank (1988, as cited in *ibid*) and Baltova, 1999, d’Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1996, as cited in York, 2016) the results showed that when intralingual subtitles were included, learners could comprehend unfamiliar words and expressions as well as were able to recall and spell the words. Hence, they came up with a conclusion that when words and phrases are shown in the same form in the screen as in the audio,

learners remember them easier and can be a helpful tool for vocabulary acquisition even for the less skilled learners.

Others suggest (Neuman & Koskinen, 1992, Danan, 2004, Mitter and McQueen, 2009, as cited in *ibid*) that both types of subtitles are equally beneficial, as they can be used for different audience. In general, intralingual subtitles are preferred for learners with higher language proficiency, whereas interlingual subtitles for beginner learners. In this light, Bianchi and Ciabattoni (2008, as cited in *ibid*) add that the difference between these two types of subtitles is that interlingual subtitles are automatically processed, which leaves space for the learners to focus on the visual and audial elements, whereas in intralingual subtitles the cognitive process is more difficult as a result of which learners might be distracted with processing these elements. Consequently, learners with higher competences can process intralingual subtitles more successfully.

Nevertheless, researches point out a few common worries about using subtitles that should not be overlooked. First, subtitles might create over dependence and a habit for learners to rely on them and they might also distract learners from listening to the conversations or understanding the plot. In accordance with this, Reese (1984, as cited in Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016) adds that the biggest disadvantage is that humans usually pay attention to one channel at the same time. As movies represent authentic videos prepared for the native speakers, the language is not simplified and the speakers might talk in fast pace, therefore learners may need more time to process the new and abstract words.

According to Karamitroglou (2000, as cited in Sadeghpour & Omar, 2015, p.1997) “the average reading speed of subtitles is approximately 150-180 words per minute, which is also equivalent to nearly 2.5-3 words per second” which “must remain at least 5.5 seconds on the screen for people to be able to read”. As a result of subtitles appearing for only a short period of time and only once, some of the words might be lost, which leads to learners also feeling lost and frustrated (Froehlich, 2016). Borell (2002, as cited in York, 2016) also argues that subtitles demand a lot of conscious awareness and concentration, as “videos could have high verbal density and words which do not match the visual clues” (Lonergan, 1984, as cited in Jung & Lee, 2013, p.70). When the viewers are forced to read subtitles in order to understand the movie, they are required to exert more mental effort than viewers who merely comprehend the soundtrack (Koolstra et al., 2002, as cited in Hinkin, 2005).

To overrule the previously mentioned drawbacks, a number of studies prove in fact that reading subtitles is almost an effortless and automatic process and as such do not impede the understanding of the information coming from the three channels. To begin with, according to d'Ydewalle and Gielen (1992, as cited in Carter, 2008) learners are able to successfully divide their attention between various sources of information which in fact helps them make a connection between words and their meanings. Wang, Chou, Wang and Hsieh (2003, as cited in Fazilatfar & Ghorbani, 2011) add that the information coming from three different channels expands learners' capacity of working memory and thus they are able to effectively store the information in their memory. In addition, Koolstra et al (2002, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014) adds that reading is faster than listening, accordingly reading subtitles does not distract learners. In this regards, D'Ydewalle (et al., 1991 as cited in Grignon & Lavour, 2007, p.2) mentions that "the reading speed of the subtitles is not sensitive to viewers' differences in watching subtitled films. For this reason, participants less accustomed to watch subtitled films do not read the subtitles more slowly than participants who are used to watch subtitled films"

Furthermore, d'Ydewalle (as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) conducted a study in the Netherlands which was focused on monitoring learners' eye-movement when watching subtitles movies. The results showed that learners were able to switch between viewing the video and reading the subtitles without any problems. In another study, d'Ydewalle, Praet, Verfaillie and Van Rensbergen (1991, as cited in Sabouri & Zehrabi, 2015) carried out a research on comparing the subtitle reading behavior of American participants with no experience in reading subtitles and Dutch participants who were very familiar with subtitles. In particular, American subjects were engaged in watching movies with English subtitles. The evidences showed that both groups were paying attention on the subtitle area for a considerable time in an automatic manner. Hence, the researchers came to a conclusion that with the presence of subtitles, learners are automatically engaged in reading behavior despite their familiarity and experience with subtitles, even if the subtitles and the sound is in their mother tongue.

2.2.2.2. Word recognition and the noticing hypothesis

Movies with subtitles stimulate learners to notice the unknown vocabulary which is the first step in the acquisition process (Huckin & Coady, 1999; Hulstijn, 2001 as cited in Perez et al., 2014). Wesche and Paribakht (2010 as cited in Levesque, 2013) add that most of the times new vocabulary is noticed when it is needed for text comprehension but also point out that vocabulary can be fully acquired if the words are encountered frequently and in different forms. Canning-Wilson (2002, as cited in Mardani & Najmabadi, 2016) imply that the visual aids of movies reinforce the word acquisition and makes sure learners recognize the vocabulary which in turn infers word meaning when presented to them.

Therefore, when exposed to linguistic input, learners first recognize the input i.e. words, and then they internalize them (Chen, 2006). For instance, words such as have, are, has, is, can be sometimes hard to recognize if they are only presented in spoken language. In this manner, subtitles help learners pass these word boundaries and see the complete word forms that they would otherwise not recognize in speech (Jahanyfard, 2015). In other words “images contextualized in video or on its own can help reinforce language learning, provided the learner can see immediate meaning in terms of vocabulary recognition” (Canning-Wilson, 2000 as cited in Wilson, 2000, p.2). That is why, subtitles are “mediating device” (Vanderplank, 1988, as cited in Perez, et al., 2014, p.722) which help learners in cases when automated sound script recognition is challenged, as a result of which the ambiguous speech is clearer next time when it is encountered.

Markham (as cited in Etemadi, 2012) suggests that subtitled movies contribute to word recognition as they help identify words after encountering them more than once. In order to see the impact of subtitles on word recognition, Markham (1999, as cited in Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016) conducted a research with 118 advanced ESL learners who watched two videos of 12 and 13 minutes, with and without subtitles. The data gathered from the tests showed that learners who watched the movie with subtitles were able to identify the key words during screening and when they heard them subsequently.

Similarly, the process of word acquisition can be explained by Schmidt’s (1990) *noticing hypotheses* which indicates that in order that acquisition occurs, learners need to notice the items they are being taught and to be consciously participating in them. That is to say, learners can acquire words if they notice a word repeatedly in a particular context (Schmidt, 2002, as cited in

Militello, 2013) which further helps them store the word from the working memory to the long term memory and helps them transfer the input into intake for learning (Schmidt, 2001, as cited in Lertola, 2012). Schmidt refers to this learning, as incidental learning, as opposed to Krashen's theory (1982, as cited in Jahanyfard, 2015) and states that consciousness plays a significant role in learning a language.

Schmidt (1990, as cited in Militello, 2013) continues by saying that there are six factors which influence noticing: *saliency, frequency, instruction, individual differences in processing ability, readiness* and *task demands*. Militello (2013) continues by explaining that when learners are exposed to watching intralingual subtitled movies, noticing occurs because the text is paired with the sound and the visual cues which makes the input more salient and more likely to be acquired. This way, learners can notice both, the written and the spoken form of the words which "draw learners' attention to unknown lexical items and makes them become conscious of these new lexical items" (ibid, p.11).

2.2.2.3. Processing multiple channel input

According to Verspoor et al. (2009, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013, p.15), "the language system does not simply 'take in' input, but it interacts with it, adapts it, and reorganizes itself in the process". More specifically, McLaughlin et al. (1983, as cited in Militello, 2013) state that the characteristics of input is the factor of how information is processed. In this light, Militello (2013) continues by saying that what characterizes subtitled movies as a source of input is the triple connection of sound, visual clues and text which serve as a great multiple association of words in different modes. This in turn helps in establishing the connection between the word and its meaning. In this way, when watching a movie learners are expected to deal with these three sources of information simultaneously. Therefore, this process is complex and difficult but yet quite powerful.

McLaughlin et al. (1983, as cited in ibid) adds that the deep processing of the triple connection of these elements results in longer memory retention. Moreover, as stated by Kellerman (1985, as cited in Zarei, 2009), the combination of verbal and visual representations facilitates the use of semantic codes which furthermore helps with storing the input in the learners'

memory. Similarly, Suberviola and Mendez (2002, as cited in Nasab & Motlagh, 2017, p.1) add that learning vocabulary has to do with “the way words settle in the mind according to particular sets of semantic relations, forming a mental dictionary”. Since learning vocabulary is different from learning grammar which is a rule based system, the acquisition of words involves memorizing units. Hereafter, one of the challenges that learners face when learning vocabulary is the memory span, as a result of learners’ need “to catch up with the fast pace of information they receive from the movies” (Zohdi, 2012, p.2).

As reported by Thornbury (2002, as cited in Shejbalova, 2006) there are three basic memory systems: short term memory, working memory and long term memory. Short term memory stores the words only for a short period of time, up to a few seconds. Accordingly, it has the capacity to keep only a certain number of information at the same time, as learners rush to understand the input they are provided with. Working memory focuses only on performing activities on the words and makes sure short term memory is being refreshed. Whereas long term memory stores the items for a longer period of time and has permanent content. To explain this better, once learners see the written form of a spoken word, the next time they see it they are able to hear it and phonologically understand its representation.

Militello (2013, p.4) states that “the fact that input is absorbed through different means helps students build two different mental representations – a verbal and a visual model – and build connections between them, which facilitates higher retention as it allows for multiple associations to be established in the brain”. In the same vain, Danan (1992, as cited in Zanon, 2006) explains the usefulness of subtitled movies on memory, by saying that the visual associations along with the subtitles and sound, encourages retention since they provide immediate meaning of the words. “Information would be, therefore, better remembered when it is dually rather than singly coded, because when one memory trace is lost, the other is accessible” (Sadeghi & Farzizadeh, 2013, p.4).

However, some researches (Chandler & Sweller, 1991 as cited in Cross, 2011) believe that processing the audio and visual input simultaneously might have a negative influence on learners’ vocabulary understanding and thus may cause a working memory overload. Sweller (2005, as cited in Perez, et al, 2013, p.722) also thinks that this in fact “interferes with rather than facilitates learning”. In other words, cognitive overload occurs when the working memory is not able to process all the input, in this case the multiple channels of information. In this light, Reese (1984 as cited in Alipour, et al. 2012) continues by saying that subtitled movies might not really have any effect on learning since humans may be limited to single-channel processing. Therefore, they can

attend to, without being distracted, only one channel at a time. This is as a result of learners not being able to process all the information when attention is switched from aural to textual input. Danan (2004, as cited in Kim, 2015) suggests that in order to reduce the cognitive overload when movies are presented to learners, they need to be adapted to their language proficiency, as a result of which learners can rely on visual, aural and textual cues to help them with the cognitive load.

Other researchers believe that in fact, movies as multimodal vocabulary learning tool help lowering learners' cognitive load. Particularly, "when students watch video, pictures can help them reduce their level of cognitive load" (Sweller, et al, 1998, as cited in Jahanyfard, 2015, p.15). Thus, the more assistance learners can get via input, the lower the cognitive load becomes; i.e. subtitled movies can provide a lower cognitive load than movies without subtitles. To prove this, a study by Bird and Williams (2002, as cited in Hicking, 2015) found that when learners were exposed to text and sound simultaneously, they acquired more vocabulary in comparison to those who were given only sound or text.

Furthermore, according to Boras' (1993) theory of serial-parallel processing, when a mental task becomes an automatic behavior, it does not really require much effort from the brain and takes very little space, as there is no need for attention to the individual components. This is as a result of the fact that the brain has the ability to process more activities at the same time in parallel manner. However, if the activity requires that learners pay a significant conscious guidance and control, then the brain needs more space in order to process the information. This is because the brain processes each aspect one after another in a serial order. Both of these processing are used when learning vocabulary, and cannot stand exclusively in order for the brain space to be used efficiently. Boras (1993) continues by suggesting that the best outcomes could be reached if learners could practice switching from serial to parallel processing of aural and visual information.

2.2.2.3.1. Paivio's dual-coding theory

The theoretical basis of this study is inspired by Paivio's Dual Coding theory, a theory of cognition, also known as the basis of Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning which will be discussed later. According to Paivio (1991, as cited in Ramirez, 2012) the cognitive system is made of two separate subsystems, the verbal (oral and written) and nonverbal (pictorial) system which

are inter-connected but can also function independently by being directly connected to the sensory modality. Therefore, the “representations in one system can potentially activate those in the other” (d’Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999, as cited in Melodie, 2014, p.22).

Likewise, “when pictures are associated with the meaning, the number of signals connected to the message increases” (Paivio, 1971, as cited in Gorijan, 2014, p.1014), as a result of which, learners are more likely to retain the information for a further recall. “In other words, if the received input makes an appeal on both the verbal and nonverbal system, the activation of one system would make retrieval of an associative object in the other system easier” (Sluijs, 2015, p.11). Simply put, when learners receive verbal and visual input the information is classified in more than one way in the brain, which leads to a better retention of information (Ahangari & Abdollahpur, 2010 as cited in Herreweghe, 2014). Because of that, dually coded words are learnt better than those coded only in one mode (Shan, 2010) (Figure 2).

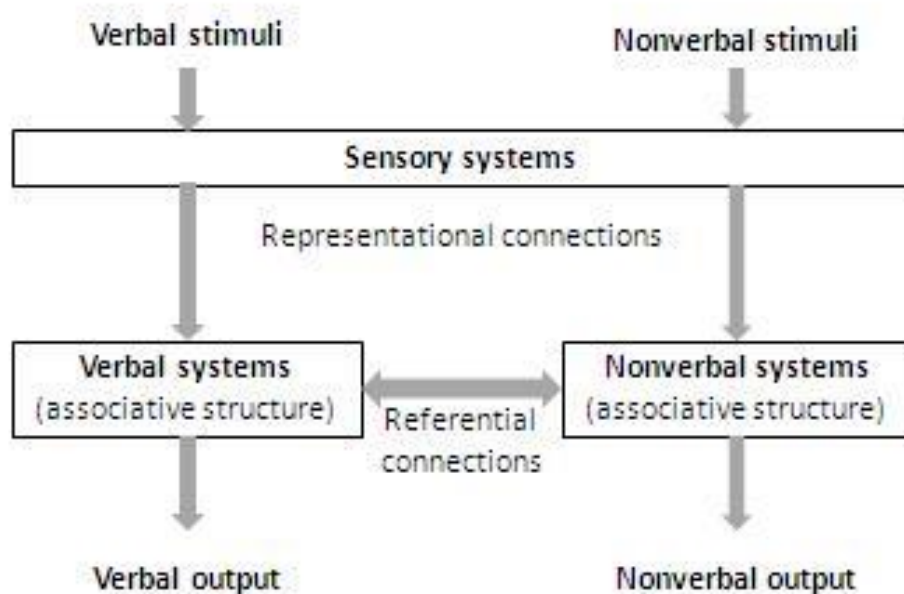


Fig. 2: The Dual Coding Model (as cited in Sluijs, 2013, p.11).

Sadoski and Pavio (2001, as cited in Chen, 2006) associate dual coding theory with the imagery based mnemonic technique which was used in the ancient method of loci. “The mnemonic technique applies verbal-imaginal dual coding in which the targeted words (verbal) are transformed into non-verbal images, and images are consequently translated back into verbal in recall activities”

(ibid, p.59). Watching subtitled movies has been proven to be an adequate form of media for activating dual coding systems within viewers' brains (Raine, 2012).

Movies with subtitles, representing words with different stimuli, through visual and auditory channel can activate both coding systems when the information is processed. Therefore, when learners watch subtitled movies they are exposed to three independent systems with tight linkage between them, the image, sound and text. This information is then classified in more than one way in the brain but still helps the retention and recall of the new vocabulary since the words are learned in different modes. More specifically, movies with interlingual subtitles can “cause better processing and recall due to image and translation effects” (Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016, p.63). “Once translation has linked the two verbal systems, viewers have established more paths for retrieval and may benefit from visual traces as well as from two distinct sets of verbal traces” (Paivio, 1986, Danan, 1992, as cited in Danan, 2004, p.72).

Levin and Berry (1980, as cited in ibid) investigated the dual coding theory with school children who were assigned to listen to news stories while viewing relevant pictures and proved that they outscored the children who only listened to the stories. In a study by Johns and Plass (2002, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) two groups of English speakers studying French were exposed to two treatments, listening to audio with and without visual support. The results showed that learners who were given both audio and visual support retained more vocabulary than the group who only had the audio as a support. Ergo, with Paivio's dual coding theory support, it is assumed that movies with subtitles do not impede understanding or distract learners' attention. In fact, learning a word in different modes, by dually being coded assists learners' vocabulary understanding.

2.2.2.3.2. Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning

Cognitive theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 2001, as cited in Chen, 2006), which is a result of the dual coding theory, is coined in accordance with three basic assumptions which will be explained next, in order to understand how learning occurs when learners are presented with multimedia information.

- a) *Dual channels assumption* – people have separate channels which they use to process visual (pictorial) and auditory information (printed text or spoken words) which enhance learning and memory retention.
- b) *Limited capacity assumption* - each channel has limited cognitive capacity of information, in a sense that the amount of information one can attend to at one time is limited. This means that people can process and store in their working memory only some information that they are presented with. This is also referred to as the previously discussed, cognitive load theory.
- c) *Active processing assumption* – learning can occur if the incoming information is processed and linked to learner’s prior knowledge since “we are constantly selecting, organizing and integrating information with past knowledge” (as cited in Zohdi, 2012, p.3). “Meaningful learning engages three essential cognitive processes, namely, selecting relevant information from newly presented materials, organizing the selected information into coherent mental representations, and integrating organized information with prior knowledge” (Mayer, 1997, 2001, as cited in Chen, 2006, p.61). In other words, when learners are presented with a multimedia information, they first process the information through sensory memory, which activates the working memory and stores the words as verbal and nonverbal representations. These representations are correlated and connected in accordance with learner’s existing knowledge.

Mayer (2005) suggests that if it is assumed that individuals process information in a dual manner then by extension it must be argued that humans develop two mental representational systems as well, i.e. he is convinced that humans develop mental pictorial representations of graphic input and mental verbal representations of linguistic input. According to Mayer (2005), both representational systems are believed to be interconnected but capable of functioning independently (as cited in Militello, 2013).

Multimedia learning materials are normally presented in verbal (including written text and spoken text) and visual (including pictures, video, and animation) forms. These materials enter the learners’ sensory memory through the visual channel (eyes) and the auditory channel (ears); and in the process, the learner is regarded as an active knowledge constructor who selects, organizes and

integrates both visual/pictorial and auditory/verbal information such as printed texts, pictures, or spoken words (Mayer, 1997, 2001, as cited in Chen, 2006).

Mayer (2008) also argues that multimedia instruction leads to better learning outcomes than just words or pictures alone. According to him, multimedia materials achieve this by aiding the sense-making process through activating both verbal and visual cognitive processes simultaneously. The multiple channels of delivery, representation of ideas, and sensory stimulation provided by multimedia lead to higher cognitive activity and therefore enhance retention and understanding of content (Mayer, 2008; Mayer & Anderson, 1991, as cited in in Fee & Sung, 2014).

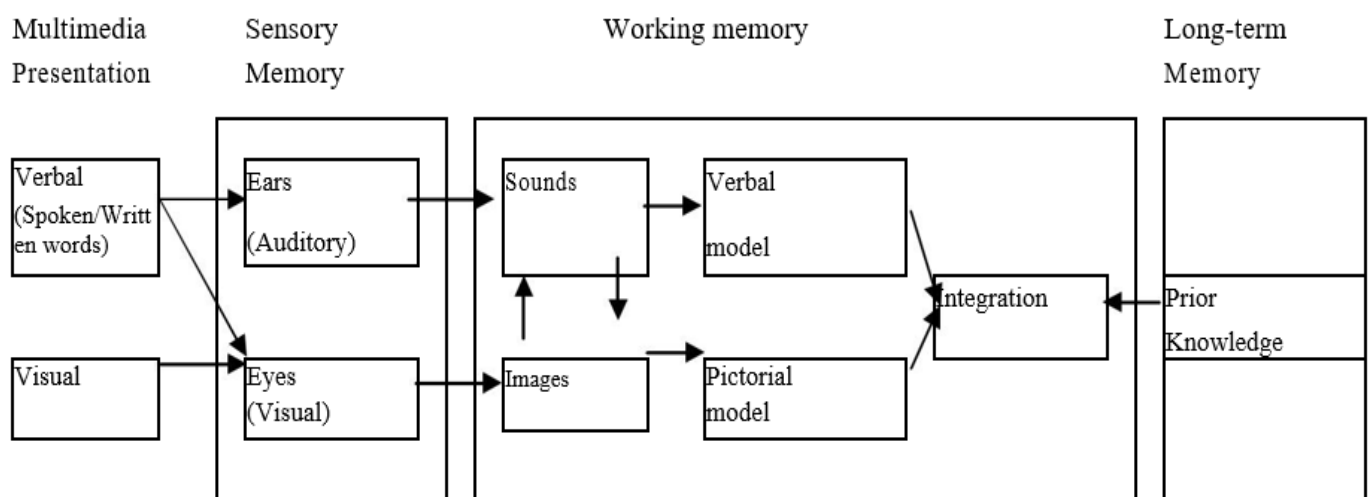


Fig. 3: Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (Mayer, 1997, 2001, 2003, as cited in Chen, 2006).

For better understanding of Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning, he has provided a diagram of the whole process (Figure 3). According to this diagram, when learners are presented with the multimedia materials, the input enters their sensory memory through two channels, the visual (eyes) which bring the information (pictures/videos and text) to the visual sensory memory and the auditory channel (ears) which sends the information (sound) to the auditory sensory memory. This is referred to as the input stage. Since the cognitive capacity is limited, the working memory temporarily selects and analyses only a few input which is further constructed separately into verbal/pictorial manipulated information. Through all this process, the learner is seen as an active knowledge constructor who selects, organizes and integrates the input

(Mayer, 1997, 2001, as cited in *ibid*). Whereas, “the working memory can be thought of as RAM, where relevant sounds and pictures are selected and organized. Eventually the information from both channels are integrated and connected to other information already held in long term memory” (Zohdi, 2012, p.3).

2.3. Review of existing research into vocabulary acquisition through subtitled and non-subtitled movies

There has been ample research carried out on the effectiveness of subtitled and non-subtitled movies vocabulary development. These empirical studies have shown mixed results in terms of vocabulary acquisition through watching subtitled movies (Tsai, 2010). Most of the studies were focused on the difference between intralingual subtitles, interlingual subtitles and videos without subtitles. However, the question is application of which one yields better results in acquiring vocabulary. With the aim to provide an organized and readable paper, the studies will be presented in two sections. The first one will deal with studies which have compared single modality and bimodal presentation of vocabulary, such as watching movies with subtitles or no subtitles, whereas the second one will discuss the comparative studies of the effectiveness of intralingual and interlingual subtitles.

2.3.1. Single modality and bimodal mode researches

The first large-scale empirical study focused on investigating the pedagogical potential of subtitles and was conducted by Karen Price in 1983 (Rokni & Ataee, 2014). She investigated the usefulness of subtitles among around 500 participants who watched a TV program with and without subtitles and the results showed that subtitles indeed improve vocabulary and comprehension of the linguistic information in the video content. Since then, a lot of linguistics saw the potential of subtitles as study object and continued investigating their usefulness.

Harji and Alavi (2010, as cited in Jahanyfard, 2015) investigated the usefulness of subtitles of 92 participants who were divided in two groups and were assigned to watch three videos. The first group watched it with the assistance of intralingual subtitles whereas the second one watched it without subtitles. The tests and the questionnaires showed that subtitled videos can indeed affect vocabulary acquisition. Bird and Williams (2002, as cited in Zohdi, 2012) also conducted a study where they compared the effect of single modality (sound or text) and bimodal (sound and text) presentation on vocabulary acquisition. They concluded that when learners are exposed to bimodal mode, i.e. watching videos with subtitles they learn more words. More specifically they found that “providing subjects with text and sound versions of known and unknown words can facilitate recognition memory relative to sound alone” (ibid, p. 18).

2.3.2. Interlingual and Intralingual comparative researches

Kossstra and Beentjes (1999, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) investigated the usefulness of subtitles for vocabulary acquisition in Netherlands. The participants of this research were 246 Dutch fourth and sixth graders coming from two backgrounds, one group of students in elementary school which did not have formal English classes and the second group which had received formal foreign language instruction. Both groups were assigned to watch 15 minutes of English documentary programme with interlingual, reversed and no subtitles. The English vocabulary matching test results of the study showed that when watching interlingual subtitles, learners gained significantly more vocabulary than in the other two modes. “This study also weakens the belief that subtitles are a distraction and that they would impede the viewer’s hearing of the spoken words” (Herreweghe, 2014, p.32).

Moreover, Tsai (2009, as cited in Raine, 2012) gathered information regarding Taiwanese University students’ preferences and came up with the results that learners find interlingual subtitles more beneficial than any other type of subtitles. Furthermore, Katchen (1997, as cited in ibid) reported that through his experiment, Chinese learners watching “The X Files” TV series in English but with interlingual subtitles have learned a lot of new words and has stated that it “would have been impossible for the learners to learn these words without the aid of Chinese subtitles” (Katchen, 1997, as cited in ibid, p.12). In another study by Stewart and Petusa (2004, as cited in

Aloqaili, 2005), a group of intermediate students who watched Spanish movies with intralingual English subtitles, outscored those who watched them with interlingual (Spanish) subtitles. The difference was small but regarding participants' reactions, the group using intralingual subtitles also showed to be more confident in their performance.

Vanderplank's (1988, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) study found that students who watched interlingual subtitles understood the unknown words and expressions as well as were able to recall the vocabulary. They could also spell the words they were exposed to, such as names of places and people. As a conclusion, Vanderplank (1998, *ibid*) states that the subtitles help learners remember words when they are written in the same form as they are heard and not in the form of a translation. Yuksel and Tarniverdi (2002, as cited in Bava, et al., 2014) conducted a study with 120 university level intermediate students of English at a Turkish university who watched 10 min of an American TV series, "Seinfeld". One group watched the series with intralingual subtitles and the other one without subtitles. Even though there was no significant gap between the groups regarding the acquisition of new words, the intralingual group performed a little better than the other one.

Zarei and Rashvand (2011, as cited in Kim, 2015) compared the effects of intralingual and interlingual subtitles on vocabulary acquisition among 30 ESL learners and found that intralingual subtitles proved to be more beneficial than interlingual subtitles. Baltova (1999, as cited in Zarei & Rashvand, 2011) also conducted a research with 93 low-intermediate Canadian learners studying French. They were presented with seven and a half minute video. Three different groups were exposed to three modalities: the first group watched the video with English audio and French subtitles, the second one watched it with both French subtitles and audio and the last group watched the video with French audio but with no subtitles. The participants had to answer comprehension questions and fill in the gaps in a test. The results showed that intralingual subtitles were more effective in recalling vocabulary than interlingual subtitles. Roohani & Rabiei (2011, as cited in Herreweghe, 2014) investigated the usefulness of subtitles with 90 advanced English Foreign Language students in the field of vocabulary learning. The findings of the study showed that "all modes of watching a subtitled movie (bimodal, standard and no subtitles) improved the vocabulary scores, but due to the presence of two languages and two sources of information, the standard or interlingual subtitling mode was responsible for a larger incidental acquisition of vocabulary" (*ibid*, p.33).

Bean & Wilson's (1989, as cited in Rostam, et. al, 2016) study found that the non-native adult speaking students showed positive attitudes towards intralingual subtitles which also resulted to better vocabulary acquisition and word recognition. Katchen (1997 as cited in Harji & Alavi 2010) examined the instructional issues and questions of television recordings with interlingual subtitles used in second language Chinese classroom. The study was conducted on students who were of intermediate and advanced language proficiency and results showed that when given movies with interlingual subtitles, students learned more phrases, slang and vocabulary.

To recap, there is a wide interest in testing the potential of subtitles in language learning and the interest is relatively growing. The majority of researches mentioned above reflect only a part of the relevant literature, but more importantly they seem to support the use of subtitles in vocabulary improvement. However, there are mixed findings regarding as to which type of subtitles renders the best results. Thus, since there is a limited empirical research that attempts to observe the effects of subtitled movies on learners' vocabulary development in Republic of Kosovo, the present study addresses the need for such observation.

3. Research Methodology

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology used in this study and is divided into six sections. Firstly, the research approach and variables that are being measured throughout this study and the study design have been outlined. Then, the description of participant's background is provided along with the settings where the experiments have taken place. Moreover, the teachers' involvement and the materials used during the experiments are also described. Following this, the research instruments are explained, as well as the procedures for their implementation. Finally, the data collection procedures are clarified which were used to gather the necessary data in order to answer the research questions.

3.1. Overview of the study design

The current research aimed to shed some light upon vocabulary acquisition through subtitled movies by complementing the findings from the past researches. In particular, the main purpose of this study was to identify and investigate if watching movies with subtitles brings better vocabulary acquisition than watching movies without subtitles. Under this research question, it was checked in more details which type of subtitles had a greater impact on students' vocabulary acquisition.

The potential of subtitled movies on vocabulary acquisition in incidental and intentional learning conditions was observed. Also, in both incidental and intentional learning settings it was analyzed which word knowledge can be most likely acquired. This hypothesis covered the elements of noticing hypothesis, Krashen's $i+1$ hypothesis, contextual learning of words and repeated word encounters. Whereas, the third aim of this research was to find whether subtitled movies would provide learners with vocabulary input which could be potentially stored in learners' long-term memory. Particularly, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Does watching subtitled movies help learners acquire more words than watching movies without subtitles?
2. Is there a difference in the degree of vocabulary acquisition when watching subtitled movies based on the different subtitling?
3. Is there a difference in the amount of vocabulary acquisition in incidental and intentional language learning through watching movies based on the presence/ absence of subtitles?
4. Which type of movie watching mode leads to a more successful vocabulary acquisition for long term retention?

The dependent variables in this study are students' vocabulary acquisition based on the test scores and questionnaire responses. The independent variables are the mode of watching movies, i.e. with intralingual subtitles, with interlingual subtitles or without subtitles. The controlled variables in this study are participant's level of language proficiency, the movie and the target words chosen from the movie to test. All these variables were used to measure and compare the performance of the participants under different conditions. This research is quasi-experimental since the participants and tasks were not chosen randomly and the study findings cannot be generalized to broader contexts, but they can still be comparable. Moreover, the research sample was chosen by the use of access sampling method. Quasi-experimental approach was also used, considering Borg and Gall's statement that "fully randomized experimental designs often lack ecological validity due to the inauthentic environments in which studies are carried out" (1989, as cited in Ina, 2014, p.84).

In addition, this study is also a complementary one, since the researcher was part of the experimental activities and had a direct observation of the study sample with a clearer insight towards the research issues. Furthermore, for this research, a mixed-method data collection was used, as the instruments employed have gathered both qualitative and quantitative data. The rationale behind this methodological approach is that it provides a combination of different perspectives of data analysis which lead to a more precise and valid interpretation of the effects of subtitled movies on vocabulary acquisition. The qualitative method was used for analysis of the data collected from direct observations and field notes, and were used to describe the results, whereas quantitative method was used to gather numeral data from pre-viewing and post-viewing test results and the questionnaires.

3.2. Participants and settings

The experiments were held in April, 2018, during participants' second semester of studies. Initially, the permission to carry out the experiment was obtained from the university authorities. Also, the teacher who was currently engaged in teaching English to the participants of this study, agreed the experiment to be conducted with the assigned students whose participation was entirely voluntary. Students were told that their participation was anonymous, thus they were asked to write specific unique numbers instead of their names which helped in the process of organizing the files. Moreover, the participants welcomed the research activities as an opportunity to improve their English in a fun way. In order to provide a fairly balanced composition, the participants were selected based on non-random convenience sampling method which entails "drawing samples that are both easily accessible and willing to participate in a study" (Teddle & Yu, 2007, as cited in Kaboocha, 2016, p.250).

For this research, groups that were homogenous regarding their level of English language proficiency and were more easily accessible were chosen. However, the groups were not entirely homogenous since they were mixed gender groups where the participants were of different age, thus different year of university studies, different study departments and their exposure to previous formal English classes also varied. As participants of this study, the researcher chose students who were enrolled in extracurricular, general English classes offered by the School of Languages, within the University for Business and Technology (UBT) in Prishtina, Republic of Kosovo. This university was chosen because it was geographically closer to the researcher, who was teaching there at the time when the research was conducted and was familiar with the process of teaching the extracurricular English courses held there.

At this university, English Language is an obligatory course offered in the first and in some faculties in the second semester of both, bachelor and master studies for 12 weeks, i.e. 24 class hours (45 min) per semester. However, since many students find this insufficient to improve their English language, they enroll for the extracurricular English classes. These courses are offered for a period of three months per level, i.e. 72 class hours in total. The students have classes 3 or 2 times a week, making up 6 class hours per week in total. One level lasts for approximately 12 weeks. Students are grouped based on their language proficiency level which is determined by the English proficiency level test which they have to fill in when they first register. The proficiency test is

provided by the textbook, “Outcomes” series (Appendix 1), from Heinle Cengage Learning, which are used during the course for the elementary (A2), pre-intermediate (B1), intermediate (B2), upper-intermediate (C1) and advanced level (C2). By the end of the course, with successful completion of the program, participants are given a certificate which is accredited by the officials from the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Kosovo.

Adult students were chosen for this study as they are cognitively more developed to comprehend the movies and can process the subtitles easier. The sample was not ethnically diverse, as all participants were ethnical Albanians. This condition was conform to our research goals since the interlingual subtitles needed to be translated only in Albanian. The students were of the pre-intermediate (B1) level as implied by the Exam English proficiency test (Appendix 2) conducted before the experiments. According to different researchers (Verspoor et al, 2009, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013), pre-intermediate and intermediate learners of English can benefit from language input alone, contrary to those with lower or higher language proficiency who will process the input differently. This is because “cognitive load appears to be too great for beginner learners, and advanced learners will need to watch a considerable number of hours of videos in order to gain new vocabulary as repetition of unknown vocabulary items becomes more and scarcer as learners acquire more lexical items” (Levesque, 2013, p.15). The reason behind choosing participants of the pre-intermediate level is based on Zanon’s (2006) suggestion that subtitles may not offer comprehensible input for beginning language learners and that advanced learners might not need the assistance of subtitles. More specifically “an incipient learner could miss a lot of what is being said, while a more proficient learner will be able to process much more of what is said in the input (Verspoor et al, 2009, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013, p.48).

The study was conducted under two different conditions, in formal/ institutional settings, where participants were exposed to intentional learning and simulated informal/ natural settings, where the same participants were exposed to incidental learning. “In institutional setting, like the class, the conditions are manipulated so they can be adjusted to the pedagogic method used, such as not knowing the teacher whereas, the natural setting is the setting where a naturalistic observation occurs in genuine language classroom with usual participants and during their normal lessons” (Bravo, 2009, p.32). Participants were randomly assigned to three equal groups under three different conditions. These groups were named as follows: interlingual subtitles group (first language subtitles, referred to as L1S), intralingual subtitles group (second language subtitles, referred to as L2S) and no subtitles group (NS). Experiments are usually made of two groups of

participants: the experimental group, i.e. the group that is undergoing the “treatment” or stimulus, and the control group, which is unaffected by the stimulus” (Rasigner, 2010, as cited in Aurstad, 2013, p.25). In this case, from the three assigned groups L1S and L2S group were set as the treatment (experimental) groups whereas NS as the control group. The size of the three groups was the same, i.e. 8 students in each group.

3.3. Teachers’ involvement

In the institutional settings, since the aim of the study was to observe the intentional vocabulary learning guided by the teacher, his role was of a vital importance. To support this, Ghazli (2009, as cited in Wang, 2016) states that in order to grasp the benefits of watching movies, students need proper information from the teachers in advance. Vanderplank (1990, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013, p.20) adds that teachers are important when learners are exposed to watching subtitled movies due to the assumption that “most subjects require some explicit purpose, some degree of instrumental motivation in order to attend to the language of the movie being shown and take out words and phrases”. According to Kvitnes (2013), this process requires students’ consciousness and participation. Moreover, Eye (2016, p.14) states that “there needs to be a sense of logical function or intent” behind the usage of movies for vocabulary acquisition since when learners have no purpose behind viewing audiovisual material “any positive impacts on learning will naturally be arbitrary as a result”. He continues by saying that, when there is a specific and clear learning goal when using movies, “the material becomes didactical, and thus loses the spark gained by not being conventional “boring” learning material” (ibid).

Considering this, the same teacher was engaged in all the sessions with the three different groups, during different time periods, in order that the same teaching style and methods were applied for all the groups. The teacher was Albanian, qualified with master’s degree in English Language and Literature and was teaching at University for Business and Technology (UBT) for around three years. The materials and other instructional tools were decided and carefully chosen by the researcher in order that the teacher could follow the lessons with appropriate pre and post

tasks. The teacher was also asked to reflect on the lesson plan, the tasks and the tests before the experiments were conducted.

At the beginning of the experiment, the teacher presented the researcher and explained in details what the learners were expected to do throughout the sessions. Also, before each session, the teacher gave further information about the activities or extra guidance to those in need. He also made sure that learners did not take the assignment of watching movies only as a time filler. Instead, he promoted active viewing and participation by creating engaging environment through various assignments and discussion questions. In addition, the teacher was the contact person whom the researcher communicated when additional information were needed regarding the students or when he was asked to give feedback on the material and activities for the class, in order that the experiment was completed successfully.

Additionally, in the simulated natural settings, the presence of the teacher was not necessary as the participants were expected to watch movies and make use of this kind of input by themselves by being passive listeners and viewers. Even though Cook (2008, as cited in Eye, 2016, p.14) argued that “all successful teaching depends on learning and there is no point in providing entertaining, lively, well-constructed language lessons if students do not learn from them” still the effects of participants’ autonomy when watching subtitled movies needed to be compared. The simulated informal setting was designed in a way that learners would imagine as if they were watching the movies at home, without interruptions in a relaxing and comfortable atmosphere by eating and drinking while watching the movies. Specifically, the goal was to see if developing independent learning would help learners gain vocabulary incidentally without any special didactic instructions and if the relaxing atmosphere in “home” settings can provide learners with the opportunity to acquire more words.

3.4. Materials

3.4.1. Movies

The choice of movies for this study was of a crucial importance. Thus, in order to choose a suitable movie for this study, Borrás and King's (1993, 2002, as cited in Aloqaili, 2015, p.41) criteria for assessing the selection of movies was used, which is 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 and to inherent interest within valuable content"

Besides these, the availability of subtitles and age appropriateness were also considered when the movies were selected. Therefore, popular movies that could fit to students' proficiency level were chosen, and they contained potential target words that would be easy to test through various test questions. Likewise, movies with interesting plots were chosen that were unusual but still easy to follow. In addition, the researcher had watched the complete movies several times, in order to see if the criteria was met and to filter inappropriate language and scenes such as nudity and profanity. Moreover, she also considered teachers' feedback in evaluating the movies who rated them as appropriate for the participants regarding their content and difficulty.

For this study, feature movies were selected instead of episodic movies because they did not require that the learners know the previous story but actually dealt with a story with a beginning and an end. In this regards, Ward and Lepeintre (1996, as cited in King, 2002, p.2) state that feature films are more motivating than films made for teaching English as second or foreign language since they represent "a film with a story that wants to be told rather than a lesson that needs to be taught". The aforementioned elements were carefully examined before the movies were chosen and the ones which were suitable for our participants were the movies "Bruce Almighty" and "Click" which will be explained in more details below.

“Bruce Almighty” is a comedy and fantasy movie released in 2003, directed by Tom Shadyac and written by Steve Koren and Mark O'Keefe. The lead role in this movie is the well-known comedian, Jim Carrey whereas the other characters were also starred by famous Hollywood celebrities, such as Morgan Freeman, Jennifer Aniston and Steve Carrell. The movie is rated with 6.7 out of 10 points by the Internet Movie Database (IMDB, www.imdb.com) and is 1hr and 41min long.

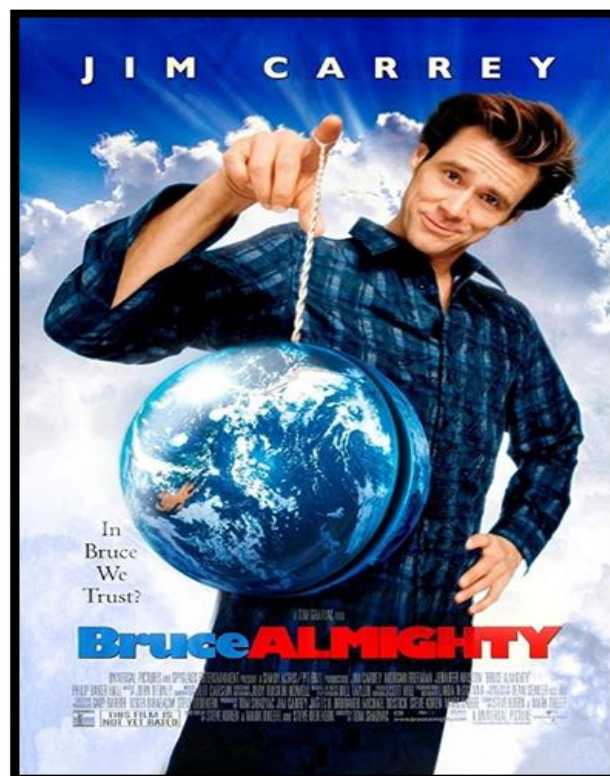


Fig. 4: Bruce Almighty – Movie Poster (IMDB)

Bruce Nolan (Jim Carrey) is a field reporter who is often unsatisfied with his career and the long awaited promotion which was taken by his evil coworker Evan Baxter (Steve Carrell). Thus, he complains about God (Morgan Freeman) and claims he can do God’s job better, until he is given the God's powers and is challenged to run the world, which is not a very easy task for him. However, in order to keep these powers, he was given two conditions, one was that he must not tell anyone that he is God, not even to his girlfriend Grace Connelly (Jennifer Aniston) who is puzzled with the whole situation, whereas the second condition is that he cannot interfere in anyone’s free will (IMDB).

According to another movie website called AllMovie (www.allmovie.com) the characteristics of this movie are as follows:

Moods: Fantastic reality.

Themes: Fired, message from God, miraculous events, race against time, redemption.

Keywords: supernatural-powers, God, divine-intervention, omnipotent, race-against-time, reporter.

The movie “Click” was released in 2006 and is a combination of a science-fiction, comedy and drama movie which is directed by Frank Coraci and written by Steve Koren and Mark O’Keefe. The movie was produced by its lead role, the actor Adam Sandler. Other significant roles are starred by Kate Beckinsale, Christopher Walken and Daniel Hasselhoff who are well-known and successful in cinematography and whose acting was expected to trigger participants' attention. The movie is rated with 6.4 out of 10 points by IMDB and is 1hr and 47 min long.

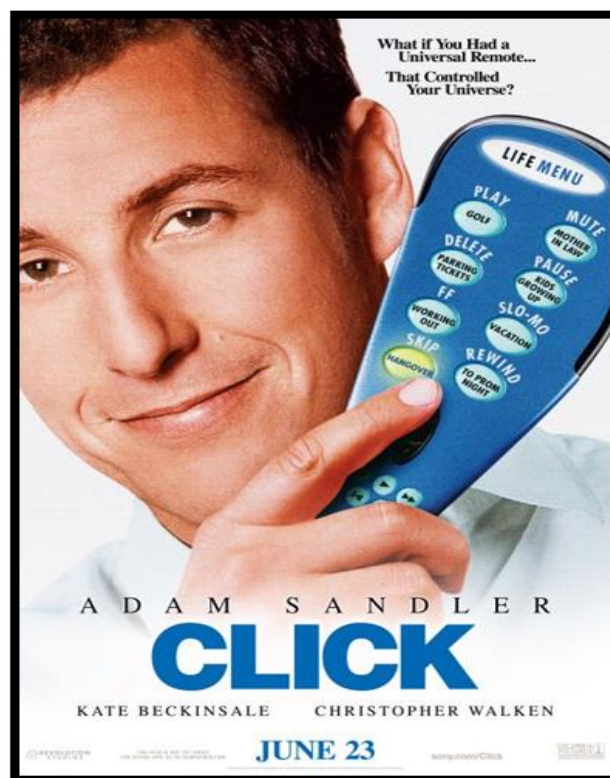


Fig. 5: Click – Movie Poster (IMDB)

The movie is about a workaholic architect, Michael Newman (Adam Sandler) who is too busy with his work and neglects his wife Donna, (Kate Beckinsale) and the kids. He needs to work hard because he has to please his boss Ammer (Daniel Hasselhoff) who promises him a promotion. As a result, he finds it hard to balance his work and family life, until he meets a crazy sales clerk, Morty (Christopher Walken) who gives him a universal remote which gives him the chance to control his life, such as: to fast-forward, rewind, mute, skip or dub his life. However, things start to get out of hand when the remote starts to overrule his choices, and does not only skip arguments but also his promotion and other important moments in his life (IMDB). According to the movie database AllMovie, the characteristics of this movie are as follows:

Moods: Fantastic Reality.

Themes: Time Travel, wishes come true, nothing goes right, parenthood.

Keywords: architecture, boss, employer, family, remote-control, wish-fulfillment, workaholic.

Both movies were rated PG-13, meaning that some content may be inappropriate for children under 13 and even though students were older than 13, the scenes with nudity and profanity were cut because of the academic and educational purpose of the study. The same movies were shown to all the participants, only the treatments varied, that is, the movie "Bruce Almighty" was watched in formal settings, where one group watched it with intralingual subtitles, one with interlingual subtitles and one without any subtitles, whereas the movie "Click" was watched under the same conditions only in simulated informal settings.

Although there is a general opinion that "short sequences of movies help learners be engaged in extra activities regarding the movie and also helps them practice and recycle the target language (Canning-Wilson, 2000, as cited in Seferoglu 2008, p.2), there are such who believe that showing sequences might lose learners wholeness of the film" (ibid). In the same vein, Shea (1995, as cited in King, 2002, p.4) adds that "if I cut up the movie in five minute segments, focusing on the linguistic structure and the form of the language, the students might never have recognized the emotional force and narrative dynamic of the video as a story about important things in the human experience, aesthetic and ethical things like dreams, imagination, and commitment; things that drive language and ultimately stimulate students to learn it in the first place". Therefore, for the purpose of our study, complete movies needed to be watched in order to provide continuity of the story.

The movie "Bruce Almighty" was watched in two sessions because it was necessary to include pre-view and post-view activities. The movie was approximately 1 hour and 41 minutes long but with the deleted scenes which were inappropriate for the students, the complete length of the movie was 1 hours and 40 minutes. The movie was shown in two sessions, 43.23 min in the first session, and the rest 56.37 min in the second session. The movie was cropped by a movie editor software (Windows Movie Maker) in the scene which could trigger in participants a suspense of knowing what will happen during the rest of the movie. More precisely, it was cut right after Bruce started to experiment with God's powers.

In the simulated informal settings the whole film approach was used. The participants watched the movie during one session. According to Stempleski (1990, as cited in King, 2002, p.4), "the whole film approach is the process of showing an entire feature film which needs to be studied as a whole and lasts around 1 to 2 hours and usually does not involve video-teaching techniques such as sound off/vision on, sound on/vision off, pause/freeze-frame control, jumbling sequence and split viewing, rewinding and replaying". It did not include any pre-view or post-view activities. However, the participants were not restricted to ask to rewind or pause the movie as they would normally do when watching a movie at home.

3.4.2. Subtitles

Students in Republic of Kosovo are familiar with following subtitles and this is in accordance with Danan's (2004, as cited in Aloqaili, 2015) claim that familiarity with subtitles has a crucial element in understanding and using them. According to the Code of Good Subtitling Practice (as cited in Raine, 2018, p.11), good interlingual subtitles should:

- "be grammatically and lexically accurate;
- have a regard for the idiomatic and cultural nuances of the source;
- adopt an appropriate register of language;
- be written in easily digestible grammatical units".

Following this criteria, a Native English teacher made sure that the intralingual subtitles were accurate, whereas a professional English-Albanian translator verified the accuracy of the interlingual subtitles. In particular, the subtitles were checked if there is any literally translated words and if the translation is coherent. The review showed that the subtitles were accurate since all the target words were properly translated/transcribed into both intralingual and interlingual subtitles and needed only some minor corrections. Also, the inappropriate words were censured. The intralingual subtitles were included as optional files in the DVDs, whereas the interlingual subtitles were downloaded from a platform called Open Subtitles (www.opensubtitles.org), which offers movie and TV shows subtitles in multiple languages. The subtitles stayed on the screen for the duration of the spoken utterances, which were easy to follow and in the appropriate speech rate. The subtitles appeared at the bottom in one and two lines and were synchronized with the sound and video. The font of the subtitles was Arial, bold font style, white color, 48 points size, Western Script type, to make reading easier for reluctant readers (as cited in Zarate & Eliahoo, 2014). Below is an example of the Arial font with minimized size:

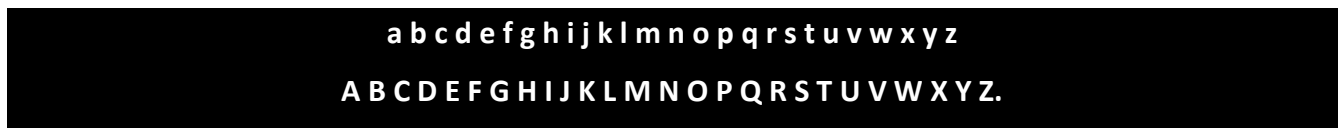


Fig. 6: Sample of the subtitle format

3.4.3. Target words

During the treatments, in both formal and simulated informal settings, the acquisition of 12 words were measured. These words belong to different parts of speech, such as nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives and were a mixture of one, two and three syllables long words, as well as compound words. In order to come up with a list of target vocabulary terms that were likely to be unfamiliar to the participants, the movie script was carefully studied. The target words were chosen according to vocabulary database provided by English Vocabulary Profile (www.englishprofile.org) for the students of the pre-intermediate (B1) and intermediate (B2) proficiency level. The reason

why students were also provided with the intermediate level words was to test Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis, which stated that learners need to be provided with input which is slightly above their current level of proficiency in order that acquisition occurs.

The screenshot shows a word entry for 'ability' with a speaker icon and the phonetic transcription /ə'bil.ə.ti/. Below this, a light blue box contains the word family information: 'Word family:', 'Nouns: ability, disability, inability', 'Verbs: enable', and 'Adjectives: able, disabled, unable'. Below the box, it is labeled '► NOUN [C or U]'. A red 'B1' box indicates the proficiency level, followed by the definition: 'the physical or mental skill or qualities that you need to do something'. Below the definition are 'Dictionary examples': 'She **had the ability to** explain things clearly.' and 'athletic/academic ability'. At the bottom, a 'Learner example' is provided: 'The protagonist had been bitten by a strange spider and some days later, he notice [he had] some strange powers, such as the ability to create spider[s] webs.'

Fig. 7: Example of a word entry on English Profile – B1 Proficiency level vocabulary

The English Vocabulary Profile shows, in both British and American English, which words and phrases learners should know at each level - A1 to C2 - of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference). This database helps students and teachers check the level of each meaning of a word or a phrase, to identify the words or phrases a learner can be expected to know at each level, to view words or phrases within a topic area, to look at real learner examples in typical learner contexts and to search for aspects of language such as grammar, usage and word formation. More specifically, each word includes the following information: an audio and written pronunciation, grammar and usage information, a level indicator, a definition, one or more native speaker or learner sentence examples (English Profile). The other requirements for the selection of the target words were that they needed to be supported by audio and text (depending on the research treatment) and had to be provided in a meaningful context which would allow accurate guessing. This is because it is easier to understand the meaning of words when fewer unknown words are present around them.

In this way, the target words were chosen because they provide both context and meaning. In addition, the target words needed to have a direct L1 equivalent, thus ambiguous words with double meanings were avoided. Sight words were also excluded because the words needed to be guessed from the context. Content and function words were chosen since they are easier to define. Albanian-English cognates were also excluded since learners could logically determine the meaning of the words. Moreover, Range Frequency Software was used to analyze the coverage of words in the transcripts as some words were occurring more frequently than others.

Frequency of occurrence was not controlled but it was analyzed in the results. More precisely, Range Frequency Software assisted in listing the words which reoccurred more frequently in the transcript in order to see if the frequency of the words brings any improvements regarding word retention. Taking in consideration these elements, the word lists (Appendix 3) from each movie were presented to the students as the potential target words from which they needed to show their current knowledge for each word. The reason behind this was to come up with the final target list of 12 words (Appendix 4) that were not known by at least 95% of the learners. That is to say, words that were familiar to the majority of students were excluded from the tests.

3.5. Research instruments

Considering the aim of the experiment, this study gathered both, quantitative and qualitative data using a number of instruments to address the research questions with the aim to increase the validity and reliability of the study. The main instruments employed in this study were: proficiency test, pre-tests, post-tests, questionnaires, direct observations and several software which helped in gathering and discussing the data quantitatively and qualitatively. The aforementioned instruments will be presented and defined in more details below.

3.5.1. Language proficiency test

Prior to enrolling the course, the participants of this study had taken a placement test provided by the course book “Outcomes” (Appendix 1) and based on the results, they were placed in the pre-intermediate course group. To determine if the group is still homogenous regarding their proficiency level, another language proficiency test (Appendix 2) was conducted for more accurate placement. Particularly, the online proficiency test from Exam English (www.examenglish.com) was used to determine the participants’ proficiency at CEFR level (A2 to C2). It is a test that helps evaluating respondents’ general English language proficiency in different context and was designed to place learners in the appropriate language level group.

This website offers “free top-quality practice for all the important international English language exams and all test questions are written by experienced teachers and examiners and no registrations is required” (Exam English, 2014). The test was administrated in the first session, followed by the participants’ background questionnaire. The reason behind this is that the researcher needed to first confirm the students proficiency level before proceeding with the planned procedures. The time allotted for completion of the test was 10 minutes. The proficiency test consisted 15 multiple choice questions of grammar and vocabulary. Questions get easier or harder according to how well participants do. If participants’ English is very good they answer more difficult questions than someone whose English is not as good. When the test is completed the proficiency level of the test taker is automatically shown on the screen. Based on the scores from this test, it was proven that language proficiency level of 25 students out of 30 was pre-intermediate.

In order to keep 3 balanced groups of participants, the 6 students with lower or higher proficiency level were excluded. Thus, the final number of participants was 24, who were divided equally, that is 8 students per group. According to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) the students of the pre-intermediate level are expected to be able to express themselves in a limited way, in familiar situations and to deal in general way with non-routine information (CEFR, 2014) as well as to understand movies, personal topics when they are slow and clear.

3.5.2. Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Pretests and posttests)

The pre- and post-test were of the same design but of slightly different content. Both tests were designed according to Wesche & Paribakht's (1996) Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) (Table 2). VKS is a self-report scale of students' written lexical knowledge and measures their vocabulary knowledge improvement. In other words, the students state how well they know the words in terms of receptive and productive knowledge but also provide examples that verify these statements. Ergo, VKS was meant to test the vocabulary acquisition as students' continuous development. The words in the VKS test were measured on five different word scales, starting from complete unfamiliarity, to word recognition, providing the meaning of the word and how to correctly use the target word in a sentence regarding accurate grammar and semantic rules.

Level	Description	Score	Meaning of score
I	I do not remember having seen this words before.	0	The word is not familiar at all
II	I have seen this word before and I do now know what it means.	1	The word is recognized.
III	I have seen this word and I think it means _____ (synonym or translation)	2	The meaning of the word is guessed
IV	I know this word. It means _____ (synonym or translation)	3	A word is recognized, and a correct meaning is given
V	I can use this word in a sentence e.g. _____ (if you do this section, please also do section IV)	4	An example can be provided with the word

Table 2: Wesche & Paribakht's - Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (adapted from Chen, 2006)

More specifically, level one shows that students are not familiar with the word. Level two indicates that students recognize the words. Level three tells that students have tried to guess the meaning of the word. In cases when students provide incorrect translation or word equivalent/synonym, the answer is downgraded to level two. Level four is dedicated to students who clearly know the meaning of the word, its synonym or translation. When the translation and the synonym provision needed to be checked, the researcher referred to dictionaries in order to see the possible

answers. The final, level five, indicates that students have a clear knowledge of the word and can use it in a semantically and grammatically accurate context.

If the word is used in a context which is semantically appropriate but the word has grammatical errors and if the sentence does not have a defining context for the word it means that the answer does not indicate clearly whether the students know the word. In such cases the students' level of the word knowledge is downgraded to level four (Baltova, 1999). Hence, the maximum score for the VKS as a pretest with 33 words was 132 points, whereas for the posttest with 12 words, the maximum score that could be reached was 48 points. For the pre-test, the participants were presented all 33 potential target words. Only 12 words that were unfamiliar to the majority of students, i.e. words of level one and two from the VKS were included in the post test (Appendix 4).

The scores of the pre-test (Appendix 5, adapted from Aloqaili, 2015) were compared with those of the post-test (Appendix 6, *ibid*) in order to see the variations in the participants' vocabulary knowledge tested after the treatment. In other words, it assisted in calculating participants' vocabulary achievement after watching the movies in relation with the same items that were tested in the pre-test. The pre-test was given to the students before they watched the movie, whereas the post-test was given right after the movie treatment. The learners did not know that they were going to be tested again and that the post test will contain the same words. As a result of this, they were not able to check the meaning of the words when the session was finished.

To be more precise, the movie treatments in simulated formal setting were done prior to those in formal settings, so the students would not be familiar with the testing procedures. That is, in incidental vocabulary acquisition students were not informed that they needed to pay attention to learning the words whereas in the formal settings where the learning is intentional, it was not important whether or not the students were aware that they would be tested on the same target words. This is because the learning process in such conditions is focused on students knowing what to learn and that they are expected to know the words that they are taught. The delayed post-test was the same as the post-test and was given to the participants two weeks after the last session, in order to see if the vocabulary can be recalled for a longer period of time. The tables in Appendix 4 show the characteristics of the potential words, including the translation of the words in Albanian, the part of speech of each word, word difficulty according to the students' proficiency, and occurrence frequency of the words in the subtitles, according to the analysis from the Range Frequency Software.

3.5.3. Questionnaires

For this study, two types of questionnaires were prepared: one for the study participants, and the other one created for the English teachers in the Republic of Kosovo. The questions were short and simple, with simple language and with proper instructions. For ethical consideration, the participants were told that their answers will be anonymous.

3.5.3.1. Students' questionnaire

a) The background questionnaires

For this study it was more suitable having three questionnaires for the students. One before the movie treatments and the other two after each movie treatments. The reason behind this is that the researcher needed to obtain necessary information from the background questionnaire, which contained students' personal details, as well as factual and behavioral data regarding students' previous experiences. Also, it helped the researcher build up an image of the students' background towards watching the movie in advance. Likewise, the questionnaire results provided information about participants' gender, age, department, etc. In the other section, students had to state facts and give their opinions. More specifically, students were asked to identify their movie and subtitle preferences, movie watching habits, the frequency of watching movies, if they have ever watched movies in class, do they prefer watching movies for vocabulary acquisition, etc.

b) The after viewing questionnaires

The after viewing questionnaire was designed to specifically explore participants' attitudes and opinions after watching both movies. Students were asked to give their views on the benefits and limitations of the movies in relation to the study aims. This questionnaire was made of elements of quantitative data collection through multiple choice questions, Likert scale questions

and yes or no questions. There were certain questions that needed to be answered only by the experimental groups i.e. groups that watched the movies with subtitles. These questions were related to the characteristics and the impact of subtitles on watching the movies. There were two after viewing questionnaires dedicated to both movies separately. The students' questionnaires can be found in Appendix 7.

3.5.3.2. Teachers' questionnaire

In the background section, teachers needed to provide their gender, the level of teaching, their experiences as English teachers and the students' age group they have been teaching. The teachers' questionnaire also collected data of whether teachers use movies in their classrooms and if they see this as a helpful tool for teaching vocabulary. Furthermore, they were asked if they have had any trainings regarding the usage of movies in different areas of teaching English, and particularly vocabulary teaching. The questionnaires were distributed online via emails in order to gather a larger pool of data. The questionnaire was executed as an Internet survey using the platform called Google Forms (<https://www.google.com/forms>). Collecting teachers' e-mail addresses was challenging and time-consuming but still very effective. The link which included the questionnaire was also posted on English Language Teaching Facebook groups in Republic of Kosovo (e.g. KETNET – Kosovo English Teachers' Network) since they cover a large number of English teachers. The internet questionnaire resulted in high response rate as it was easier and quick to respond to. 63 teachers filled in the questionnaires. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix 8.

3.5.4. Observations

In order to improve precision of the study findings, direct observations were employed. The observations were overt, i.e. the participants were aware that they were being observed. The

observations were done before, during and after watching the movie. In both cases, the researcher did not interfere the teaching but used the opportunity to take field notes. In other words, the researcher adopted direct observation as a method for the observations because she thought it will be better to monitor the students' performance without interfering them. The researcher gathered information that she could refer to after the experiment, i.e. she gathered in depth insights into how students behaved and interacted with the material, their peers and the teacher. This helped her analyze the results by not being dependent on the respondents test answers and questionnaires only. More specifically, the researcher took notes whenever the target words were used by the students during the lesson activities such as discussions, in order to compare their vocabulary gain and the contextual usage of the novel words.

3.5.5. Hardware and software

In both settings, formal and simulated informal setting, movies were watched using the researchers' laptop where the movie was put in advance. The video files were of the .mp4 format and could be played by the movie player software called BS player which also assisted in embedding the subtitles into the video files. The movie was displayed by an LCD projector. In addition, the movie was shown in a screen of 114" (289.5cm) diagonally wide with the 16:9 ratio and high resolution for best viewing. External speakers were used to enhance the sound quality and were facing the students. The audio, video and subtitles were also perfectly synchronized. The lights were dimmed before watching the movie which created a great atmosphere for learners to focus and enjoy the movie. As far as the software is concerned, the following programs and online platforms were used:

1. *Aegisub Advanced Subtitle Editor* – is a free, cross-platform open source tool for creating and modifying subtitles (www.aegisub.org).
2. *BS Player* – is a free media player which was used to play the movies (www.bsplayer.com).

3. *Google Forms* – is a free online survey tool which helps virtually collecting information from people all around the world (<https://www.google.com/forms>).
4. *Windows Movie Maker* – offers many helpful video editing tools. In this study, Windows Movie Maker was used to split the movie, as well as to delete the inappropriate scenes from both movies (www.topwin-movie-maker.com).
5. *Range Frequency Software* – is a software where you can add any type of text, in .txt format and calculate the word frequency within the text, in this case the movie subtitles. It tells you, total tokens (i.e. the total number of words in the text) and total types (i.e. the number of different type of words) as well as the cumulative percentage of the word occurrence in the text (www.lex tutor.ca/range).
6. *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)* – (www.ibm.com) – “offers advanced statistical analysis, a vast library of machine learning algorithms, text analysis, open source extensibility, integration with big data and seamless deployment into applications" (IBM Analytics).

3.6. Procedures for data collection

Initially, an approval from the university authorities was obtained to use the premises for the research purposes. Prior to conducting the study, the teacher who was chosen to instruct the sessions was asked to assist the experimental process. He agreed and was open for further collaboration. Furthermore, students, were explained the data collection procedures and were asked for their contribution. When they agreed to volunteer and they were given unique numbers, in order that they stayed anonymous but the documents could still be connected for the individual tasks. Students were then asked to fill in the background information questionnaire and the language proficiency level test in the computer lab. The results from the language proficiency test showed that some of the students were not in the pre-intermediate level and were excluded from the study but were thanked for their readiness to contribute.

After making sure that the groups were homogenous, students were randomly assigned to three groups under three different treatments, i.e. watching movies with interlingual subtitles (L1S), intralingual subtitles (L2S) and no subtitles (NS). The treatments were conducted in different time periods so it was possible for the researcher to visit all three groups. Since there were different research conditions, the rest of the procedures for data collection in this section will be discussed in relation to the different treatment settings, formal and simulated informal settings. These treatments were of the same format for all the three groups accordingly and will be discussed separately in the next sections.

3.6.1. Informal settings

In simulated informal settings, the students were told to first do the pretest and watch the movie “Click” as if they were watching it at home. Neither the teacher, nor the researcher interrupted their watching. Students were told not to take any notes or do any other activity that they would not normally do if they would watch this movie at home. Therefore, they were not specifically asked to read the subtitles or pay attention to certain vocabulary, neither were they told that they were going to be tested on these words afterwards. When they finished with watching the movie the students were asked to fill in the posttest and the questionnaire regarding their feedback about the session. According to Keene (2006, as cited in Kaboocha, 2016) “technology that is mainly used in the learners’ home for entertainment, escapism and relaxation all of which encourage a passive form of viewing” (p. 249). Thus, this research aimed to check if passive viewing has any significant effects on acquiring the vocabulary spontaneously.

3.6.2. Formal settings

In the formal settings, students were exposed to formal teaching using the intentional approach so they could understand that watching the movie in this treatment had pedagogical

goals, particularly developing their vocabulary knowledge. The integration of the movie lesson involved the following components: pre-viewing, while-viewing and post viewing activities. Also, the methodological approach used in the class was followed by task based learning, based on Stoller's (1988, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011, p.38) assumption that tasks are necessary because they "ensure that the students stay focused and motivated throughout the lesson, and the goals of the lesson are clear to them". Furthermore, students were given tasks, so they do not adopt to passive viewing. Particularly, Fisher and Frey (2011, as cited in Kabooha, 2016, p.250) have stated that "there should be activities before, during and after watching the movie to keep the students attentive thereby fulfilling its pedagogical use". For this reason, the following activities were used for all three groups when they watched the movie "Bruce Almighty" in formal settings.

3.6.2.1. Pre-viewing activities

The students came to their regular classrooms at the regular time. They were welcomed by the teacher and the researcher. The instructions regarding the research process were explained orally and written on the board. Prior to the pre-viewing activities and watching the movies, the members of each group were asked to complete the vocabulary pre-test to see if the participants knew the target words. Since the pre-viewing activities prepare learners for the viewing process and also help them "follow the film and understand the storyline and characters" (Stroller, 1988, as cited in Ruusunen, 2011, p.39), the lesson started with a warm up discussion questions that asked the students if they had watched the movie "Bruce Almighty" before, in order to activate their background knowledge of the words.

Learners were also asked to guess the content from the title and the cover picture of the movie. Since students did not know the meaning of the word "almighty" from the title, the teacher elicited the answer and brainstormed their ideas about the movie theme. This helped students "activate their background knowledge and schemata which can greatly improve their retrieval and retention of information as it brings it to awareness as well as facilitates their learning of the new vocabulary and enhance their motivation to learn the target language" (Kabooha, 2016, p.50). Additionally, the teacher familiarized the students with the characters in the movie and overviewed the plot for story contextualization purposes. This is based on Keene's (2006, as cited in *ibid*, p.249)

assumption that “giving an introduction to the movie/characters helps sustain interest in the movie”.

3.6.2.2. While-viewing activities

In the while-viewing activities, students were presented with the first part of the movie. They were told that the important words in the subtitles will be highlighted with yellow and that they needed to pay attention to them. The teacher told the students to take notes if needed regarding the target word expressions and try to guess the meaning of these items from the context by being able to hear and see how the target expressions are used in real-life situations. By interrupting the movie, the teacher checked if the students had understood what was happening in the movie and tried to keep them focused. In order to watch certain parts, the teacher rewound the movie for a quick review of the scenes. While the students were watching the movie, the teacher circulated around the class to solve possible doubts or problems. By the end of the session, the teacher told the learners to briefly state their predictions on what will happen next in the movie. The students were thanked for their participation and were informed about the second session.

3.6.2.3. After-viewing activities

In the second session the teacher played the rest of the movie which helped students see if their previous predictions were correct. After watching the movie, the post viewing activities encouraged the students to practice speaking while demanding more information about the movie. Learners discussed the overall movie content, characters and summarized the movie plot. This helped them organize their thoughts on what happened in the movie. Moreover, with the post-viewing activities, learners reflected on the movie watching process by extracting the main ideas, concepts or details that were important to understand the movie. Discussion was initiated with the

aim to check students' comprehension and usage of the target words. More specifically, the teacher asked questions in order to foster answers that would promote usage of the vocabulary. Once the discussion was completed the teacher wrapped up the lesson by a short Power Point Quiz (Appendix 9). Then, the posttest and the after viewing questionnaire was given to the students to complete. The participants were told that they will continue the experiment after two weeks, but no details were given to them on what would happen then. After two weeks the final stage was performed, i.e. the students completed the delayed-test for the target words from both treatments, in order to see if they have obtained the knowledge for longer period of time. At the very end of the experiment students were told that they were a vital component of this study and were thanked for their participation. In order to understand all the phases of these research experiments, on the next page a detailed outline of the study design is provided.

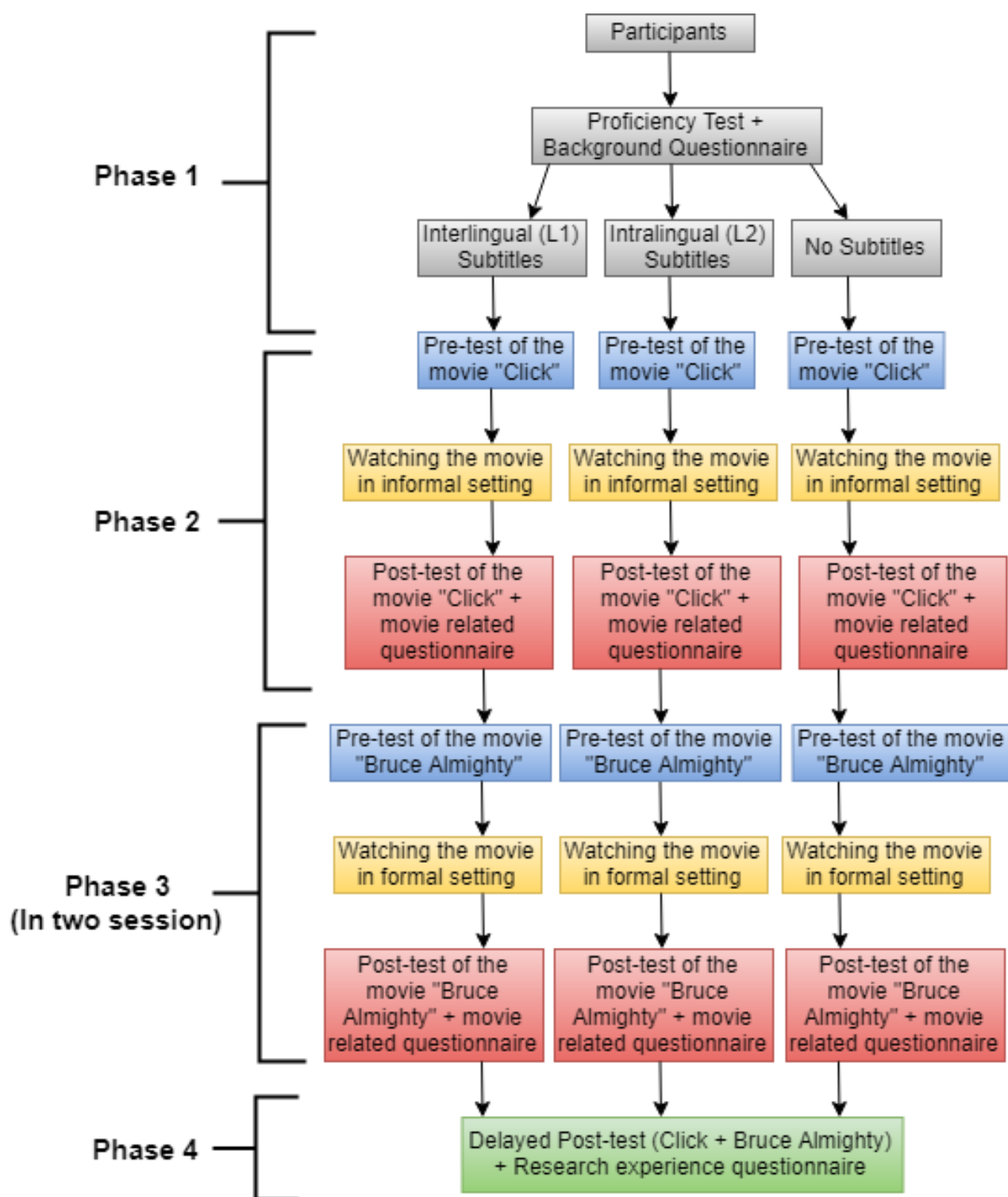


Fig. 8: Detailed outline of the research design

4. Results

4.1. Organization of the chapter

This section analyzes the data gathered from VKS tests before and after the movie sessions as well as questionnaires which were all analyzed quantitatively, in order to address the research questions accordingly. This chapter is organized in four main parts. The first part reports the processing and analysis methods employed for gathering the necessary data. In the second part, the demographic information of participants, i.e. students and teachers are outlined. The third part consists of the VKS results on students' word acquisition. Particularly, this part gives the results of the pre-test and post-test which were used to compare participants' performance exposed to movies with subtitles and those exposed to movies without subtitles. Then, the tests are compared between participants of intralingual and interlingual subtitles. Thirdly, students' performance is compared in accordance with the aspect of intentional vocabulary learning and incidental vocabulary learning. In addition, students' delayed-test results are analyzed in accordance with the long term effects of acquiring vocabulary through watching movies. In the final, fourth section, are presented teachers' and students' questionnaire responses in order to find out the role of possible background factors that might influence students' vocabulary acquisition when watching movies with or without subtitles.

4.2. Data processing and analysis

Results from the pre-test were compared with the results of the post test, and later the delayed test in order to find the difference in vocabulary acquisition before and after watching the movies. To give descriptive account of the data, the scores were coded and computed by means of Microsoft Excel 2013 in order to first have a detailed outline of the raw results. To visualize the data, the scores were computed and then presented in the form of graphs and tables. The gathered

data was then processed through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences SPSS 20 in order to investigate the potential patterns in the data.

The empirical part of this research includes demographic frequencies of the sample in tabular and graphical forms, as well as students' VKS and questionnaire results, with descriptive statistics on the distribution of variables in the sample, the statistics of Pearson's correlation coefficient and the difference between the mean scores (independent t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) sample). Also, teachers' questionnaire results are provided with descriptive statistics, presenting the frequencies of the alternatives (the possible answers for each measurement presented separately, as well as the conclusive measurement of the independent t-test and ANOVA sample). These results also include word frequencies, and ranking according to the points earned in the pretests, posttests and delayed tests, in accordance with the total points in the tests. Particularly, in order to interpret the results from the VKS tests, the results will be given on three different types of vocabulary acquisitions/ improvements categories shown on the pre, post and delayed tests, which will be sorted in the following groups:

- *No improvement* – students' answers are the same in the pre and the post-test/ delayed test.
- *Improvement to recognition level* – students' answers have improved from level 1 (not knowing the word) in pre-test to level 2, 3, 4 (word recognition) in post-test/delayed test.
- *Improvement to recognition level* – students' answers have improved from level 1, 2, 3, 4, in the pre-test to level 5 in the posttest/delayed test (word production).

4.3. Demographic structure of the students

According to students' background questionnaire, in terms of gender, the sample was randomly selected, i.e. 16 or 66.7% of the students were female and 8 or 33.3% were male. Also, during the random selection of the student sample, the results show that 4 of them were students from the Law faculty, 8 from the faculty of Economics, 7 from the faculty of Architecture and 5 from the Food Sciences and Technology faculty. Also, students participating in this research were of approximately the same age, that is, of 19 to 22 years old. According to this, the student sample is

heterogeneous, which is also one of the scientific conditions set for an objective and relevant research in this area.

4.4. Results from the VKS tests

4.4.1. Statistics on word acquisition based on the VKS tests levels

After collecting the data, the results were processed according to the VKS test levels set out in the methodological part, i.e. no improvement, improvement to the recognition level and improvement to the production level. According to these three levels, student frequencies are then matched to the relevant tables and graphs separately for the movie “Click” (incidental vocabulary learning environment) and separately for the movie “Bruce Almighty” (intentional vocabulary learning environment). Finally, the total student points, i.e. the students’ frequencies according to the total points gained are shown.

4.4.1.1. VKS Test results of students’ vocabulary acquisition based on the subtitles type

The analysis of the differences between the averages of the level of acquisition of words according to the test criteria, with English, Albanian or no subtitles, which is one of the main goals of this research will be presented next. In the tables below (Table 3 and 4), the fourth column sets the averages of students’ acquisition and attitude towards vocabulary according to the two movie treatments and the criteria with English, Albanian or no subtitles. There is a difference between these averages, which is also confirmed by the last column, ANOVA, where the averages are set:

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Total Points "Click"	English s.	8	39.63	5.630	1.990	34.92	44.33	32	47
	Albanian s.	8	47.63	7.855	2.777	41.06	54.19	38	64
	No sub.	8	35.00	6.325	2.236	29.71	40.29	25	44
	Total	24	40.75	8.305	1.695	37.24	44.26	25	64
Total Points "Bruce Almighty"	English s	8	50.25	6.431	2.274	44.87	55.63	43	60
	Albanian s.	8	62.63	5.069	1.792	58.39	66.86	54	69
	No sub	8	45.63	5.181	1.832	41.29	49.96	37	53
	Total	24	52.83	9.073	1.852	49.00	56.66	37	69

Table 3: Analysis of word acquisition based on three treatments: with Albanian Subtitles, English Subtitles and no subtitles.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total Points in "Click"	Between Groups	652.750	2	326.375	7.340	.004
	Within Groups	933.750	21	44.464		
	Total	1586.500	23			
Total Points in "Bruce Almighty"	Between Groups	1236.083	2	618.042	19.747	.000
	Within Groups	657.250	21	31.298		
	Total	1893.333	23			

Table 4: ANOVA Analysis of word acquisition based on three treatments: with Albanian Subtitles, English Subtitles and no subtitles.

Based on the significances (0.004, 0.000 <0.01) that are statistically relevant for the first level of reliability of 0.01 (this occurs in 99% of sample cases), it can be estimated that there is a statistically significant difference in the level of vocabulary acquisition depending on the different subtitle treatments, i.e. using English, Albanian or no subtitles. Accordingly, the highest average of acquisition results in the Albanian subtitles (47.63 and 62.63) versus English translation (39.63 and 50.25) and without translation (35 and 45.63).

Dependent Variable	(I) Subtitles	(J) Subtitles	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Total points Click	English	Albanian s.	-8.000	3.334	.064	-16.40	.40
		No subtitles	4.625	3.334	.365	-3.78	13.03
	Albanian	English s.	8.000	3.334	.064	-.40	16.40
		No subtitles	12.625*	3.334	.003	4.22	21.03
	No subtitles	English s.	-4.625	3.334	.365	-13.03	3.78
		Albanian s.	-12.625*	3.334	.003	-21.03	-4.22
Total points Bruce Almighty	English	Albanian s.	-12.375*	2.797	.001	-19.43	-5.32
		No subtitles	4.625	2.797	.246	-2.43	11.68
	Albanian	English s.	12.375*	2.797	.001	5.32	19.43
		No subtitles	17.000*	2.797	.000	9.95	24.05
	No subtitles	English s.	-4.625	2.797	.246	-11.68	2.43
		Albanian s.	-17.000*	2.797	.000	-24.05	-9.95
Total points Students' Questionnaire	English	Albanian s.	-7.375	4.756	.289	-19.36	4.61
		No subtitles	11.250	4.756	.068	-.74	23.24
	Albanian	English s.	7.375	4.756	.289	-4.61	19.36
		No subtitles	18.625*	4.756	.002	6.64	30.61
	No subtitles	English s.	-11.250	4.756	.068	-23.24	.74
		Albanian s.	-18.625*	4.756	.002	-30.61	-6.64

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5: Multiple Comparisons in Students questionnaire – Tuckey HSD

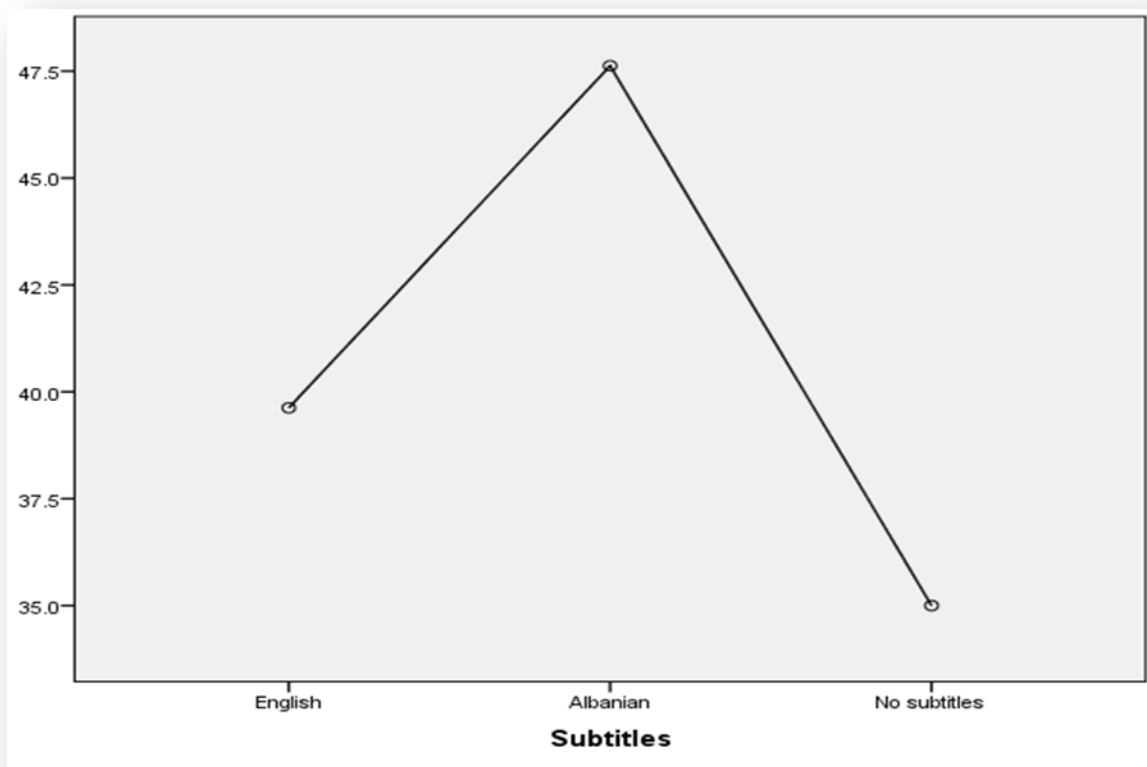


Fig. 9: Mean score of total points in the movie “Click”

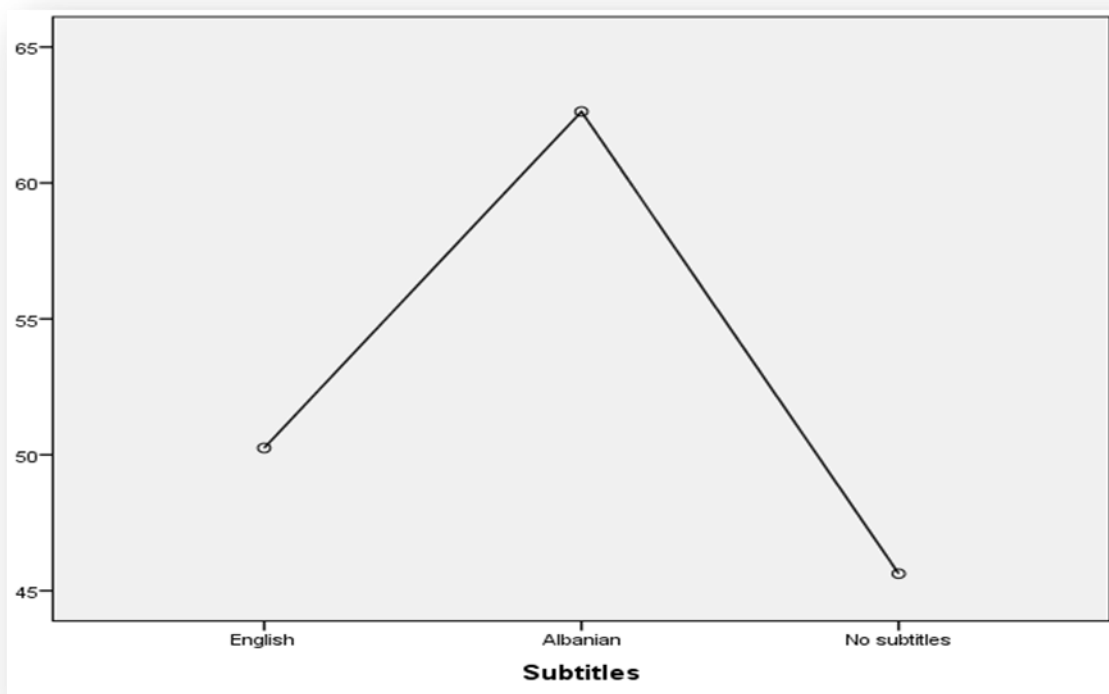


Fig. 10: Mean score of total points in the movie “Bruce Almighty”

The more detailed observations of the acquisition of each word presented in both movies “Click” and “Bruce Almighty”, under the three subtitles condition (English, Albanian and no subtitles) is given in the Table 6 and Figures 11, 12, 13 and 14. This data provided evidence in confirming the assumptions about the affordances of subtitles in word acquisition.

	English Subtitles	Albanian Subtitles	No subtitles	Level of acquisition
Anchorman	56	58	51	High word acquisition
Bark	20	34	20	Average word acquisition
Bathrobe	31	36	22	Average word acquisition
Burglars	16	29	17	Low word acquisition
Certainly	12	23	13	Low word acquisition
Cough Syrup	47	39	37	Average word acquisition
Drawer	41	54	40	High word acquisition
Drowning	27	34	24	Average word acquisition
Enormous	30	41	31	Average word acquisition
Filthy	28	35	22	Average word acquisition
Free Will	32	50	44	Average word acquisition
Groom	14	14	20	Low word acquisition
Janitor	47	55	37	High word acquisition
Kneel	10	25	12	Low word acquisition
Needle	39	50	33	Average word acquisition
Pale	8	20	8	Low word acquisition
Pocket	32	32	22	Average word acquisition
Prayer	53	49	41	High word acquisition
Remote	56	60	57	High word acquisition
Riot	15	23	10	Low word acquisition
Sew	14	18	20	Low word acquisition
Stack	18	24	15	Low word acquisition
Wipe	20	24	6	Low word acquisition
Wish Jar	51	55	47	High word acquisition

Table 6: Detailed results of students’ vocabulary acquisition based on the subtitles

According to the results presented in Figures 11, 12, 13 and 14 the words "Anchorman", "Drawer", "Janitor", "Prayer", "Remote" and "Wish Jar" are the words with high word acquisition, especially when students were exposed to movies with subtitles. Also, the words with average and low acquisition frequency such as the words "Bark", "Bathrobe", "Burglars" etc. have been more frequently acquired when the movies were watched with Albanian subtitles, rather than English or no subtitles.

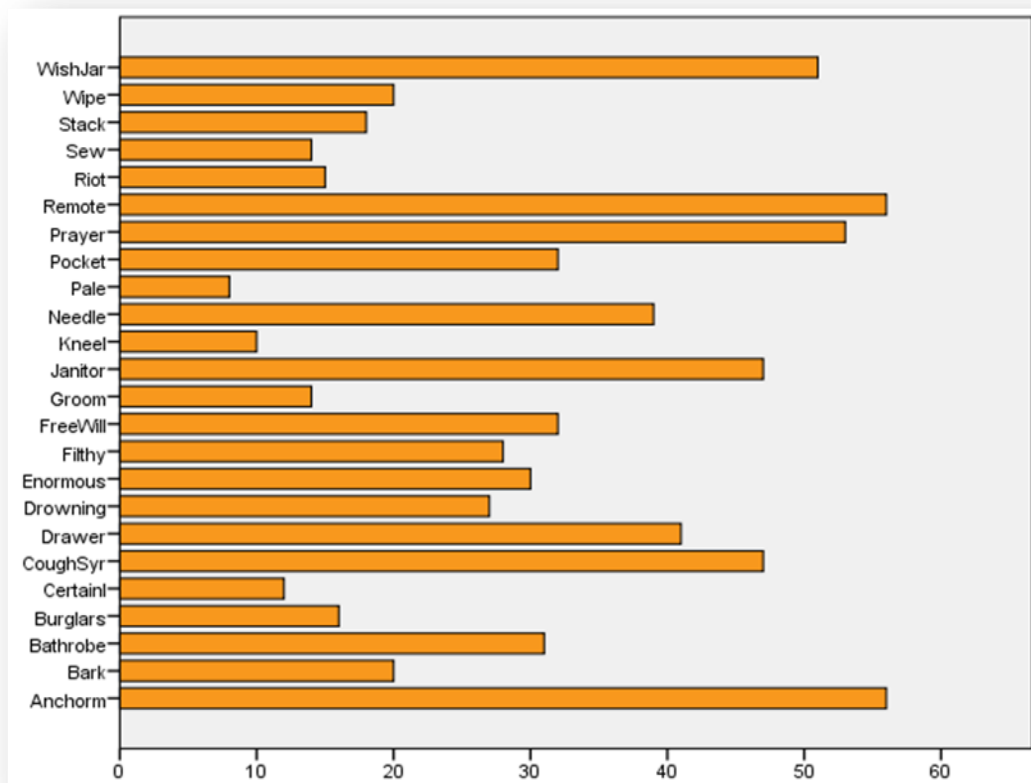


Fig. 11: Level of word acquisition – English subtitles

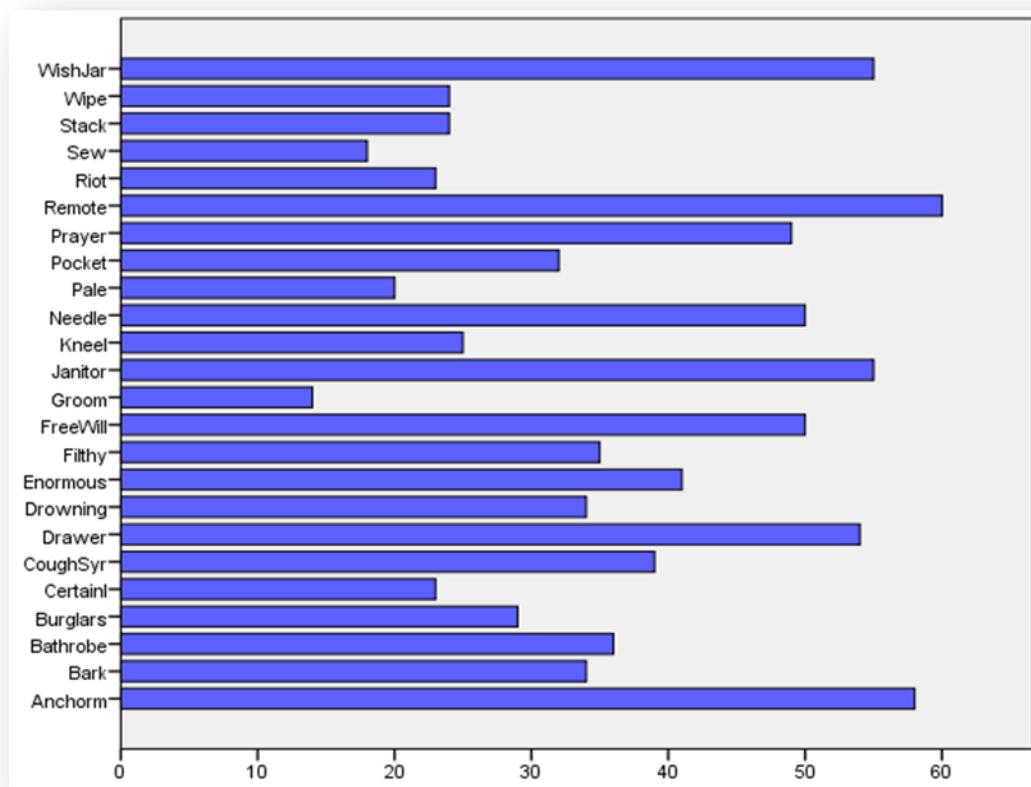


Fig. 12: Level of word acquisition – Albanian subtitles

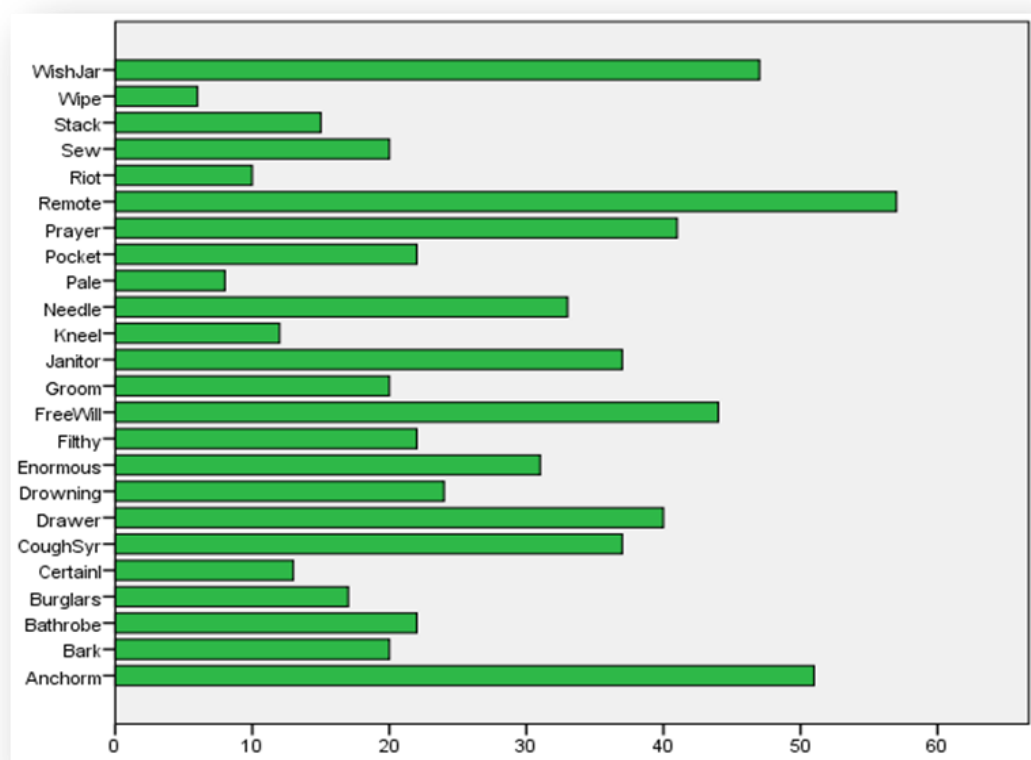


Fig. 13: Level of word acquisition – No subtitles

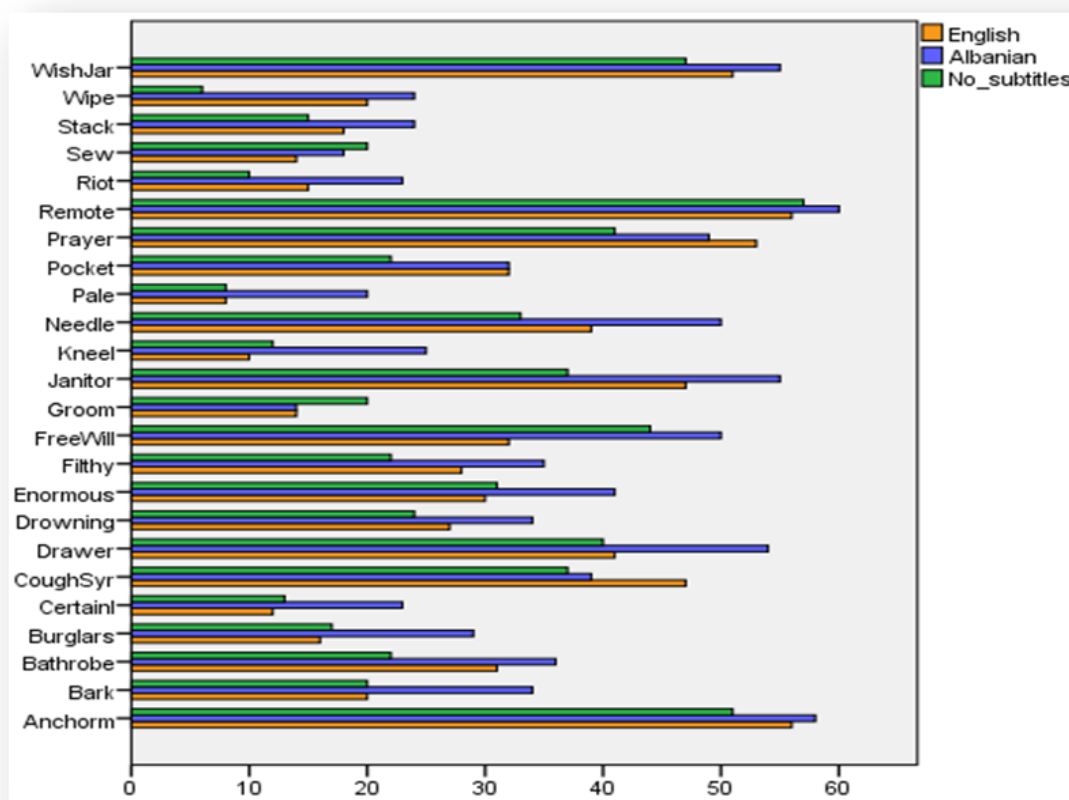


Fig. 14: Level of word acquisition – All conditions (English, Albanian, no subtitles)

4.4.1.2. VKS Test results of students' vocabulary acquisition in intentional and incidental learning settings

In the movie "Click" (Figure 15), the frequency of students in "improvement to recognition level", is 54.2%, while 41.7% of the students are in "improvement to production level". However, 4.2% of the students showed negative results or did not have any improvement in word acquisition. Generally speaking, the results are positive regarding the acquisition of words in the movie "Click". Moreover, in the movie "Bruce Almighty" (Figure 16) students have scored 8.3% in "improvement to recognition level" and 91.7% in "improvement to production level". Hence, the results in the movie "Bruce Almighty" are even more positive in regards to student acquisition of words when watching movies in intentional learning settings.

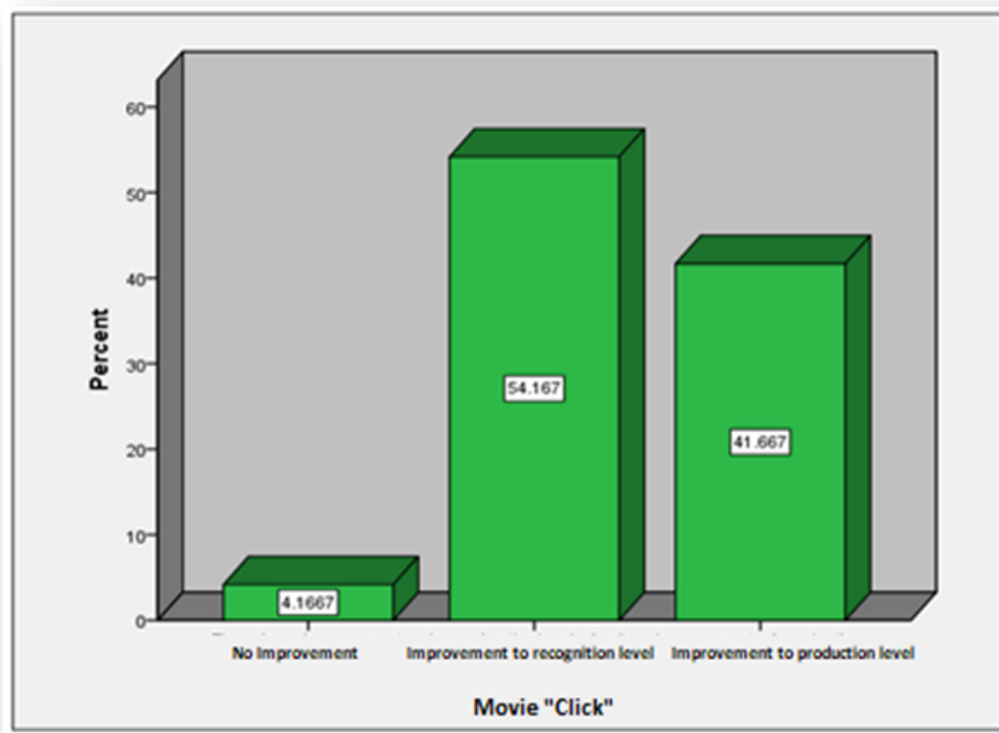


Fig. 15: Frequency of word acquisition in the movie “Click” according to the levels

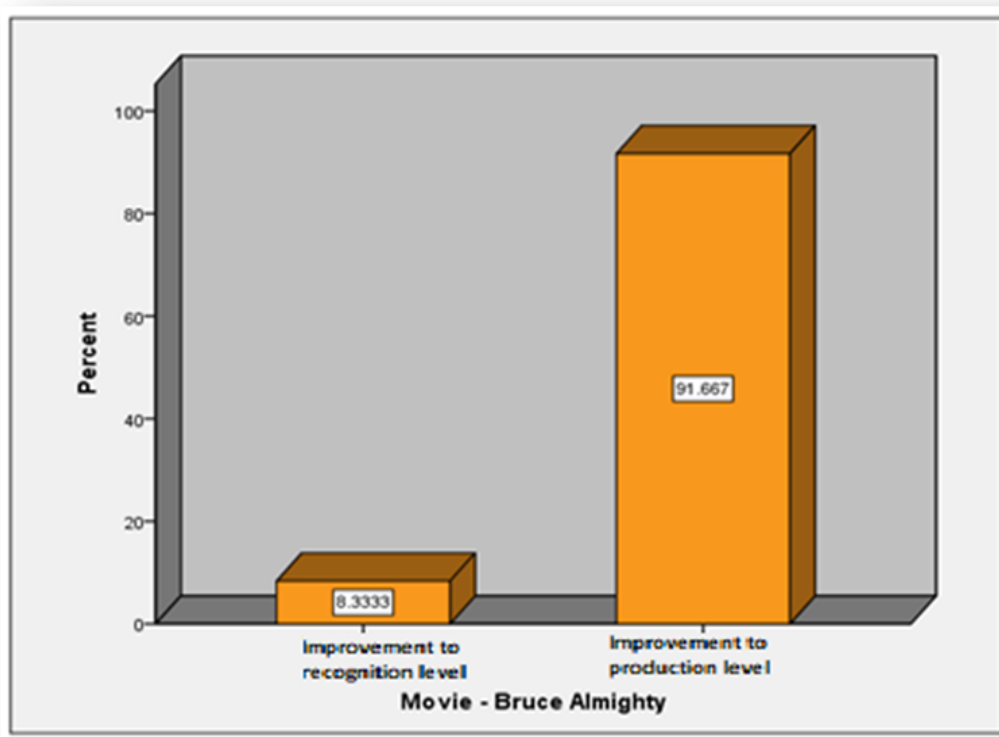


Fig. 16: Frequency of word acquisition in the movie “Bruce Almighty” according to the levels

4.4.1.3. VKS Test results of students' vocabulary acquisition for long term retention

In Table 7 are given the averages of the scores in the delayed test in both, formal and informal settings which determine the number of words retained in students' long term memory. Whereas, based on the significances in Table 8 which are 0.158 and 0.0159 (higher than 0.05), the differences are not statistically significant, therefore the scores, in the delayed test do not depend on the movie instructions, i.e. in formal and informal settings.

	Movie	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Delayed Test	Click	12	33.75	16.371	4.726
	Bruce Almighty	12	44.67	20.033	5.783

Table 7: T-test - delayed test results based on the movie type – Group statistics

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Delayed test	-1.462	22	.158	-10.917	7.469	-26.406	4.572
	-1.462	21.161	.159	-10*.917	7.469	-26.441	4.608

Table 8: T-test - delayed test results based on the movie type - Independent Samples Test

In Table 9 are presented the delayed test results based on the subtitle treatments. According to the significances 0.323, 0.226 and 0.312, which are higher than 0.05 (Table 10) the differences are not statistically significant, so the scores in the delayed tests do not depend on the subtitle type, that is in English, Albanian or no subtitles.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Pre Test	English	3	15.67	.577	.333	14.23	17.10	15	16
	Albanian	19	11.11	6.454	1.481	7.99	14.22	3	24
	No subtitles	2	7.50	3.536	2.500	-24.27	39.27	5	10
	Total	24	11.38	6.078	1.241	8.81	13.94	3	24
Post Test	English	3	54.00	15.716	9.074	14.96	93.04	37	68
	Albanian	19	43.58	21.448	4.921	33.24	53.92	16	81
	No subtitles	2	21.00	1.414	1.000	8.29	33.71	20	22
	Total	24	43.00	20.970	4.280	34.15	51.85	16	81
Delayed Test	English	3	47.67	12.662	7.311	16.21	79.12	34	59
	Albanian	19	39.74	19.593	4.495	30.29	49.18	17	78
	No subtitles	2	21.50	.707	.500	15.15	27.85	21	22
	Total	24	39.21	18.741	3.825	31.29	47.12	17	78

Table 9: T-test - delayed test results based on the subtitle type – Descriptive statistics

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre Test	Between Groups	86.669	2	43.334	1.193	.323
	Within Groups	762.956	21	36.331		
	Total	849.625	23			
Post Test	Between Groups	1337.368	2	668.684	1.600	.226
	Within Groups	8776.632	21	417.935		
	Total	10114.000	23			
Delayed Test	Between Groups	847.107	2	423.554	1.230	.312
	Within Groups	7230.851	21	344.326		
	Total	8077.958	23			

Table 10: T-test - delayed test results based on the subtitle type - ANOVA

4.4.2. Statistics on word acquisition based on the proficiency level of the words (B1/B2)

In this research, the possible differences of the word acquisition in all three tests (pre, post and delayed test) according to the word levels (B1/B2) were also observed. In Table 11 are presented the averages of the points obtained from the words in all three types of tests, as well as the total points for the acquisition of the words. In Table 12 the last ANOVA column is statistically important.

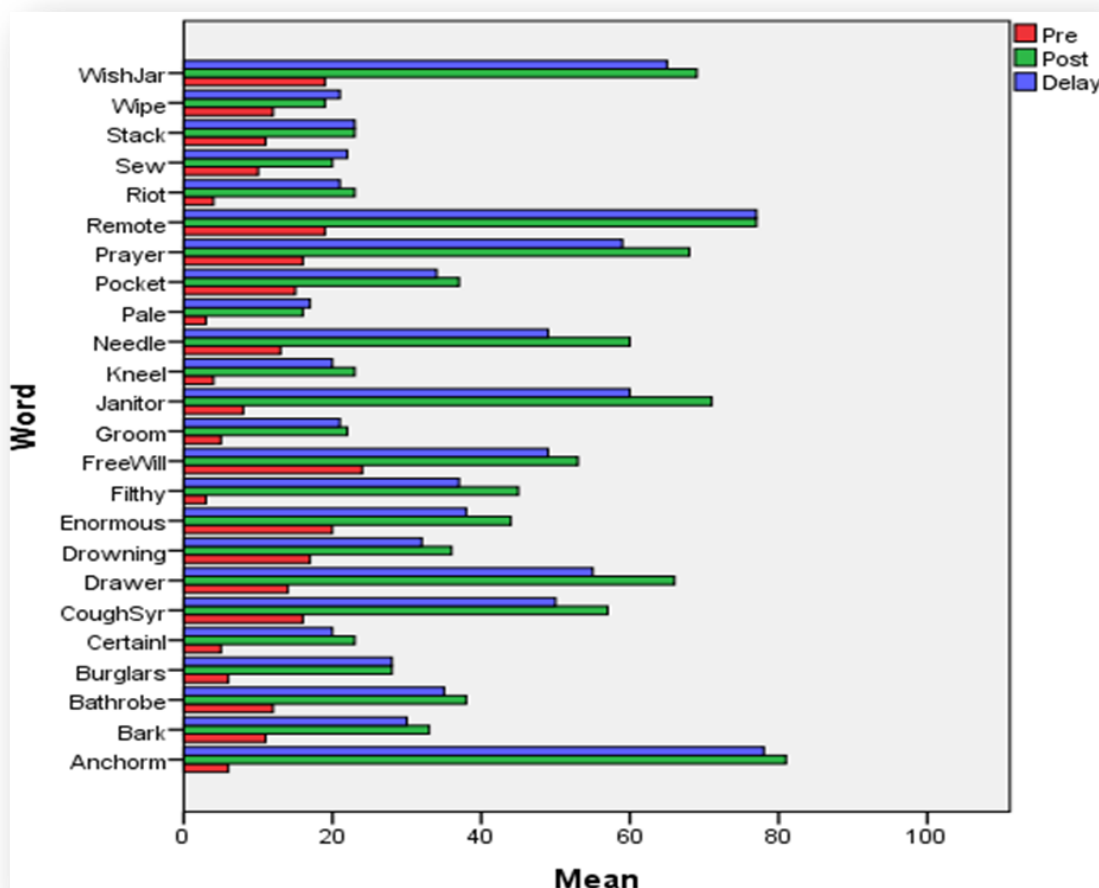
	Level	Nr.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre test	B1	9	12.78	5.472	1.824
	B2	15	10.53	6.446	1.664
Post	B1	9	40.11	19.789	6.596
	B2	15	44.73	22.137	5.716
Delayed	B1	9	36.44	16.771	5.590
	B2	15	40.87	20.209	5.218
Total Points	B1	9	89.33	40.774	13.591
	B2	15	96.13	45.172	11.663

Table 11: Frequency acquisition of words in accordance with level B1/B2 category of words – Group Statistics

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Pre - test	.871	22	.393	2.244	2.576	-3.098	7.587
	.909	19.244	.375	2.244	2.469	-2.919	7.408
Post - test	-.514	22	.612	-4.622	8.987	-23.259	14.015
	-.530	18.548	.603	-4.622	8.728	-22.921	13.677
Delayed test	-.551	22	.587	-4.422	8.024	-21.063	12.219
	-.578	19.537	.570	-4.422	7.647	-20.398	11.554
Total Points	-.370	22	.715	-6.800	18.394	-44.946	31.346
	-.380	18.415	.709	-6.800	17.910	-44.366	30.766

Table 12: Frequency acquisition of words in accordance with level B1/B2 category of words (Independent Sample T-Test)

Based on the averages on Table 11 in the fourth column, and the gained significant coefficients on Table 12, the results in regards to the level of the words are statistically insignificant because they are larger than the second reliability limit of 0.05, i.e., the level of the words B1 or B2 does not determine the level of word acquisition in this research, in all three tests (pre, post and delayed tests) (Figure 17).



**Fig. 17: Frequency acquisition of words in accordance with level B1/B2 category of words
(Independent Sample T-Test)**

After collecting and processing the data that helped the process of investigating students' acquisition of each word during the pre, post and delayed test phase, in Table 13 are presented the points gained for each word, in two categories, words of the B1 (pre-intermediate) level and words of the B2 (intermediate) level. Also, the total number of vocabulary gains/ losses during each test accordingly, is presented in the last two columns.

	Level	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Delayed Test	Post Test Word Gains	Delayed Test Word Loses
Anchorman	B2	6	81	78	75	-3
Bark	B2	11	33	30	22	-3
Bathrobe	B2	12	38	35	26	-3
Burglars	B2	6	28	28	22	0
Certainly	B1	5	23	20	18	-3
Cough Syrup	B1	16	57	50	41	-2
Drawer	B1	14	66	55	52	-11
Drowning	B2	17	36	32	19	-4
Enormous	B1	20	44	38	24	-6
Filthy	B2	3	45	37	42	-8
Free Will	B2	24	53	49	29	-4
Groom	B1	5	22	21	17	-1
Janitor	B2	8	71	60	64	-6
Kneel	B2	4	23	20	19	-3
Needle	B2	13	60	49	47	-11
Pale	B2	3	16	17	13	-1
Pocket	B1	15	37	34	22	-3
Prayer	B2	16	68	59	52	-9
Remote	B2	19	77	77	58	0
Riot	B2	4	23	21	19	-2
Sew	B1	10	20	22	10	-2
Stack	B1	11	23	23	12	0
Wipe	B2	12	19	21	7	-2
Wish Jar	B1	19	69	65	50	-4

Table 13: Vocabulary acquisition based on the B1/B2 level of words

In order to make the data even clearer to analyze, the results are presented in graphical form, with columns for all three types of tests (pre, post and delayed test) and graphs for total points of the words (Figure 18, 19, 20, and 21) as follows:

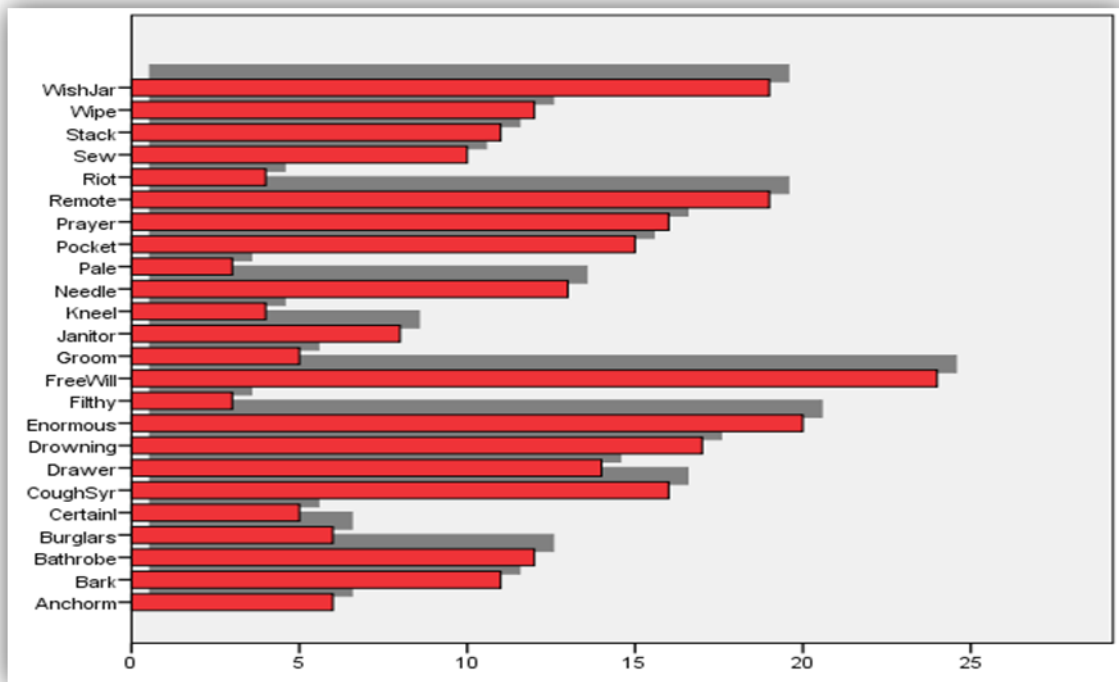


Fig. 18: Frequency of word acquisition in the pre-tests

In the pre-tests, the word "free will" has the highest frequency in recognition, followed by the words "enormous", "remote" and "wish jar". Whereas in the post-tests the words that are mostly acquired are "anchorman", "remote", "wish jar", "janitor", "prayer", "drawer" and "needle".

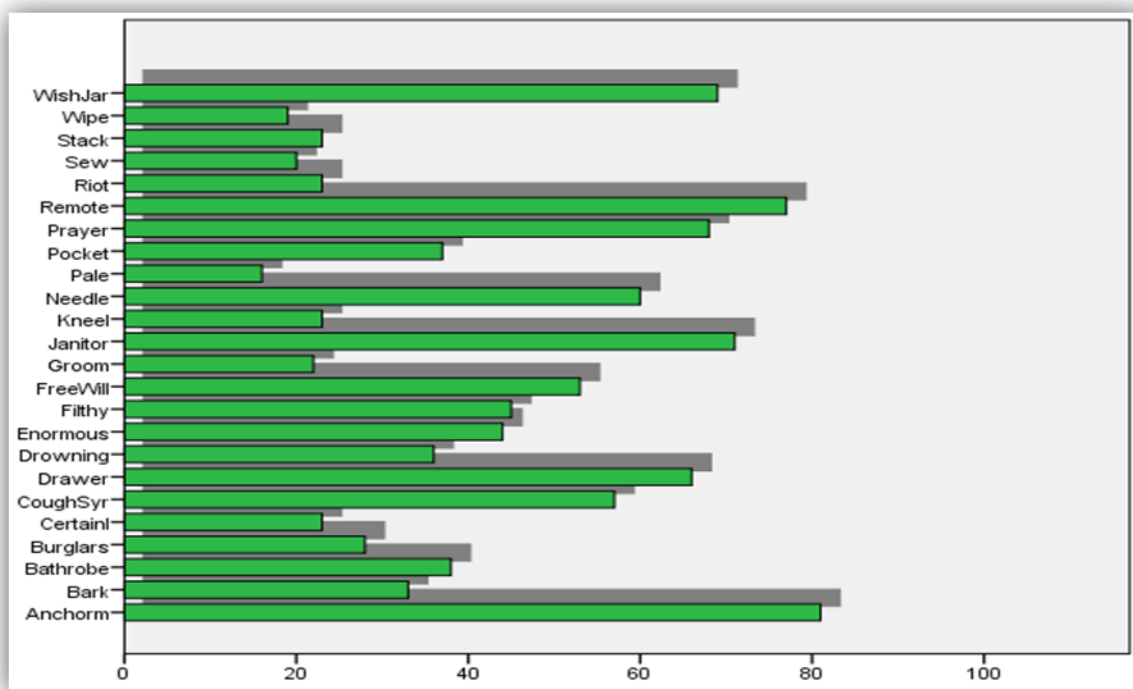


Fig. 19: Frequency of word acquisition in the post-tests

Also, in the delayed test, the words “anchorman”, “remote” “wish jar”, “janitor”, “prayer”, and “drawer” can be specified as words which were more frequently stored in students’ long term retention.

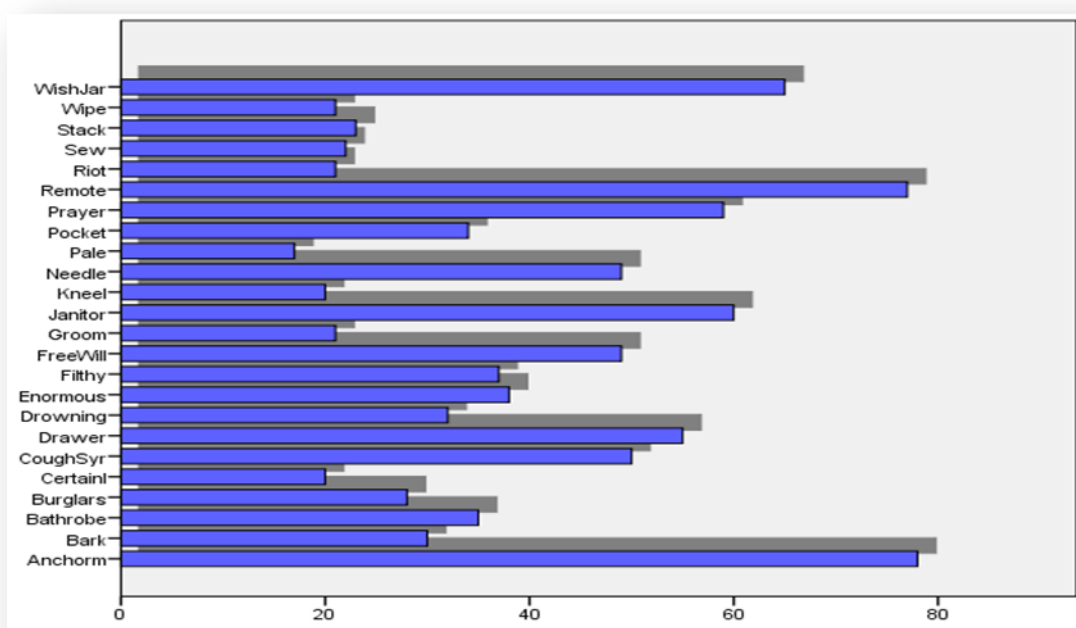


Fig. 20: Frequency of word acquisition in the delayed-tests

After summing the total points of the words acquired in the pre-tests, post-tests and delayed tests, the words "remote", "anchorman", "prayer", "janitor", "drawer" and "wish jar" are distinguished as the most acquired words.

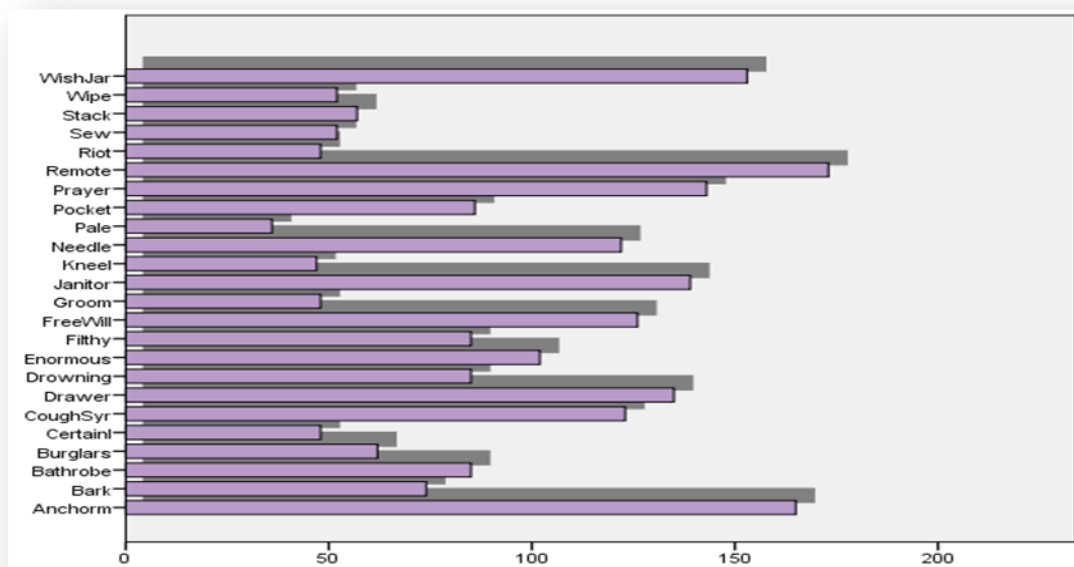


Fig. 21: Frequency of word acquisition – Total points

4.4.3. Statistics on word acquisition based on the frequency of word occurrence in the movies

In order to analyze the importance of word occurrence in vocabulary acquisition, in Table 14 are given the target words, their level in B1 or B2, the frequency or number of occurrence/ repetition in the movie, as well as the points from the pre, post and delayed test.

	Frequency	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test	Vocabulary gains	Vocabulary loses
Anchorman	11	6	81	78	75	-3
Bark	1	11	33	30	22	-3
Bathrobe	2	12	38	35	26	-3
Burglars	1	6	28	28	22	0
Certainly	3	5	23	20	18	-3

	Frequency	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test	Vocabulary gains	Vocabulary loses
Cough Syrup	3	16	57	50	41	-2
Drawer	2	14	66	55	52	-11
Drowning	2	17	36	32	19	-4
Enormous	1	20	44	38	24	-6
Filthy	1	3	45	37	42	-8
Free Will	5	24	53	49	29	-4
Groom	1	5	22	21	17	-1
Janitor	1	8	71	60	63	-6
Kneel	1	4	23	20	19	-3
Needle	1	13	60	49	47	-11
Pale	1	3	16	17	13	-1
Pocket	1	15	37	34	22	-3
Prayer	1	16	68	59	52	-9
Remote	5	19	77	77	58	0
Riot	1	4	23	21	19	-2
Sew	1	10	20	22	10	-2
Stack	1	11	23	23	12	0
Wipe	1	12	19	21	7	-2
Wish Jar	1	19	69	65	50	-4

Table 14: Word repetition in the movie in relation with the number of word acquisition

According to the frequencies of word repetition, the words "anchorman" with highest occurrence frequency has high acquisition gains in the post and delayed tests. Then, the word "remote" also in comparison to the rest of the words has high frequency of repetition and high acquisition gains in post-tests and delayed-tests. Likewise, the word "wish jar", has a low repeat frequency but has high points in the post and the delayed tests, as well as the word "janitor" is with a minimum reoccurrence but with high points of acquisition in the post and delayed test. Now, the

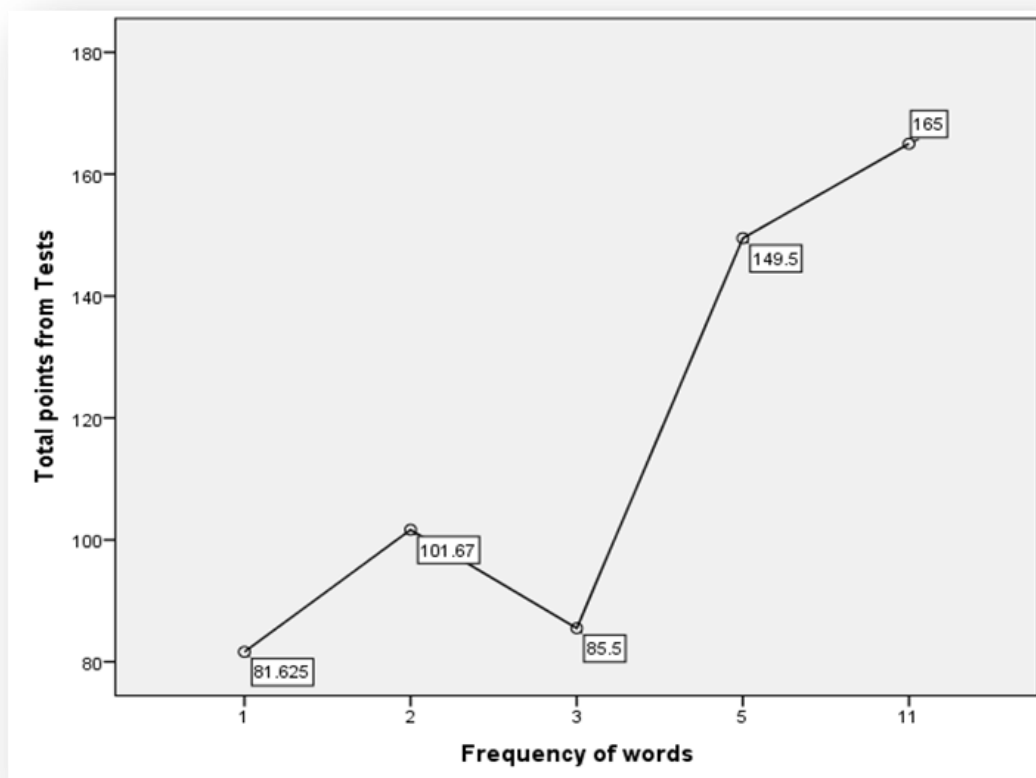
question is whether there is a statistically significant difference between words in the post and delayed tests according to their occurrence frequency in the movies. To analyze the hypothesis, if the level of repetition of words in the movies determines the degree of word acquisition, the statistical analysis of the t-test (Tuckey test) and ANOVA have been used, as follows (Table 15 and 16):

Frequency	Nr. of words	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	16	81.63	38.795	9.699	60.95	102.30	36	153
2	3	101.67	28.868	16.667	29.96	173.38	85	135
3	2	85.50	53.033	37.500	-390.98	561.98	48	123
5	2	149.50	33.234	23.500	-149.10	448.10	126	173
11	1	165.00	165	165
Total	24	93.58	42.798	8.736	75.51	111.66	36	173

Table 15: Word repetition in the movie in relation with the number of word acquisition (T-Test – Total Points)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13968.417	4	3492.104	2.356	.040
Within Groups	28159.417	19	1482.075		
Total	42127.833	23			

Table 16: Word repetition in the movie in relation with the number of word acquisition (ANOVA – Total Points)



**Fig. 22: Word repetition in the movie in relation with the number of word acquisition
(T-Test – Total Points)**

In Table 15, in the third column, the averages of the general points for each word occurrence frequency are set, so there are 16 words with 1 occurrence in the movie, with average of 81.63, and 2 words are with 5 frequency of occurrence, i.e. with the average of 149.50 and so on. In Table 16, the last column presents the significant coefficient (0.040) for the above mentioned average differences, which is lower than the second reliability limit (0.05). This means that there is a significant statistical difference between the levels of word acquisition according to the frequency of occurrence in the movies. This occurs in 95% of the sample in this research. In other words, the more often the words are repeated in the movie, the chances are higher that these words are acquired. This is presented in graphical form in Figure 22. Hence, the higher the frequency (horizontal axis x) the higher the total points in the test (vertical axis y). Figure 23 shows the differences for each word specifically tested in this research. Additionally, in Figure 24 is represented the linear word acquisition according to the frequency intensity.

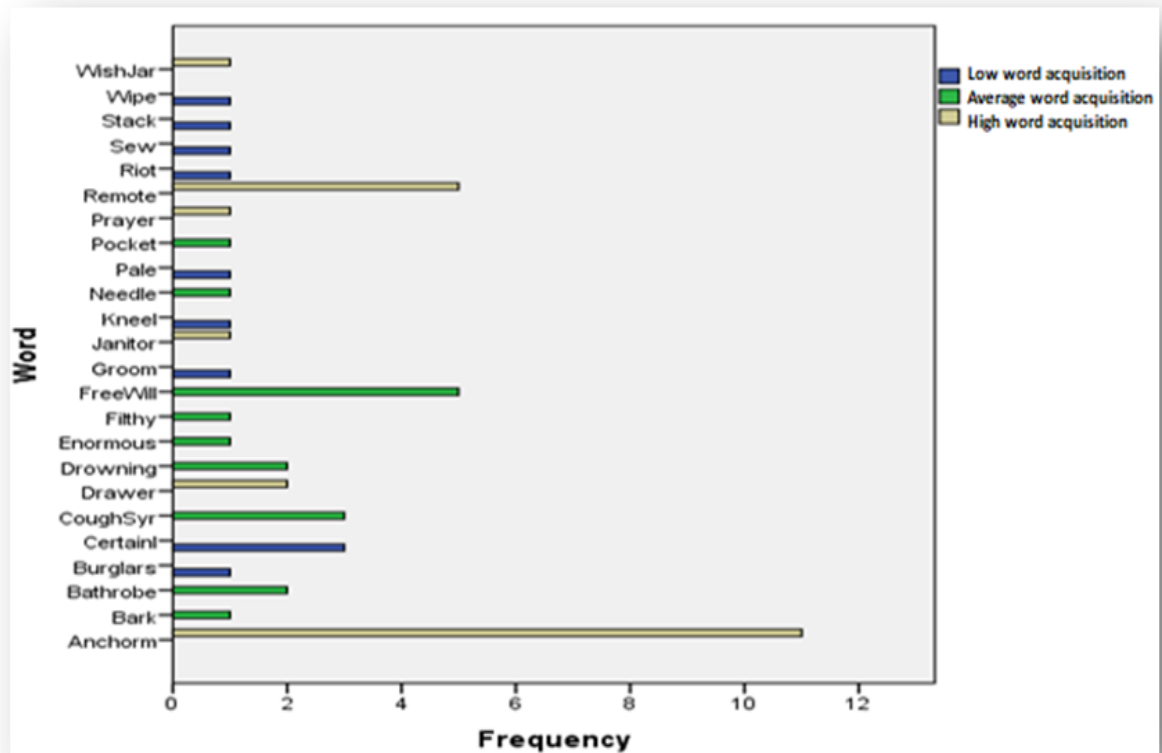


Fig. 23: Word acquisition according to the acquisition intensity

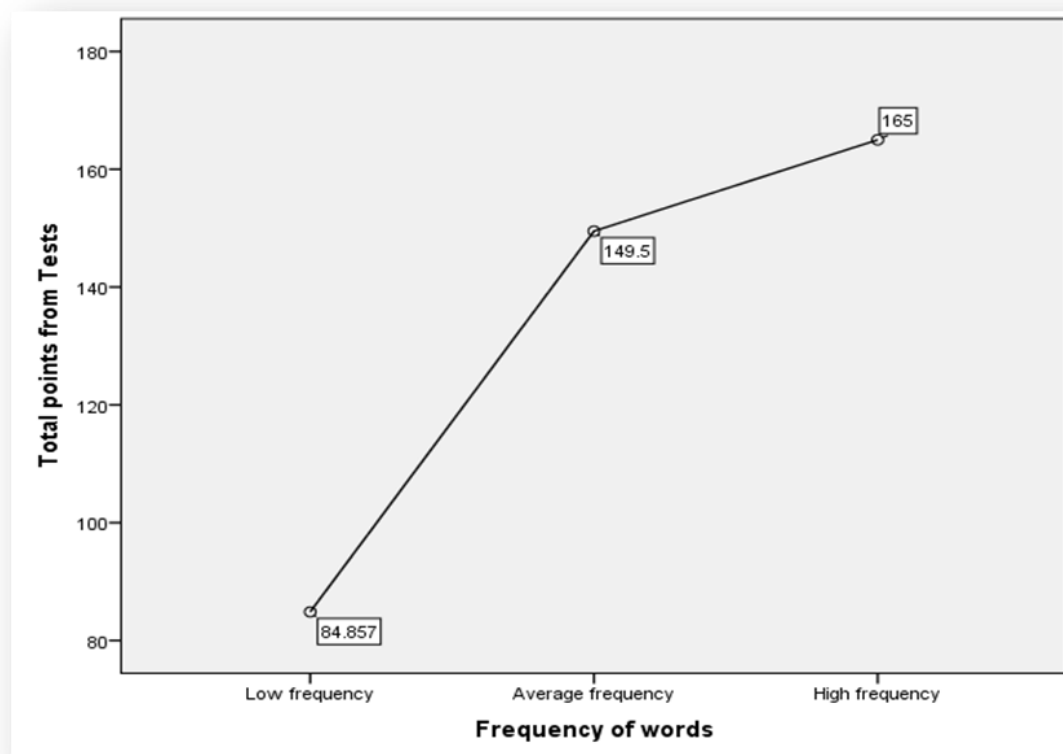


Fig. 24: Linear word acquisition according to the frequency intensity

4.4.4. Statistics on word acquisition based on the parts of speech of the words

Another element that was observed in regards to word acquisition is about the possible differences between the acquisition of all three tests (pre, post and delayed test) according to the parts of speech of the words (noun, verb, adverb and adjective). In Table 17, in the fourth column are presented the averages of the points obtained from the words for all three types of tests as well as the total points for the words, whereas in Table 18, the last ANOVA column is statistically important.

		Nr.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Score	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pre-Test	Noun	16	13.00	5.989	1.497	9.81	16.19
	Verb	5	10.80	4.658	2.083	5.02	16.58
	Adverb	1	5.00
	Adjective	2	3.00	.000	.000	3.00	3.00
	Total	24	11.38	6.078	1.241	8.81	13.94
Post-Test	Noun	16	51.06	20.473	5.118	40.15	61.97
	Verb	5	26.20	7.791	3.484	16.53	35.87
	Adverb	1	23.00
	Adjective	2	30.50	20.506	14.500	-153.74	214.74
	Total	24	43.00	20.970	4.280	34.15	51.85
Delayed Test	Noun	16	46.38	18.719	4.680	36.40	56.35
	Verb	5	25.00	5.568	2.490	18.09	31.91
	Adverb	1	20.00
	Adjective	2	27.00	14.142	10.000	-100.06	154.06
	Total	24	39.21	18.741	3.825	31.29	47.12
Total Points	Noun	16	110.44	41.657	10.414	88.24	132.64
	Verb	5	62.00	16.568	7.409	41.43	82.57

	Adverb	1	48.00
	Adjective	2	60.50	34.648	24.500	-250.80	371.80
	Total	24	93.58	42.798	8.736	75.51	111.66

Table 17: Frequency acquisition of words in accordance with part of speech category of words

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre Test	Between Groups	224.825	3	74.942	2.399	.048
	Within Groups	624.800	20	31.240		
	Total	849.625	23			
Post Test	Between Groups	3163.763	3	1054.588	3.035	.043
	Within Groups	6950.238	20	347.512		
	Total	10114.000	23			
Delayed Test	Between Groups	2498.208	3	832.736	2.985	.036
	Within Groups	5579.750	20	278.987		
	Total	8077.958	23			
Total Points	Between Groups	13799.396	3	4599.799	3.247	.044
	Within Groups	28328.438	20	1416.422		
	Total	42127.833	23			

**Table 18: Frequency acquisition of words in accordance with part of speech category of words
(ANOVA)**

Based on the significances 0.048, 0.043, 0.036, 0.044 which are smaller than the second limit of reliability 0.05, (this occurs in 95% of sample cases) it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in the acquisition of words in the tests depending on the parts of speech of the words. In other words, the most acquired words are first nouns, then adjectives, verbs, and finally adverbs which are also presented in Figure 25 below.

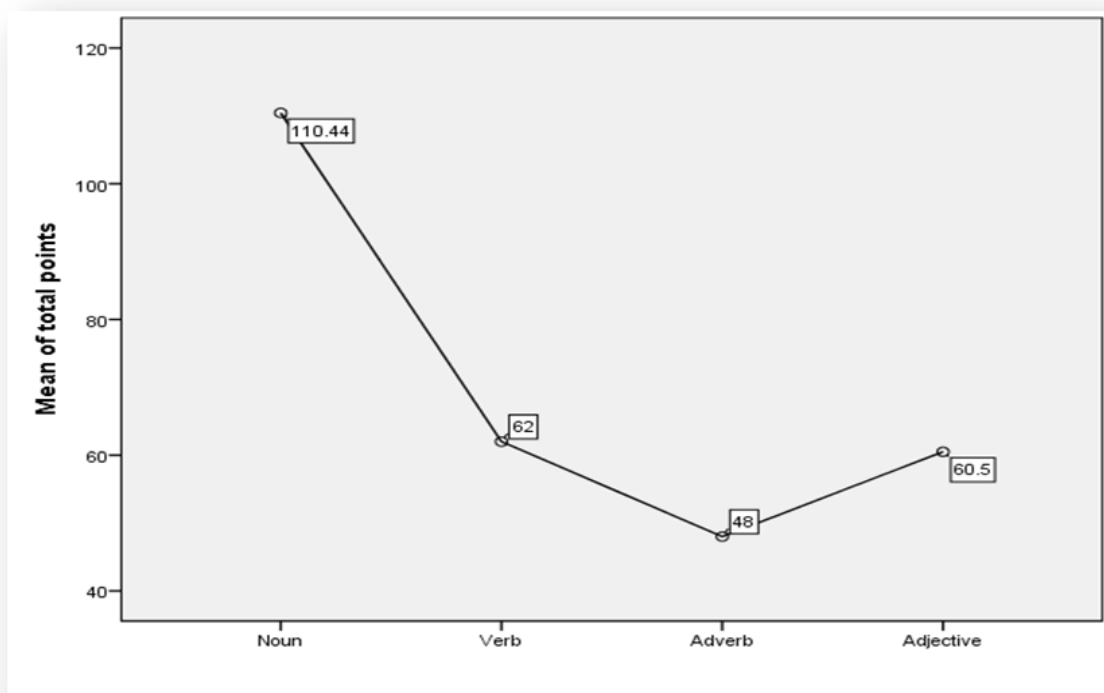


Fig. 25: Linear word acquisition according to parts of speech category of words

4.5. Results from the questionnaires

For the sake of scientific correctness and the reliability of the measuring instruments, the students' questionnaire with 37 items was tested in closed structural form, and achieved a credibility coefficient of 0.773 Cronbach's alpha, which meets the required scientific standards. Also the teachers' questionnaire with 19 structured items reached the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.618 which also meets the scientific standards, knowing that the limits of reliability is above 0.600 (Table 19).

Students' Questionnaire Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.773	34

Teachers' Questionnaire Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.618	19

Table 19: Students' and Teachers' Questionnaire Reliability Statistics

4.5.1. Students' responses

In order to determine what trends in the data are suggested regarding students' experience and attitudes towards watching movies for vocabulary learning, their answers were analyzed below. In this section the numeric frequencies and percentages of all questions are presented, i.e. 34 question items in the students' questionnaire regarding these elements with several alternatives for selection in response to their indicative weight. Some of the most relevant results are presented below for all 24 students, whereas the responses for the rest of the questions are presented in Appendix 11. Also, detailed results from the three separate groups are provided in Appendix 12.

According to the questionnaire results, the majority of students (83.3%) prefer watching movies with Albanian subtitles, when they watch movies for enjoyment (Figure 26). Also, Figure 27 provides an overview of students' subtitle preferences for vocabulary learning, which signifies that 70.8% of students would rather watch movies with Albanian subtitles when they aim to learn vocabulary.

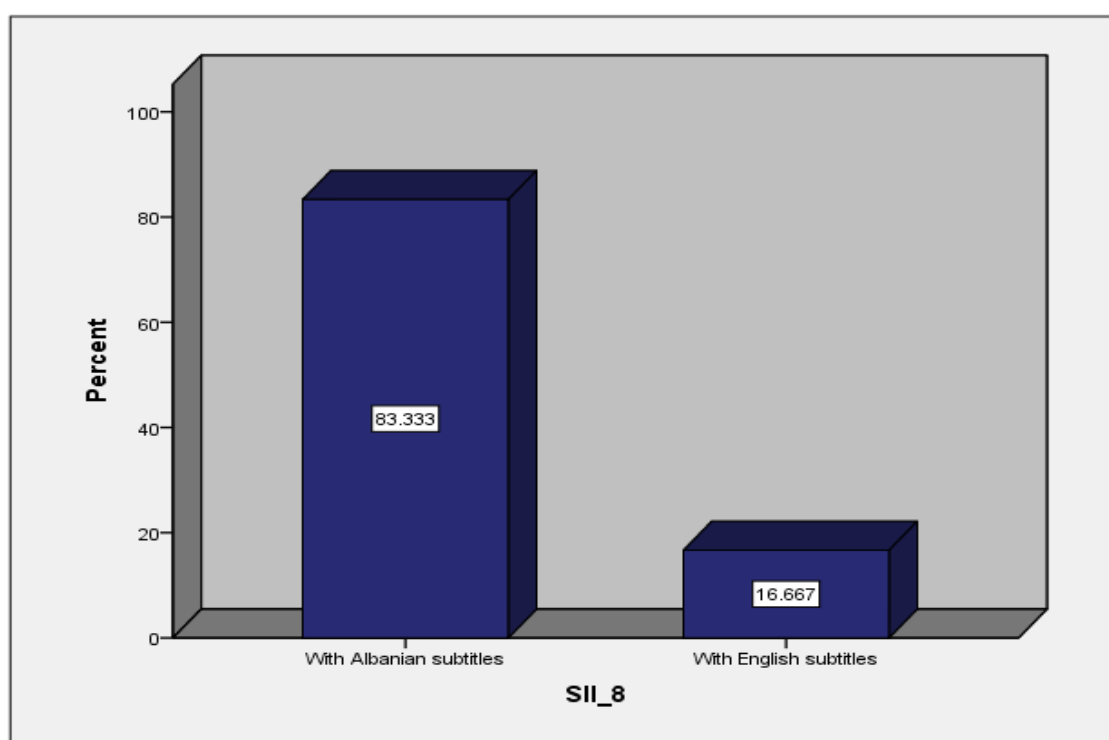


Fig. 26: Students' answers to question: When I watch English movies for enjoyment, I prefer watching them...

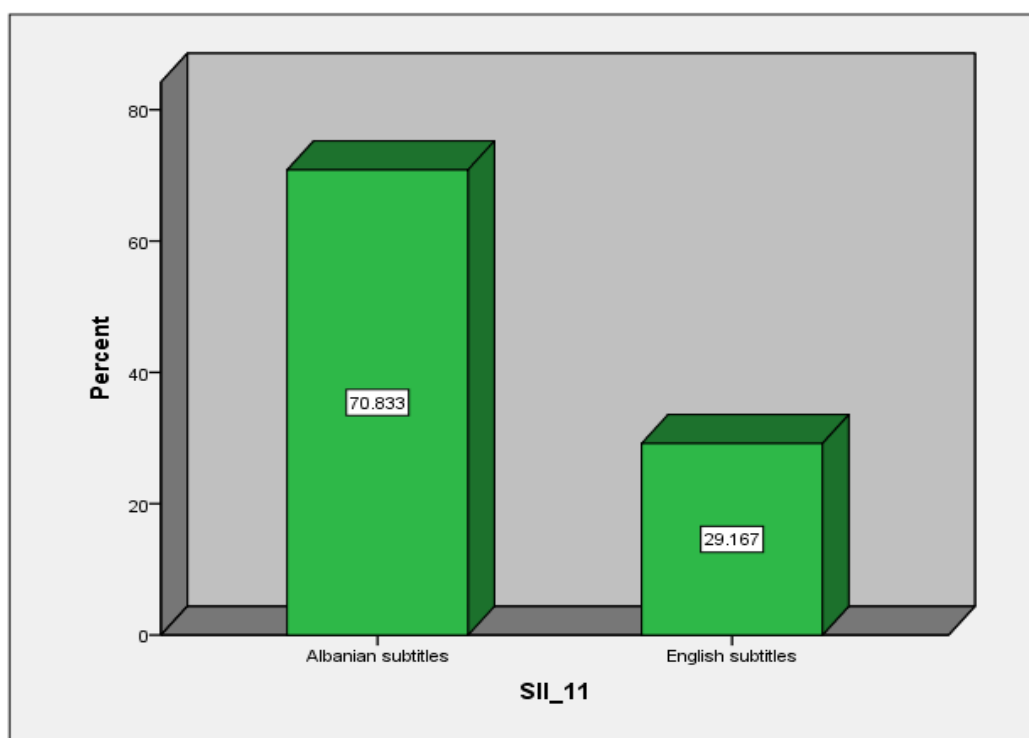


Fig. 27: Students' answers to question: Do you think watching English movies is an effective way to learn vocabulary when watching them with:

Figure 28 shows the distribution of students based on their answers about the usefulness of the movie "Click", which was watched in incidental learning conditions, for learning the meaning of the new words from the movie context. The results show that the majority of students (29.2%) disagree that the context of the movie helped them acquire the new vocabulary. It can be seen from the data in Figure 29 that contrary to the case with the movie "Click", when students watched the movie "Bruce Almighty" in intentional learning conditions, the majority of the students (58.3%) strongly agreed that they were able to guess the meaning of the new words from the movie context.

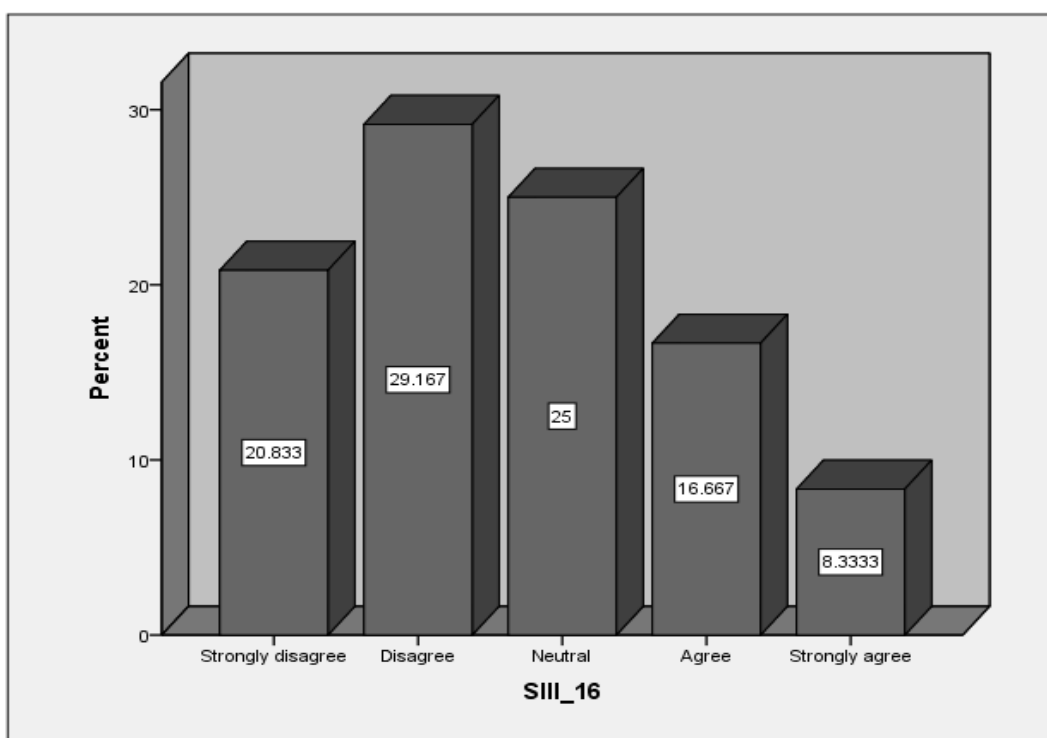


Fig. 28: Students’ answers to question: When watching the movie “Click” I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context.

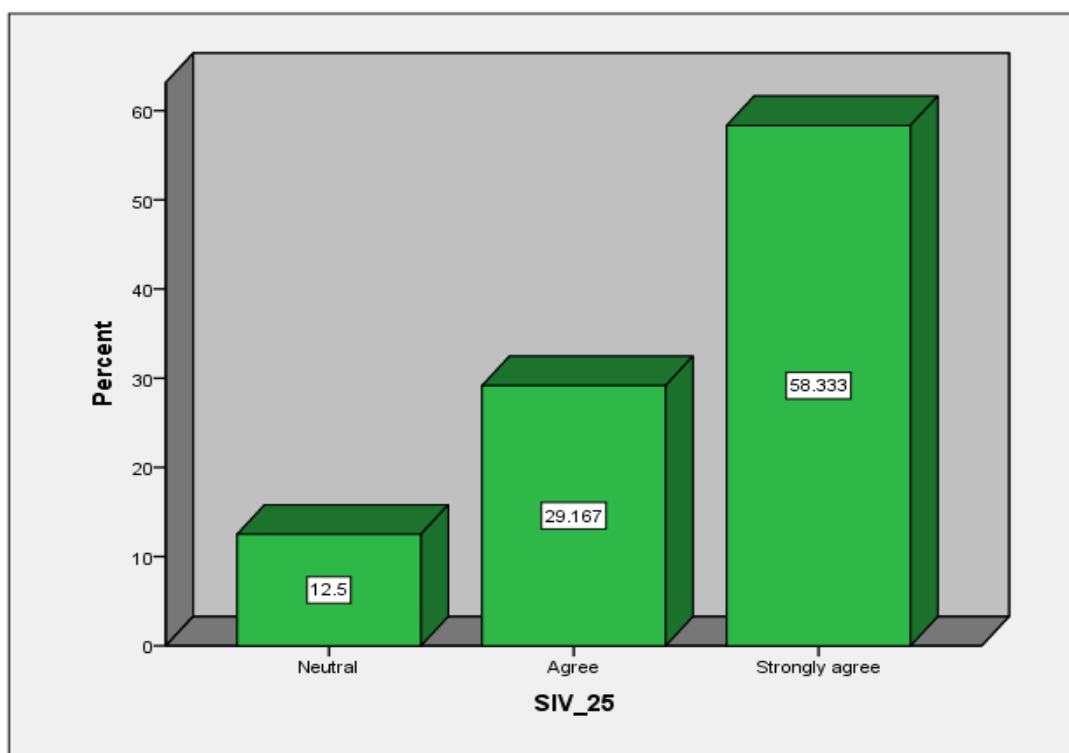


Fig. 29: Students’ answers to question: When watching the movie “Bruce Almighty” I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context.

The results obtained from the students' answers on classifying their experience of watching the movies with the instruction from the teacher, presented in Figure 30 shows that the majority of students (87.5%) agreed that the teacher's assistance had positive effects on their exposure to watching movies. In addition, 70.8% of the students were neutral regarding their experience of watching the movies without the assistance from their teacher (Figure 31).

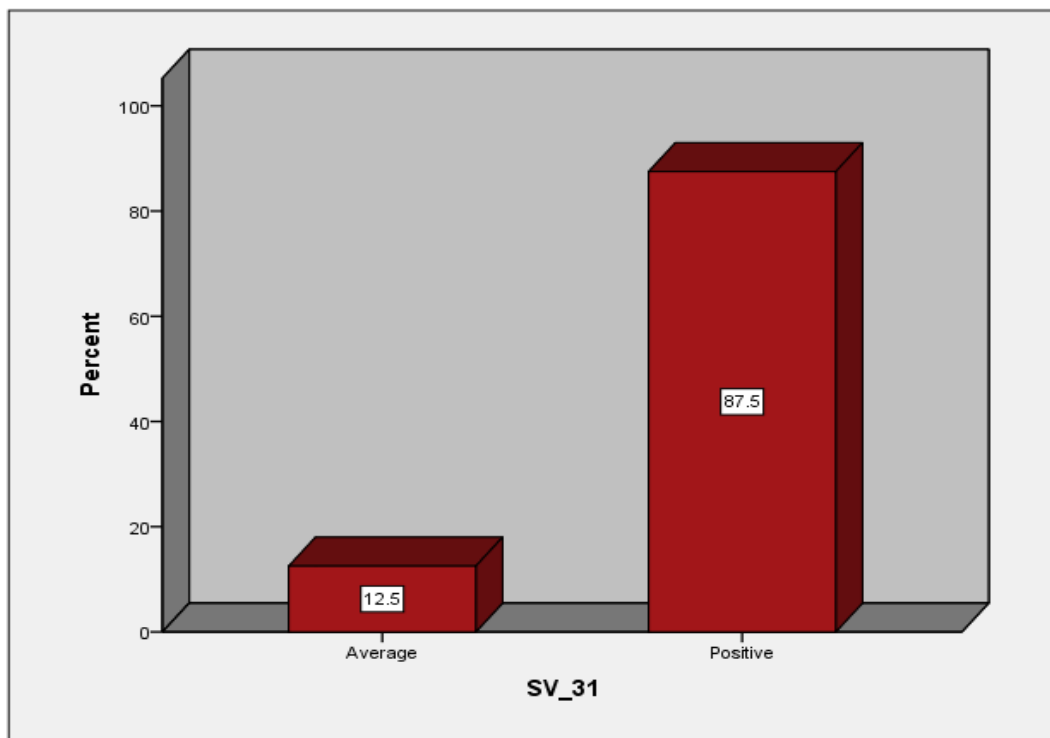


Fig. 30: Students' answers to question: How would you classify the experience of watching the movies with the instruction from the teacher?

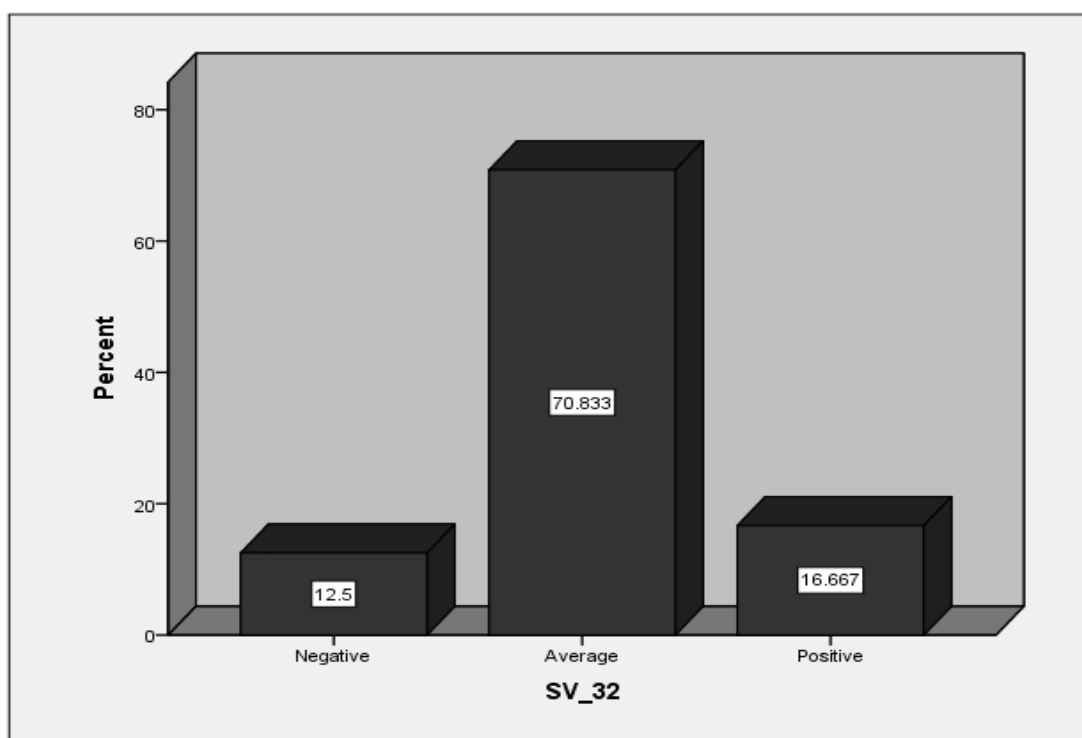


Fig. 31: Students' answers to question: How would classify the experience of watching the movies without the instruction from the teacher?

When it comes to teacher's role on students' understanding of the new vocabulary, the majority of the students (75.0%) strongly agreed that the teacher's assistance was vital and helped them acquire new words (Figure 32). Similarly, 70.8% of the students believed that vocabulary could be learned via movies, both, inside and outside the classroom settings (Figure 33).

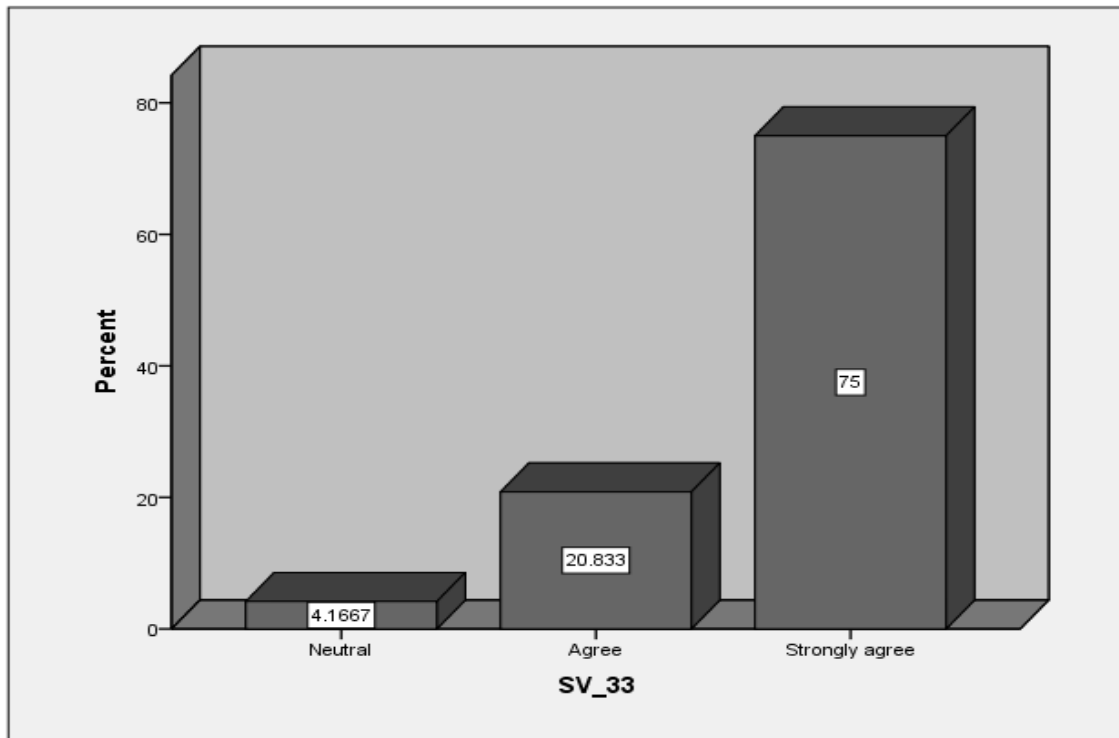


Fig. 32: Students' answers to question: Our teacher had a vital role in teaching the vocabulary and helping us understand them

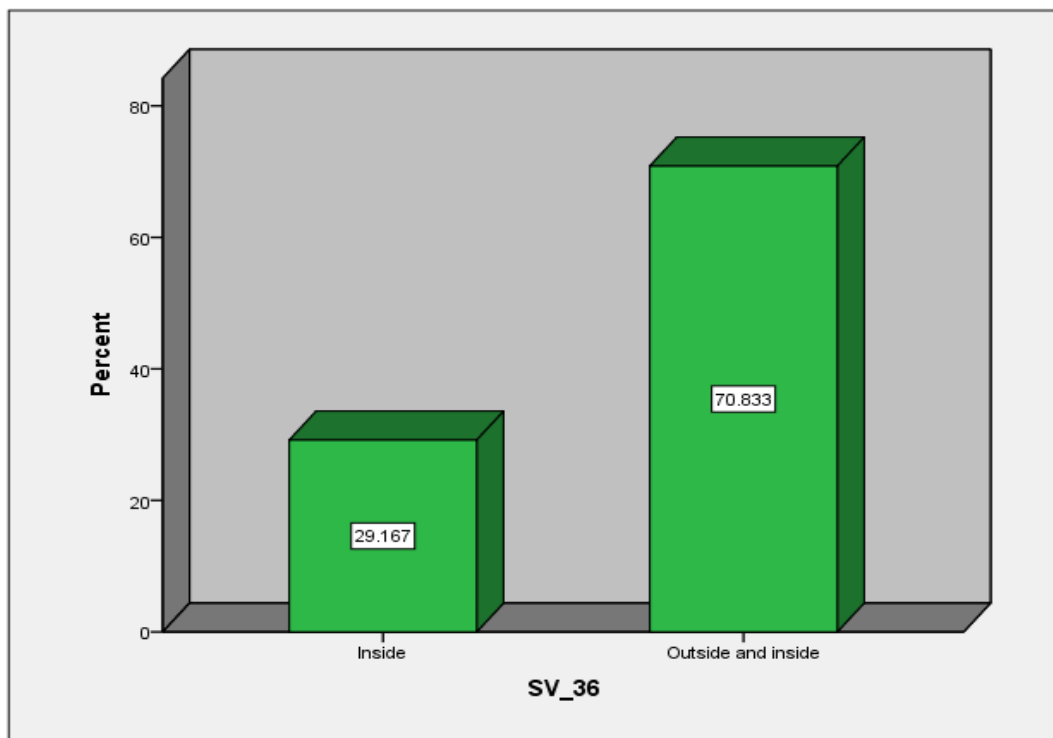


Fig. 33: Students' answers to question: Do you consider watching movies to learn vocabulary is useful inside or outside the classroom?

After collecting all the data from the questionnaire for each student, the results are classified in three levels regarding their attitude towards vocabulary learning. According to Figure 34, 11 or 45.8% of the students have a neutral attitude towards vocabulary learning, 8 or 33.3% of the students have positive attitude and 5 or 20.8% have negative attitude towards vocabulary learning.

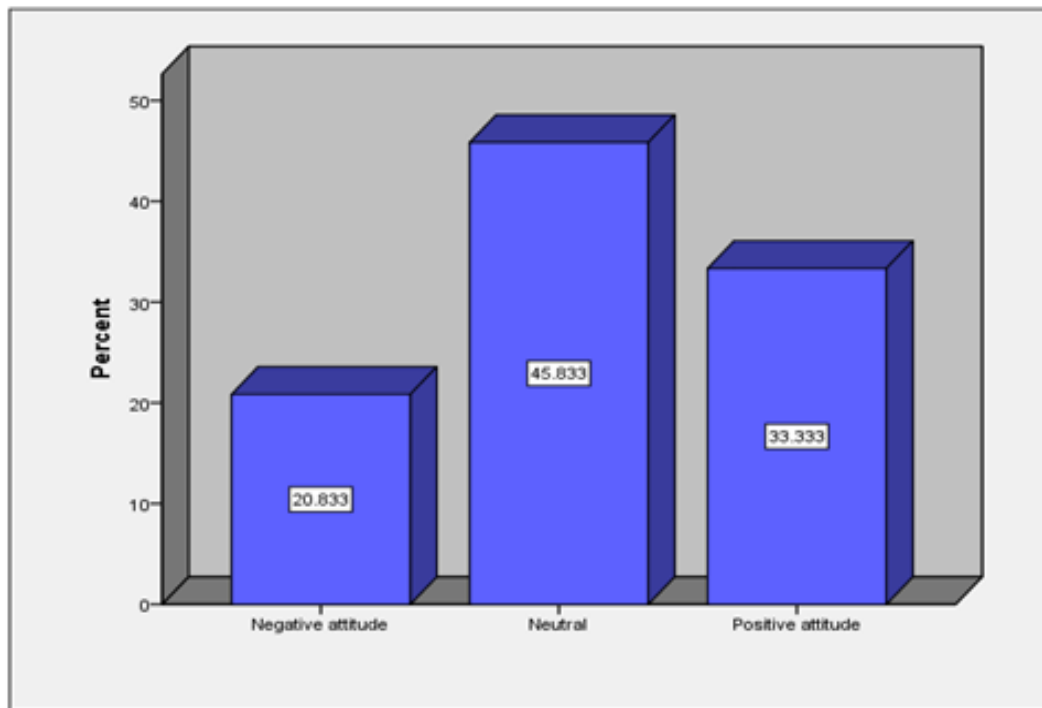


Fig. 34: Students' attitude towards learning vocabulary

The dilemma is whether the levels of student acquisition correlate with the level of total points from the questionnaire (their opinion regarding vocabulary) and the possible link between them. This analysis will be presented with the determination of the Pearson correlation coefficient in the following table (Table 20):

		Total Points in the Students' questionnaire
Pre- Test - Movie Click	Pearson Correlation	.116
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.589
	N	24
Post-Test - Movie Click	Pearson Correlation	.486*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.016
	N	24

Delayed Tet - Movie Click	Pearson Correlation	.511*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011
	N	24
Total Points in the Movie Click	Pearson Correlation	.493*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014
	N	24
Pre- Test - Movie Bruce Almighty	Pearson Correlation	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.955
	N	24
Post-Test - Movie Bruce Almighty	Pearson Correlation	.571**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
	N	24
Delayed Test - Movie Bruce Almighty	Pearson Correlation	.613**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	24
Total Points in the Movie Bruce Almighty	Pearson Correlation	.601**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	24

Table 20: Pearson's correlation coefficient of the total points in students' questionnaire regarding their attitude towards vocabulary acquisition

The statistical analyzes continue with the differences in t-tests, specifically as a result of the scientific dilemma whether there is a significant difference in the level of word acquisition and the level of attitude towards the vocabulary according to the gender of the student. (Table 21).

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total points Click	f	16	40.56	8.555	2.139
	m	8	41.13	8.340	2.949
Total points Bruce Almighty	f	16	52.00	8.230	2.058
	m	8	54.50	10.981	3.882
Total points Questionnaire	f	16	67.69	13.563	3.391
	m	8	71.88	8.061	2.850

Table 21: Group Statistics on students' gender and questionnaire results

In Table 21, in the fourth column are presented the averages for the acquisition of words for the movie "Click" and "Bruce Almighty", and the averages of students' attitudes towards vocabulary acquisition according to their gender.

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Total points Click	-.153	22	.880	-.563	3.675	-8.184	7.059
	-.154	14.439	.879	-.563	3.643	-8.353	7.228
Total points Bruce Almighty	-.628	22	.537	-2.500	3.981	-10.757	5.757
	-.569	11.077	.581	-2.500	4.394	-12.162	7.162
Total points Questionnaire	-.800	22	.432	-4.188	5.234	-15.042	6.667
	-.945	21.107	.355	-4.188	4.429	-13.396	5.021

Table 22: Independent Sample Test on students' gender and questionnaire results

Although at first glance there seems to be a difference between the averages set out in Table 21, the fourth column presents unimportant statistical significance for those differences (being greater than the second reliability limit of 0.05). In other words, the level of word acquisition

and students' attitude towards vocabulary learning does not depend on their gender. Also, based on the differences of the averages shown on Table 24, more specifically based on the ANOVA data in the last column, where the significances are greater than the second reliability limit of 0.05, there is no significant difference, that is, the level of acquisition and the level of students' attitude towards vocabulary does not depend on the type of faculty where the students study.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Total Points "Click"	Law	4	41.00	6.055	3.028	31.36	50.64
	Economics	8	44.75	9.996	3.534	36.39	53.11
	Architecture	7	38.57	6.373	2.409	32.68	44.47
	Food science	5	37.20	8.786	3.929	26.29	48.11
	Total	24	40.75	8.305	1.695	37.24	44.26
Total Points "Bruce Almighty"	Law	4	50.25	8.884	4.442	36.11	64.39
	Economics	8	54.88	9.613	3.399	46.84	62.91
	Architecture	7	52.86	9.281	3.508	44.27	61.44
	Food science	5	51.60	10.310	4.611	38.80	64.40
	Total	24	52.83	9.073	1.852	49.00	56.66
Total Points Questionnaire	Law	4	74.50	9.037	4.518	60.12	88.88
	Economics	8	73.38	11.575	4.092	63.70	83.05
	Architecture	7	64.57	10.097	3.816	55.23	73.91
	Food science	5	64.20	15.707	7.024	44.70	83.70
	Total	24	69.08	11.992	2.448	64.02	74.15

Table 23: Independent Sample Test on students' faculty and questionnaire results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total points "Click"	Between Groups	224.486	3	74.829	1.099	.373
	Within Groups	1362.014	20	68.101		
	Total	1586.500	23			
Total points "Bruce Almighty"	Between Groups	67.651	3	22.550	.247	.862
	Within Groups	1825.682	20	91.284		
	Total	1893.333	23			
Total points questionnaire	Between Groups	526.444	3	175.481	1.262	.314
	Within Groups	2781.389	20	139.069		
	Total	3307.833	23			

Table 24: ANOVA results based on students' faculty and questionnaire results

4.5.2. Teachers' responses

In this section, are outlined in figures the numerical frequencies and percentages of the questionnaire dedicated to English teachers. Only the most relevant questions in the teachers' questionnaire are presented, in order to analyze these elements in more details in the Discussion chapter. The rest of the questions are provided in graphical form in Appendix 13.

Based on teacher's responses, the majority of the teachers (61.9%) prefer using subtitled movies in class (Figure 35). More specifically, 60.3% of the teachers use movies with English subtitles (Figure 36) and agree that subtitled movies have an effect on students' vocabulary learning (Figure 37). The same number of teachers, (60.3%) believe that English subtitles have a bigger impact on students' vocabulary acquisition (Figure 38, Figure 39).

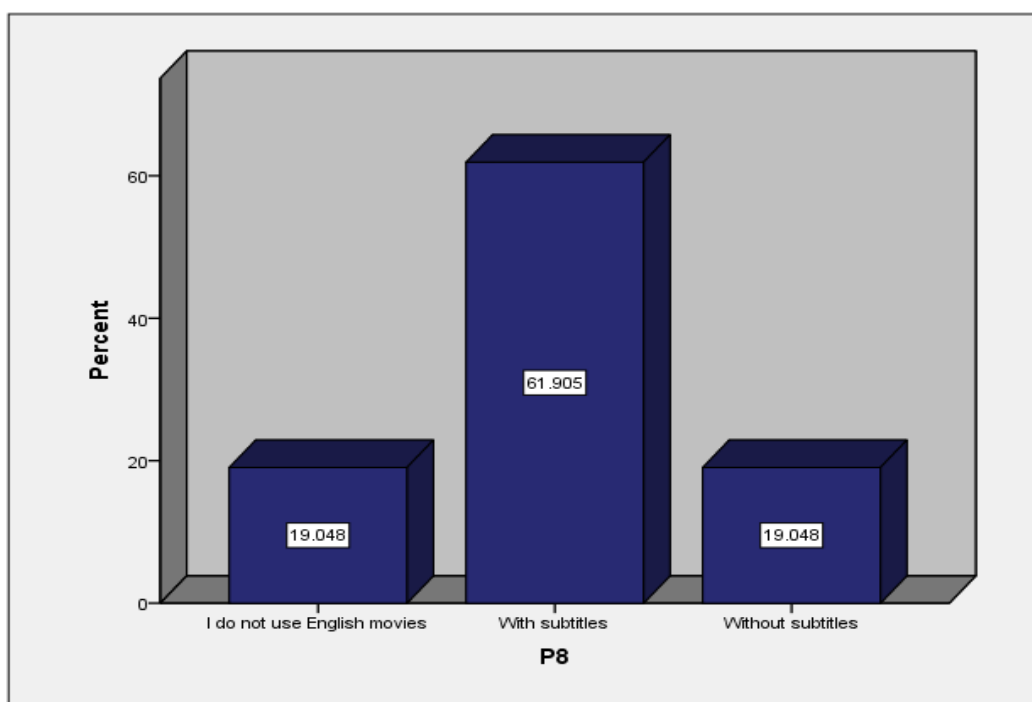


Fig. 35: Teachers' answers to question: Do you use movies with or without subtitles?

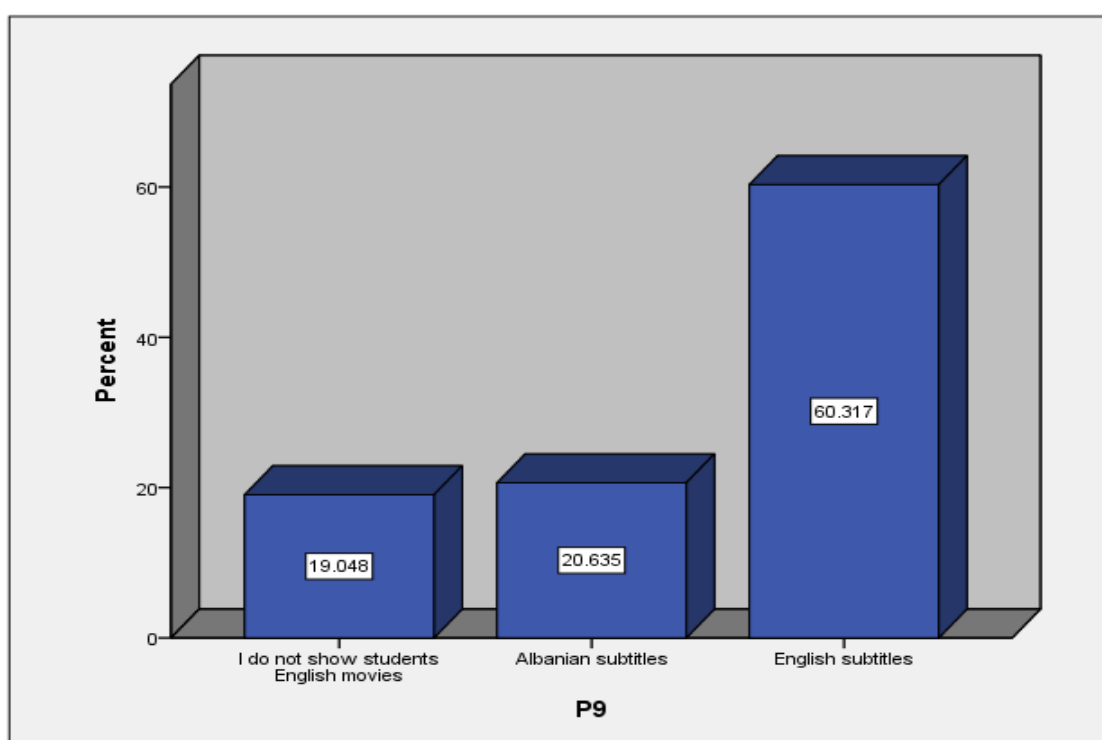


Fig. 36: Teachers' answers to question: What subtitles do you use when showing students English movies?

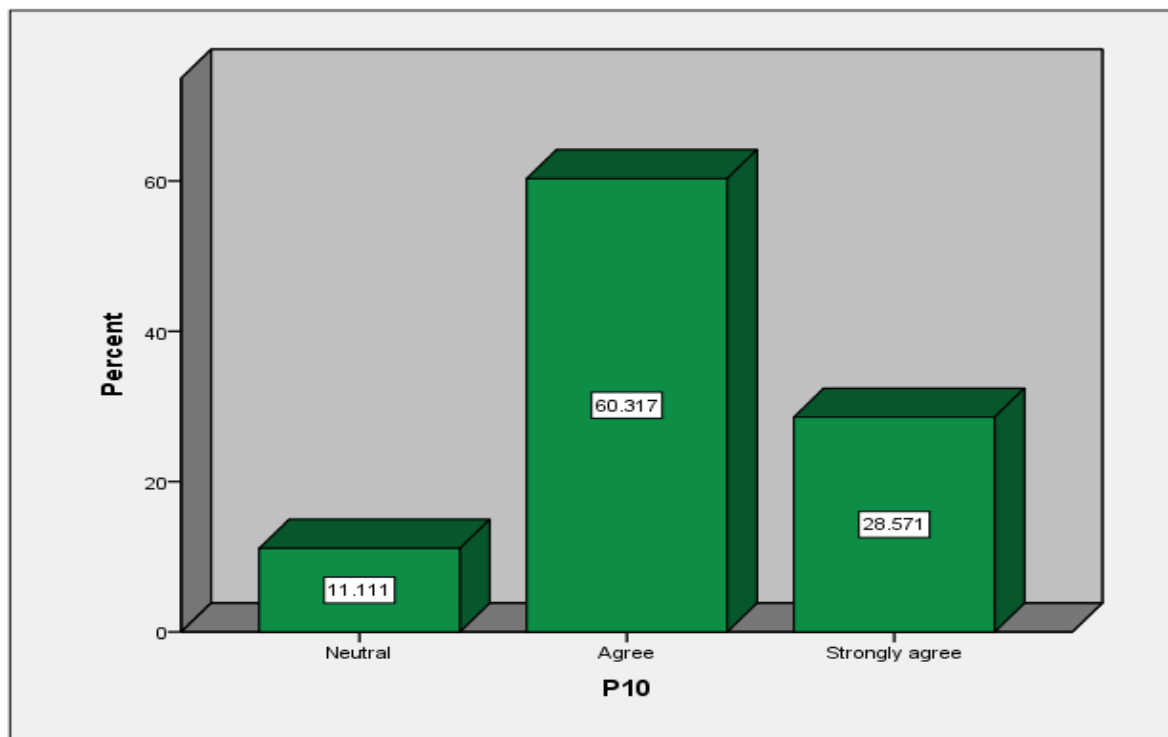


Fig. 37: Teachers' answers to question: Using subtitled movies when teaching English helps students learn new vocabulary.

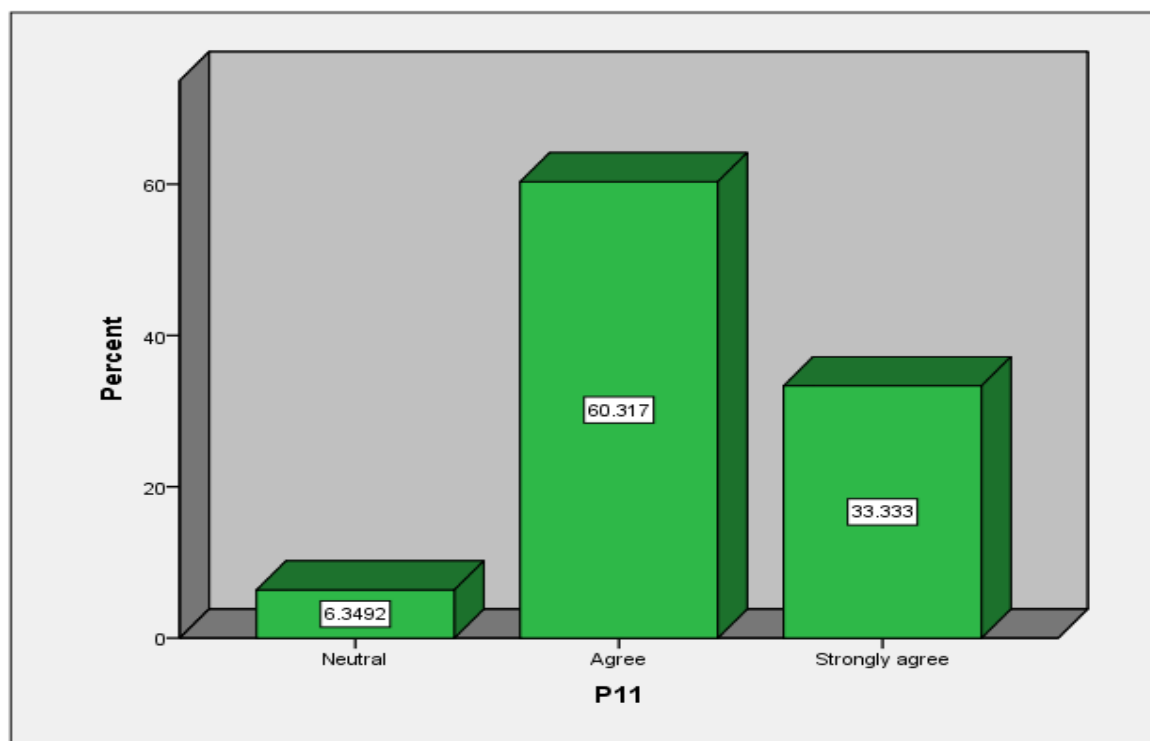


Fig. 38: Teachers' answers to question: Using movies with English subtitles helps students learn new vocabulary.

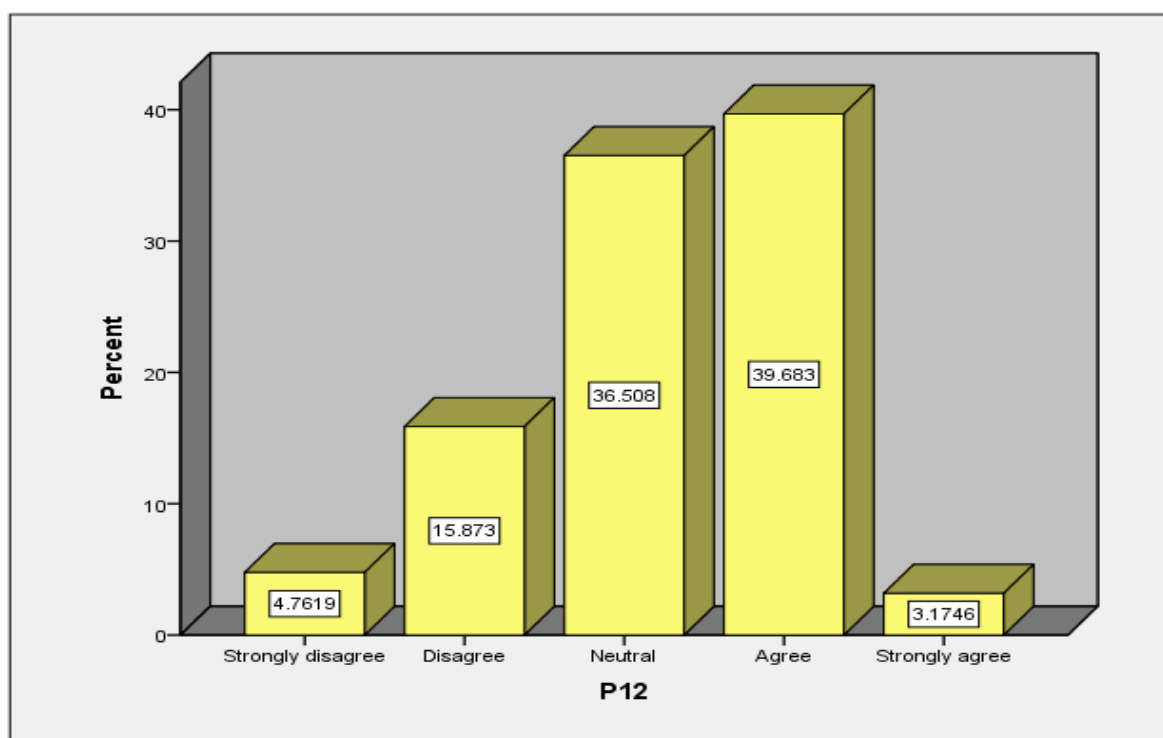


Fig. 39: Teachers' answers to question: Using movies with Albanian subtitles helps students learn new vocabulary.

In addition, the majority of the teachers (68.3%) agree that with the assistance of subtitles, learners can guess the meaning of the words from the context (Figure 40). Also, 81.0% of the teachers stated that watching subtitled movies as a tool for students to learn vocabulary is more useful with teacher's instructions (Figure 41).

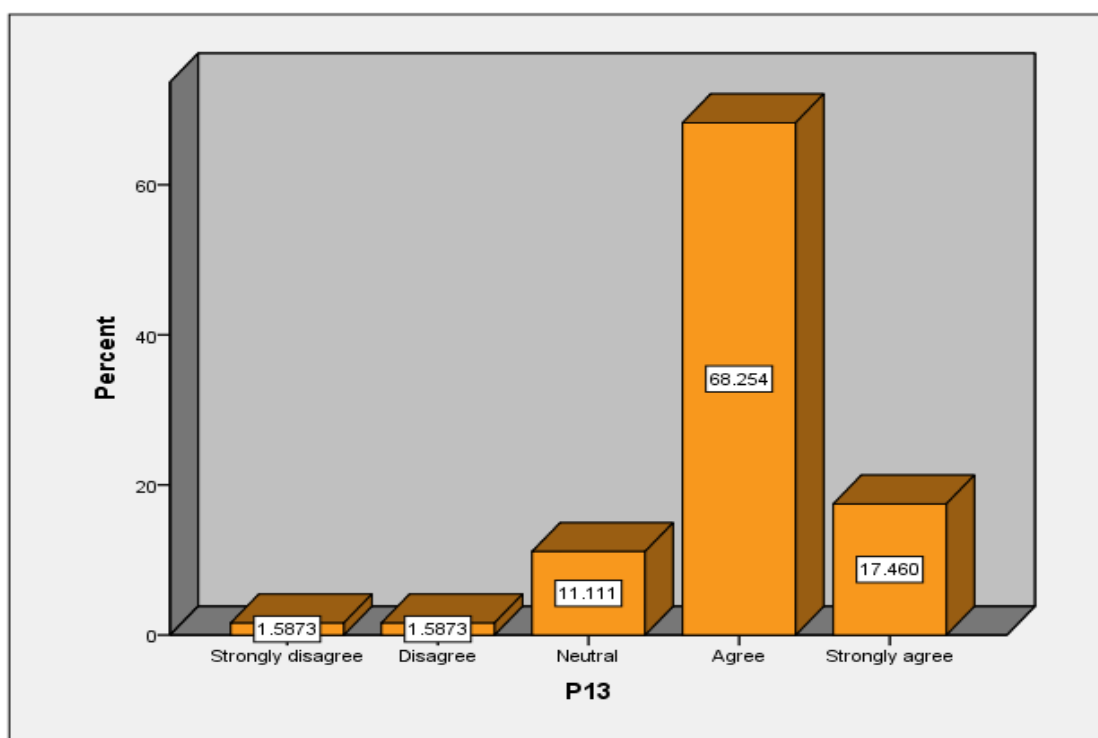


Fig. 40: Teachers' answers to question: When watching subtitled movies students can guess the meaning of the words from the context.

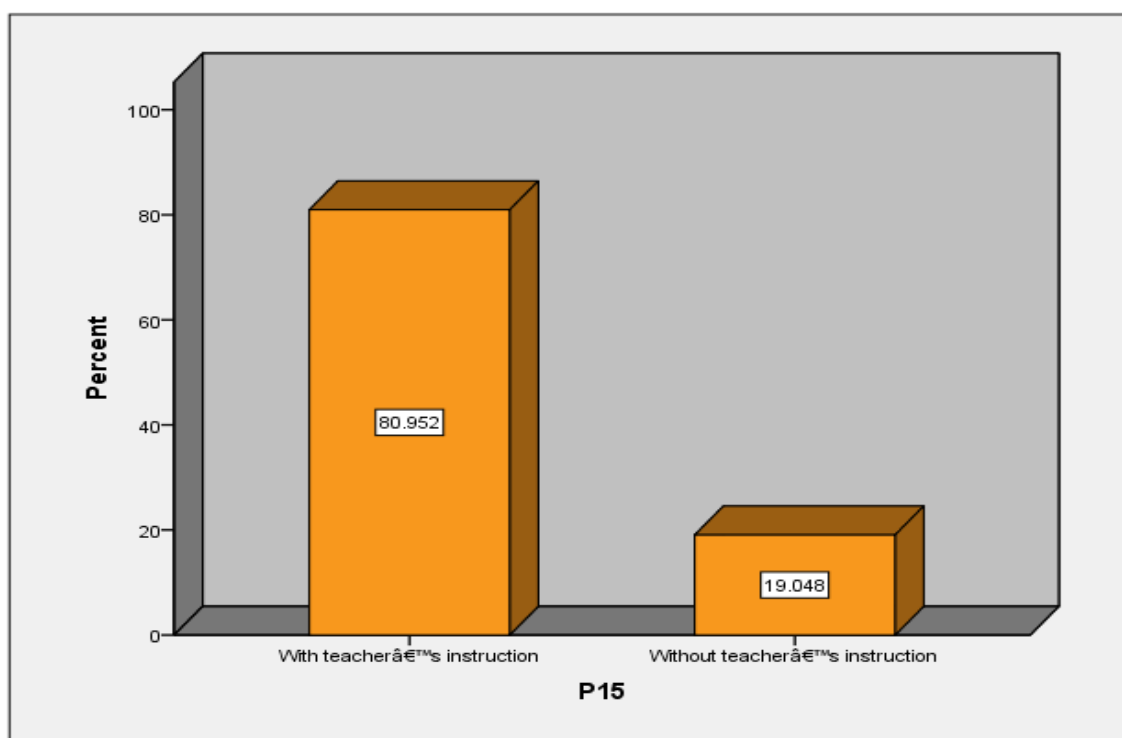


Fig. 41: Teachers' answers to question: Watching subtitled movies as a tool for students to learn vocabulary is more useful:

After collecting and processing the data from the questionnaire dedicated to the teachers, the results are generally categorized in three levels according to teachers' attitude on using movies for vocabulary acquisition. According to Figure 42, 30 or 47.6% of teachers are neutral towards the usage of movies in their teaching, then 21 or 33.3% of the teachers have a positive attitude and use the movies as a helping tool for teaching English language and 12 subjects or 19.0% have a negative attitude towards the usage of movies in the teaching process.

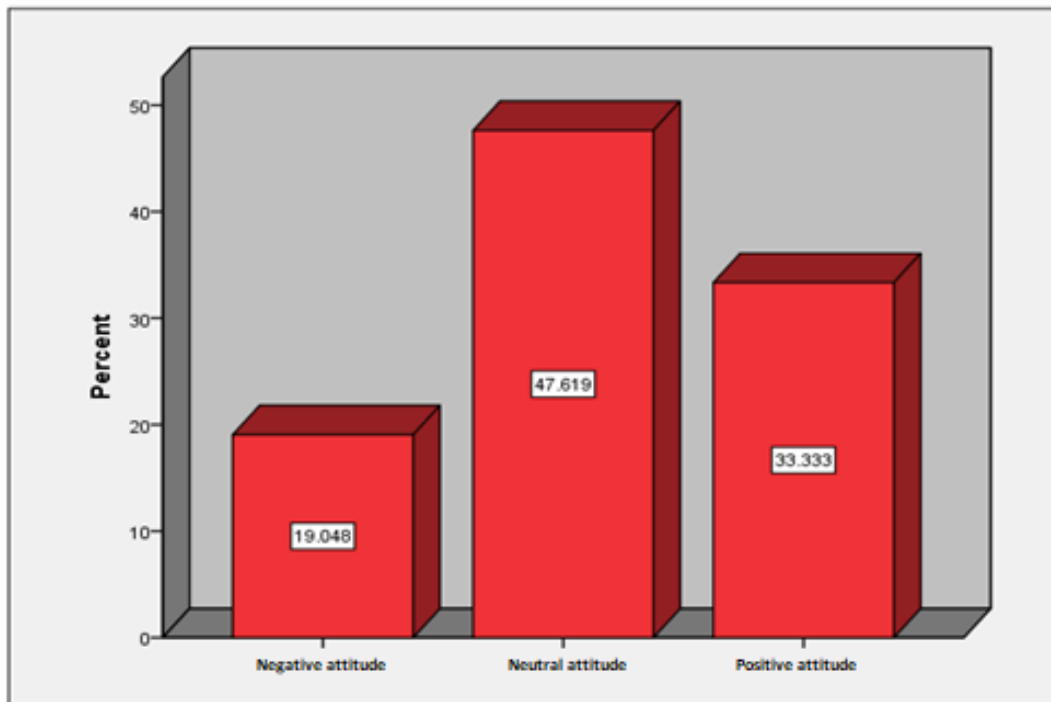


Fig. 42: Teachers' attitude towards using movies in their English Language teaching.

The question is then, whether these attitudes are determined by teachers' gender. In the following analysis, Table 25 represents the average of the teachers' points of view by their gender and according to the results, the number of female teachers is higher than the number of male teachers.

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total Teachers	f	56	34.38	4.853	.648
	m	7	30.29	4.786	1.809

Table 25: Group statistics of teachers' attitude towards watching movies by their gender

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Total	2.105	61	.039	4.089	1.943	.205	7.974
Teachers	2.128	7.627	.048	4.089	1.922	-.380	8.558

Table 26: Independent Sample of teachers' attitude towards watching movies by their gender

In Table 26, the fourth column shows important statistical significance for the second reliability level 0.05 ($0.039 < 0.048 < 0.05$), meaning that there is a significant difference in teachers' attitudes towards using movies in their teaching according to their gender. In other words, female teachers are more positive in using movies as a helping tool in teaching English. In Table 28, in the ANOVA column, the statistical analysis of the differences between the average of the usage of movies by teachers and the educational level they teach, the significance from 0.584 is higher than the second reliability limit of 0.05.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary	24	33.79	5.756	1.175	31.36	36.22	25	44
High school	22	34.73	4.548	.970	32.71	36.74	27	43
University	17	33.06	4.423	1.073	30.78	35.33	24	42
Total	63	33.92	4.978	.627	32.67	35.17	24	44

Table 27: Total Teachers – Descriptive

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	27.340	2	13.670	.543	.584
Within Groups	1509.263	60	25.154		
Total	1536.603	62			

Table 28: Total Teachers – ANOVA

5. Discussions

The present section provides the comparison and discussion of findings and the application of the theoretical framework of this research as it meets the practical implementation of the findings in using movies as means for acquiring vocabulary. In other words, it aims to explain the possible reasons for the obtained results presented in Chapter 4 through the theoretical framework lens of this study and the comparisons with past researches. Besides making reference to the literature, the interpretations will provide answers to the three research questions. This chapter is divided in several subchapters which discuss in more details the important elements supported by this research and facilitate the final conclusions presented in Chapter 6.

5.1. The effects of the different subtitle treatments

5.1.1. The presence of subtitles

The averages of the scores gained in the posttests in both movies, “Click” and “Bruce Almighty” (Table 3 and 4) signify that students performed better when they were exposed to movies with subtitles. More precisely, in the movie “Click”, students who were exposed to English subtitles scored in total 39.63% in the VKS posttest and those exposed to Albanian subtitles scored 47.63% as opposed to the no subtitles group who scored 35.00%. The same case is with the movie “Bruce Almighty” where students of the English subtitles group scored 50.25% and those assisted with the Albanian subtitles group scored 62.63%, whereas the group with no subtitles scored 45.63%. This indicates that the averages of subtitles groups are higher than those of no subtitles in both cases.

More specifically, according to the results presented in Appendix 15, in the movie “Click”, the no subtitles group had better scores (35.40%) in the Level 2 of the VKS posttest and less points in Level 5 (5.20%). The subtitled group had also performed better in Level 2 (38.00%) and obtained

less points in Level 5 (8.00%). Similar scores were reported in the movie “Bruce Almighty” where the no subtitles group had better results in Level 3 (28.20%) and had less points in level 5 (13.50%). Whereas, the subtitled group in the movie “Bruce Almighty” also performed better in Level 3 (26.60%) and had less points in Level 1 (11.40%). It should be also highlighted that the majority of teachers (61.9%) who answered the questionnaire reported that when they teach English language through movies, they use movies with subtitles. Specifically, 60.3% of them believed that using subtitled movies when teaching English helps students learn new vocabulary (Figure 38). This signifies that based on teachers’ experiences, subtitled movies seem more beneficial when it comes to teaching vocabulary.

Furthermore, based on these results, the students in both, subtitles and no subtitles group performed better in the word recognition level (Level 2 and 3) rather than production level (Level 5). However, the subtitled group had slightly better performance when it comes to acquiring productive knowledge of the word (Level 5), i.e. they outperformed the no subtitles group, for a difference of 2.80% in the movie “Click” and 6.30% in the movie “Bruce Almighty”. Also, the fact that when students were exposed to the movie “Bruce Almighty”, they gained the lowest score in Level 1 (Not knowing the word), means that their word knowledge has largely improved after watching the movie with subtitles and with the pedagogical instructions of the teacher. Furthermore, when students were asked about their preference of watching movies, all of them (100%) (Table 35) answered that they watch movies with subtitles. This shows that students are more familiar with watching movies with subtitles and see them as assistive tool when it comes to understanding the plot of the movies.

One of the reasons why the subtitles groups performed better than the no subtitles group is that subtitles make a connection between auditory and visual input (Garza, 1991, as cited in Bensalem, 2016) and thus students were able to perceive the target language speech easily (Mitter and Mcqueen, 2009, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005). While L1 subtitles assisted in creating lexical interference, the L2 subtitles helped speech learning, as they indicate which words and sounds are being spoken (Mitter and Mcqueen, 2009, as cited in Mousavi & Gouhlami, 2014). Likewise, both types of subtitles have been proven to be a better choice for learners when it comes to vocabulary learning, as a result of what Koskinen et al. (1996, as cited in Abdollahpour, 2014, p.264) state and that is “the first language subtitles can assistant students to cross a bridge over a span of intangible meanings whereas the second language subtitles can compensate the students with poor listening for their scarcity of second listening ability”. In other words, the subtitles have assisted learners

with the additional orthographic information that they provide for the words, besides the auditory input (Danan, 2004, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013). In this regards, the learners were able to compensate for the missing information while watching the movie and could make a logical connection between the different types of input (visual, aural and textual). Hence, students were able to hear the word once they saw the written form of that word and vice-versa.

Accordingly, the present research provided solid empirical evidence to support the claim that subtitled movies have a great impact on learners' vocabulary acquisition. Besides, the results of the current study is also supported by a group of previous studies which have reported the same results, i.e. subtitled movies bring better results in students than non-subtitled movies when it comes to vocabulary acquisition. Particularly, this study is in line with Price's (1983, as cited in Rokni & Ataee, 2014) research of a large scale sample of 500 students who concluded that subtitles improve vocabulary comprehension. Moreover, these results correspond with Harji, Woods and Alavi's results (2010, as cited in Jahanyfard, 2015) of 92 students, which show that subtitled videos can indeed affect vocabulary acquisition. Similar results were obtained from Bird and Williams (2002, as cited in Zohdi, 2012) who concluded that when learners are exposed to bimodal mode, i.e. watching videos with subtitles, they learn more words than when they do not have textual assistance.

5.1.2. English and Albanian subtitles

The results presented in Table 3 and 4 report that in both movies, the Albanian subtitles group outperformed students who watched the movies with English subtitles, with 8% (Albanian 47.63% and English 39.63%) in the movie "Click", and 12.38% (Albanian 62.63% and English 50.25%) in the movie "Bruce Almighty". Also, the detailed overview of the results presented in Appendix 15, shows that in the movie "Click", the English subtitles group scored more points (41.70%) in Level 2 and less points (7.30%) in Level 5 of the VKS posttest. Moreover, the Albanian subtitles group scored more points (34.40%) in Level 2 and less points (9.30%) in Level 5. However, in both Level 4 and 5 of the VKS posttest the group exposed to Albanian subtitles outperformed the English subtitled group, (for 5.20% difference in Level 4 and for 2.00% in Level 5).

The same case was in the movie “Bruce Almighty” where the English subtitles group scored more points (27.10%) in Level 2 and less points (15.60%) in Level 1 of the VKS posttest, whereas the group of Albanian subtitles scored more points (33.30%) in Level 3 and less points (6.30%) in Level 1. Similarly, in Level 4 and 5, Albanian subtitles group outperformed the English subtitled group (for 9.40% difference in Level 4 and for 6.20% in Level 5). Hence, in interpreting the findings of the posttests, the Albanian subtitles group performed at a significantly higher level than the English subtitles group which indicates that Albanian subtitles helped learners acquire more vocabulary than the English subtitles. Also, these significant differences appoint to the fact that Albanian subtitles assist learners more in the level of production, whereas the English subtitles group are more inclined in helping learners in improvement to the recognition level.

Moreover, according to students’ answers on their subtitle preference (Figure 26), Albanian subtitles (83.3%) are more favored than the English subtitles (16.7%). One of the reasons for this preference is that movies presented on popular TV channels or online platforms in Republic of Kosovo are usually presented with Albanian subtitles, which creates the comfort of understanding the movie plot in more details. The other 16.7% might represent the number of students who are up to date with movies which can be available online or platforms such as Netflix, with English language subtitles. Similarly, students found the availability of Albanian subtitles (70.8%) as a better assistance in vocabulary learning than English subtitles (29.2%) (Figure 27). The explanation for this might be that students often rely on traditional direct translation of words when learning new vocabulary. Contrary to this, the majority of the teachers who participated in this study (60.3%) stated that they use movies with English subtitles (Figure 36). In addition, they (60.3%) agree that English subtitles help students learn new vocabulary (Figure 38). The reason behind this might be the teachers’ belief that orthographic representation of the words in English subtitles might help learners acquire several word characteristics, such as the spelling, pronunciation and contextual usage.

What also needs to be stressed is that, an important factor of why Albanian subtitles appeared to have better results on students’ vocabulary acquisition than English subtitles is that they are processed automatically and do not interfere students’ cognitive process. Instead, they provided learners with cognitive assistance (Ivarsson & Carrol, 1998, as cited in York, 2016). Also, as learners were more familiar with this type of subtitles, they could very easily adjust to this type of learning. In addition, Albanian subtitles assisted learners in confirming their understating of the meaning of the words they were hearing and helped them follow the plot as well as remember the

words from the context. Moreover, Aloqaili (2015, p.81) justifies the preference of L1 subtitles based on “the link between a concept and its L1 word representation being strong; hence, in order to arrive at a conceptual representation of an L2 word, it must be mediated through L1 word equivalent.”

This study is consistent with numerous other studies which confirm the effectiveness of L1 subtitles as more successful than L2 subtitles when it comes to vocabulary acquisition, such as the study of Kosslstra and Beentjes (1999, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) which reported that 246 Dutch students performed better with the interlingual subtitles. Also, Tsai’s (2009, as cited in Raine, 2012) study on subtitle preference of Taiwanese students gave positive results on interlingual subtitles rather than intralingual subtitles. Likewise, Katchen’s (1997, as cited in *ibid*) Chinese students learned a significantly large number of new words when they were exposed to interlingual subtitles.

5.2. The incidental and intentional vocabulary learning settings

The averages of the scores gained in the post-tests (Table 3 and 4), indicate that the total point average gained in the movie “Bruce Almighty” (52.83%) is higher than the total point average in the movie “Click” (40.75%). Additionally, there is a significant gap between the scores in each subtitle group (English Subtitles = 50.25% in the movie “Bruce Almighty” against 39.63% in the movie “Click”, Albanian Subtitles = 62.63% in the movie “Bruce Almighty” against 47.63% in the movie “Click”, and no subtitles = 45.63% in the movie “Bruce Almighty” against 35% in the movie “Click”). Moreover, Figure 18 shows that the frequency of students’ performance in the movie “Click” “improvement to level of recognition”, is 54.2%, while 41.7% of the students performed in “improving to level of production”. However, 4.2% of students showed negative results, i.e. did not have any improvement in word acquisition. In addition, 9.7% of the students exposed to the movie “Bruce Almighty” gained words in “improvement to production level” and 8.3% improved their vocabulary to recognition level (Figure 16). In this way, the present study provided evidence for the positive effect of intentional learning conditions (in all subtitle treatments) in which students

performed significantly better in the VKS posttest and delayed test than in the incidental learning conditions.

When asked about their thoughts on learning vocabulary outside the classroom 79.2% of the students answered positively, 12.5% were neutral and 8.3% answered negatively (Figure 54). Furthermore, more students strongly agreed about the movie “Bruce Almighty” (33.3%) being more useful in developing English vocabulary (Figure 66) rather than the movie “Click” (20.8%) (Figure 58). Also, 87.5% of the students positively answered about the experience of watching the movie with the instruction from the teacher (Figure 30). They also strongly agreed (75.0%) that the teacher had a vital role in teaching the vocabulary and helping them understand the words (Figure 32). This indicates that students prefer watching the movies for pedagogical gains, in this case learning vocabulary with teacher’s assistance. Furthermore, the majority of teachers (81.0%) also believed that watching subtitled movies as a tool for students to learn vocabulary is more useful with teacher’s instruction which suggests that teachers would most likely engage students in watching movies in combination with classroom activities, rather than assign them watching movies at home (Figure 41).

From the observations of the researcher on how students behaved and interacted with the material, peers and the teacher, there are several factors for the results being in favor of the intentional learning condition. In intentional learning setting students were given assistance by the teacher who tried to elicit from them the target vocabulary and elaborated the discussions in order that the target words could be used more often. Therefore, teacher’s frequent intervention has potentially assisted them in learning the new words. The teacher would also ask students continuously and individually in order to make sure that everybody was engaged in the lesson and understood the content of the movie. Particularly, the Power Point presentation at the end of the movie refreshed their memories of the target words. Thus, students who seemed more passive in the first movie started to be more participative in the second one. Also, the brainstorming activities, taking notes, the teacher giving a summary of the movie, pausing and repeating the scenes are other pedagogical factors which show why intentional vocabulary learning treatment led to better results in the posttest and delayed test. Moreover, students knew they were going to be tested on the same words and were familiar with the process of the VKS testing which might be another element that contributed to the positive outcomes of the intentional learning conditions.

This signifies that students need purpose when they are presented with a learning material, such as movies. In this case, intentional vocabulary learning helped learners get the feeling that

watching the movie has pedagogical goals and they are expected to participate in the lesson and learn something from the movie, i.e. they had an objective that helped them focus on learning the target words. This is in line with Eye (2016, p.14) who states that, “there needs to be a sense of logical function or intent behind the usage of movies for vocabulary acquisition”. In this regards, Schmitt (2008, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005, p.73) adds that intentional vocabulary learning “almost always leads to greater and faster vocabulary gains, with a better chance of retention and of reaching productive level of mastery”. Contrary to this, in incidental learning condition, the students did not know they were going to be tested on the target vocabulary and were not instructed to pay attention to the subtitles or particular highlighted words. Also, they had to deal with the new information on their own which might have made them feel less confident with the material. Additionally, they did not have the chance to practice what they heard, read and saw, in any task based activities.

The results of this study match with Vanderplank’s findings (1990 as cited in Rokni & Atae, 2014) who observed learners’ strategies for intentional decoding while watching subtitled movies and found that using unconscious learning does not assist learners into learning the words from the movie. Similarly, Melodie (2013, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) concluded that, intentional vocabulary learning through movies, particularly, pausing the movie whenever students came across unknown words and keeping a diary had positive outcomes on vocabulary learning.

5.3. The long term memory effects of subtitles on vocabulary acquisition

The averages of the scores (Table 7) gained in the delayed tests, in both, formal and informal settings report the number of words retained in students’ long term memory. The total vocabulary gain in the movie “Click”, that is, the incidental vocabulary acquisition treatment is lower than that of the intentional learning condition, i.e. the movie “Bruce Almighty” for 10.92% (Click 33.75%, Bruce Almighty 44.67%). This signifies that students exposed to subtitles in intentional learning settings remembered the words for the two weeks period of time better than students exposed to movies without subtitles and incidental learning conditions. Now, regarding which type of subtitles generated the best results, these treatments will be discussed separately.

In the movie “Click”, that is, incidental learning condition, in the English subtitles, the smallest decrease was in Level 5, with 2% and there was an increase in Level 2 for 13.5% which means that English subtitles can help students recognize the words they have come across incidentally. In the same movie, the Albanian subtitles had the smallest decrease in Level 4 with 1% which means that they still could remember the meaning of some words, and actually had a gain of 4.1% in Level 2 and 2.1% in Level 3, which signifies that they were confident enough to guess the meaning or state that they recognize the words. This also explains the connection between audio and textual input which have helped students recognize the words.

In the movie “Bruce Almighty”, the English subtitles group had the smallest decrease in Level 3, with 1% and students had surprisingly gained points in Level 4 with 4.10% and Level 5 with 7.30%. Moreover, the Albanian subtitles had the smallest decrease in Level 3 with 5.20% whereas an increase in Level 4 with 5.00% and Level 5 with 6.20%. The fact that students exposed to English subtitles retained the productive knowledge of the words for a longer period of time is as a result of being given sentences in real context in a written and spoken form, whereas in Level 4 Albanian subtitles retained the words for a longer period of time because they had the translated version of the words repeated several times. Also, some of the improvements might have occurred because learners might have checked the meaning of the words after the session, they might have consulted their peers or they have guessed their meaning by coincidence. Even though the decline was expected due to passage of time, still in this research movies had a positive impact on learners’ long term memory. However, based on the significances in Table 11, the differences are not statistically significant so the scores in the delayed test do not depend on the movie treatment, that is in intentional and incidental learning settings. Also the differences on the subtitle type were proven to be insignificant for acquiring words for long term memory, i.e. there is no significant difference when the students are exposed to intalingual, interlingual or no subtitles.

5.4. Krashen’s comprehensible input theory

In this investigation it was also observed the possible differences between the acquisition of all three tests (pre, post and delayed test) according to the word level (B1 – pre intermediate and

B2 - intermediate). Based on the average points obtained from the words from the VKS tests presented in the Table 11, the average score of gained words of level B2 is 96.13% against words of level B1 which is 89.33%. Specifically, in the post test B2 words leads by having 44.73% average and B1 words having 40.11 %, average, as well as in Delayed test B2 words lead by having 40.87% average and B1 words having 36.44% average.

However, this is the case for this study, as the results are statistically insignificant because the significant coefficient is larger than the second reliability limit of 0.05. Hence, the level of the words, be that pre-intermediate B1 or intermediate B2 does not determine the level of word acquisition in this research in all three types of tests. That is, words acquisition does not depend on the possibility of students being exposed to words that are supposed to be known in their current proficiency level or words that are slightly above their current proficiency level (i+1).

In the post test (Table 13), words that had higher gains were Anchorman (B2) with 75 correct responses, "Janitor" B2 with 64 word gains , "Remote" (B2) with 58 word gains and "Prayer beads" (B2) with 52 word gains. However, "Drawer" which was also with high number of word gains (52) is in level B1. In the delayed test, the words that were still remembered with the highest score are "Needle" B2 (11), "Drawer" B1 (11), "Prayer beads" B2 (9) and "Filthy" B2 (8). Some of these are words taken from the movie "Click" and the others are from the movie "Bruce Almighty". This means that there is no correlation between the learning approach (intentional or incidental learning) and the word difficulty (i+1) on vocabulary acquisition.

However, in general, students had sufficient amount of exposure to input in both movies. This supports Krashen's (1985, p.2) theory that "learners need to receive enough language input" for successful word acquisition (either in a written or spoken form) and are involved in activities such as reading, listening and other visual forms that help learning, otherwise acquisition cannot occur (Verspoor et al., 2009, as cited in Kvitnes, 2013). Furthermore, the input was assisted by subtitles which supported it additionally and increased the amount and the chances of this input to be comprehensible. In fact, when exposed to the subtitle treatments, students received three types of input channels (visual, aural and textual). Based on this, they could construct meaning by connecting the three modalities. This is in accordance with Klein's (1986, as cited in Nargis, 2014) suggestion that input needs to be received in parallel to speech input in order that language acquisition is efficient.

5.5. Frequency of word occurrence

Another parameter that might contribute in vocabulary learning is frequency of word occurrence. In Table 14 are given the target words, their proficiency level in B1 or B2, the word frequency (number of occurrence/ repetition in the movie), as well as the points from the pre, post and delayed test. According to the frequencies of word repetition, the words "Anchorman" has the highest repeat frequency and also high acquisition gains in the post and delayed test. Then, the word "Remote" also in comparison to the rest of the words has high repeat frequency and high acquisition gains in post-test and delayed-test. In addition, the word "Wish jar", has a low repeat frequency but has high points in the post and the delayed test, as well as the word "Janitor" with minimum reoccurrence but with high points in the post and delayed test. With that being said, the words that were high in frequency predicted more correct responses. This signifies that there is an important statistical difference between the levels of word acquisition according to the frequency of occurrence in the movies. This occurs in 95% of the sample in this research. In other words, the more often the words are repeated in the movie, the chances are higher that these words are acquired. In addition, the majority of students had not watched the movies they were exposed to, i.e. 79.1% had not previously watched the movie "Click" and 83.33% (Figure 57) had not watched the movie "Bruce Almighty" (83.33%) (Figure 65). This means that they have not been exposed to these words before in the same plot and context.

An important explanation for the positive correlation of word frequency and vocabulary acquisition is that when watching subtitled movies "learners might consistently encounter a particular vocabulary item that is triggered in learners' minds in the same auditory, visual and printed form on each encounter, which allows students to gradually build learned responses" (McLaughlin et al, 1983, as cited in Militello, 2013, p.14). Therefore, when a word appears for the first time in the subtitles, it draws learner's attention to something they do not know. Then, they expand the knowledge of this same word in the second occurrence where they also have the chance to confirm their understanding regarding the word. Ergo, each reoccurrence, extends the knowledge of that word. According to Winke and Gass (2010, p.80) "acquisition is not necessarily instantaneous; it takes time and often requires repeated input, especially when the input comes through multiple modalities". In other words, learners can acquire words if they notice the words repeatedly in a particular context (Schmidt, 2002, as cited in Militello, 2013) which further helps

them store the words from the working memory to the long term memory and helps them transfer the input into intake for learning (Schmidt, 2001, as cited in Lertola, 2012).

The findings from this research shed more light to the study conducted by Ellis (2002, as cited in Kim, 2015) who reported that frequency of words within the material increases the acquisition of vocabulary. More precisely, it is in accordance with the statement that “there is plenty of evidence to suggest that the number of encounters learners have with a word is a major factor whether they learn it or not” (Ellis, 1994, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005, p.75). This study is also in line with Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus’s study (1996, as cited in Kim, 2015) which reported a positive correlation between word frequency and vocabulary learning. Moreover, it supports Bjork & Bjork’s (1992, as cited in Aurstad, 2013) findings which reported that frequency plays a significant impact on vocabulary storage and retrieval. (Figure 43)





Fig. 43: The repetition of the word “Certainly” in different contexts.

5.6. The role of the words’ part of speech on word acquisition

Another element that was observed in regards to word acquisition is related to the possible differences between the acquisition of all three tests (pre, post and delayed test) according to the parts of speech of the words (noun, verb, adverb and adjective). According to Table 17 and the significances which are smaller than the second limit of reliability (this occurs in 95% of sample cases) it is concluded that there is a significant difference in the acquisition of words in the tests depending on the parts of speech of the words. In this light, the most acquired words are first nouns (51.6%), then adjectives (30.5%), verbs (26.2%), and finally adverbs (23.0%).

According to the results, parts of speech had an effect on the participants’ scores in all three treatments (interlingual, intralingual and no subtitles) in the post and delayed test. A good indicator for nouns being the most frequently acquired words is that they represent the simplest structural units in a language. Hence, they are easily processed and stored in students’ lexical memory. Also it depends on the notion of salience and if they are visible to students as an input. Ellis and Collins (2009, as cited in York, 2016, p.51) state that “input with low salience takes more effort to learn, and are thus more difficult for L2 learners to process”. Another reason for nouns having the highest frequency of acquisition is that they are usually content words and are represented visually rather

than as abstract notions. For instance, in Figure 44 is presented an illustration of the visual representation of the noun “Bathrobe”.



Fig. 44. Visual representation of the word “Bathrobe”

5.7. Schmitt’s noticing hypotheses and word recognition

In the posttests, a high percentage of learners’ answers showed that their target word knowledge improved from Level 1 (never seen the word) to Level 2 and 3 (word recognition level), which means that they improved from not knowing the words at all to recognizing them in written or spoken form. In other words, reaching the recognition level means that students have noticed the words and are conscious of their learning. The subtitles group had higher percentage of word acquisition in Level 4 and 5, whereas the group without subtitles improved mostly in Level 2 and 3, as the majority was not able to use the words in grammatically and lexically correct sentences. Specifically, Figure 15 shows that the frequency of students in the movie “Click” "improvement to the recognition level", is 54.2%, while 41.7% of the students are in “improving to the production level”. Also, in the movie “Bruce Almighty” (Figure 16) students have scored 8.3% in "improvement to the recognition level" and 91.7% in “improvement to production level”. This signifies that with subtitles, students are able to see the complete written word forms and not only the spoken

version. In addition to this, when presented with subtitles, ambiguous speech becomes clearer to notice and subtitles help learners identify the words after encountering them. According to Farahani and Sarkhoh “using textual cues help students in textual group to pay more attention to particular items in the given input (2012, as cited in Mashhadi & Jamaliftar, 2015, p.305). This is also in line with Zarei (2009, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005, p.71) who stated that “subtitles’ assist in processing audio-visual input, and increase the comprehensibility of the words, and hence are more likely to be noticed by the participants; otherwise the words may be lost in the stream of auditory input”.

Furthermore, during the class observations, students commented that they knew the words and stated that they had heard or seen them somewhere in the movie but could not recall their correct translation or usage in a sentence. Hence, this study shows that students in general were better at recognizing the words than actually using them for production. In this regards, Schmitt (2008, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005, p.73) comments that “the productive mastery of words cannot be acquired automatically after mere exposure, and that productive mastery is much more difficult than receptive mastery (recognizing a word)”. With that being said, students are required to be more engaged with the words, they need to be exposed to them in different context and use them in activities that require production in order that they acquire the productive word knowledge.

Learners in the intentional learning conditions had the chance to productively use the words in tasks such as class discussions. In incidental learning settings as a result of the lack of such activities students scored less points. Another factor could be that in the intentional learning treatment, target words were highlighted so the students could notice the words that they were required to learn and could take notes about the same, which could later help them recognize the words in the post and delayed tests. Besides these, students that were not presented with subtitles (either Albanian or English subtitles) might have found it difficult to recognize the words that were articulated during the movies.

Generally speaking, this study is in line with Schmitt’s (1990) noticing hypotheses which states that in order that acquisition occurs, learners need to notice the items they are being taught and to be consciously participating in them. In accordance with this, Militello (2013) also affirms that when learners are exposed to watching intralingual subtitled movies, noticing occurs because the text is paired with the sound and the visual cues which makes the input more salient and more likely to be acquired. This way, learners can notice both, the written and spoken form of the words which “draws learners’ attention to unknown lexical items and makes them become conscious of

these new lexical items” (ibid, p.11). Similarly, Canning-Wilson (2002, as cited in Mardani & Najmabadi, 2016) added that “visual aids of movies reinforce the word acquisition and makes sure learners recognize the vocabulary which in turn infers word meaning when presented to them”.

5.8. The effects of multimodality on word acquisition

It comes as no surprise that the mediating role of multimedia is vital in this research. By having the multimodality channels, students could match what they heard with what they saw on the screen which helped them create a link between the form and the meaning. In other words, by being exposed to multiple channels, students were able to build their aural comprehension in relation to the multimedia they were presented with, which also assisted them in getting greater depth of processing. Additionally, the paralinguistic cues presented through the multimedia helped learners clarify the meaning of the words. Hence, they were able to process the verbal and visual model by visualizing the events and characters in context and make connection between the different stimuli.

Accordingly, the combination of auditory channel (sound), the nonverbal visual channel (image) and the verbal visual channel (subtitles), represents a combination of input that lead to a more successful vocabulary acquisition. Particularly, when exposed to interlingual subtitled movies, students could also interact with the input as they were engaged with translating the language rather than only watching the visual and aural representation of movies. Likewise, if they failed to hear the words, they could easily rely on the written form of the words (subtitles).

The present study confirm the results of Bianchi and Ciabattin’s (2008) research, which explains that the correspondence between the visual and aural information supported comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. In the same vain, Danan (1992, as cited in Zanon, 2006) reports about the usefulness of subtitled movies, by saying that the visual associations along with the subtitles and sound, encourage retention since they provide immediate meaning of the words. This study is also in line with Baltova’s (1999, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005, p.32) suggestion that “the three channels combined might well create a better environment for learning than exposure to un-subtitled video or written text accompanied by visual information”. A perfect example of a

correspondence between visual and verbal representation of the words which help students guess the meaning of the words is presented in the scene in Figure 45.

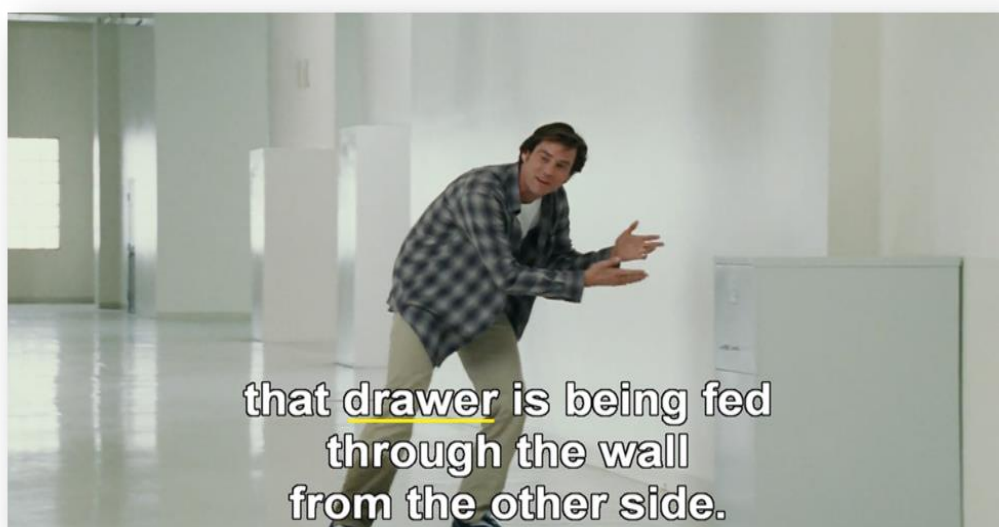


Fig. 45: The visual and textual correspondence of the word “Drawer”

5.9. Paivio’s dual coding theory and cognitive load theory

Based on the results of the positive effects of subtitles, this study supports Paivio’s dual coding theory (1971, as cited in Gorijan, 2014), which assumes that students build connection between visual and nonverbal representations by coding the input in the dual system and classifying them in more than one way in the brain. Specifically, this study supports Sirmandi and Sardareh’s (2016) conclusion that interlingual subtitles can cause better processing and recall due to image and translation effects. In other words, the translation has linked the two verbal systems which have contributed on retrieving the words (Paivio, 1986, Danan, 1992, as cited in Danan, 2004).

Also, based on the questionnaire results, 87.4% of the students who were exposed to subtitled movies, strongly disagreed that subtitles on the screen distracted their attention on the audio. This signifies that the visual and written input they received did not cause a cognitive overload but rather bridged the gap in the limited working memory. One factor might be that the

plots, events and characters presented visually have assisted in acquiring the new words. Also, “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” (Aloqaili, 2005, p.79). In other words, learners nowadays use digital devices where they are exposed to multimedia and textual input at the same time so they are used to processing different modes of input quickly and simultaneously.

5.10. The overall comprehension of the content

Based on the questionnaire results, for the statement if students felt that the movie was difficult to understand, 33% disagreed for the movie “Click” (Figure 61) and 45.8% disagreed for the movie “Bruce Almighty” (Figure 69). This signifies that the assistance of the teacher during the movie “Bruce Almighty” might have helped learners in understanding the content of the movie in general. More specifically, in the movie “Click”, the mean score of students who strongly disagreed with this statement from the group of English subtitles was 37.5% and 50% from the Albanian subtitles group. Likewise, in the movie “Bruce Almighty” a strong disagreement was stated by 50% of the students from the English subtitle group and 87.5% from the Albanian subtitle group. However, the majority (37.5%) of the students from the no subtitles group in both cases (in the movie “Click” and “Bruce Almighty”) agreed that the movies were difficult to understand. This means that subtitles, specifically interlingual subtitles contribute to the comprehension of the content they are exposed to.

A good reason behind this is that while being assisted by mother tongue language, learners are more likely to understand the whole plot. Also, in general the visual and auditory assistance, such as gestures, facial expressions and body language presented throughout the movie could aid the understanding of the plot. Moreover, the presence of subtitles might have ensured conscious monitoring of the speech (Vanderplank, 1988), and “have bridged the often sizable gap between the development of skills in reading comprehension and listening comprehension” (Garza, 1991, as cited in Perez et al., 2013, p.731). Furthermore, this study supports the findings of Nigoevic, et al. (2014, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016) which showed that learners who were assisted with subtitles

found it easier to understand the content and the overall meaning of the movie whereas those without subtitles faced difficulties in answering the comprehension questions. In the same regard, Vanderplank's (1988) study also affirms that subtitles enable students to follow the content of videos, especially with fast authentic speech and unfamiliar accent. Similarly, Vulchanova et al. (2005, as cited in York, 2016) found that interlingual and intalingual subtitles had a great effect on the comprehension of the plot of the movies.

5.11. Students' motivation

The questionnaire results report that students demonstrated positive attitude towards watching movies. These results indicate that movies are generally enjoyable and stress-free materials which generate students' motivation in both cases, intentional and incidental vocabulary learning environment. Based on the questionnaire results, 66.6% of the students agreed that the content of the movie "Click" (Figure 62) was interesting, whereas 75% of the students strongly agreed that the content of the movie "Bruce Almighty" (Figure 70) was interesting. Also, regarding the question if learning vocabulary while watching the movies was interesting 50% strongly agreed for the movie "Click" (Figure 63), and 58.3% strongly agreed for the movie "Bruce Almighty" (Figure 71). This indicates that in both cases, students perceived movies and vocabulary learning through movies as interesting pedagogical tools that can be used with the assistance of the teacher. This might be as a result of the teacher providing backup information for understanding both the plot and the words. Based on the researcher's observations, in both cases, movies created relaxing atmosphere and being exposed to comedy movies provided learners with a lot of laughter. Even though in both cases learners had high level of engagement, when the lesson was instructed by the teacher this engagement was higher as he tried to involve every student and thus there was a lively interaction in the classroom.

There are several reasons why students were generally motivated to learn when exposed to watching the movies. First of all, the movies that were chosen were appropriate for their age (thus could potentially address their interests and emotions) and contained interesting plots, hence attracted their attention and made them laugh. In other words, being curious to know what is going

on in the movie has a great potential in raising students interest in the material which positively facilitates comprehension. Also, movies as great variation of learning vocabulary, enhanced students' understanding of the language in meaningful and authentic context without any traditional rote memorization, which can be demotivating for the students. As such, this enjoyment leads to construction of meaningful learning which helps words to be stored in learners' long term memory through an impressing and meaningful experience (Mianto, 2015). In this light, Stoller (1988), Allan (1985) and Champoux (1999) point out that "movies diversify the curriculum and bring variety and entertainment into the classroom and makes it easier for the teacher to handle abstract themes and topics" (as cited in Ruusunen, 2011, p.62). In addition, one of the few factors why students might have felt frustrated when exposed to watching movies for learning vocabulary is because of the authenticity of the material, i.e. students' could not cope with the great amount of input without any textual assistance.

Moreover, as the subtitled group performed better than the other two groups, Danan's (2004, as cited in Aloqaili, 2005) suggestion is that this can be as a result of movies creating low-anxiety environment' which impacts on students' affective learning. This study is also in line with Borrás and Lafayette's (1994, as cited in Militello, 2013) study which reported that learners who were exposed to subtitles had more positive attitudes than those who did not have access to them. Therefore, movies raise learners' interest level, since they are media that "attract the human psyche as they thrill, motivate, shock, entertain and render the masses powerless to resist the temptation of the silver screen" (Macwan, 2015, as cited in Kabooha, 2016, p.253).

5.12. Learning from the context and authenticity of the movies

According to the results of the frequency of word acquisition (Table 6) the six most acquired words from both movies were "Anchorman" (72), "Janitor" (64), "Remote control" (58), "Prayer beads" (52), "Drawer" (52) and "Wish Jar" (52) which are visually presented in Figure 46. These results signify that the most acquired words were the words which were presented in intentional learning condition and seemed to make a big deal in the movies (such as the words "Anchorman" and "Remote control") which also indicates that the assistance of the teacher through elicitation of

the words from the context and elaboration of the plot has potentially helped them understand the words contextually. Another assistance might have been the direct correspondence between the audio and visual assistance of the target words.

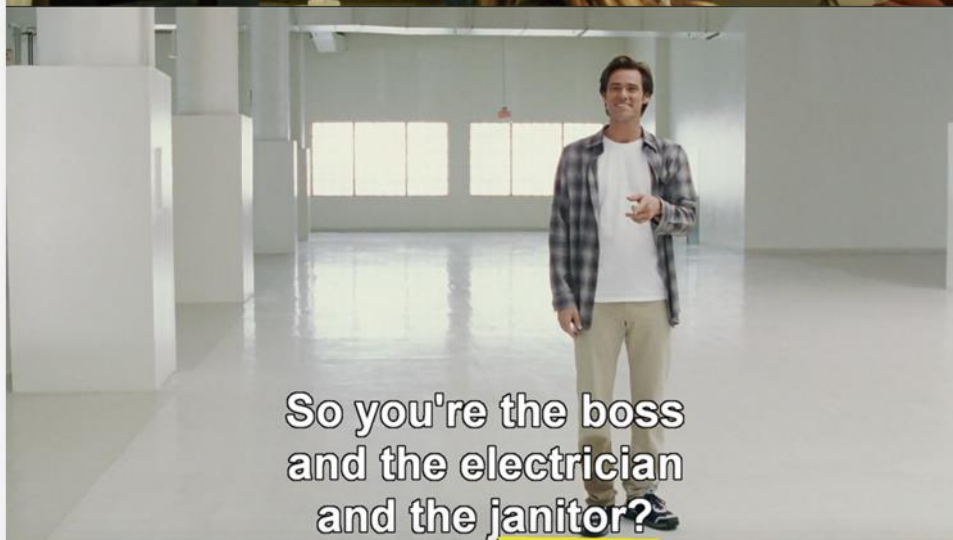
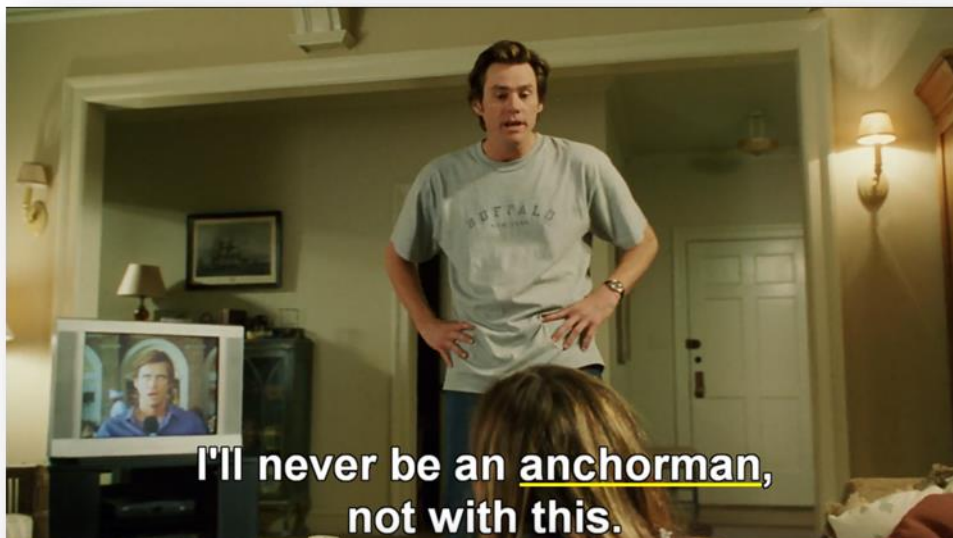




Fig. 46: The most acquired words presented in visual contexts.

Whereas, the six least acquired words were “Wipe” (7), “Sew” (10), “Stack” (12), “Pale” (13), “Groom” (17) and “Certainly” (18) which shows again that words that were supposed to be acquired spontaneously, in the incidental learning conditions, did not give the expected positive results. The presentation of these words in visual contexts are shown in Figure 47.





Fig. 47: The least acquired words presented in visual contexts.

In relation to the questionnaire statement, “When watching the movie “Click” I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context” (Figure 28), most of the students disagreed (29.1%) or were neutral (25.0%) whereas, when watching the movie “Bruce Almighty” (Figure 29), 58.3% of the students strongly agreed that they were able to find the meaning of the words from the contexts. These results also prove that students felt they could acquire the words based on their contextual representation, when they were assisted by the teacher.

Generally speaking, with the affordances of multimodality of movies, students had the chance to interact with the input in real context and could interpret the meaning of the words from the visual contextual clues. In other words, students were able to understand the words from peoples’ facial expressions and gesticulations. They could also rely on the characters’ body

language for the details and the context cues which helped them make different interpretations of the words. In this regards, the visual cues of both movies were highly facilitative. Thus, this study is in line with the statement of Al-Seghayer (2001, as cited in Kaboocha, 2016, p.254) who confirms “that the integration of movies in the EFL classrooms is one of the most effective methods in teaching vocabulary as it provides learners with a rich context that includes a variety of interesting methods to recognize and learn vocabulary”. Possible explanations why some students were not able to acquire the words from the context could be that the conversations might have been in a fast pace so the students were limited in time to find the meaning of the words. Also it could be based on Kaivanpanah and Alavi’s (2008, as cited in Tsai, 2010, p.20) suggestion “that deriving the meanings of unknown words from context is not reliable even if the images clearly present what is said”.

5.13. Students’ and teachers’ experiences and attitudes towards subtitled movies

Regarding students’ experiences with movies, the majority of the students (37.5%) stated that they watch movies for enjoyment. It may also be assumed that the results were due to some factors like not having enough time for watching movies. As the majority of the students were first year students, they were trying to get used to the new environment and focus on studying, thus perhaps they do not have time to watch movies either for fun or for studies. Nevertheless, the frequency of watching movies for enjoyment did not predict if students are inclined to acquiring more words, even though, according to Webb & Rodgers (2009, as cited in Ina, 2014, p.82) “if students regularly watched TV, this could have a significant effect on the amount of vocabulary acquired”.

This is due to the assumption that if learners receive more exposure to English movies, they are more inclined in getting used to acquiring new words in different contexts. Specifically, Tahir (2015) suggests that being a heavy watcher (people who watch movies very often) is a good approach to learn English language quite fast as very often people unconsciously develop strategies in coping with new language presented in the movies. Furthermore, 75% of the students agreed that they have previously watched movies in English classes which represents a positive situation

where teachers engage students in watching movies for language learning purposes. Also, 54.1% of students agreed that they use subtitled movies to learn English vocabulary which indicates that some of the students consciously watch movies in order to learn vocabulary.

The rationale behind surveying teachers in this study was to gather general data of teachers' experiences and attitudes towards using subtitled movies in their teaching. According to the questionnaire results, the majority of teachers (52.4%) agreed that they use movies in teaching English. However, most of the teachers were neutral about using movies (34.9%) and planning movie lessons being time consuming (31.7%). They also agreed that finding suitable subtitled movies is difficult (38.1%) and that subtitled movies used in classes are difficult to relate to the curriculum (34.9%). On top of that, 82% of the teachers answered that they have not been trained to use subtitled movie materials. Also, the majority of the teachers (87.3%) stated that they have not been trained to create subtitled movie materials but agreed (31.7%) that they have the necessary equipment in the classroom in order to use subtitled movies when teaching English.

Even though the majority of teacher respondents were positive regarding the usage of movies in their teaching, some of the factors behind the negative results is that teachers can be often overloaded with work and they have lack of time in finding or creating lesson plans that will include movies for teaching vocabulary. Moreover, they are often expected to follow the curriculum and cover all the material in the course books so they do not have time for extra activities or space to be flexible with their teaching methods. In addition, potential reason could also be that students often perceive movies as entertainment without any pedagogical values and thus they do not take them seriously. Another indicator might be that it is often difficult to combine the course book contents with specific movies about which they also need to be careful regarding the copyright issues. Other than that, even though the majority of the teachers reported that they have the necessary equipment for including movies in their teaching, they still need guidance for using this equipment effectively. Hence, since teachers lack teaching techniques that maximize the use of movies for vocabulary learning, there is a need for teacher training seminars regarding this issue and perhaps some readymade materials which will be in accordance with specific curriculum.

6. Conclusions

In this chapter, a summary of the findings of the present research are provided first. Furthermore, research limitations and suggestions for further studies are presented. In addition, possible pedagogical implications of the usage of subtitled movies are also shown, followed by general conclusions on the usefulness of subtitles for vocabulary acquisition.

6.1. Summary of research and main findings

Besides providing a systematic review of theories and recent studies related to the usefulness of subtitled movies on vocabulary acquisition, this thesis addressed and analyzed different factors that have an effect on this matter. In this regards, the observations confirmed some of the benefits of subtitled movies for vocabulary acquisition. In order to examine these benefits in real classroom settings, a case study was implemented. This study involved 24 students of the pre intermediate English proficiency level, divided in three groups, exposed to three different treatments (i.e. movies with English, Albanian, and no subtitles). All three groups were shown two feature movies, “Click” in incidental vocabulary learning conditions and “Bruce Almighty” in intentional vocabulary learning conditions. Twelve words from each movie were chosen as target words that were unknown to all the students. VKS tests were given to students to fill in before and after the treatments, in order to compare the results and see if there has been any significant differences in vocabulary acquisition. Students were also asked to fill in questionnaires regarding their attitudes and experiences with subtitled movies which contributed in analyzing the research data in more details. To briefly recap the findings, this research focused on answering the following research questions:

1. Does watching subtitled movies help learners acquire more words than watching movies without subtitles?

The findings of this study indicated that the vocabulary gains of the students in the subtitles groups were higher than the scores of the students exposed to movies without subtitles. This is as a result of the subtitles providing a logical connection between auditory and visual input, which helps students perceive the spoken utterances more easily. In other words, through subtitles students received orthographic information of the words and were able to compensate for the information they missed while watching the movies.

2. Is there a difference in the degree of vocabulary acquisition when watching subtitled movies based on the different subtitling?

The Albanian subtitles group performed significantly better than the English subtitles group, which indicates that interlingual subtitles helped learners acquire more vocabulary than the intralingual subtitles. A good reason behind this is that interlingual subtitles are processed automatically and do not interfere students' cognitive process but instead help them understand the content of the movie. Also, these significant differences appoint to the fact that Albanian subtitles assist learners more in gaining vocabulary knowledge in the level of word production, whereas the English subtitles group are more inclined in helping learners improve to the recognition level of knowing words.

3. Is there a difference in the amount of vocabulary acquisition in incidental and intentional language learning through watching movies based on the presence/absence of subtitles?

The present study provided evidence for the positive effect of intentional learning conditions (in all subtitle treatments). This indicates that students performed better when watching the movies for pedagogical gains, in this case learning vocabulary with teacher's assistance and at the same time when they were accompanied by subtitles. In this light, the assistance from the teacher was important in grasping students' attention on the target words. This means that different intentional learning activities such as: brainstorming, taking notes, the teacher giving a

summary of the movie, pausing and repeating the scenes are pedagogical factors which contribute to vocabulary acquisition.

4. Which type of movie watching mode leads to a more successful vocabulary acquisition for long term retention?

Based on the results of this study, the differences of the scores gained in the post test and delayed test are not statistically significant. Hence, in this study the long term effects of vocabulary acquisition when exposed to subtitled movies does not depend on the movie treatment, that is in intentional and incidental learning settings. Similarly, the differences of the scores based on the subtitle type were proven to be insignificant for acquiring words for long term memory, i.e. there is no significant difference when students are exposed to either interlingual, intralingual or no subtitles.

5. Other important factors investigated in this study:

a) Krashen's comprehensible input theory

Even though while watching the movies students were exposed to sufficient input presented in different channels (spoken, visual and textual), this study found that word acquisition does not depend on the possibility of students being exposed to words that are supposed to be known in their current proficiency level or words that are slightly above their current proficiency level ($i+1$).

b) Frequency of word occurrence

Based on the findings of this research, there is an important statistical difference between the levels of word acquisition according to the frequency of occurrence of the words in the movies. In other words, the more often the words are repeated in the movie, the chances are higher that these words are acquired. The explanation behind this is that when a word appears the first time in

the subtitles, it draws learner's attention to something they do not know. Then, the students are able to expand the knowledge of this same word in the second occurrence where they also have the chance to confirm their understanding regarding the word. Hence, for each reoccurrence, the students extend the knowledge of that word as they encounter the word in different contexts.

c) The role of the words' part of speech on word acquisition

The results obtained from this study signify that the part of speech of the target words had an effect on the participants' vocabulary acquisition in all three treatments (interlingual, intralingual and no subtitles), and in both the post and delayed test. A good indicator for this was that nouns represent the simplest structural units in a language. Hence, they are easily processed and stored in students' lexical memory.

6.2. Limitations

This research has raised several limitations which need to be taken into account before generalizing the findings of this study. Ergo, the results of this study might have been different given the changes on the following circumstances:

a) *The methodological procedures*

The methodological procedures used in this study are inclined towards analyzing more quantitative data. Regarding this, Ellis (2004, as cited in Hicking, 2015) suggests that instead of solely quantitative approach, a mixed method approach should be used which also facilitates triangulated data collection. Even though, researcher's observations and field notes were used as instruments for gathering detailed information on students' experiences, to gather more qualitative data, the involvement of interviews might have served as a great supplement to the questionnaire and the test results.

b) VKS Tests

There are several remarks regarding the usage of the VKS Test for testing the knowledge of words, one of which is that “it is doubtful whether learners’ developing knowledge of second language words can be meaningfully represented by a single linear scale” (Yuksel & Tanriverdi, 2009, p.52). Likewise, Waring, (2002, as cited in Aloqaili, 2015) criticizes VKS by arguing that this test is largely focused on students’ receptive knowledge, using only 4 stages for its development, out of which only one stage demonstrates student’s productive knowledge and thus lacks internal consistency. In other words, the VKS tests measured only students’ understanding of the meaning of the target words rather than other important word characteristics, such as word pronunciation or the multiple meanings of polysemantic words.

c) Questionnaires

The question items included in the questionnaire targeted factual information only. No questions referred to learners explanatory statements regarding their experience of subtitled movies which might have served as a great support for analyzing the collected results.

d) Comprehensible input theory

According to the test results, there was no significant differences regarding the acquisition of the target words of different proficiency levels, i.e. B1 or B2 words. One limitation might be that the choice of words might have not really constituted the comprehensible input ($i+1$) for the students. Regarding this, Raine (2012, p.38), points out that “firstly, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to determine exactly what Krashen's (1991) ' $i+1$ ' means with regard to the English level of learning materials. Secondly, it is possible that the limited exposure to the target vocabulary in the treatment video, pretests and posttests was not sufficient to cause the target vocabulary to be committed to memory or even noticed at all”. He also adds that another possible reason is that students’ language proficiency level might not be adequate to allow them to benefit from watching the movie for incidental vocabulary acquisition.

e) Movies

Even though the researcher tried to find adequate movies that would suit participants' needs, one limitation might be that in the movie "Bruce Almighty", the accent of the main actor Jim Carrey, who is from Canada, differs from the American English, which the participants are more likely to be familiar with.

f) Participants

In this study, the small sample size can be non-representative of the target population and thus lacks statistical significance. Therefore, the research results might have yielded different findings if more participants were involved in the study. Moreover, the findings of this thesis cannot be generalized to learners at a different level of English language proficiency as this study was focused only on students of the pre-intermediate level. Also, the number of female and male students in this study was not equal. If it was the opposite, the researcher would be able to analyze the data regarding which gender group is more likely to acquire more vocabulary when exposed to watching subtitled movies.

g) Sessions

This research included relatively short duration of the experiment sessions. In order to yield significant vocabulary gains, students might need longer exposure to watching movies. This could also serve learners as a training of how to maximize the usage of movies as authentic material, when they are assisted by subtitles. For instance, the students who participated in Neuman and Koskinen's (1992, as cited in Raine, 2012) study were exposed to several English language movies over a 12 week period and benefited significantly from this experience.

6.3. Recommendations

As this study has several limitations, it needs to be refined and extended in more details. In this section are presented few fruitful avenues for further investigation. Hence, future researches could address the following elements pertaining to the use of subtitled movies for vocabulary acquisition:

a) Participants

First and foremost, it would be preferable if there is a larger and more representative sample size, in order to guarantee a greater degree of reliability of the results obtained. Also, a study on different age groups can be conducted to see if there is any difference of the impact of subtitled movies on vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, testing this problem with high school or even elementary school students can bring different comparable results. Furthermore, the participants of this study were of the same English language proficiency, and thus did not yield any results regarding the role of learners' proficiency which would lead to a more valid manifestation of the usage of subtitled movies for vocabulary acquisition. Accordingly, research findings might differ if the same study is conducted with students of different proficiency levels.

b) Sessions

Future studies are recommended to use longitudinal exposures of students in watching movies, in order that cumulative effects are evaluated. In such cases, learners might be given the chance to become more familiar with the effective strategies of using subtitled movies. This would contribute in enabling students with the necessary skills to get the best of movie watching experiences.

c) Target words

The results of this study do not show if there has been any other learning gains besides the target words which were predefined. In this regards, it might have occurred that learners “have noticed and established form-meaning connections of other words in the videos they were not familiar with” (Perez, et al., 2014). Accordingly, in further studies, researches can incorporate more target words and provide a larger variety of words. Also, to test a greater number of exposure to the target words (i.e. the impact of word frequency of occurrence in the transcripts in relations to the vocabulary gains), the same movies can be watched more than once.

d) Materials

Future studies can replicate the methods used in this research to discover the usefulness of other types of subtitles for vocabulary acquisition, such as reversed subtitles, keyword subtitles and dual subtitles. Also, Bensalem (2016) suggests that it could be interesting to study the way learners deal with controllable subtitles, that is the ability to turn them on and off, in order to investigate under what conditions do students rely on the subtitles. Another point to be considered for further studies might be to test whether similar results would be attained if the students were shown cartoons, documentaries or news, or even more specifically the affordances of different movie genres can be also explored in regards to vocabulary acquisition. Likewise, an entire season can be shown to students, over a longer period of time. This exposure could benefit students as they get familiar with the plot in every episode and get used to the movie characters. In addition, a diverse set of words could be used during the whole season. Similarly, readymade video materials from a commercial publisher of ESL (Jahanyfard, 2015) might bring different significant results.

e) Instruments

Future researchers are encouraged to use other instruments that could improve or develop more precise and effective measurements of students’ knowledge of words and their pronunciation. Accordingly, besides the VKS test, future researches can employ tests containing different formats, such as fill in the gaps, multiple choice or true or false items. It would be

desirable to have instruments that can test a more integrated component of language skills, productive and receptive knowledge of words. Moreover, to draw more robust conclusions, what Taylor (2005, as cited in Winke & Gass, 2010) suggests is to test “what precisely are learners focusing on when they look at captions” and “can learners be trained in effective use of captions? This would also help compare the learning strategies of students when exposed to movies with subtitles. Furthermore, to identify clearer patterns and draw conclusions which might be more relevant, Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, (2013, as cited in Perez, et al., 2014) suggest that “the availability of on-line measures such as eye-tracking might shed more light on the time learners spend on the captioning line and provide an objectified measure to study the role of attention in vocabulary learning”. Also, in order to have more specific results, participants could be exposed to watching movies in separate computers with headphones. This way they will have the chance to pause the movie and replay specific scenes.

6.4. Pedagogical implications for teaching practice

The findings of this study provide language instructors with a number of important implications for future practice and apprehension of how to efficiently use subtitles for teaching vocabulary. In addition, these implications can also serve as a guide for course materials experts. Hence, a few suggestions that need to be followed to set up effective language learning experience are presented next.

Generally speaking, according to Talavan (2010, p.289), “in order to understand the potential usefulness of the pedagogical applications of subtitling and subtitles in language learning, a series of aspects needs to be defined: (1) software used, (2) subtitling mode, (3) type of subtitles, (4) video clip features, and (5) type of learning tasks”. More specifically, teachers need to provide stimulating activities which will initiate students’ interaction by promoting a more active approach to teaching vocabulary via subtitled movies. This in turn will initiate active participation from the students who will know what is expected from them to learn and will make the movies more educationally relevant. According to Davis (1998, p.1), “the key to using video effectively still lies in the teacher's ability to not only deliver the message, but to empower students to receive it”. In

other words, students need to be given the opportunity not to associate watching movies only as an entertainment and a chance to stay passive. Instead, teachers need to carefully select and prepare the material in advance and use various teaching strategies and tasks which will provide the necessary guidance for the students. This way, students will use efficiently the benefits of subtitled movies.

Teachers need to find movies with high quality in order to attract students' interest. Furthermore, these movies need to be relevant to students' age, language proficiency and interest. When selecting movies, teachers need to be careful that the content is neither too easy, nor too difficult, so the students will not feel overwhelmed with the material. Even though movie sources, for today's teachers are immense, the duration of movies is one of the issues that teachers usually confront. In this regards, since classes usually last 45-60 min, it can be challenging to link the movies with the curriculum. Another reason is that textbooks have a vital part in language instructions and often there is no sufficient time for exposing students to vocabulary acquisition via subtitled movies. In such cases, Matijevic and Ostojic (2009, as cited in Ivankovic, 2016, p.7) recommend "using clips in duration from five to 15 minutes, after which there is plenty of time to do additional exercises planned by the teacher". In addition, particular scenes can be chosen for particular learning goals.

Teachers are suggested to recommend students different intentional learning strategies that could help them pick up new words. This way students will be explicitly aware of clues in how to find the meaning of the words form the movie contexts. Therefore, learning can happen when students know how to take advantages of these strategies. Also, "it is useful for students to learn cognitive and metacognitive strategies to make predictions with the help of visual clues and their background knowledge, to rely on the words that they know or are familiar with, to know how to watch videos, decide on what to listen to and how many times listen to it, and to choosing the right strategy when listening to different videos" (Thompson & Rubin, 1996, as cited in Jahanyfard, 2015, p.9).

Another beneficial techniques can be for the teachers to pre teach the target words before students watch the movies. Also, they need to choose movies with enough and clear language input as well as speeches with understandable and normal pace. Similarly, careful selection of target words is also needed which can also be highlighted so students can pay special attention to them. It is also suggested that teachers chose words that occur more frequently. Similarly, teachers need to make connections with the previously learned lesson so the new words can be put in

practice and transferred into their real lives. And lastly, the teacher needs to devise means of assessing students' progress regarding vocabulary acquisition when exposed to subtitled movies.

6.5. General conclusions

Vocabulary acquisition, as a pillar of language learning and teaching process is an integral component in developing learners' language competences. Specifically, it is of a vital importance for developing the four language skills (writing, reading, listening and speaking) as well as communication abilities. However, learning vocabulary is a rather challenging task and new ways of teaching vocabulary are more than welcome. The ever increasing development of technology has brought vast changes in language learning and teaching process and complements the conventional methods used for vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, technology provides learners with vast opportunities and exposures to language in real context via different authentic materials.

Particularly, movies represent a powerful tool for facilitating spontaneous vocabulary acquisition with immense importance and series of unique advantages. Movies bring enjoyment and pleasure to learners and refreshing new experiences. They play a significant role in lowering students' affective filter as they make students feel comfortable and relaxed. Also, great contribution in this regards have shown subtitles which facilitate greatly the vocabulary acquisition. This is as a result of learners gaining vocabulary by trying to improve their overall comprehension of the material content. In this way, students acquire the vocabulary in real context and different situations with samples of authentic communications. Besides the fact that students get to see the real usage of the target vocabulary, they also acquire insight towards the culture of the people who speak the target language.

Considering all these elements, studies regarding the impact of subtitled movies on vocabulary acquisition have received little attention among scholars in Kosovo. Hence, the present study took a further step to help fill this gap by investigating the many benefits that this medium can bring in the classroom. The findings of this research aims to imply overall discussion of the benefits not only for teachers, but also learners as well as curriculum and course designers who need to develop materials that will include subtitled movies as a part of the curriculum. "Therefore,

just as vocabulary teaching and learning should not be divorced from the classroom setting, vocabulary teaching and learning should not be separated from the use of authentic videos in class.” (Talavan, 2007).

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8. Appendixes

Appendix 1 - “Outcomes” series - Placement Test

Administration

Each student should be provided with a photocopy of the **Placement Test**. Test administrators may prefer students to mark their answers on the photocopy of the test itself.

The test administrator should read the instructions aloud and make sure that students know where and how to record their answers. Students should then be given 50 minutes to complete the Placement Test.

Scoring

Students are awarded one point for each correct answer, according to the **Answer Key** provided and 2 points for each correct answer in the reading comprehension.

Results

The chart below suggests which level of the *Outcomes* course would be most appropriate for a particular student, based on that student’s total score on the Placement Test.

Placement Test Results	
Placement Test score	Recommended level of <i>Outcomes</i>
0– 10 points	<i>Beginners</i>
11– 20 points	<i>Elementary</i>
21– 30 points	<i>Pre-Intermediate</i>
31– 40 points	<i>Intermediate</i>
41– 50 points	<i>Upper Intermediate</i>
51– 60 points	<i>Advanced</i>

Name: _____ Date: _____

PLACEMENT TEST

Circle the correct letter.

- 1 I'm 18 and my brother is 20, so he's..... me.
a the oldest of **b** older than **c** as old as
- 2 Carl's very He's never late, and he never forgets to do things.
a reliable **b** patient **c** strict
- 3 We stayed in a lovely villa the sea.
a it overlooks **b** overlooked **c** overlooking
- 4 Not until the 1980s for the average person to own a computer.
a it was possible **b** was it possible **c** was possible
- 5 Jan her arm on a hot iron.
a broke **b** burned **c** sprained
- 6 Tomorrow's a holiday, so we go to work.
a have to **b** mustn't **c** don't have to
- 7 I usually swimming at least once a week.
a go **b** do **c** play
- 8 My friend Siena to Russia last year.
a went **b** has gone **c** has been
- 9 This is area, with a lot of factories and warehouses.
a an agricultural **b** an industrial **c** a residential
- 10 If I well in my exams, I to university.
a will do; will go **b** will do; go **c** do; will go
- 11 She was so upset that she burst tears.
a into **b** out **c** with
- 12 Where did you go holiday last year?
a for **b** on **c** to
- 13 Ocean currents play an important part in regulating global climate.
a are known to **b** thought to **c** are believed that they
- 14 My cousin getting a job in Bahrain.
a would like **b** is planning **c** is thinking of
- 15 I can't your hair, because I haven't got any scissors.
a brush **b** cut **c** wash

- 16 I wish I have an exam tomorrow!
a don't **b** didn't **c** won't
- 17 The government plans to taxes on sales of luxury items.
a increase **b** expand **c** go up
- 18 When I first moved to Hong Kong, life in a different country was very strange, but now I'm used here.
a living **b** to live **c** to living
- 19 There milk in the fridge.
a is some **b** are some **c** is a
- 20 Criminals are people who are guilty of the law.
a breaking **b** cheating **c** committing
- 21 Why on earth isn't Josh here yet?for him for over an hour!
a I'm waiting **b** I've been waiting **c** I've waited
- 22 "It's pouring down, and it's freezing." What are the weather conditions?
a high winds and snow **b** heavy rain and cold temperatures **c** thick cloud but quite warm
- 23 feeling OK? You don't look very well.
a Do you **b** You are **c** Are you
- 24 Daniel's hair is getting far too long; he should soon.
a cut it **b** have cut it **c** have it cut
- 25 Mandy works for a computer software company. She got recently, and so now she's an area manager.
a made redundant **b** promoted **c** a raise
- 26 I can't hear you – it's noisy in here.
a too **b** too much **c** too many
- 27 Jamal has just sent me to arrange plans for this weekend.
a a blog **b** an email **c** a website
- 28 I promise I'll call you as soon as I
a I arrive **b** I arrived **c** I'll arrive
- 29 Photographers and designers need to be very
a creative **b** fit **c** annoying
- 30 The global financial crisis, is forcing lots of small businesses to close, does not look set to end soon.
a it **b** that **c** which
- 31 There a terrible accident if the pilot hadn't reacted so quickly.
a had been **b** was **c** would have been

- 32 "Are you ready to order?" "Not yet – I'm still looking at the"
a bill **b** menu **c** service
- 33 "My job is never boring." The speaker's job is always
a interesting **b** popular **c** difficult
- 34 I've been working here about the last two years.
a during **b** for **c** since
- 35 "It leaves from Platform 2 at 4.15." The speaker is talking about
a an airline flight **b** a train **c** a taxi
- 36 I went to a lovely last Saturday. The bride was my best friend when we were at school.
a anniversary **b** marriage **c** wedding
- 37 "I've got a headache." "Maybe you to take an aspirin."
a should **b** ought **c** don't
- 38 The patient had an to insert metal pins in his broken leg.
a injection **b** operation **c** X-ray
- 39 She won a seat in parliament at the last..... .
a general election **b** opinion poll **c** referendum
- 40 I'm surprised you didn't get upset. If someone said that to me, really angry.
a I'm **b** I was **c** I'd be
- 41 This used to be part of the city, but since the old buildings were renovated it's become a very fashionable area.
a an affluent **b** a run-down **c** a trendy
- 42 Cassie went to bed early because she was
a tired **b** stressed **c** relaxed
- 43 In the 1960s, computers wereexpensive that ordinary people couldn't afford them.
a so **b** such **c** too
- 44 Do you want the match tonight?
a watching **b** watch **c** to watch
- 45 Researchers claim the new discovery is a major in the fight against malaria.
a breakthrough **b** investigation **c** progress
- 46 The Maths problem was really difficult and I just couldn't the answer.
a check in **b** set off **c** work out
- 47 When I was a child, I never about the future.
a have worried **b** used to worry **c** was worrying
- 48 A local politician has charges of corruption made by the opposition party.
a accused **b** blamed **c** denied

49 worries me about society today is how completely we have come to depend on technology.

a That

b What

c Which

50 Cats and dogs are usually kept as

a farm animals

b wild animals

c pets

Picasso Prints stolen in Brazil

Three armed robbers stole two Pablo Picasso prints from an art museum in downtown Sao Paulo on Thursday, the city's second high-profile art theft in less than a year. The bandits also took two oil paintings by well-known Brazilian artists Emiliano Di Cavalcanti and Lasar Segall, said Carla Regina, a spokeswoman for the Pinacoteca do Estado museum.

The Picasso prints stolen were "The Painter and the Model" from 1963 and "Minotaur, Drinker and Women" from 1933, according to a statement from the Sao Paulo Secretary of State for Culture, which oversees the museum. The prints and paintings have a combined value of \$612,000, the statement and a museum official said.

About noon, three armed men paid the \$2.45 entrance fee and immediately went to the second-floor gallery where the works were being exhibited, bypassing more valuable pieces, authorities said. "This indicates to us that they probably received an order" to take those specific works, Youssef Abou Chain, head of Sao Paulo's organized crime unit, told reporters at a news conference. The assailants overpowered three unarmed museum guards and grabbed the works, officials said. The robbery took about 10 minutes and the museum was nearly empty at the time. The assailants took the pieces — frames and all — out of the museum in two bags. The institution has no metal detectors.

In December, Picasso's "Portrait of Suzanne Bloch" and "O Lavrador de Cafe" by Candido Portinari, an influential Brazilian artist, were stolen from the Sao Paulo Museum of Art by three men who used a crowbar and car jack to force open one of the museum's steel doors. The framed paintings were found Jan. 8, covered in plastic and leaning against a wall in a house on the outskirts of Sao Paulo, South America's largest city. One of the suspects in that heist — a former TV chef — turned himself over to police in January, who already had two suspects in custody.

1. What did the armed men steal?

- a) Two prints by Picasso
- b) Two oil painting by Brazilian artists
- c) A couple of prints and a couple of paintings

2. Why didn't the thieves take other more valuable works?

- a) They didn't know that the other pieces were worth more.
- b) Probably because they had received an order for the prints that they took.
- c) They didn't have enough time.

3. Why was the museum's metal detector not working?

- a) The museum doesn't have a metal detector.
- b) It was being repaired.
- c) It was working - The thieves had plastic guns.

4. How many people were in the museum during the robbery?

- a) A lot. The museum was crowded.
- b) Not too many. It was almost empty.
- c) There were a lot of people outside the museum

5. Was the former TV chef involved in the most recent robbery?:

- a) No, he's famous - he would never do that
- b) Yes, he was one of the men who robbed the Pinacoteca do Estado
- c) No, but he helped steal some other works earlier in the year

ANSWER KEY

1	b	11	a	21	b	31	c	41	b
2	a	12	b	22	b	32	b	42	a
3	c	13	a	23	c	33	a	43	a
4	b	14	c	24	c	34	b	44	c
5	b	15	b	25	b	35	b	45	a
6	c	16	b	26	a	36	c	46	c
7	a	17	a	27	b	37	b	47	b
8	a	18	c	28	a	38	b	48	c
9	b	19	a	29	a	39	a	49	b
10	c	20	a	30	c	40	c	50	c

Reading comprehension Answer Key

1. c 2. b 3.a 4. b 5.c

Appendix 2 - Sample of the Online Proficiency Test

Test your Level of English Grammar/Vocabulary

How well do you understand English? Which exam should you study for?

This test contains grammar and vocabulary questions and your test result will help you choose a level to practise at. You **will not be able to see the correct answers** to the questions.

At the end of the test your level will be assessed at a CEF level (A2 to C2). You can choose to have the results sent to your email address.

You should complete this test in about 10 minutes. You can also do a [listening level test](#).

There are 15 questions in this test. The questions get easier or harder according to your responses. At the end of the test your English level will be assessed. You will not be able to see the correct answers.

1. When Sam was a small child, he _____ spend hours every day playing with stones in the garden.

- ☐ would
- ☐ used
- ☐ was
- ☐ should

2. Please don't forget to ring me when you _____ home.

- ☐ get
- ☐ are going to get
- ☐ are getting
- ☐ will get

3. I am sure I would have regretted it if I _____ to take the job.

- ☐ would have agreed
- ☐ would agree
- ☐ did agree
- ☐ had agreed

4. The teacher asked if _____ to bring our textbooks to class.

- ☐ all we had remembered
- ☐ we had all remembered
- ☐ had we all remembered
- ☐ had all we remembered

5. This meat is beautifully _____ - what recipe did you use?

- ☐ tender
- ☐ mild
- ☐ gentle
- ☐ soft

6. I told Julie I _____ to come.

- ☐ oughtn't have to have
- ☐ was being able
- ☐ might not be able
- ☐ would not

7. Hadn't you _____ start getting ready? We leave in ten minutes.

- ☐ already
- ☐ to
- ☐ better
- ☐ rather

8. Supposing _____ injured. What would I have done then?

- ☐ you have
- ☐ you had
- ☐ you had been
- ☐ you have been

9. The grass is all wet. It _____ during the night.

- ☐ should have rained
- ☐ ought to have been raining
- ☐ must have been raining
- ☐ had been raining

10. The policeman threatened to have the drunk locked up _____ he stopped making a nuisance of himself.

- ☐ when
- ☐ as
- ☐ until
- ☐ if

11. Are you able to _____ CDs on your computer?

- ☐ cook
- ☐ toast
- ☐ bake
- ☐ burn

12. I wish George and his father would settle their _____ and start talking to each other again.

- ☐ arguments
- ☐ disagreements
- ☐ differences
- ☐ problems

13. Sophie has always thought the _____ of her uncle and so she is looking forward enormously to his visit.

- ☐ heights
- ☐ world
- ☐ top
- ☐ earth

14. This area of town is beginning to look very _____ and impoverished.

- ☐ broken-down
- ☐ put-down
- ☐ run-down
- ☐ marked-down

15. I won't be going to Rothesay with you tomorrow _____ I feel a lot better.

- ☐ as if
- ☐ if not
- ☐ unless
- ☐ as though

Appendix 3 - Potential target word list from the movies

Word	Level
1. Anchorman	B2
2. Announcement	B1
3. Bakery	B2
4. Bright	B1
5. Buried	B1
6. Certainly	B1
7. Complaining	B1
8. Crew	B1
9. Desperate	B2
10. Drawer	B1
11. Elevator	B1

12. Filthy	B2
13. Free will	B2
14. Hair net	B1
15. Heaven	B2
16. Highway	B1
17. Ingredient	B1
18. Interruption	B2
19. Janitor	B2
20. Kneel	B2
21. Meal	B2
22. Miracle	B2
23. Needle	B2

24. Prayer beads	B2
25. Prayers	B2
26. Retirement	B2
27. Riot	B2
28. Stack	B1
29. Stuck	B1
30. Surrender	B2
31. Tissue	B1
32. Wish jar	B1
33. Yell	B2

“Bruce Almighty”

Word	Level
1. Bark	B2
2. Basement	B2
3. Bathrobe	B2
4. Beard	B1
5. Burglars	B2
6. Chewing gum	B1
7. Chimney	B2
8. Coach	B1
9. Cough syrup	B1
10. Device	B2
11. Drowning	B2

12. Enormous	B1
13. Fast-forward	B1
14. Fur	B1
15. Gain	B1
16. Generous	B1
17. Groom	B1
18. Hallway	B1
19. Injury	B2
20. Instead	B1
21. Interrupt	B1
22. Lay	B2
23. Mention	B1

24. Pale	B2
25. Pocket	B1
26. Postpone	B1
27. Promotion	B2
28. Remote control	B2
29. Sew	B1
30. Spread	B2
31. Starving	B2
32. Suit	B2
33. Wipe	B2

“Click”

Appendix 4 - Final Target word list from the movies

Word	Albanian translation	Part of speech	Proficiency level	Frequency
1. Anchorman	Prezantues lajmesh	Noun	B2	11
2. Certainly	Sigurisht	Adverb	B1	3
3. Drawer	Sirtar	Noun	B1	2
4. Filthy	I / E pistë	Adjective	B2	1
5. Free will	Vullnet i lirë	Noun	B2	5
6. Janitor	Portier	Noun	B2	1
7. Kneel	Gjunjëzohem	Verb	B2	1
8. Needle	Gjilpërë	Noun	B2	1
9. Prayer beads	Rruaza lutje	Noun	B2	1
10. Riot	Trazirë	Noun	B2	1
11. Stack	Tufë	Noun	B1	1
12. Wish jar	Kavanoz i dëshirave	Noun	B1	1

“Bruce Almighty”

Word	Albanian translation	Part of speech	Proficiency level	Frequency
1. Bark	Leh	Verb	B2	1
2. Bathrobe	Rroba banjoje	Noun	B2	2
3. Burglars	Hajdutë	Noun	B2	1
4. Drowning	Mbytem	Verb	B2	3
5. Cough syrup	Shurup kolle	Noun	B1	2
6. Groom	Dhëndër	Noun	B1	1
7. Hallway	Korridor	Noun	B1	1
8. Pale	I / E zbehtë	Adjective	B2	1
9. Pocket	Xhep	Noun	B1	1
10. Remote control	Telekomandë	Noun	B2	5
11. Sew	Qep	Verb	B1	1
12. Wipe	Fshij	Verb	B2	1

“Click”

Appendix 5 - VKS (Pre Tests)

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Pre –Test) – “Click”

Dear Student,

This is a vocabulary test that measure your knowledge of a word. However, you will find below 33 words and each of these words followed by five statements. Read the word and the five statements well. After that, circle the statement that best describe your knowledge of that word. If you choose level III or IV you have to provide either Albanian 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.

Thank you for your time.

1. Bark
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. Basement
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. Bathrobe	
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. Beard	
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. Burglars	
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. Chewing gum

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. Chimney

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. Coach

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. Cough syrup

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. Device

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.)

11. Drowning

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.)

12. Enormous

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.)

13. Fast-forward

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.)

14. Fur

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.)

15. Gain	
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.)

16. Generous	
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.)

17. Groom	
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.)

18. Hallway

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.)

19. Injury

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.)

20. Instead

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.)

21. Interrupt

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.)

22. Lay

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.)

23. Mention

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.)

24. Pale	
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.)

25. Pocket	
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.)

26. Postpone	
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.)

27. Promotion

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.)

28. Remote control

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.)

29. Sew

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.)

30. Spread

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.)

31. Starving

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.)

32. Suit

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.)

33. Wipe	
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.)

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Pre –Test) – “Bruce Almighty”

Dear Student,

This is a vocabulary test that measure your knowledge of a word. However, you will find below 33 words and each of these words followed by five statements. Read the word and the five statements well. After that, circle the statement that best describe your knowledge of that word. If you choose level III or IV you have to provide either Albanian 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.

Thank you for your time.

1. Anchorman	
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. Announcement	
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. Bakery

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. Bright

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. Buried

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. Certainly

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. Complaining

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. Crew

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. Desperate

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. Drawer

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.)

11. Elevator

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.)

12. Filthy

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.)

13. Free will

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.)

14. Hair net

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.)

15. Heaven

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.)

16. Highway

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.)

17. Ingredient

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.)

18. Interruption

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.)

19. Janitor

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.)

20. Kneel

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.)

21. Meal

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.)

22. Miracle

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.)

23. Needle

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.)

24. Prayer beads

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.)

25. Prayers

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.)

26. Retirement

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.)

27. Riot	
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.)

28. Stack	
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.)

29. Stuck	
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.)

30. Surrender

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.)

31. Tissue

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.)

32. Wish jar

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.)

33. Yell	
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 6 - VKS (Post Tests)

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Post –Test) – “Click”

Dear Student,

This is a vocabulary test that measure your knowledge of a word. However, you will find below 33 words and each of these words followed by five statements. Read the word and the five statements well. After that, circle the statement that best describe your knowledge of that word. If you choose level III or IV you have to provide either Albanian 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.

Thank you for your time.

1. Bark
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. Bathrobe
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. Burglars

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. Cough syrup

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. Drowning

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. Enormous

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. Groom

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. Pale

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. Pocket

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. Remote control

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.)

11. Sew

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.)

12. Wipe	
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.)

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Post –Test) – “Bruce Almighty”

Dear Student,

This is a vocabulary test that measure your knowledge of a word. However, you will find below 33 words and each of these words followed by five statements. Read the word and the five statements well. After that, circle the statement that best describe your knowledge of that word. If you choose level III or IV you have to provide either Albanian 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.

Thank you for your time.

1. Anchorman
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. Certainly
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. Drawer

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. Filthy

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. Free Will

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. Janitor

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. Kneel

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. Needle

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. Prayer beads

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. Riot

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.)

11. Stack

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.)

12. Wish jar	
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 7 – Students’ questionnaire

Students’ Questionnaire

Greetings!

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your feedback is important to us in understanding if subtitled movies help students acquire vocabulary incidentally. This questionnaire includes questions on your personal background, your opinions on watching movies in English and your feedback on the movie treatments. Any information you provide will be anonymous. Please fill in this questionnaire as honestly as possible.

Thank you for participating.

Part I: Personal Details

1. Gender: a) Male b) Female

2. Age: _____

3. Faculty department: _____.

Part II: Facts and Opinions

4. What do you think of vocabulary learning?

- a) Easy b) Common c) Difficult d) Very difficult

5. How often do you watch English movies for enjoyment?

- a) Never b) Hardly ever c) Sometimes d) Often e) I don't know

6. How often do you watch movies for the purpose of learning English?

- a) Never b) Hardly ever c) Sometimes d) Often e) I don't know

7. I prefer watching English movies:

- a) With subtitles b) Without subtitles

8. When I watch English movies for enjoyment, I prefer watching them

- a) With Albanian subtitles b) With English subtitles c) Without subtitles

9. Do you think watching movies outside the classroom is an effective way to learn vocabulary?

- a) Yes b) No c) I am not sure

10. Have you ever used subtitled movies to learn English vocabulary?

- a) Yes b) No c) I am not sure

11. Do you think watching English movies is an effective way to learn vocabulary when watching them with:

- a) English subtitles b) Albanian subtitles c) No subtitles

12. Have you ever watched movies in English classes?

- a) Yes b) No c) I am not sure.

If yes, did you watch them with or without subtitles? _____

PART III: Movie Related Questions ("Click")

13. Have you ever watched the movie "Click" prior to this experiment?

a) Yes b) No c) I am not sure

14. "Click" is a useful movie in developing English vocabulary?

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

15. The vocabulary used in the movie "Click" can be used in daily life?

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

16. When watching the movie "Click" I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

17. I was able to gain new English words while watching the movie "Click".

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

18. The movie "Click" was difficult to understand.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

19. The content of the movie "Click" was interesting.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

20. Learning vocabulary while watching the movie "Click" was interesting

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

21. The speech in the movie "Click" was in normal pace.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

PART IV: Movie Related Questions ("Bruce Almighty")

22. Have you ever watched the movie "Bruce Almighty" prior to this experiment?

a) Yes b) No c) I am not sure

23. "Bruce Almighty" is a useful movie in developing English vocabulary?

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

24. The vocabulary used in the movie "Bruce Almighty" can be used in daily life?

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

25. When watching the movie "Bruce Almighty" I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

26. I was able to gain new English words while watching the movie "Bruce Almighty".

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

27. The movie "Bruce Almighty" was difficult to understand.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

28. The content of the movie "Bruce Almighty" was interesting.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

29. Learning vocabulary while watching the movie "Bruce Almighty" was interesting

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

30. The speech in the movie "Bruce Almighty" was in normal pace.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

PART V: Movie Experience Questions

- 31. How would you classify the experience of watching the movies with the instruction from the teacher?** a) Positive b) Negative c) Average
- 32. How would classify the experience of watching the movies without the instruction from the teacher?** a) Positive b) Negative c) Average
- 33. Our teacher had a vital role in teaching the vocabulary and helping us understand them.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 34. The appearance of subtitles on the screen distracted my attention on the audio**
(Only students who watched the movies with subtitles need to answer)
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 35. The subtitles were easy to read**
(Only students who watched the movies with subtitles need to answer)
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 36. Do you consider watching movies to learn vocabulary is useful inside or outside the classroom?**
a) Outside b) inside c) inside and outside
- 37. In the future, do you think you will watch movies (with/ without subtitles – as applied) for improving your vocabulary?**
a) Yes b) No c) I am not sure

Appendix 8 – Teachers’ questionnaire

Teacher Questionnaire

Greetings!

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your feedback is important to us in understanding if subtitled movies help students acquire vocabulary incidentally. This questionnaire includes questions regarding your personal background, your teaching experience and opinions on the effects of watching subtitled movies on students’ vocabulary acquisition. The information you provide will be anonymous. Please fill in this questionnaire as honestly as possible.

Thank you for participating.

Part I: Personal Details

1. Gender: a) Male b) Female

2. Age: _____

3. How long have you been teaching English language? _____

4. Which level do you teach? a) elementary b) high school c) university

Part II: Facts and Opinions

5. Teaching vocabulary is easy.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

6. I use movies in teaching English? a) Yes b) No c) Undecided

7. How often do you use movies in teaching English?

a) Always b) Usually c) Sometimes d) Rarely e) Never

8. Do you use movies with or without subtitles?

a) With subtitles b) Without subtitles c) I do not use English movies

9. What subtitles do you use when showing students English movies?

a) Albanian Subtitles b) English Subtitles c) I do not show students subtitles

10. Using subtitled movies when teaching English helps students learn new vocabulary.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

11. Using movies with English subtitles helps students learn new vocabulary.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

12. Using movies with Albanian subtitles helps students learn new vocabulary.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

13. When watching subtitled movies students can guess the meaning of the words from the context.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree

- 14. Watching subtitled movies in English classes increase students' motivation and participation in the class.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 15. Watching subtitled movies as a tool for students to learn vocabulary is more useful:**
a) With teacher's instruction b) Without teacher's instruction
- 16. Using subtitled movies in English classes is time consuming.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 17. Planning subtitled movie lessons is time-consuming.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 18. Finding suitable subtitled movies is difficult.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 19. Subtitled movies used in classes are difficult to relate to the curriculum.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 20. I have been trained to use subtitled movie materials.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 21. I have been trained to create subtitled movie materials.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 22. I have all the necessary equipment in the classroom in order to use subtitled movies when teaching English.**
a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Neutral d) Disagree e) Strongly disagree
- 23. In the future, do you think you will show subtitled movies to students for improving their vocabulary?**
a) Yes b) No c) Undecided

Appendix 9 - Power Point Quiz Questions

“Bruce Almighty” Quiz

1. In the car scene, what did Bruce get from Grace in order to pray to God? _____.
2. Complete the following quotes:
(When Grace mentions blood donation)
Bruce: *“I be positive they ain't touchin' me with no _____”*.
3. When Bruce meets God for the first time, God is presented doing the work of the boss, electrician and _____.
4. When people riot it means they take part in _____.
5. When you say certainly, you are _____ about something
6. To go down into, or stay in a position where one or both knees are on the ground means to _____.
7. To decide yourself about the things you do/ say means to have a:
Circle the right answer a) free desire b) free wish c) free will d) free complains
8. A person who reads the news is:
Circle the right answer. a) a handyman b) an anchorman c) a service man d) middleman
9. Dirty means:
Circle the right answer. a) filthy b) complicated c) messy d) hard
10. What do you see in this picture?
Circle the right answer. a) a wish jar b) a wish dish c) a wish glass d) a wish pot



11. The photos that Grace had before she put them in the photo album were organized in _____.

Circle the right answer. a) shelves b) walls c) stacks d) boxes

12. Where did God keep Bruce's files with information about his life. In a _____.

Circle the right answer. a) desk b) computer c) drawer d) bin

Answers:

1. Prayer Beads.
2. Needle.
3. Janitor.
4. Violent public behavior.
5. Sure.
6. Kneel.
7. Free will.
8. True.
9. Dirty
10. A wish jar
11. Stacks
12. Drawer

Appendix 10 – Students’ and teachers’ demographic information

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	f	16	66.7	66.7	66.7
	m	8	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	24	100.0	100.0	

Table 29: Students’ distribution based on their gender

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Law	4	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Economics	8	33.3	33.3	50.0
	Architecture	7	29.2	29.2	79.2
	Food Sciences and Technology	5	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	24	100.0	100.0	

Table 30: Students’ distribution based on their faculty department

Age		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	19	9	37.5	37.5	37.5
	20	6	25.0	25.0	62.5
	21	4	16.7	16.7	79.2
	22	5	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	24	100.0	100.0	

Table 31: Students’ distribution based on their age.

		Gender		Subtitles		
		f	m	English	Albania n	No subtitles
Faculty	Law	4	0	1	2	1
	Economics	5	3	2	3	3
	Architecture	4	3	3	2	2
	Food science and technology	3	2	2	1	2

Table 32: Students' distribution based on the subtitle treatment

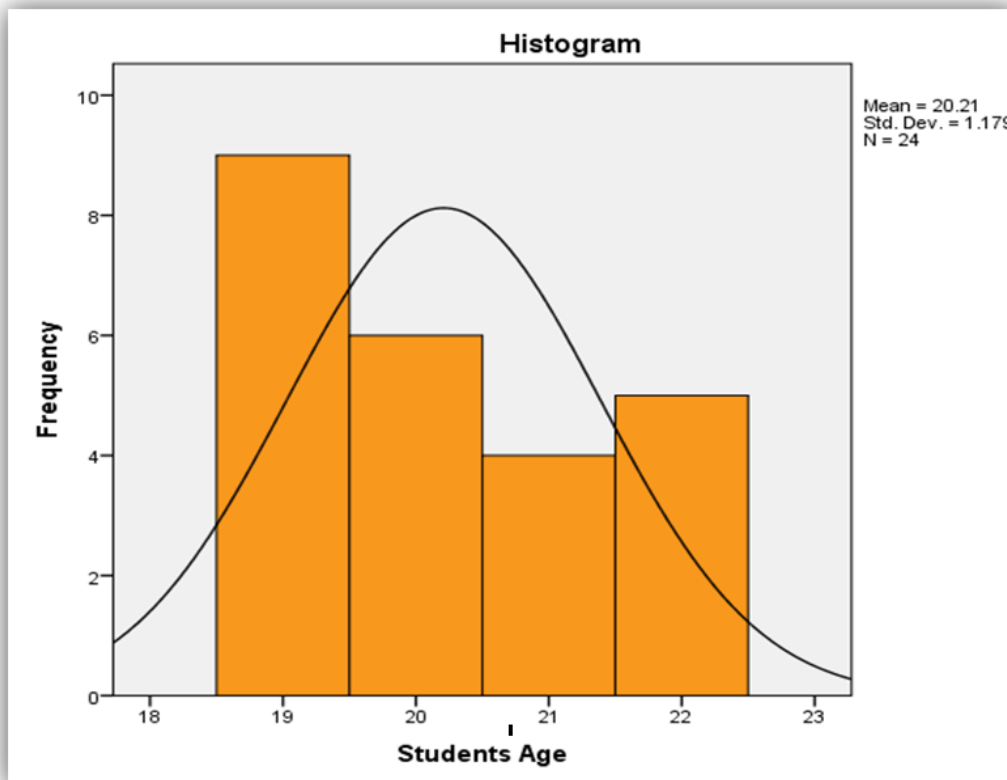


Fig. 48: Students' distribution based on their age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	f	56	88.9	88.9	88.9
	m	7	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Table 33: Teachers' distribution based on their gender

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Elementary	24	38.1	38.1	38.1
	High school	22	34.9	34.9	73.0
	University	17	27.0	27.0	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Table 34: Teachers' distribution based on the level of education where they teach

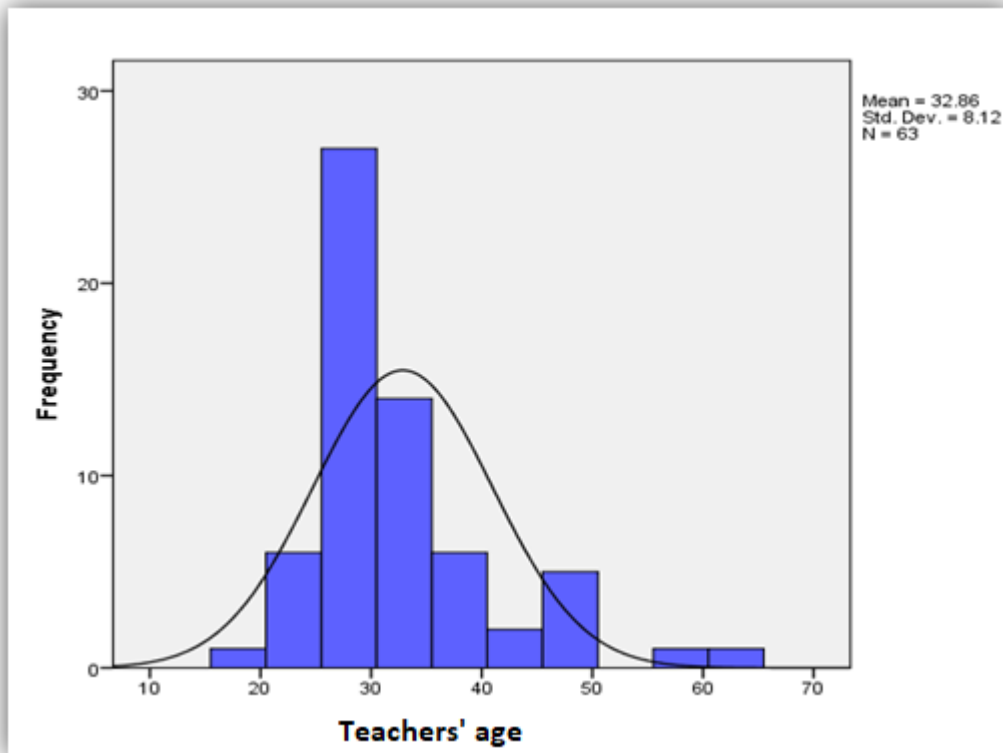


Fig. 49 Histograms of the distribution of the age variables in the teachers' sample



Fig. 50: Histograms of the distribution of the experience variables in the teachers' sample

Appendix 11 – Students' questionnaire responses

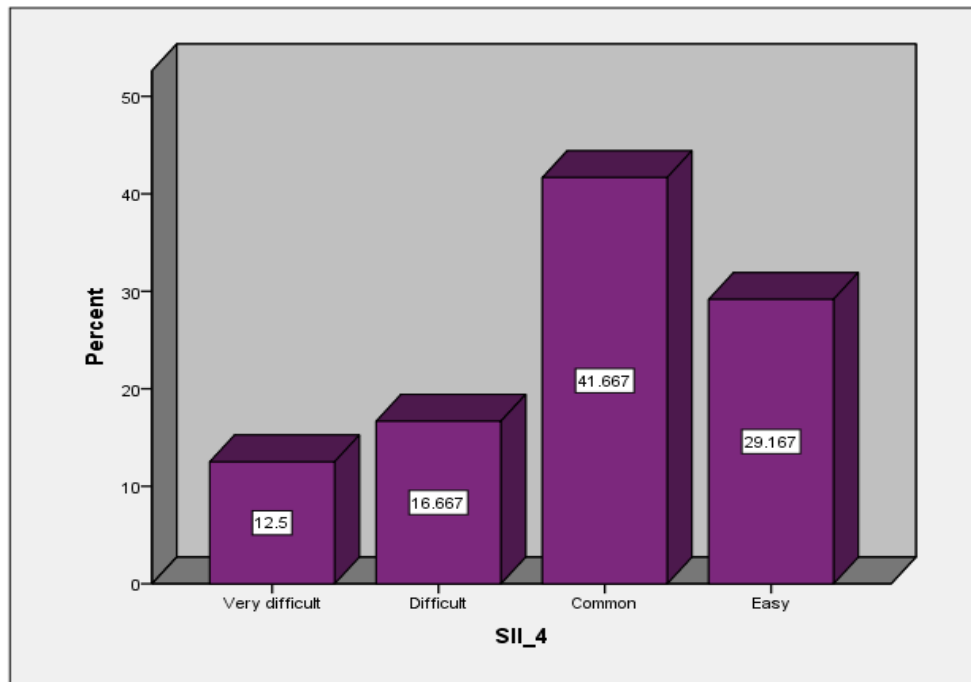


Fig. 51: Students' answers to question: What do you think of vocabulary learning?

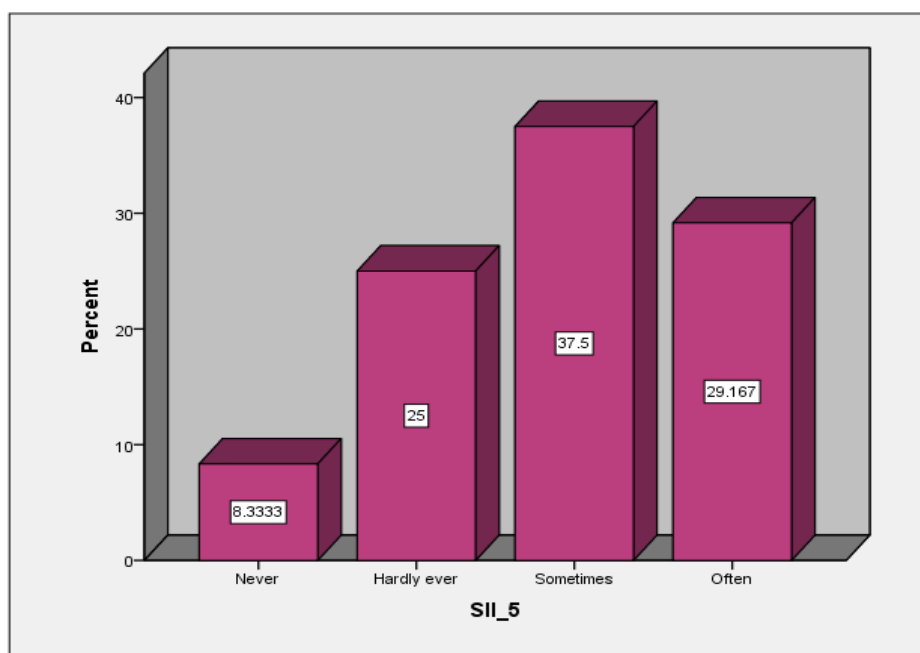


Fig. 52: Students' answers to question: How often do you watch English movies for enjoyment?

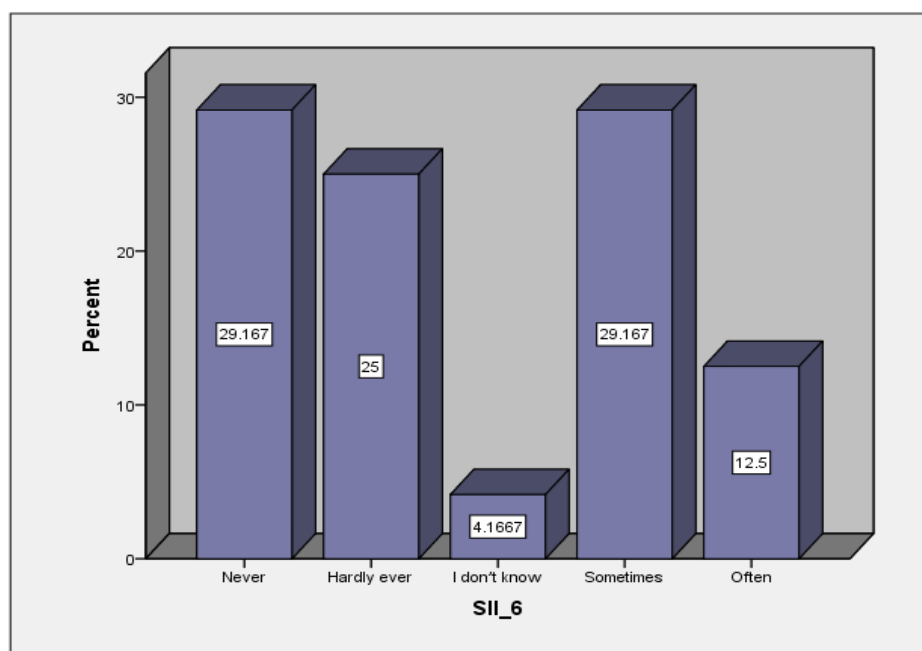


Fig. 53: Students' answers to question: How often do you watch movies for the purpose of learning English?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	With subtitles	24	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Without subtitles	0	0	0	0
	Total	24	100.0	100.0	

Table 35: Students' answers to question: I prefer watching English movies:

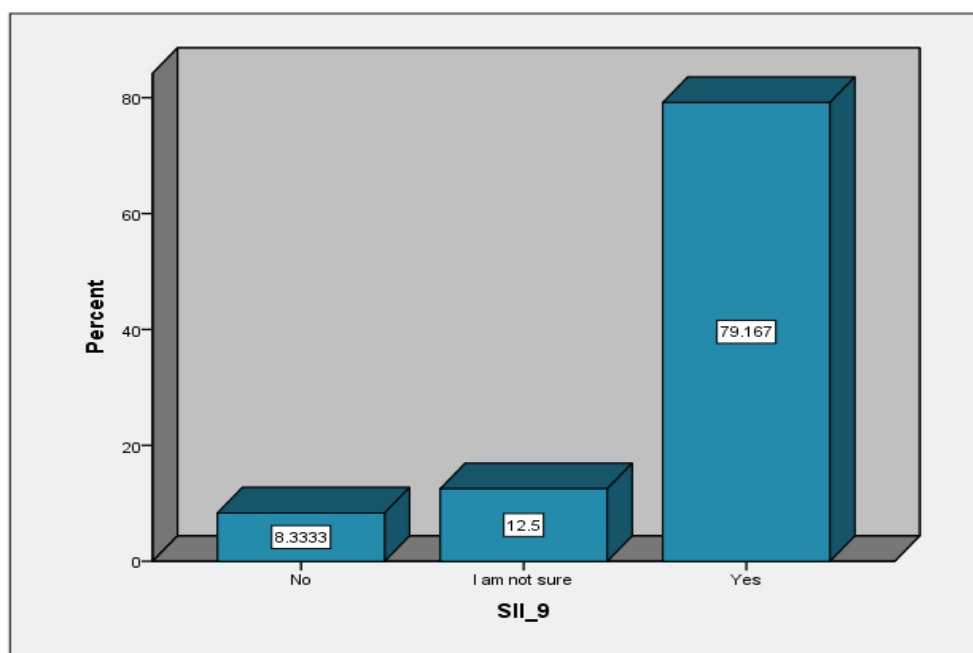


Fig. 54: Students' answers to question: Do you think watching movies outside the classroom is an effective way to learn vocabulary?

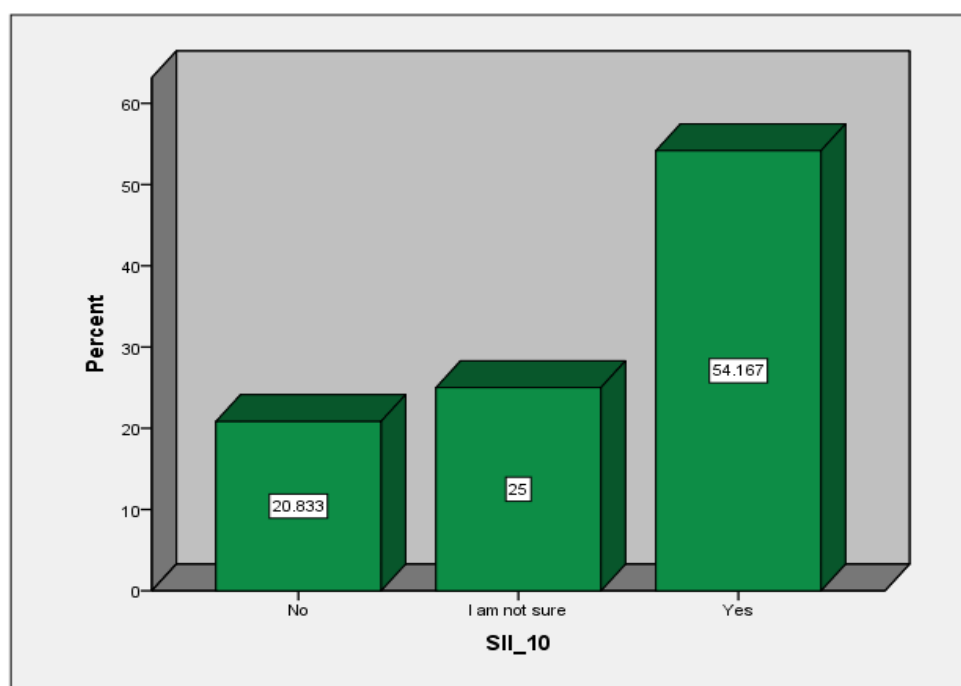


Fig. 55: Students' answers to question: Have you ever used subtitled movies to learn English vocabulary?

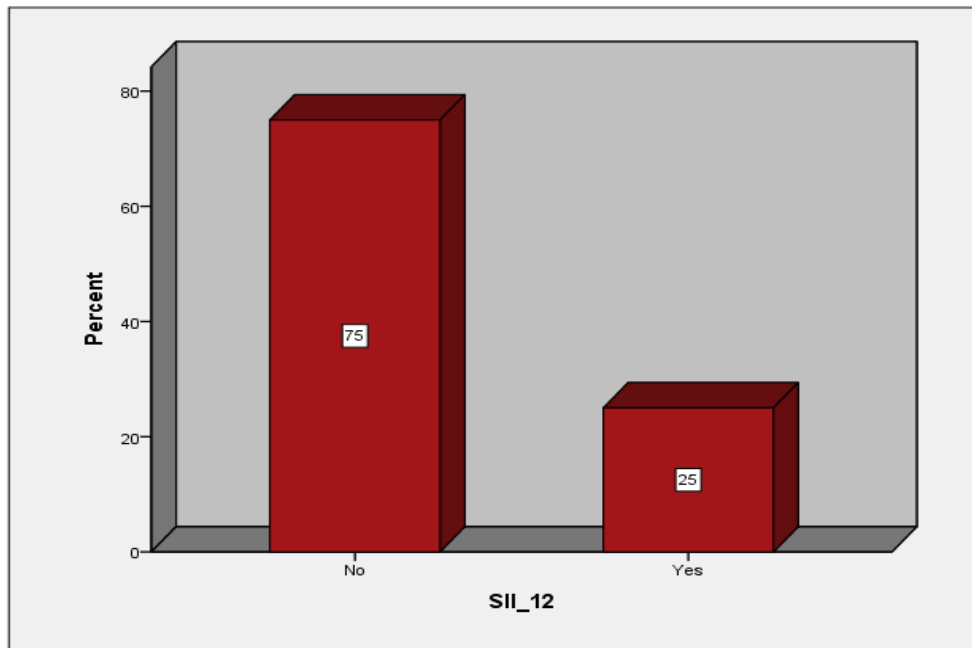


Fig. 56: Students’ answers to question: Have you ever watched movies in English classes?

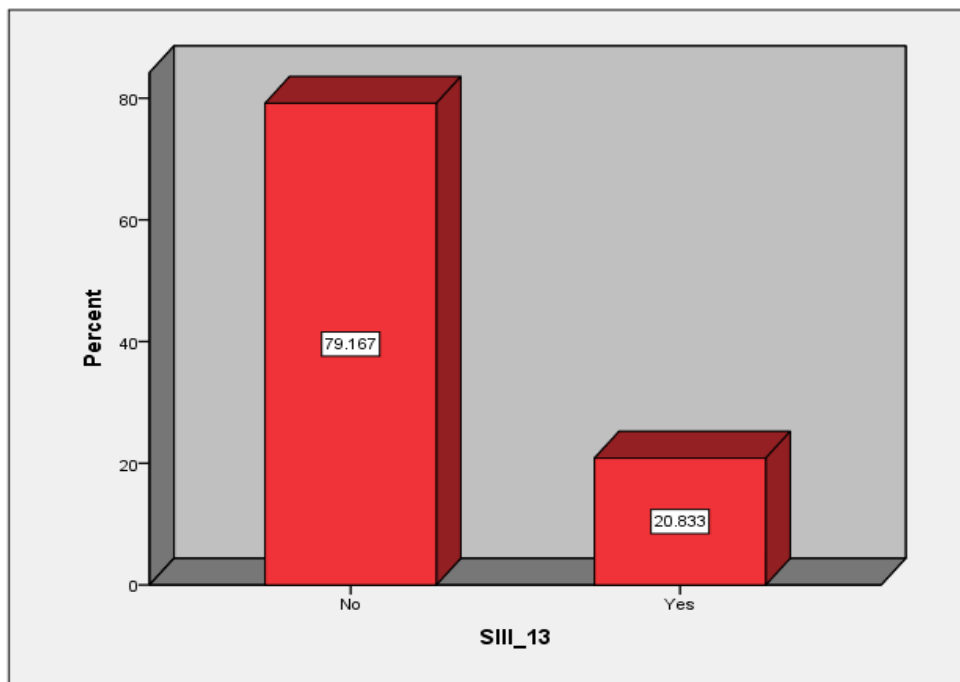


Fig. 57 Students’ answers to question: Have you ever watched the movie “Click” prior to this experiment?

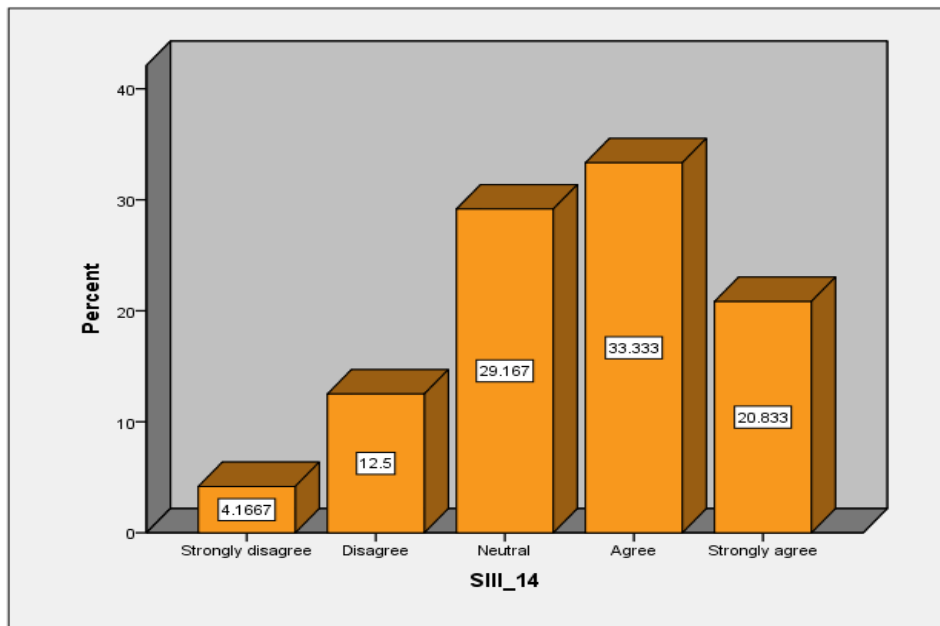


Fig. 58: Students' answers to question: "Click" is a useful movie in developing English vocabulary?

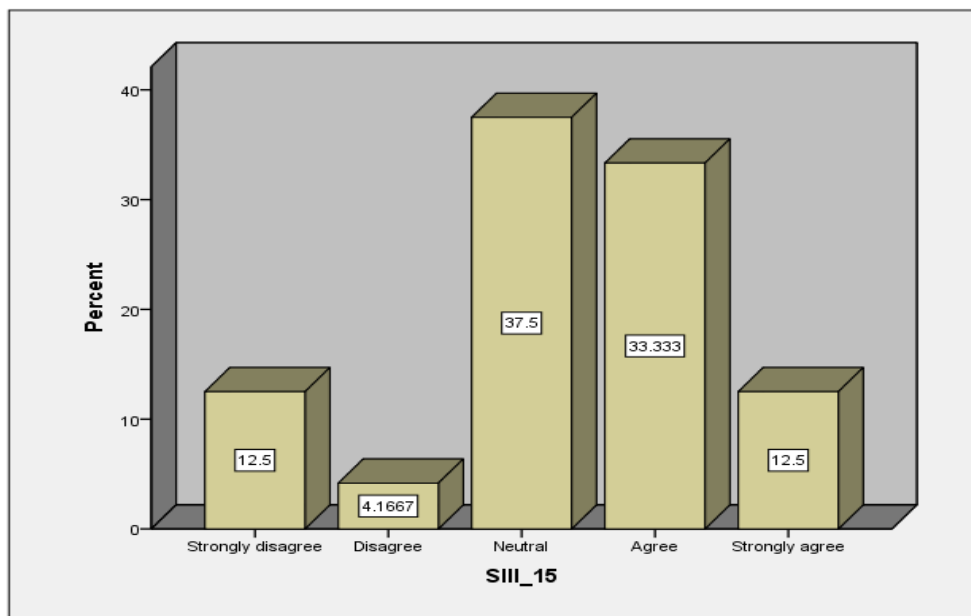


Fig. 59: Students' answers to question: The vocabulary used in the movie "Click" can be used in daily life.

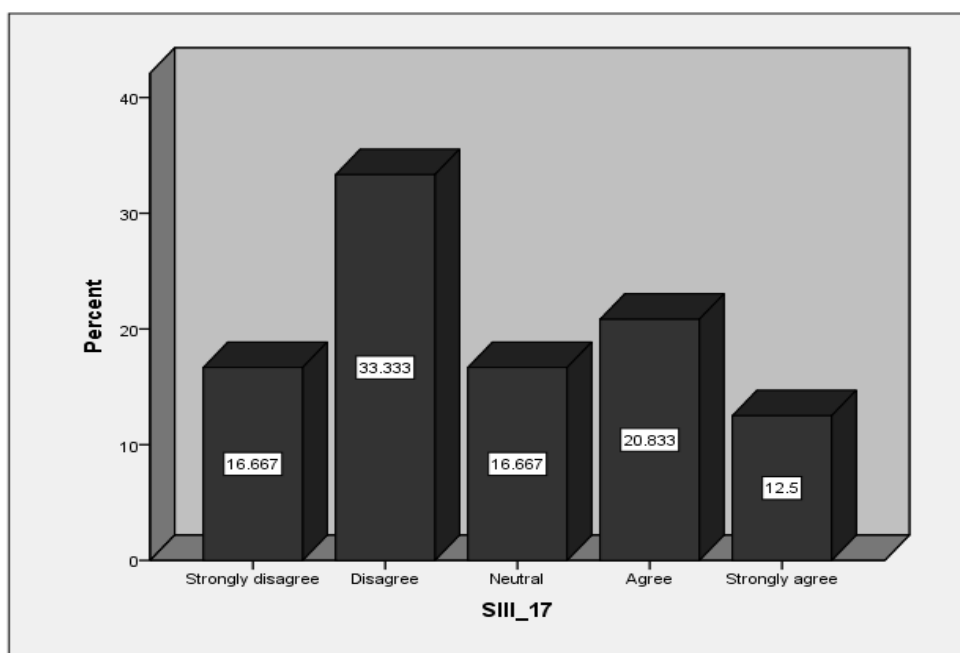


Fig. 60: Students' answers to question: I was able to gain new English words while watching the movie "Click".

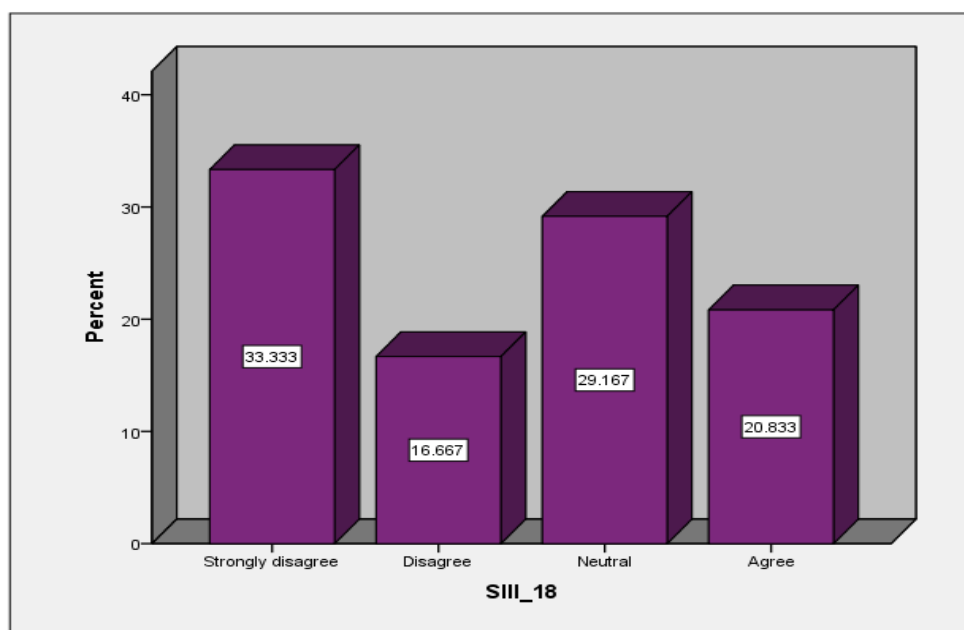


Fig. 61: Students' answers to question: The movie "Click" was difficult to understand.

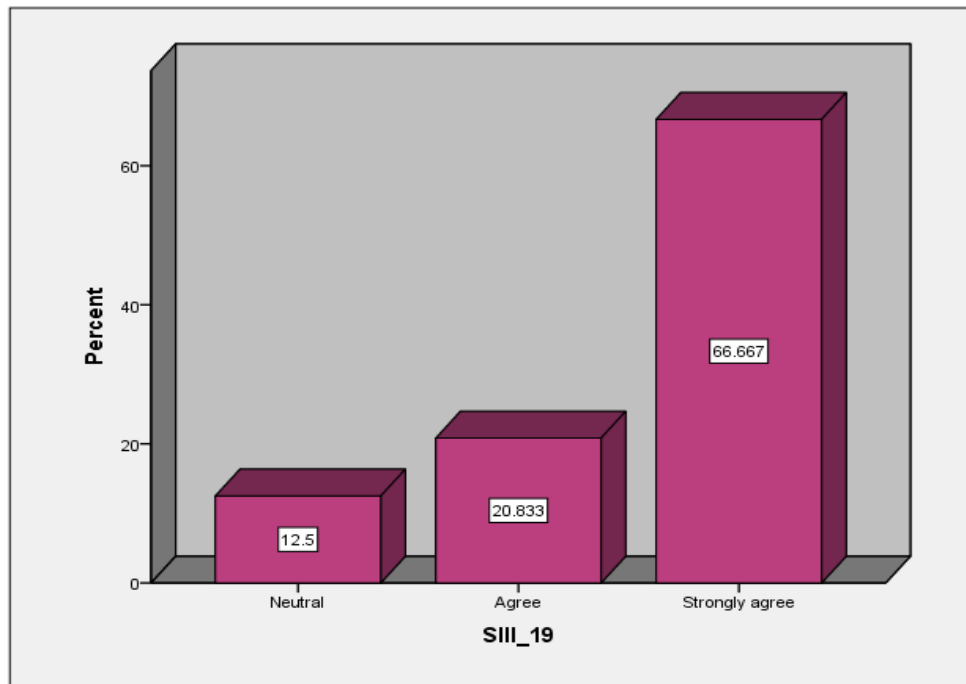


Fig. 62: Students' answers to question: The content of the movie "Click" was interesting.

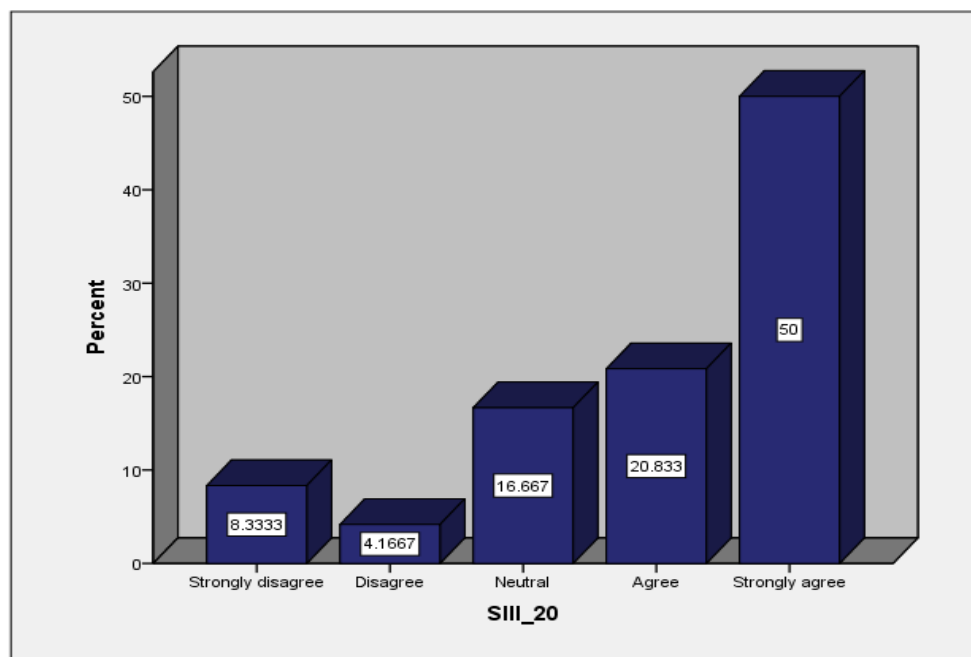


Fig. 63: Students' answers to question: Learning vocabulary while watching the movie "Click" was interesting

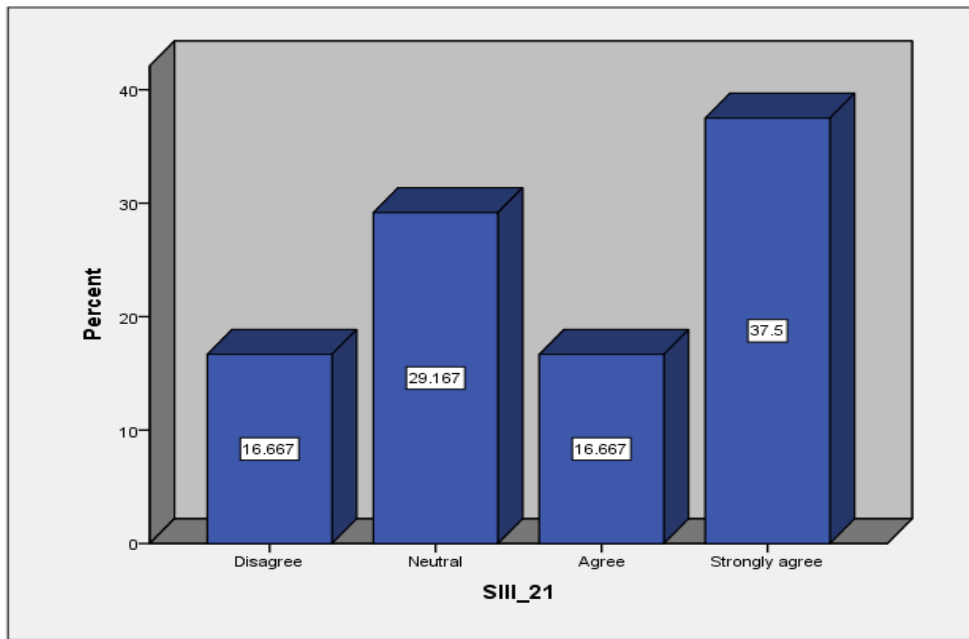


Fig. 64: Students’ answers to question: The speech in the movie “Click” was in normal pace.

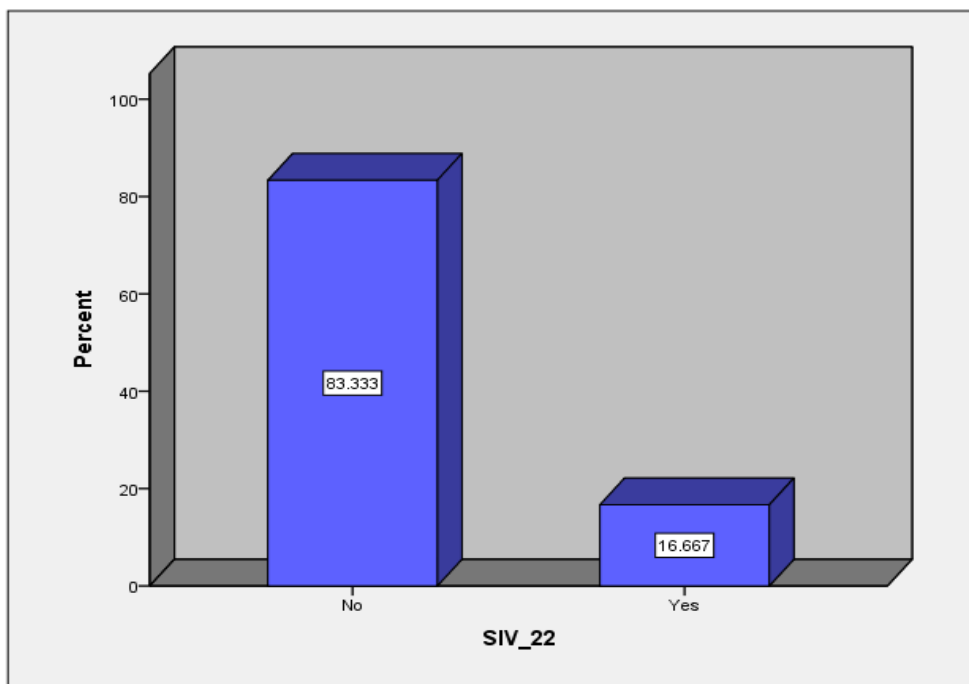


Fig. 65: Students’ answers to question: Have you ever watched the movie “Bruce Almighty” prior to this experiment?

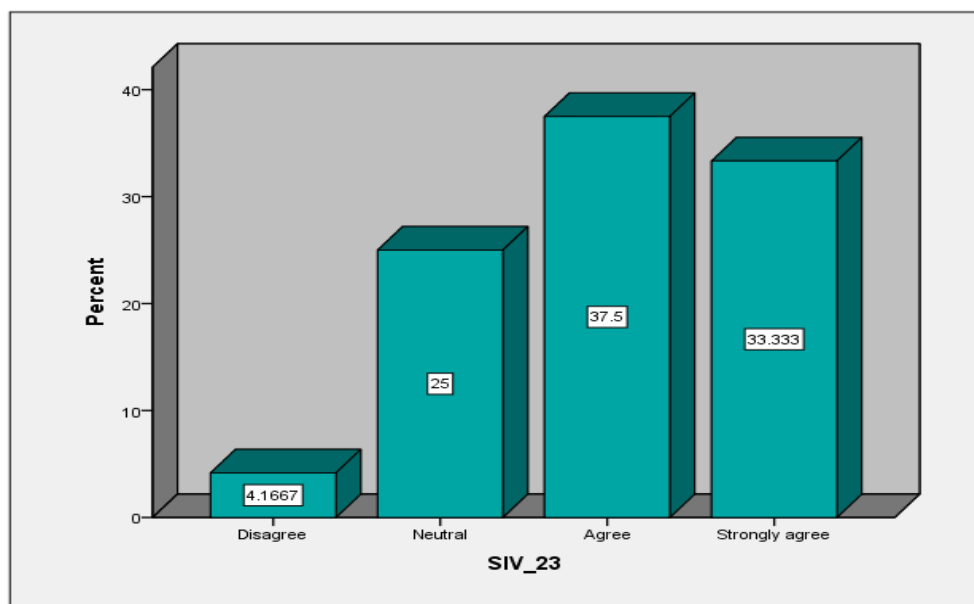


Fig. 66: Students' answers to question: "Bruce Almighty" is a useful movie in developing English vocabulary?

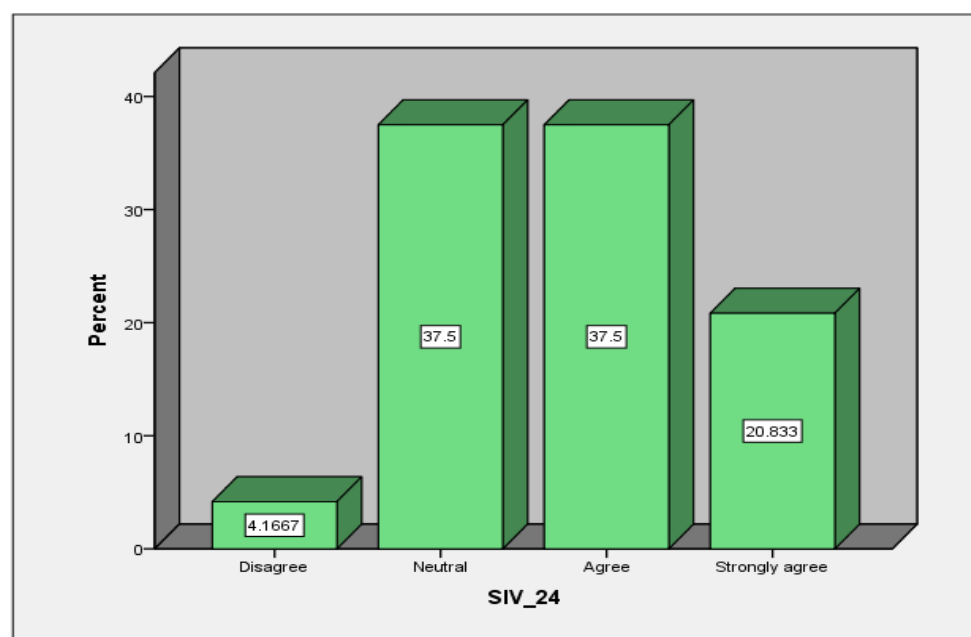


Fig. 67: Students' answers to question: The vocabulary used in the movie "Bruce Almighty" can be used in daily life?

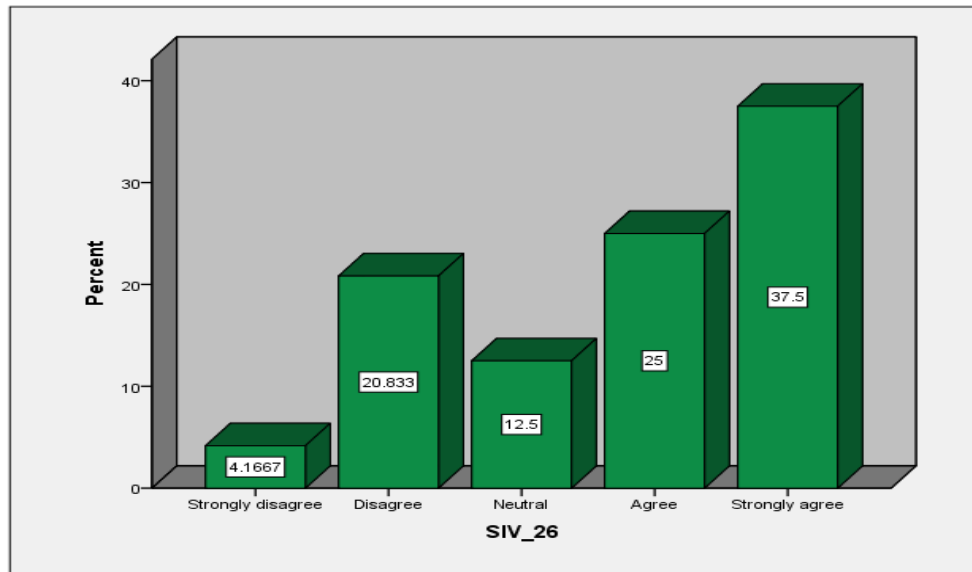


Fig. 68: Students' answers to question: I was able to gain new English words while watching the movie "Bruce Almighty".

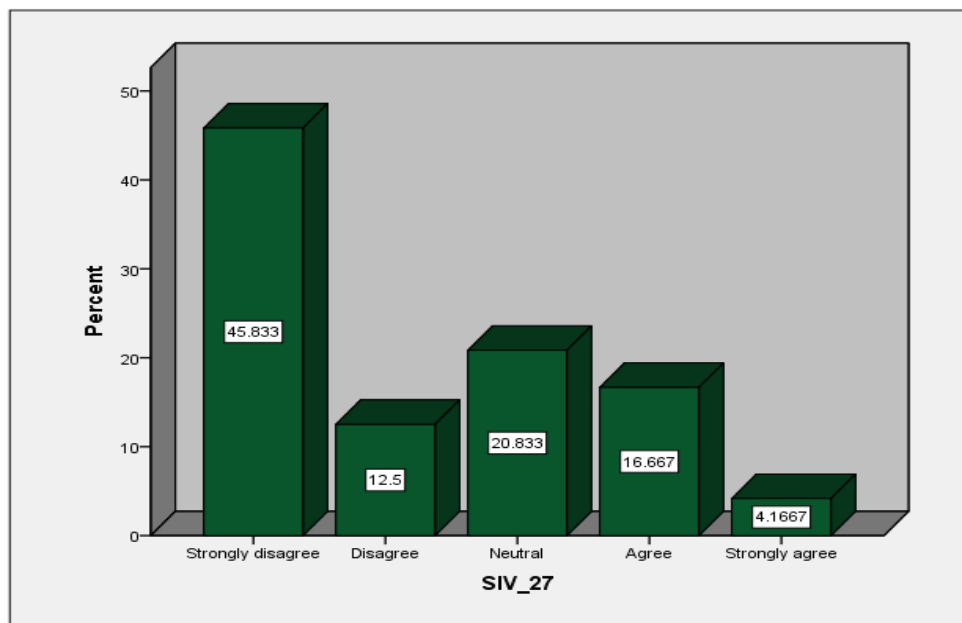


Fig. 69: Students' answers to question: The movie "Bruce Almighty" was difficult to understand.

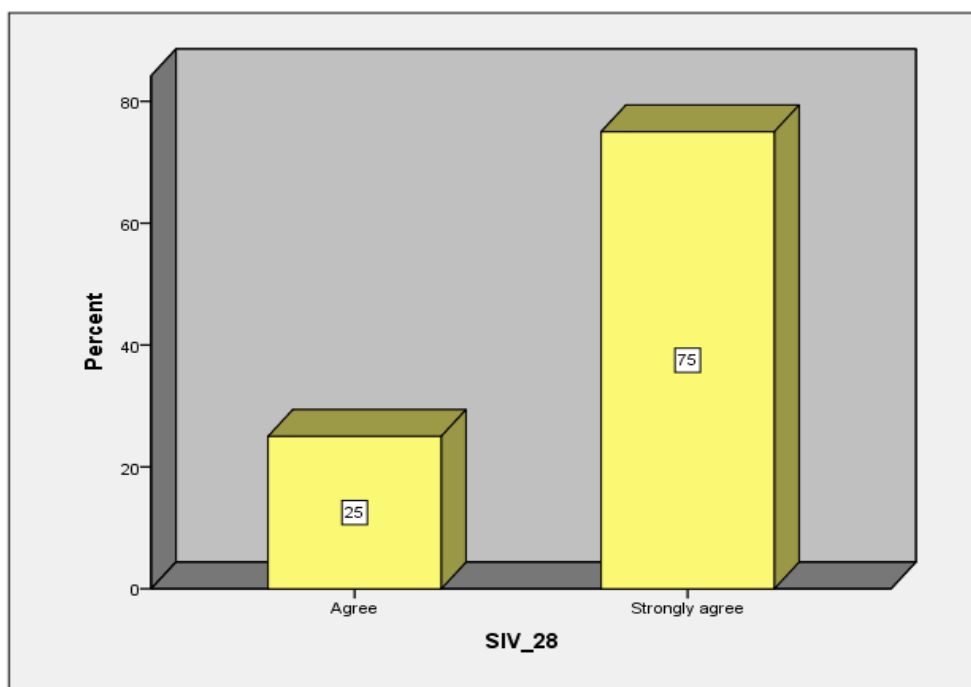


Fig. 70: Students' answers to question: The content of the movie "Bruce Almighty" was interesting.

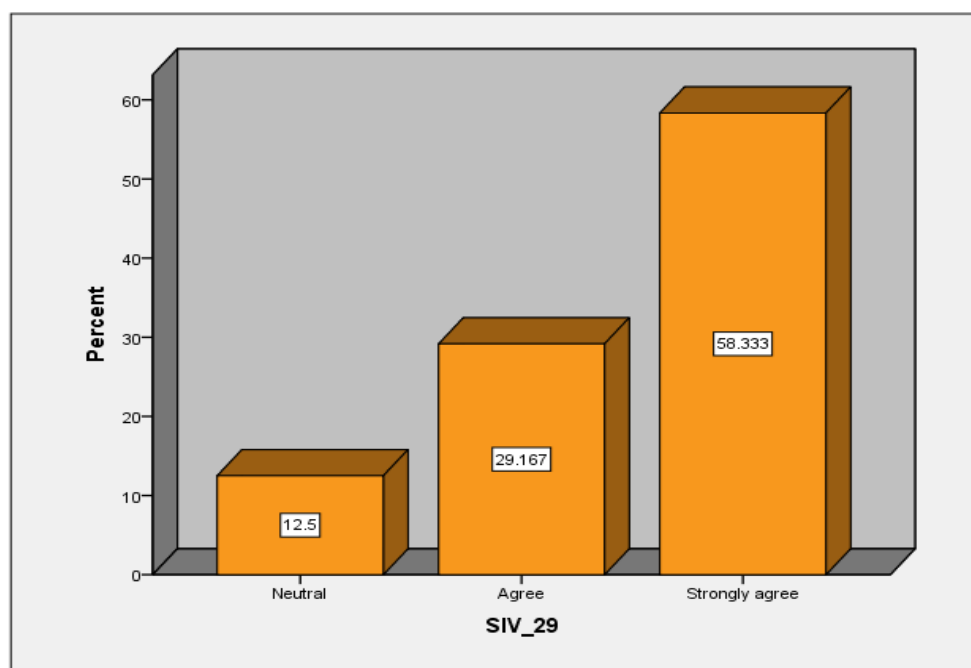


Fig. 71: Students' answers to question: Learning vocabulary while watching the movie "Bruce Almighty" was interesting

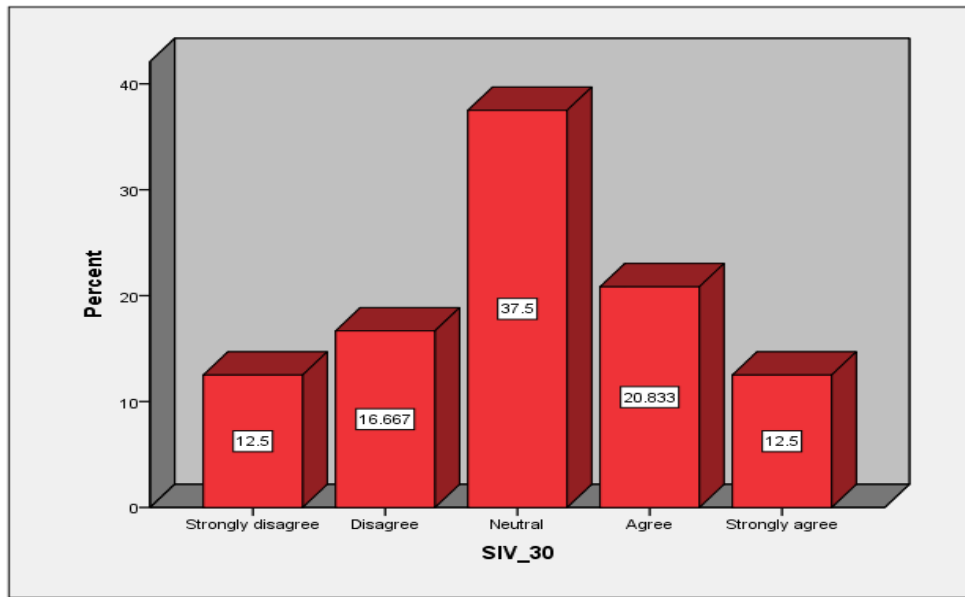


Fig. 72: Students' answers to question: The speech in the movie "Bruce Almighty" was in normal pace.

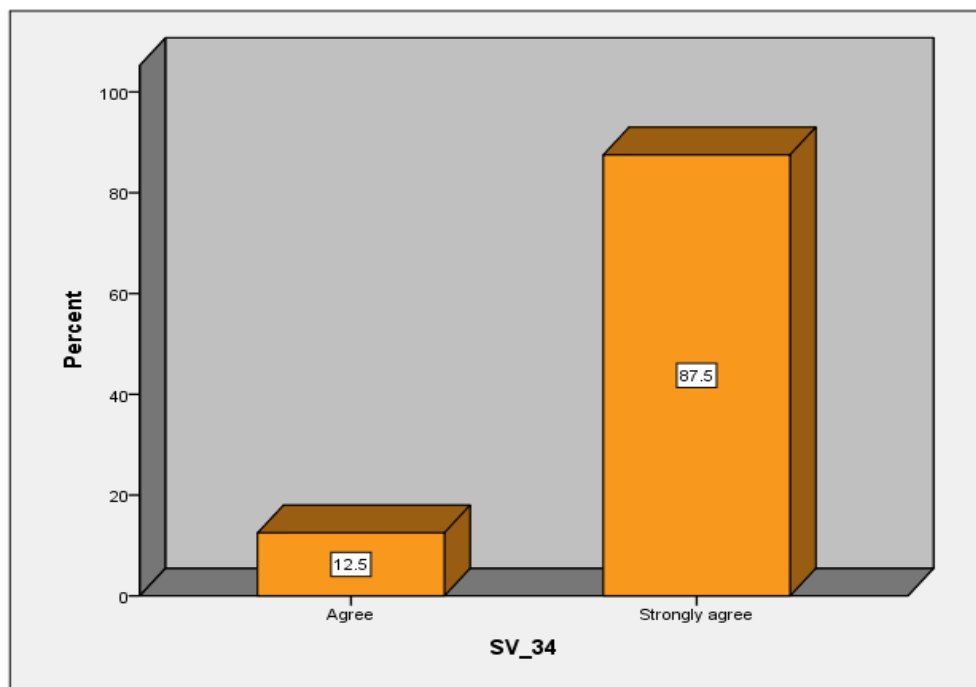


Fig. 73: Students' answers to question: The appearance of subtitles on the screen distracted my attention on the audio

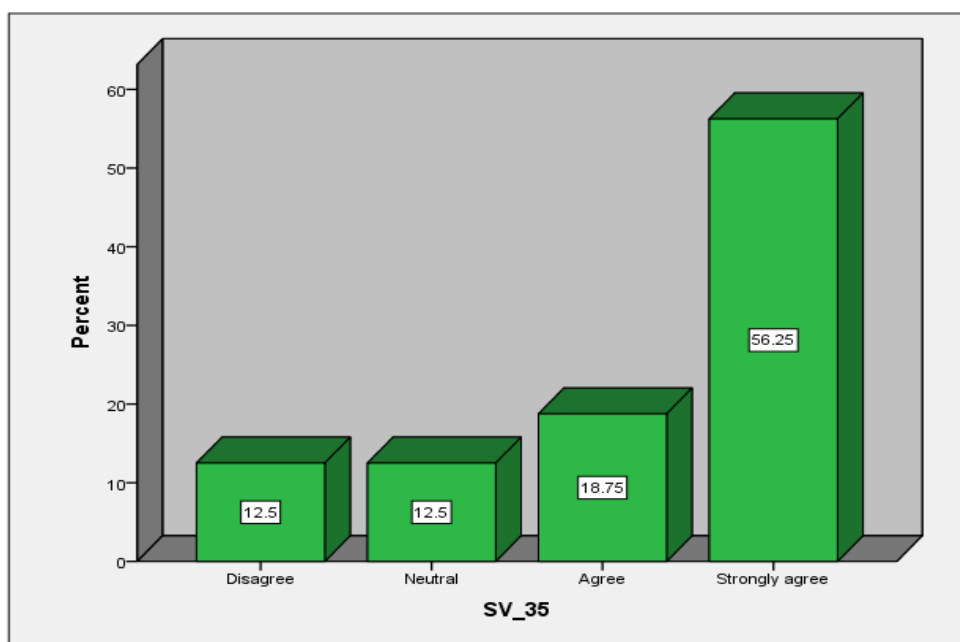


Fig. 74: Students' answers to question: The subtitles were easy to read

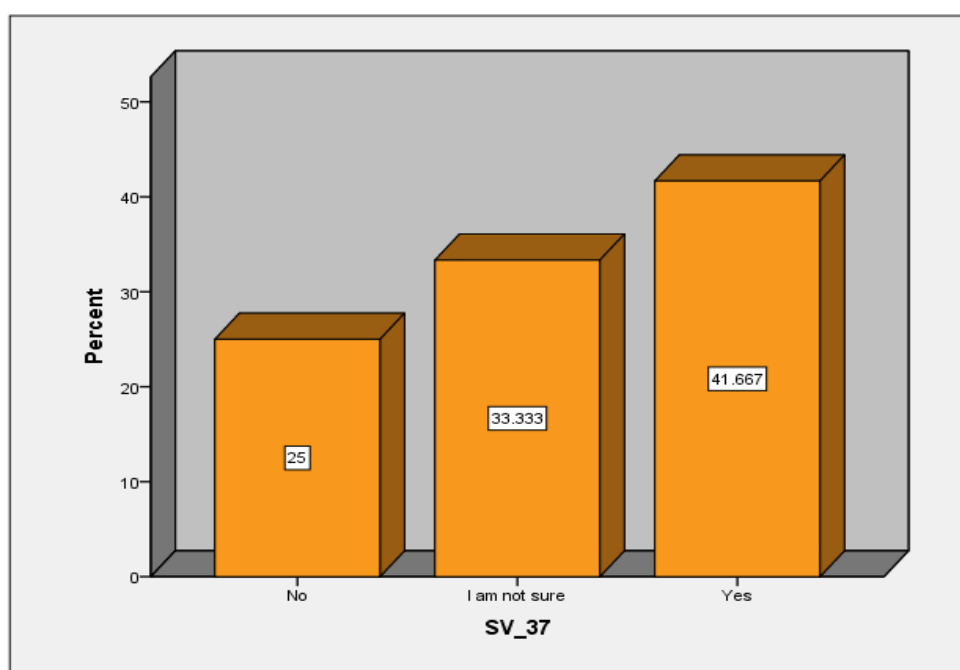
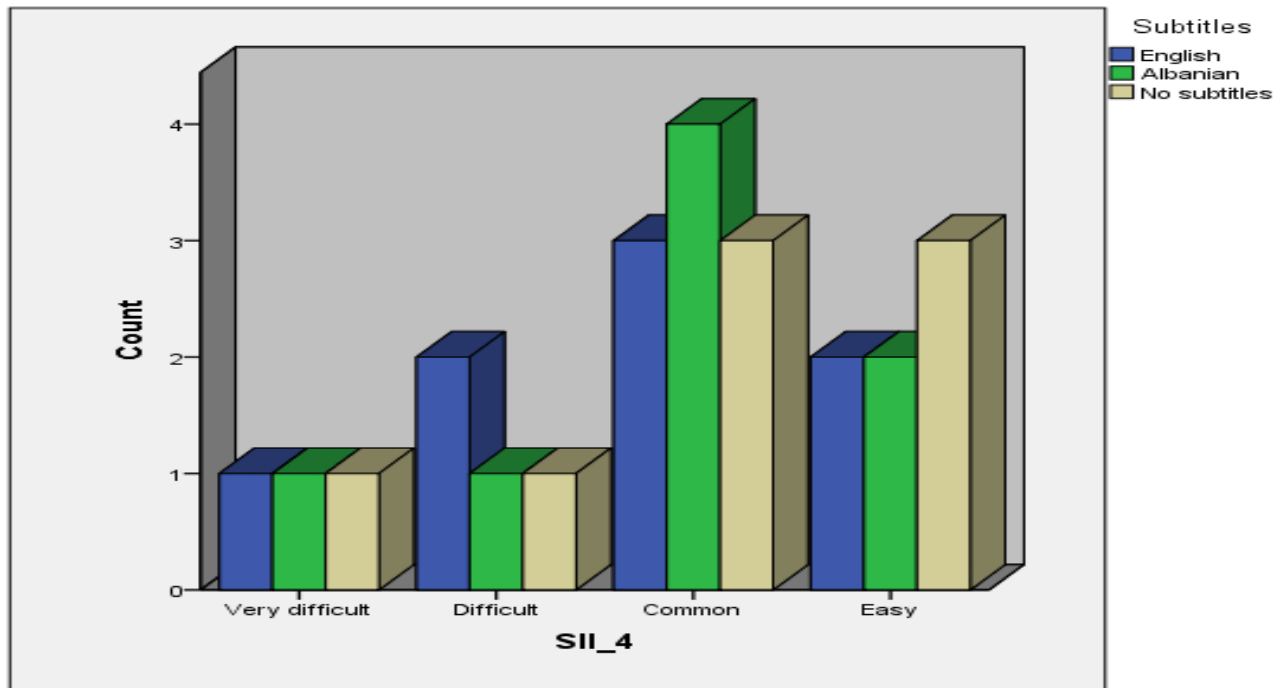
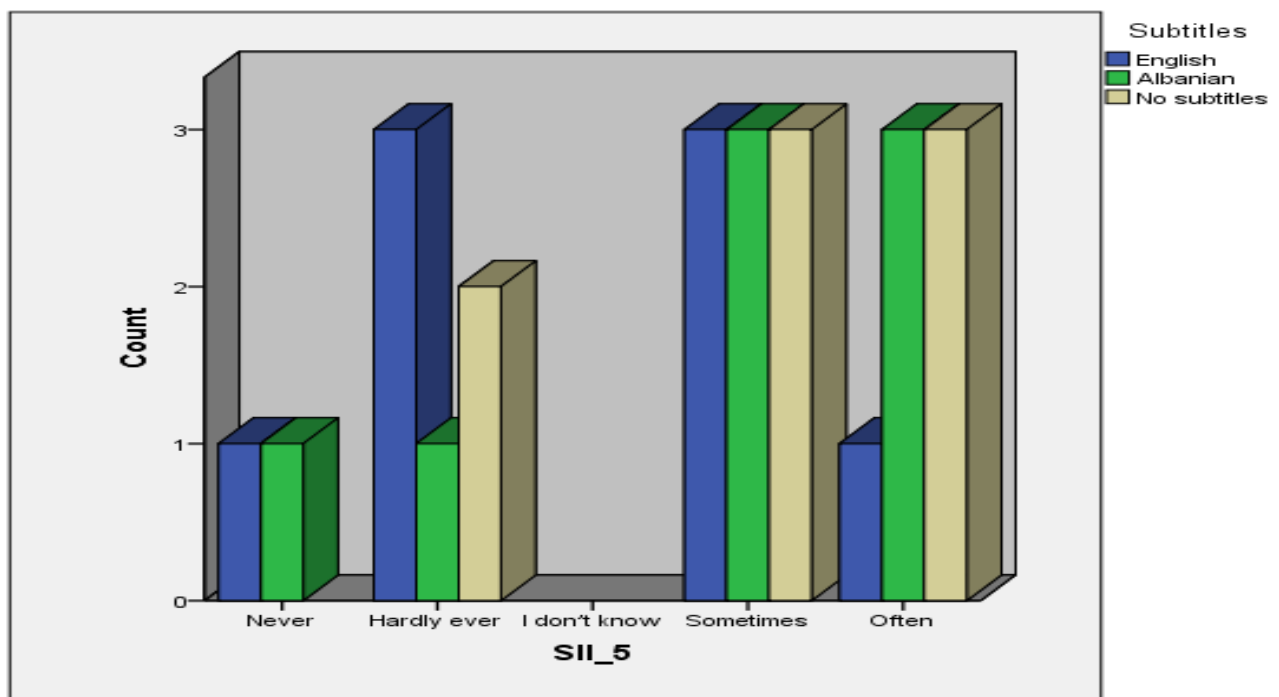


Fig. 75: Students' answers to question: In the future, do you think you will watch movies (with/without subtitles – as applied) for improving your vocabulary?

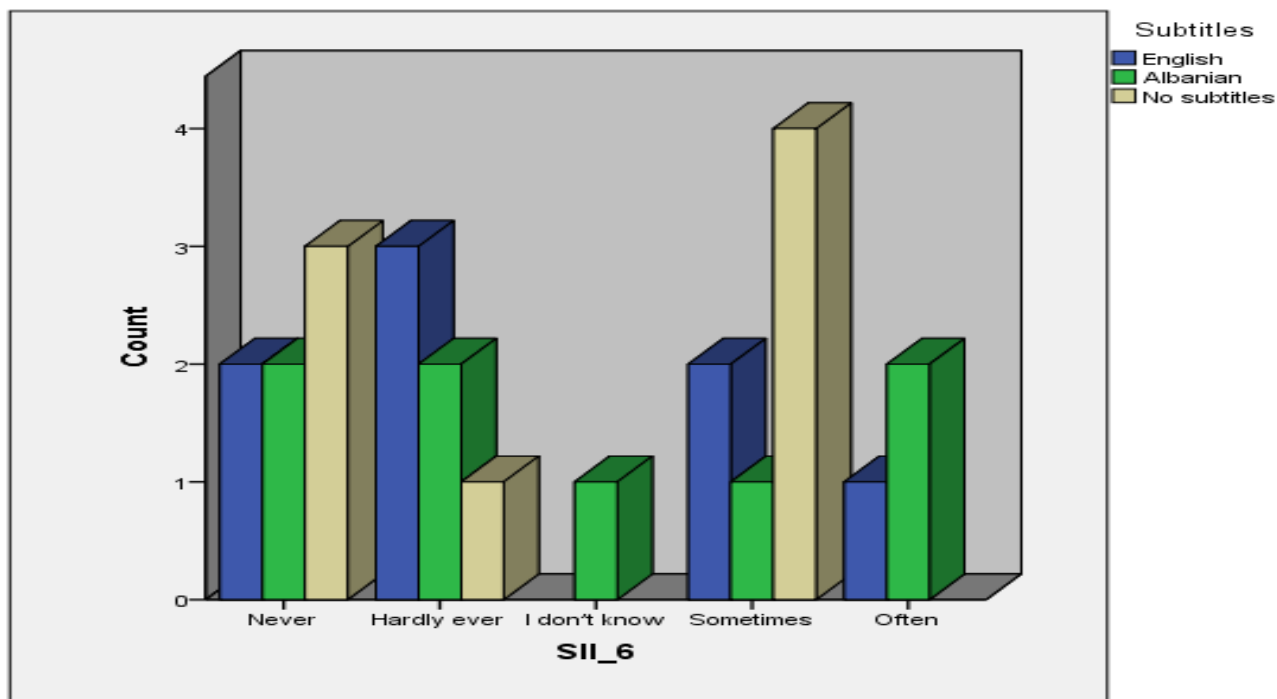
Appendix 12 - Graphic frequencies of student questionnaire responses from all three treatment groups (English Subtitles, Albanian Subtitles, No subtitles)



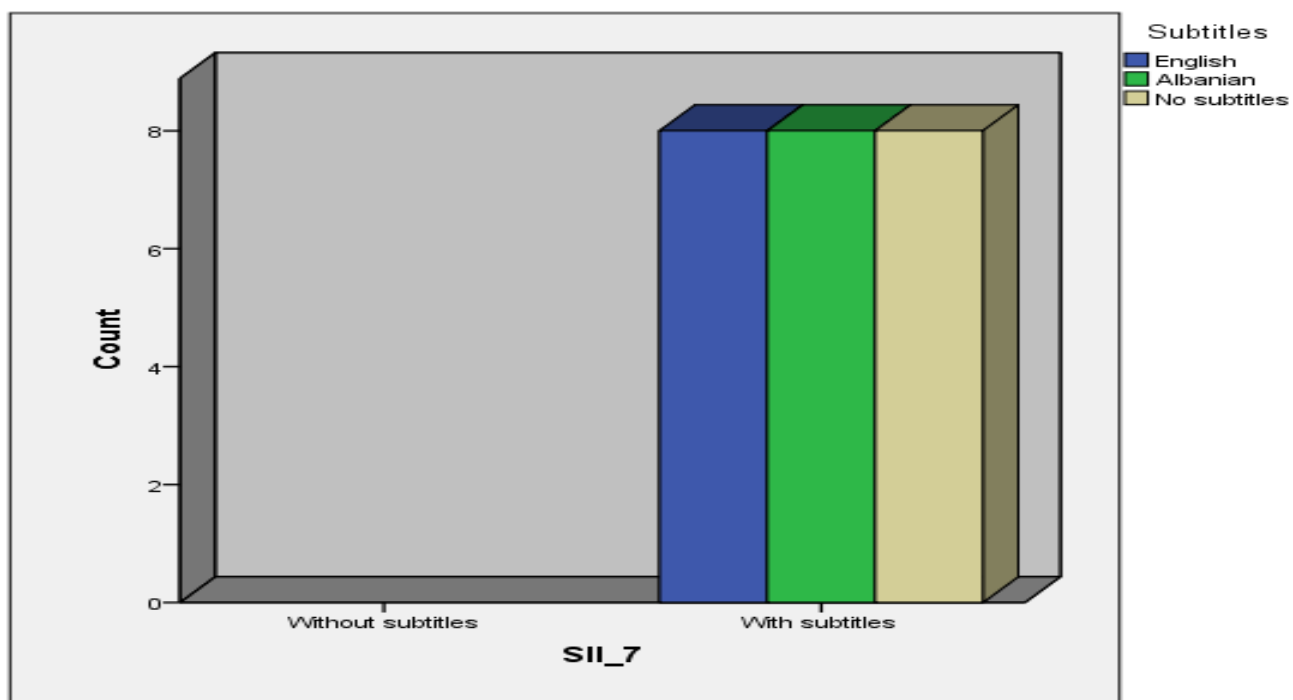
Answers to question 4: What do you think of vocabulary learning? – All groups



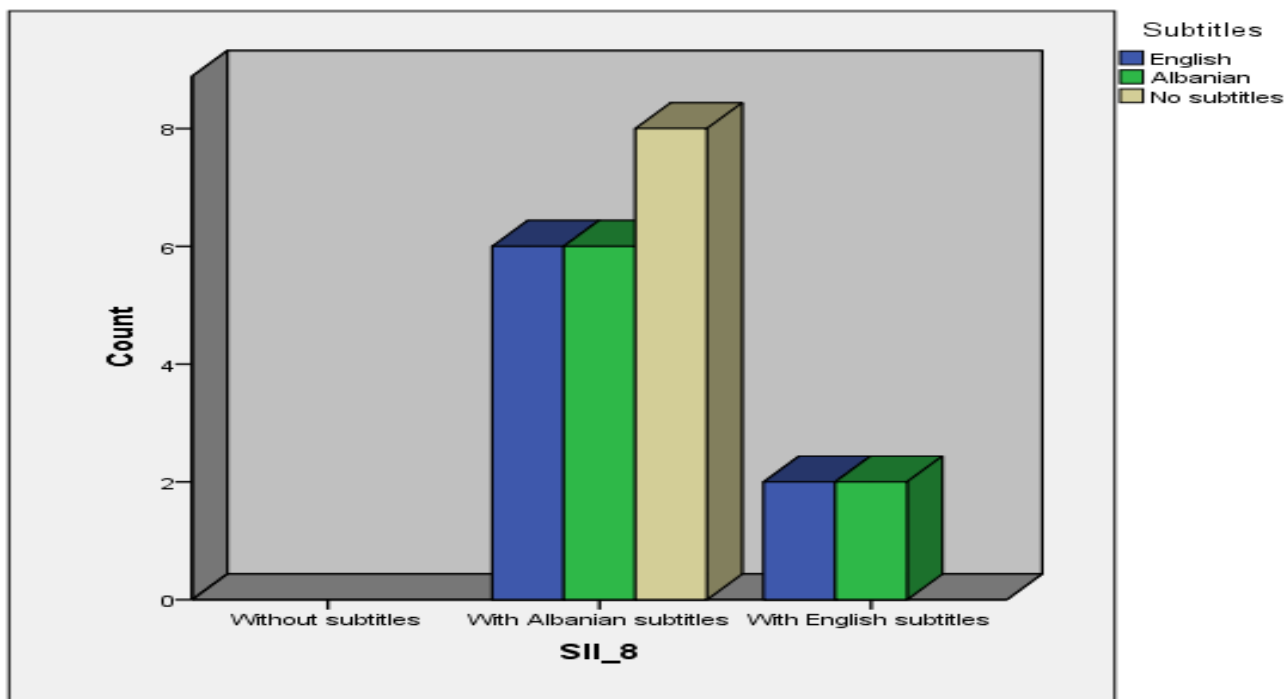
Answers to question 5: How often do you watch English movies for enjoyment? – All groups



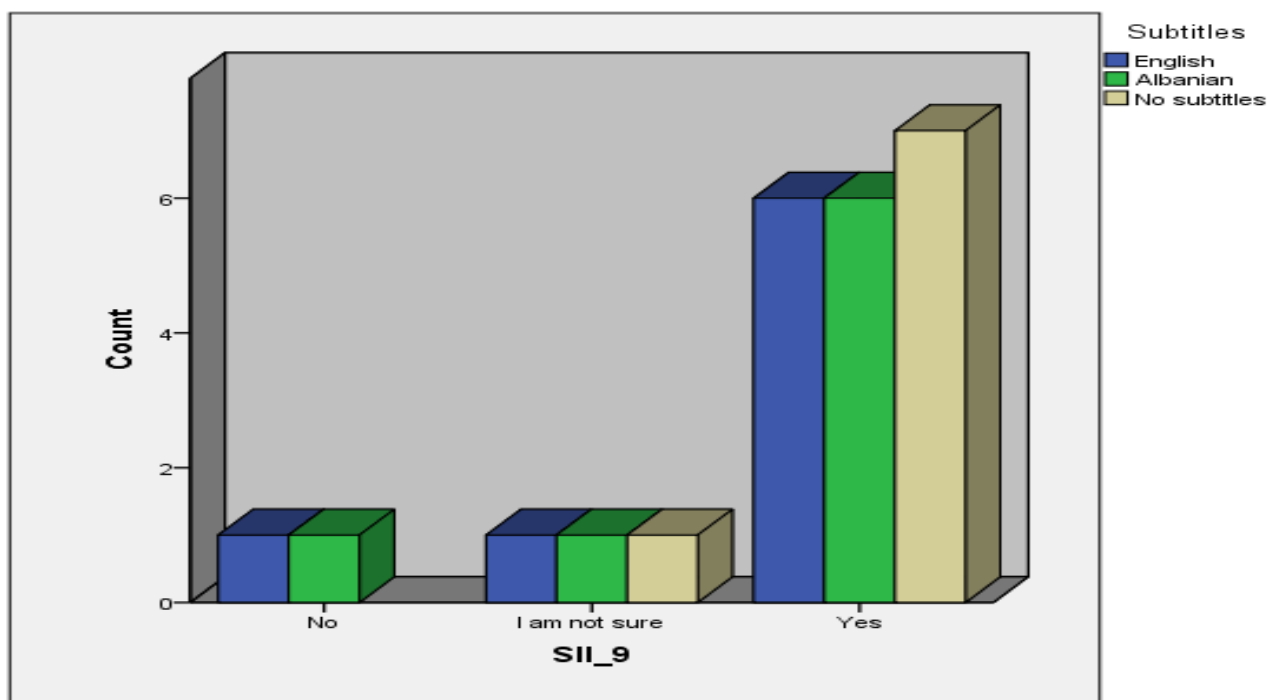
**Answers to question 6: How often do you watch movies for the purpose of learning English?
– All groups**



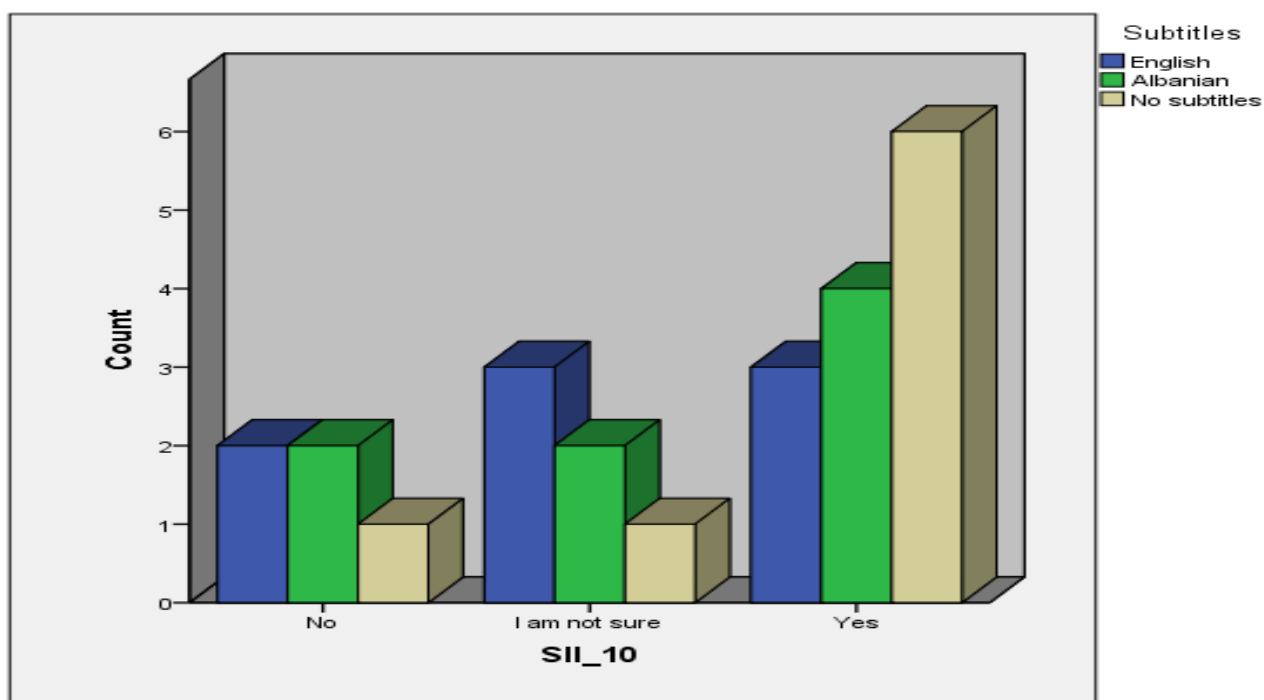
Answers to question 7: I prefer watching English movies: - All groups



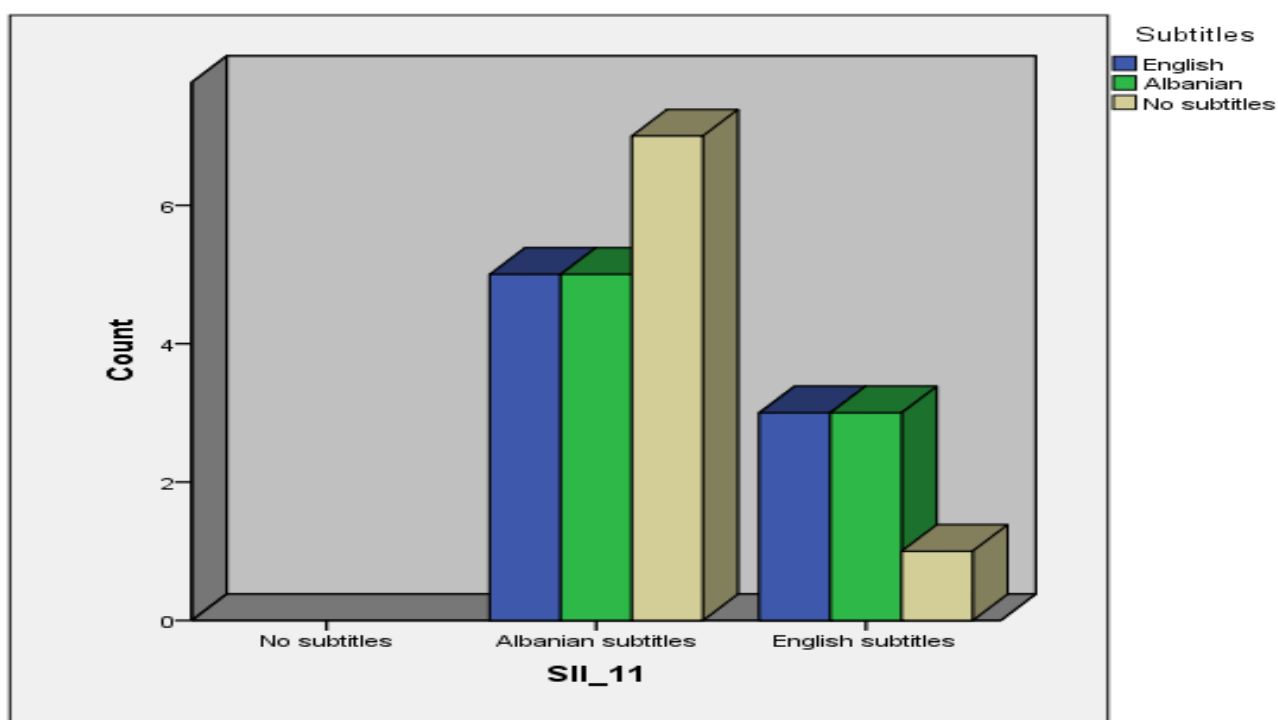
Answers to question 8: When I watch English movies for enjoyment, I prefer watching them – All groups



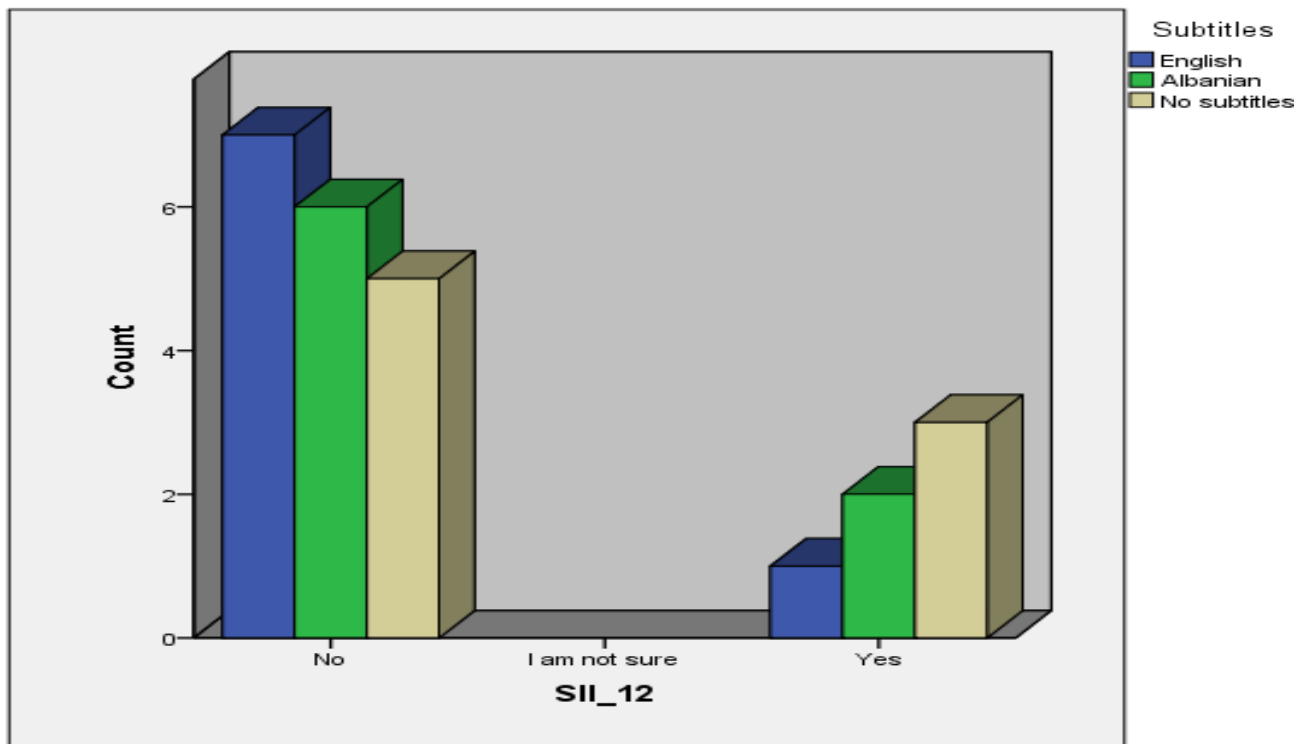
Answers to question 9: Do you think watching movies outside the classroom is an effective way to learn vocabulary? – All groups



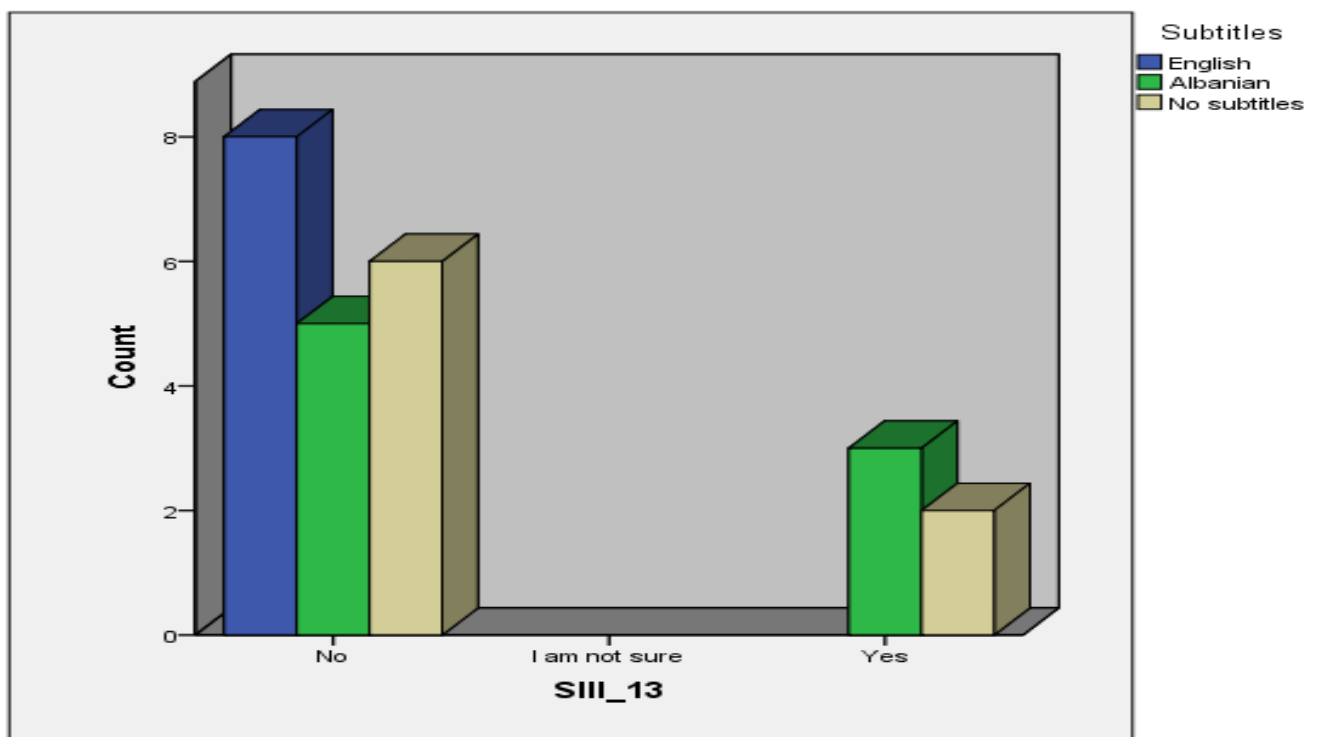
**Answers to question 10: Have you ever used subtitled movies to learn English vocabulary?
– All groups**



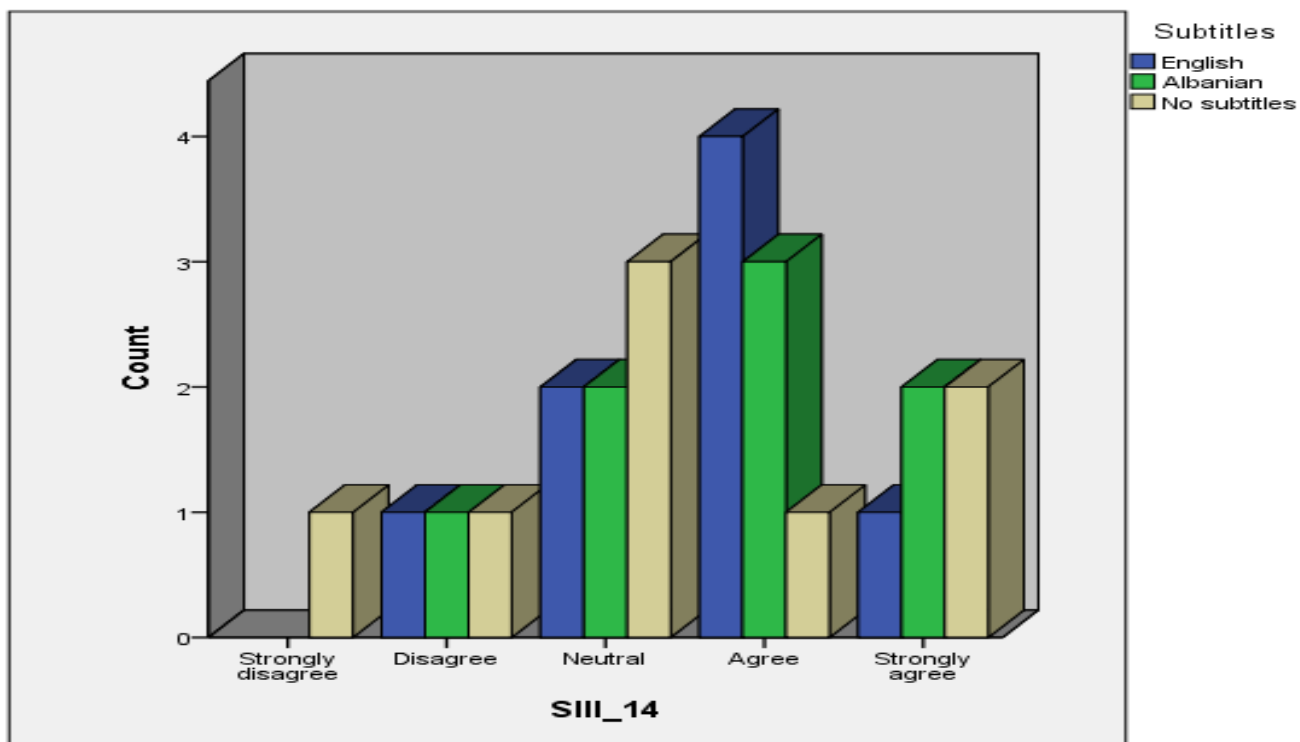
Answers to question 11: Do you think watching English movies is an effective way to learn vocabulary when watching them with: - All groups



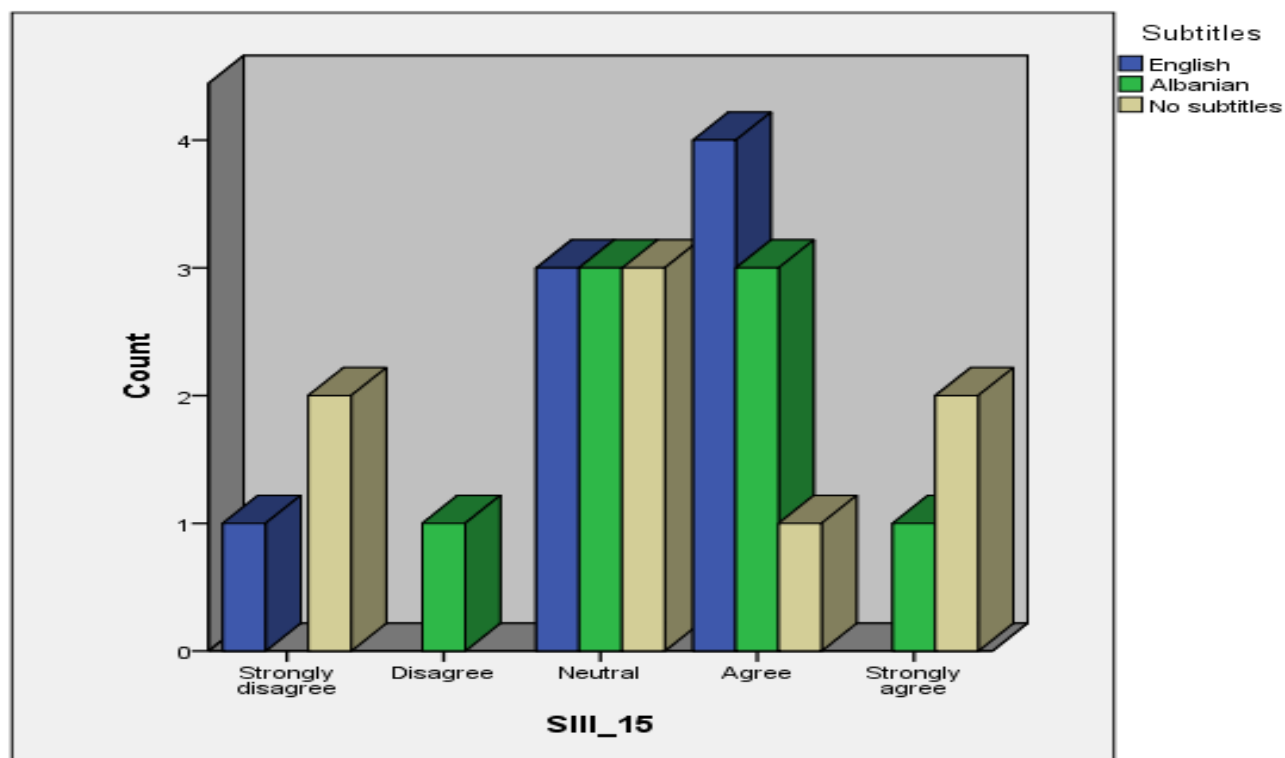
Answers to question 12: Have you ever watched movies in English classes? – All groups



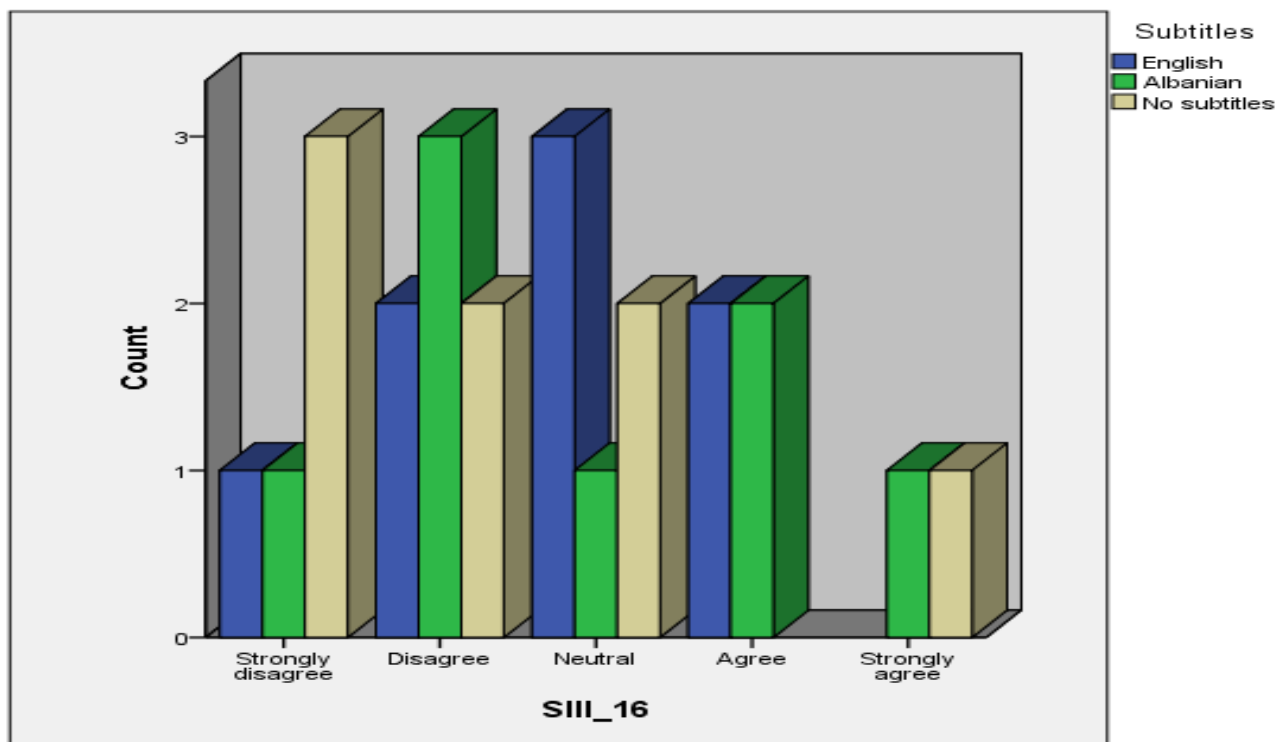
Answers to question 13: Have you ever watched the movie “Click” prior to this experiment?
– All groups



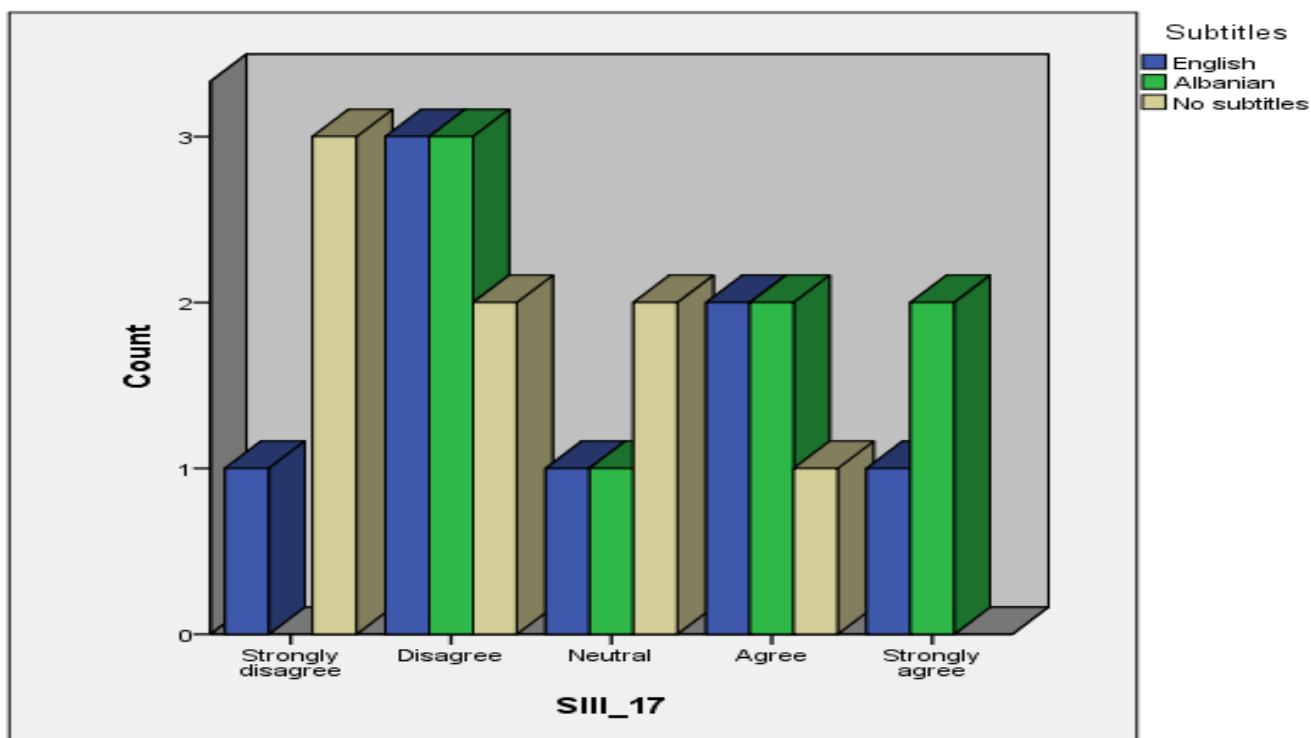
Answers to question 14: “Click” is a useful movie in developing English vocabulary?
– All groups



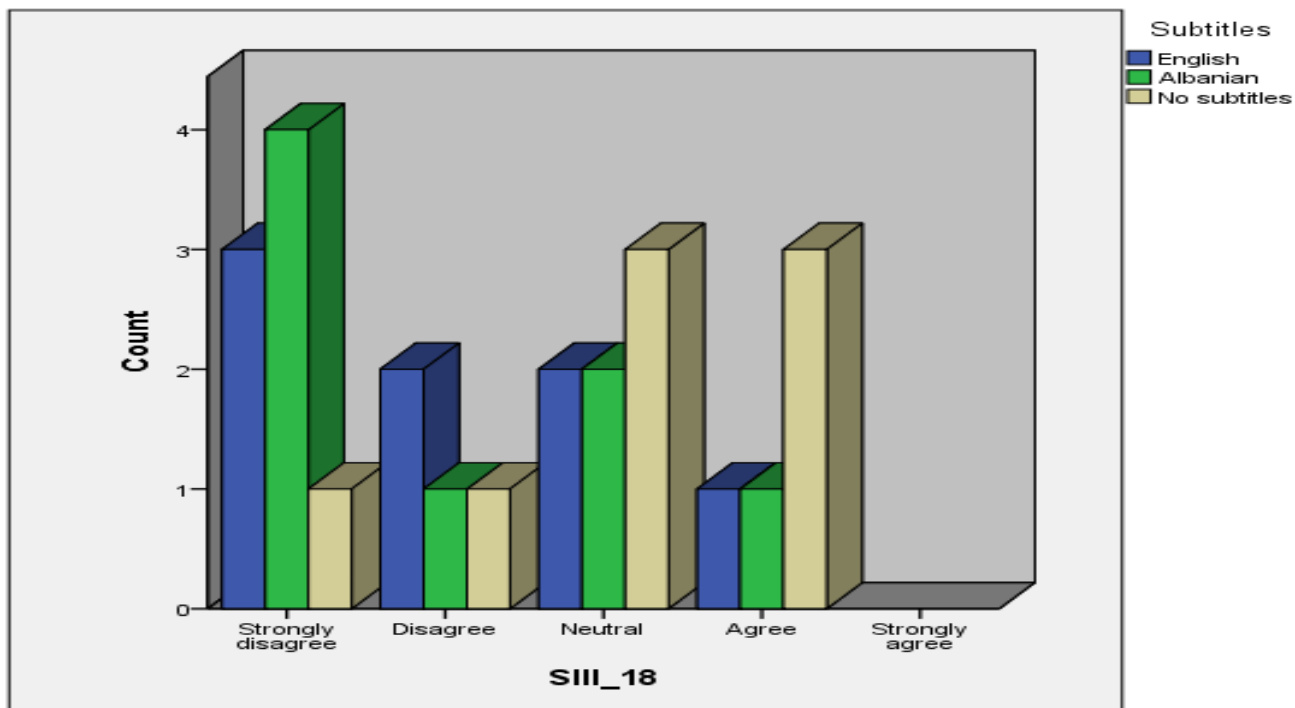
Answers to question 15: The vocabulary used in the movie “Click” can be used in daily life.
– All groups



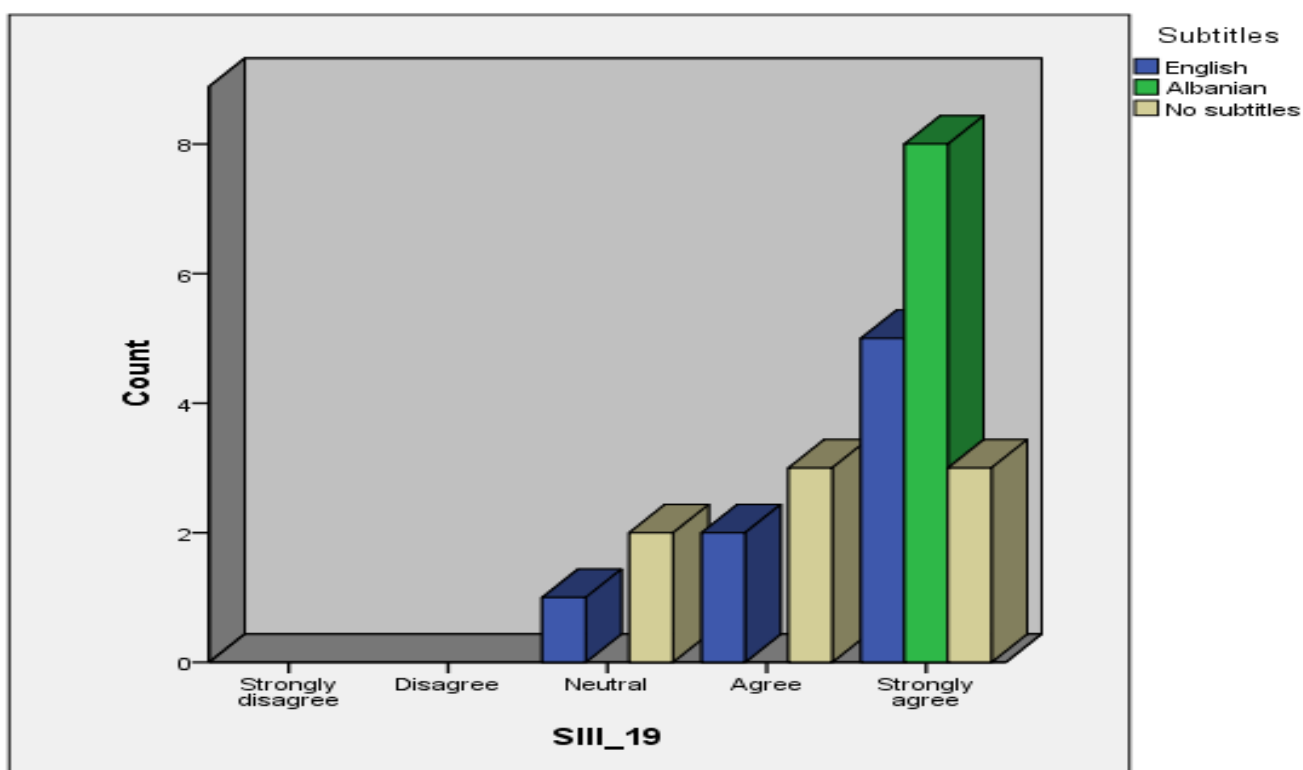
Answers to question 16: When watching the movie “Click” I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context.



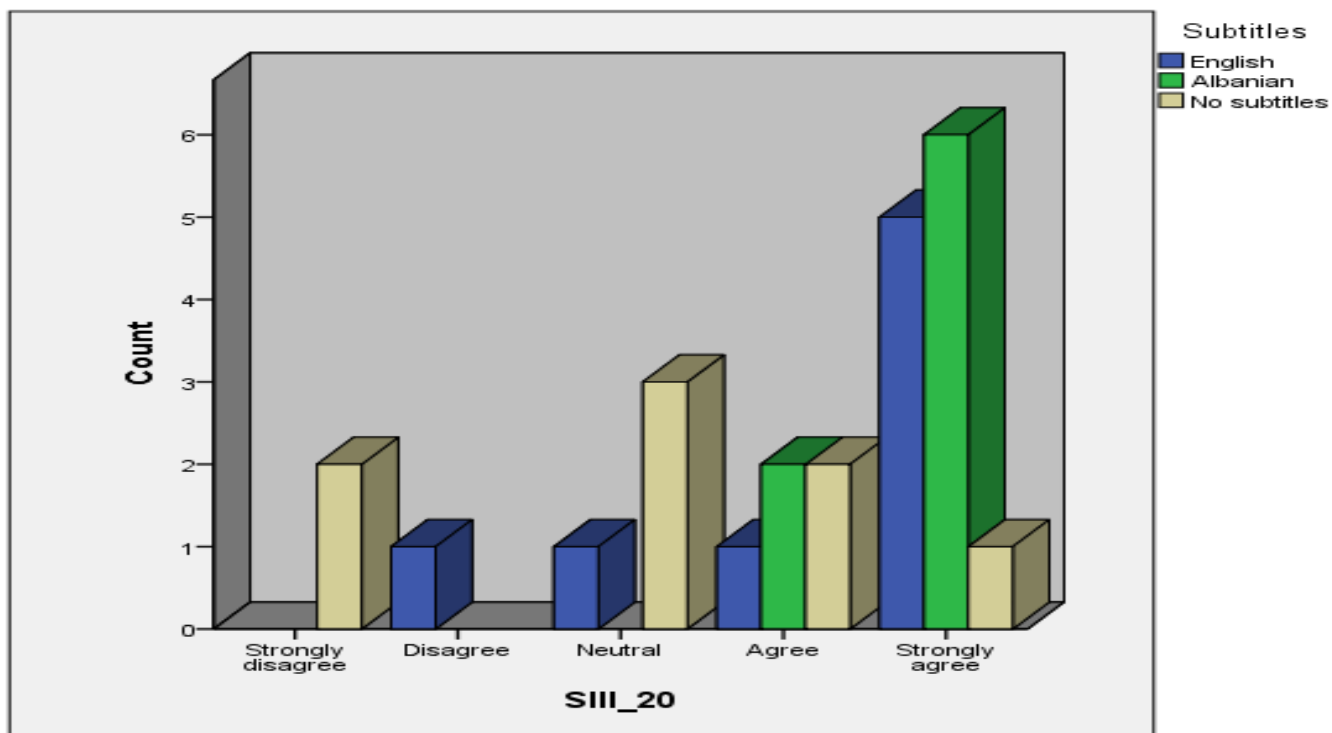
**Answers to question 17: I was able to gain new English words while watching the movie “Click”.
– All groups**



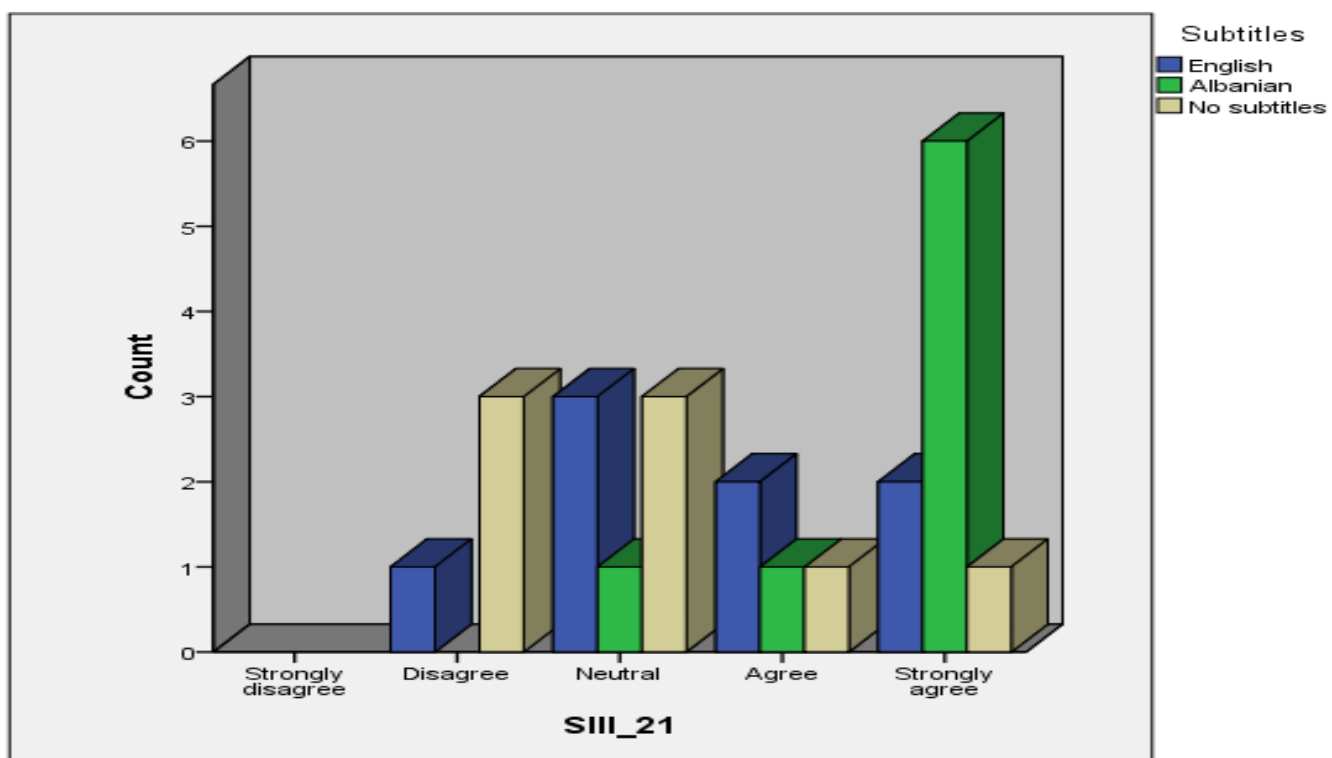
Answers to question 18: The movie “Click” was difficult to understand. – All groups



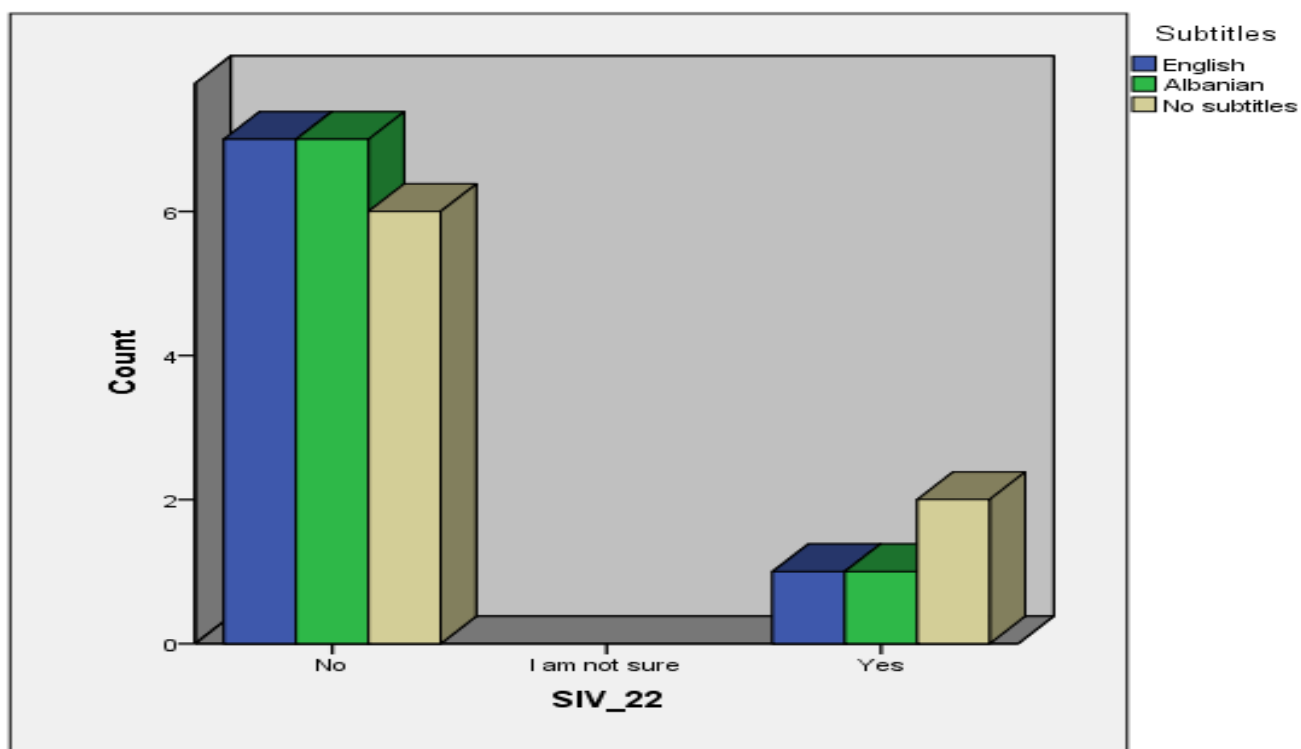
Answers to question 19: The content of the movie “Click” was interesting. – All groups



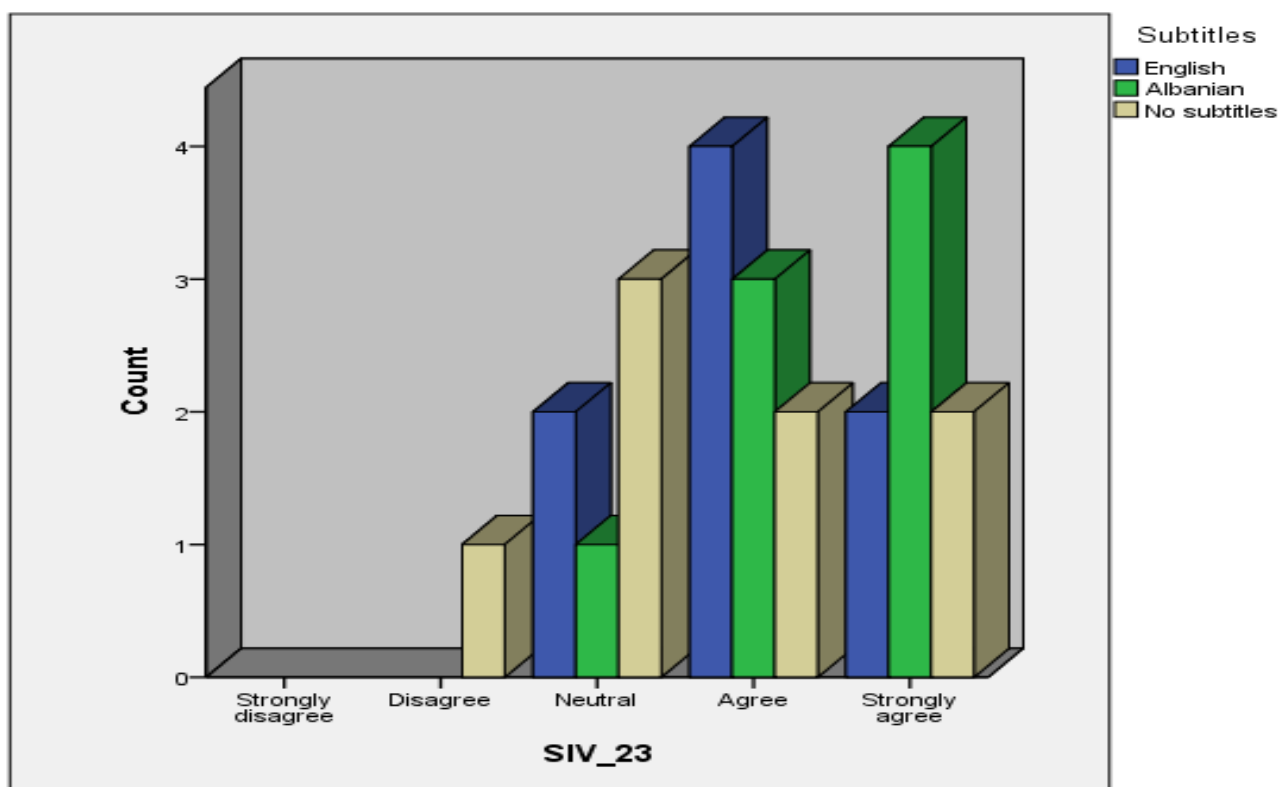
Answers to question 20: Learning vocabulary while watching the movie “Click” was interesting – All groups



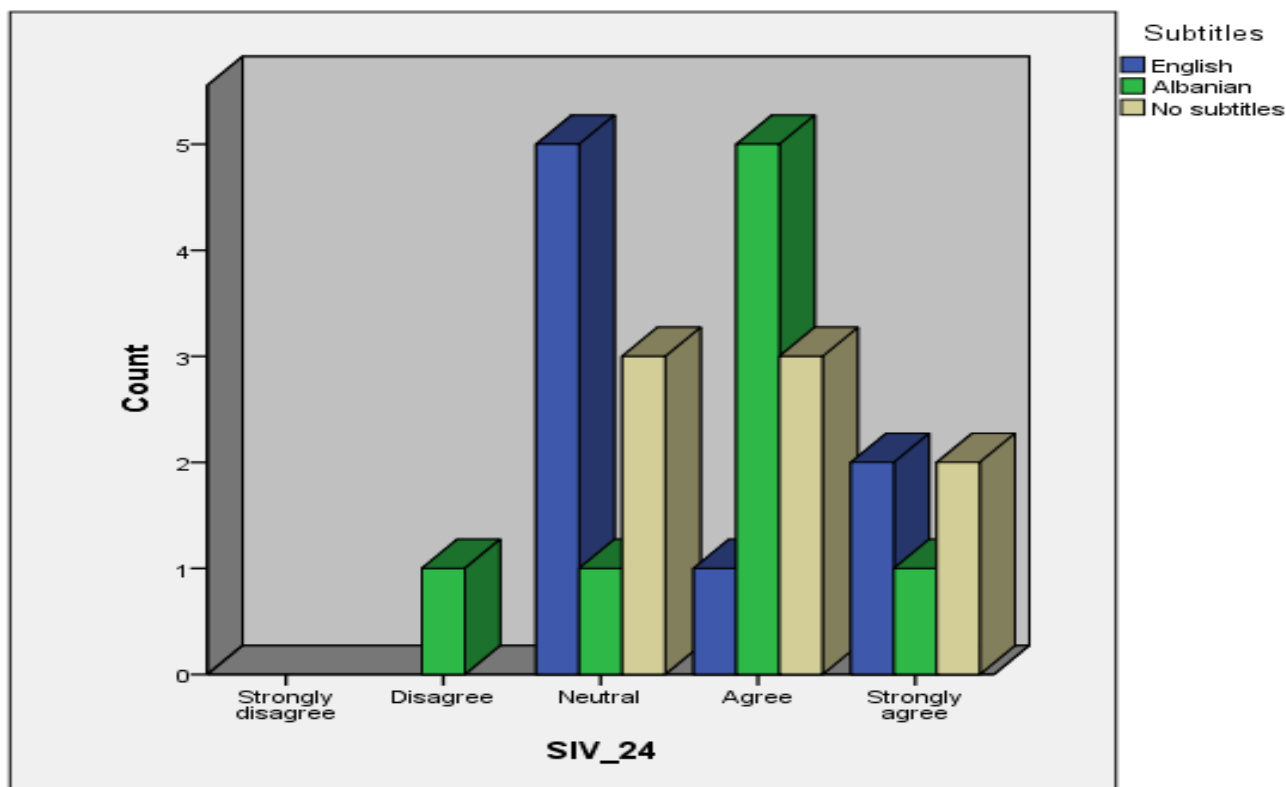
Answers to question 21: The speech in the movie “Click” was in normal pace. – All groups



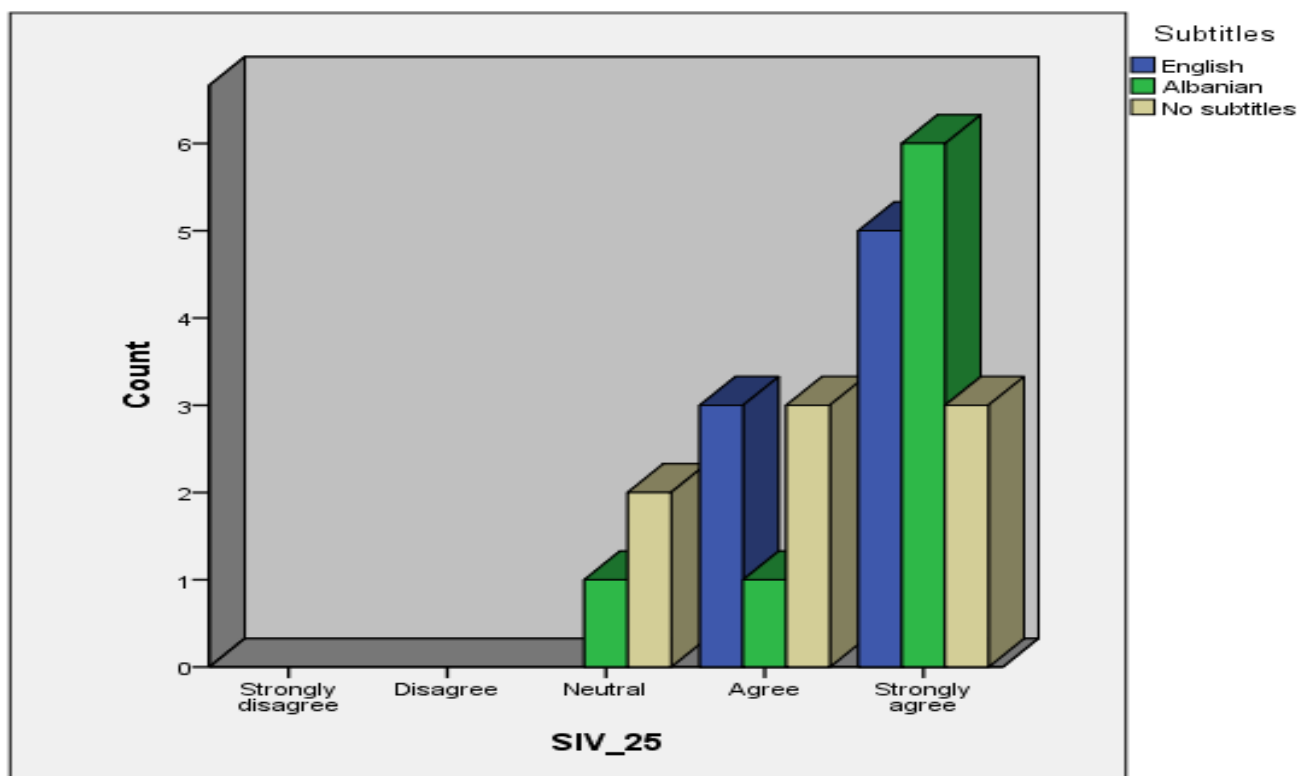
Answers to question 22: Have you ever watched the movie “Bruce Almighty” prior to this experiment? – All groups



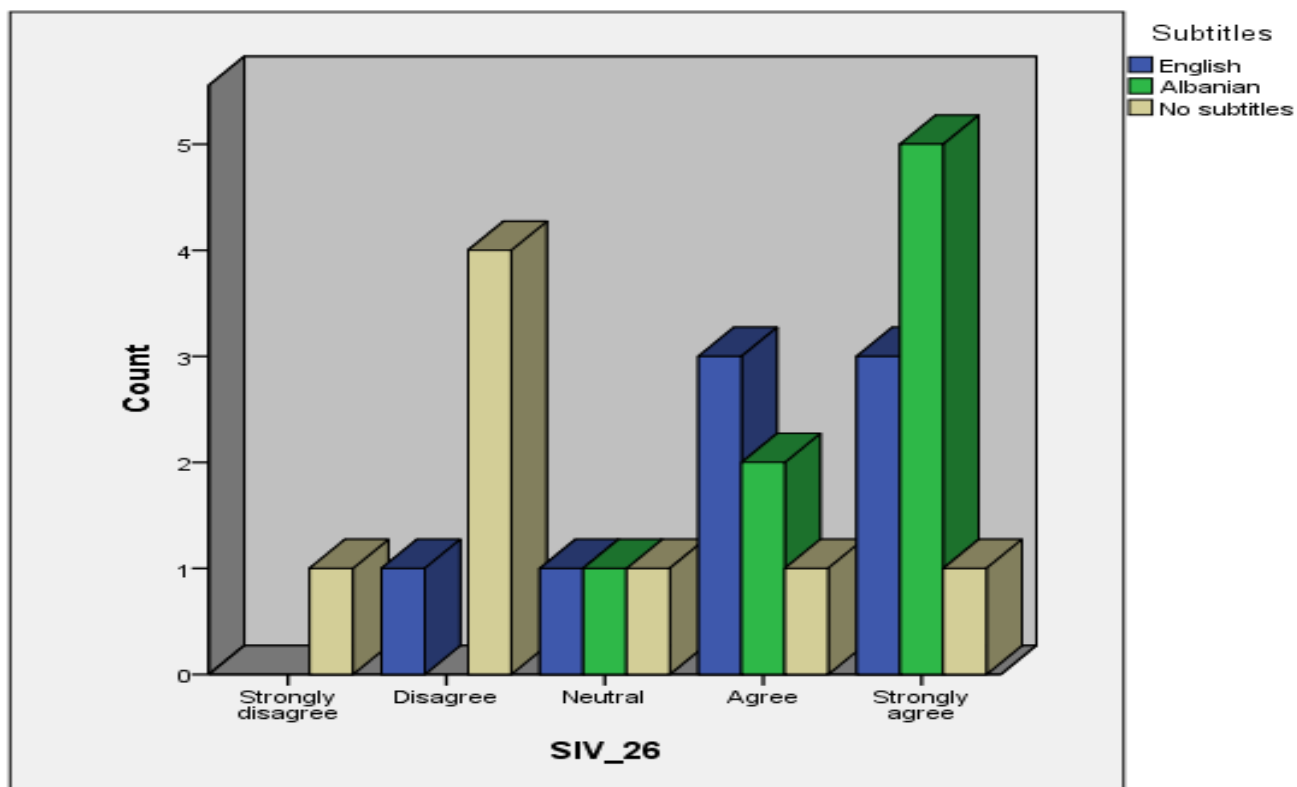
Answers to question 23: “Bruce Almighty” is a useful movie in developing English vocabulary? – All groups



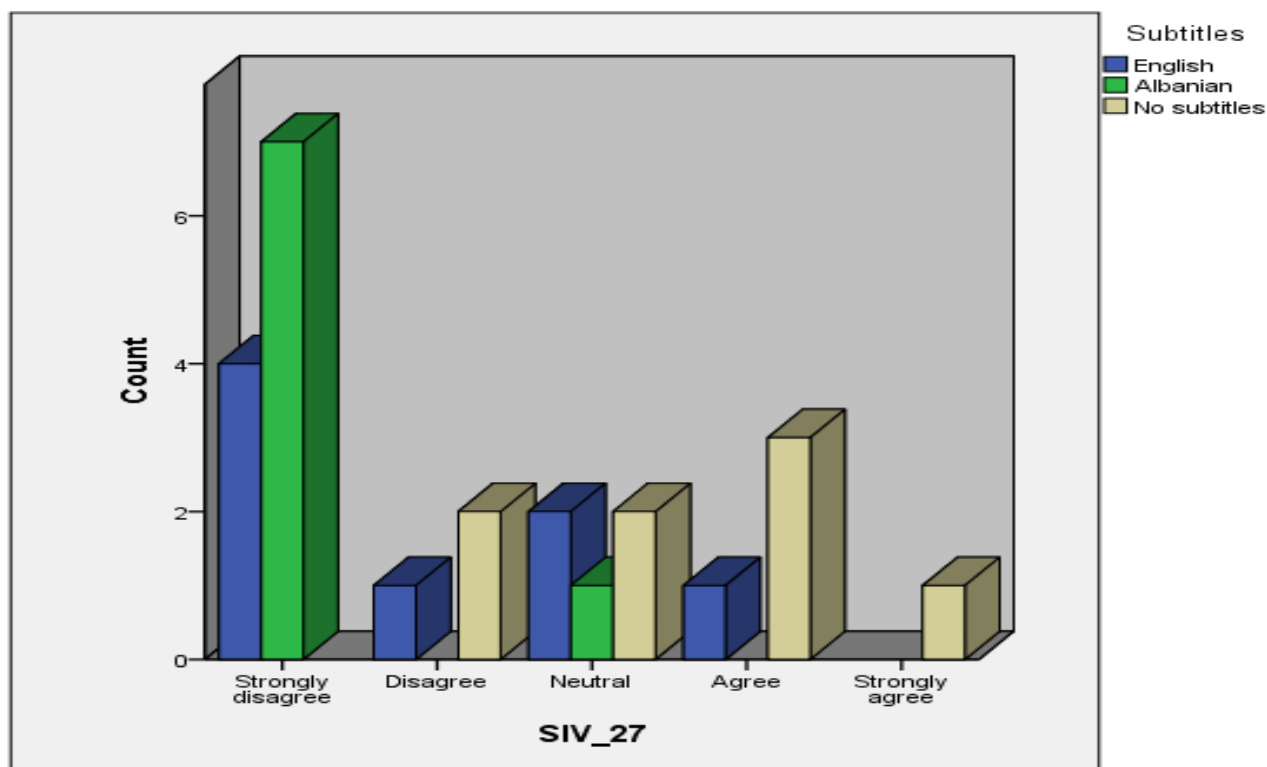
Answers to question 24: The vocabulary used in the movie “Bruce Almighty” can be used in daily life? – All groups



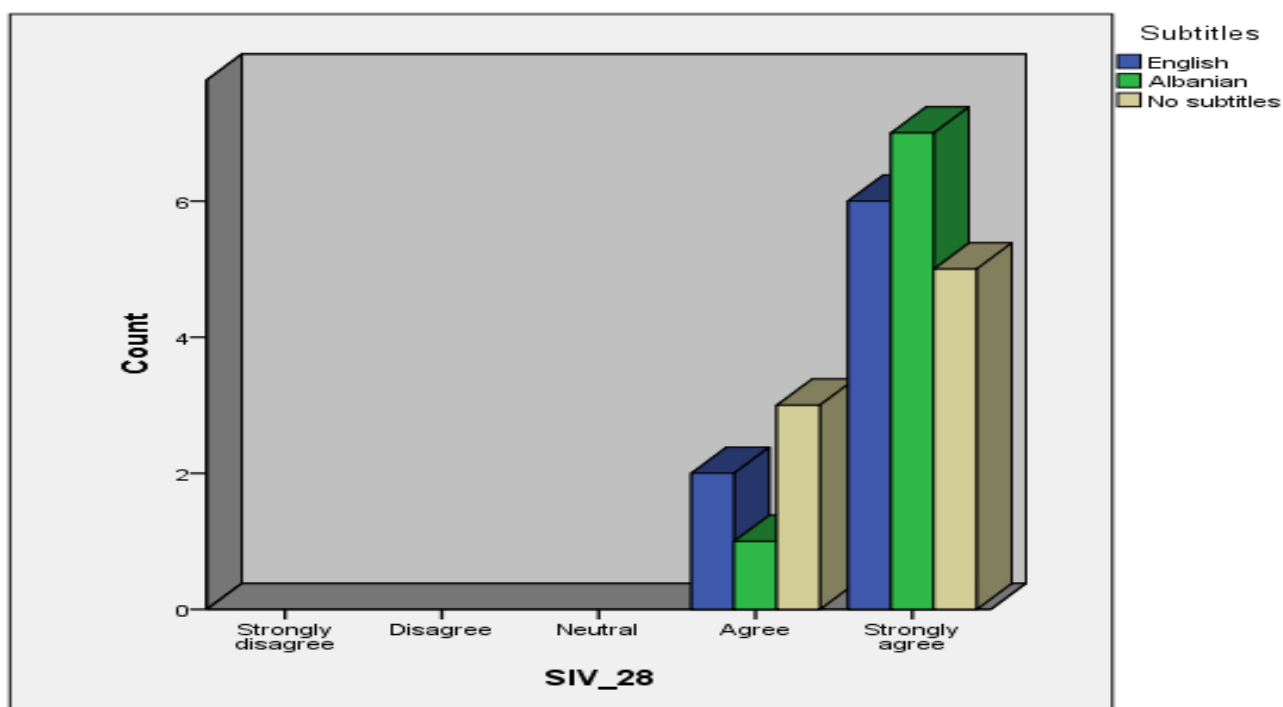
Answers to question 25: When watching the movie “Bruce Almighty” I could guess the meaning of the unknown vocabulary from the movie context. – All groups



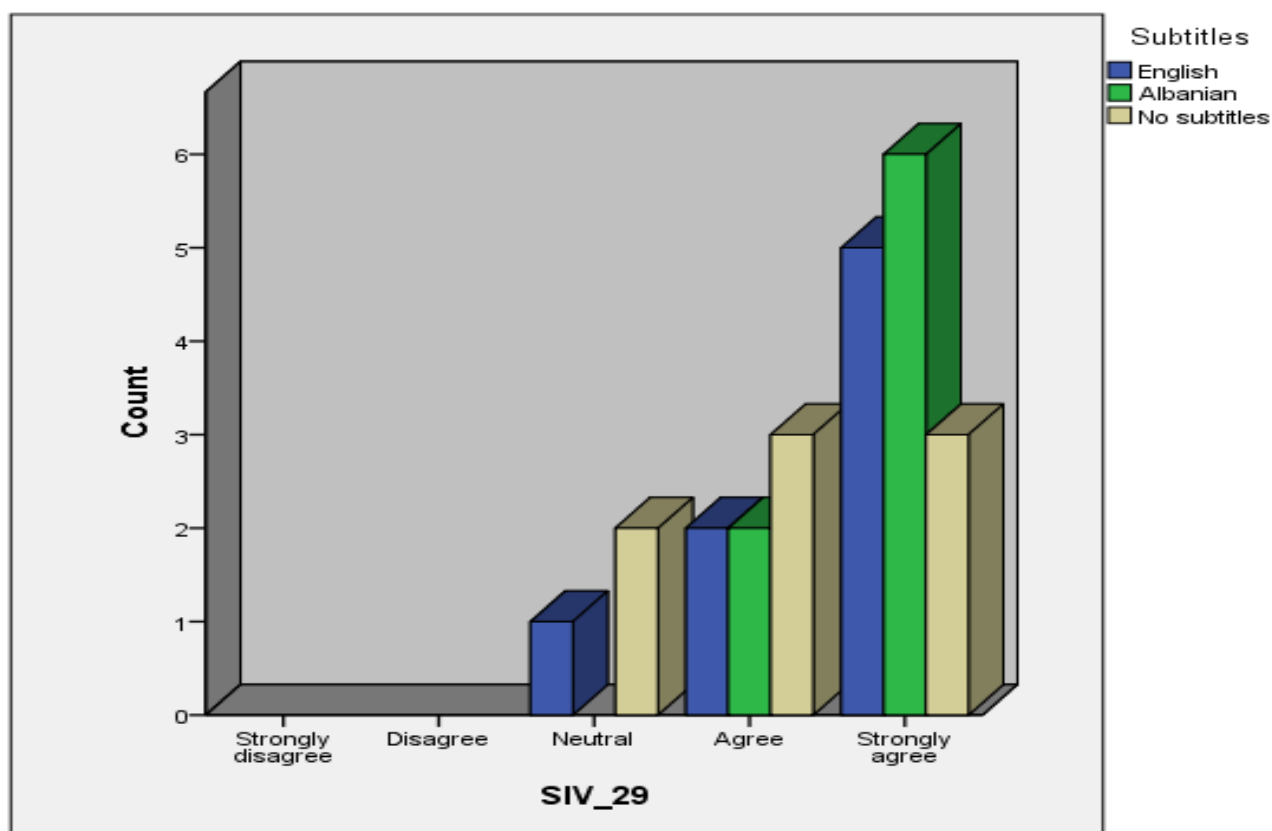
Answers to question 26: I was able to gain new English words while watching the movie “Bruce Almighty”. – All groups



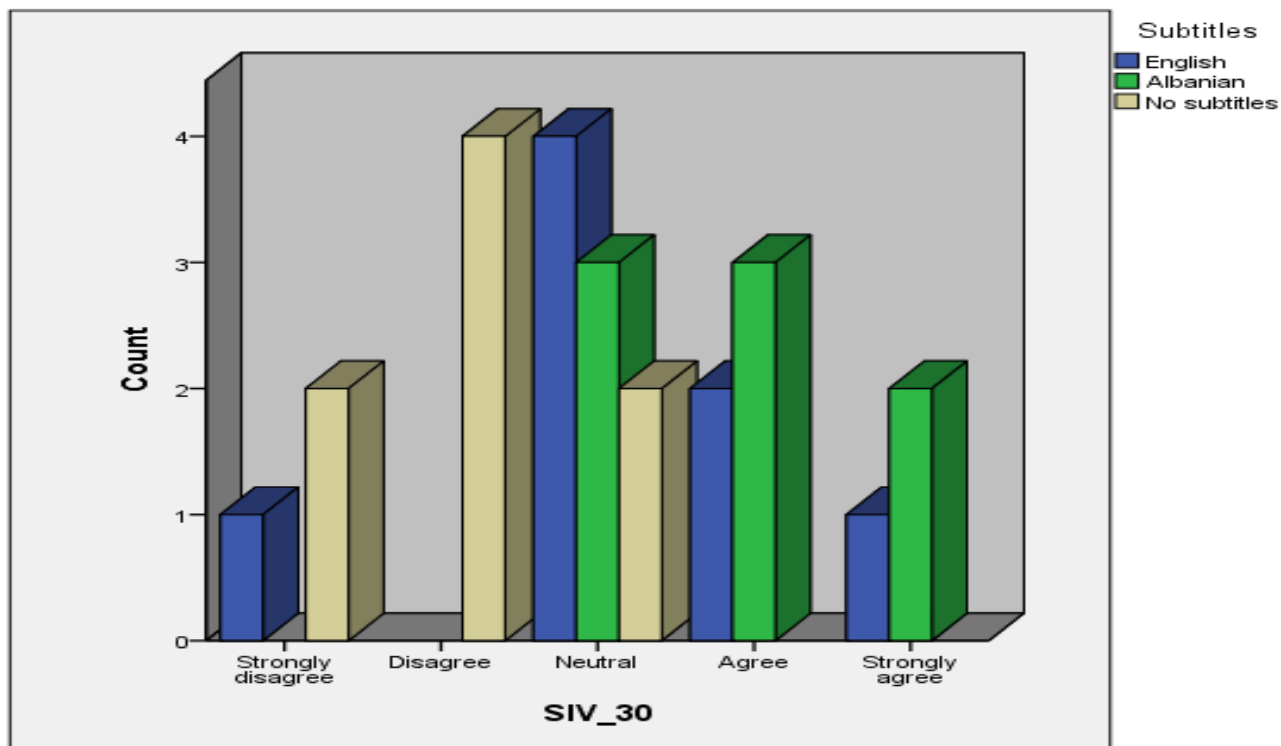
Answers to question 27: The movie “Bruce Almighty” was difficult to understand. – All groups



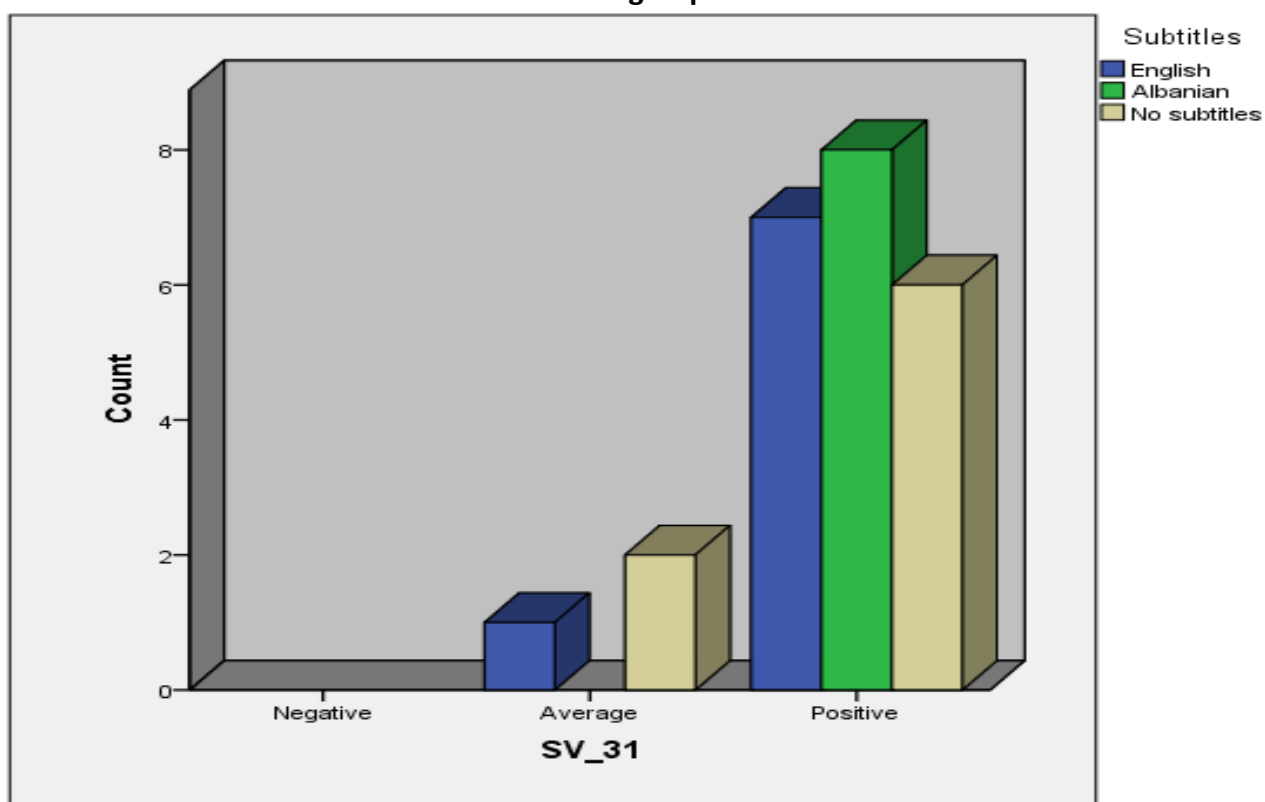
**Answers to question 28: The content of the movie “Bruce Almighty” was interesting.
– All groups**



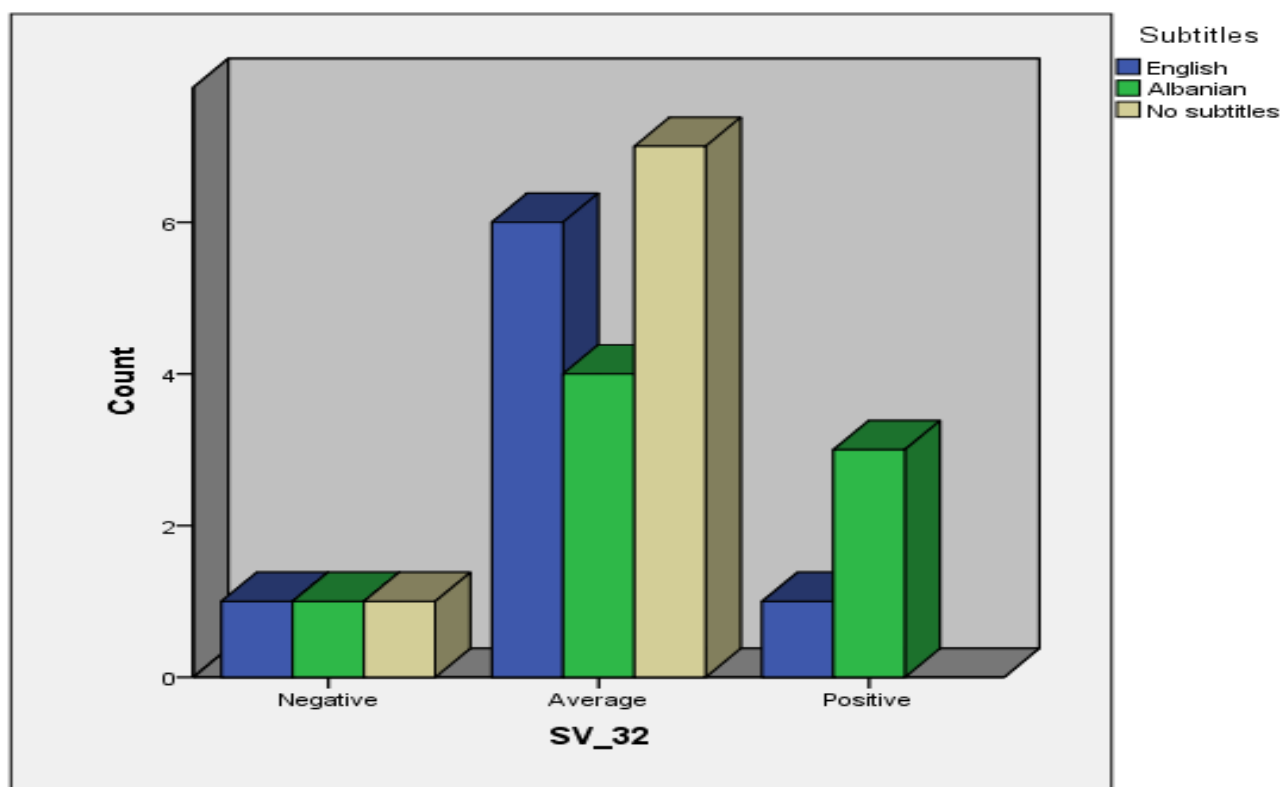
Answers to question 29: Learning vocabulary while watching the movie “Bruce Almighty” was interesting – All groups



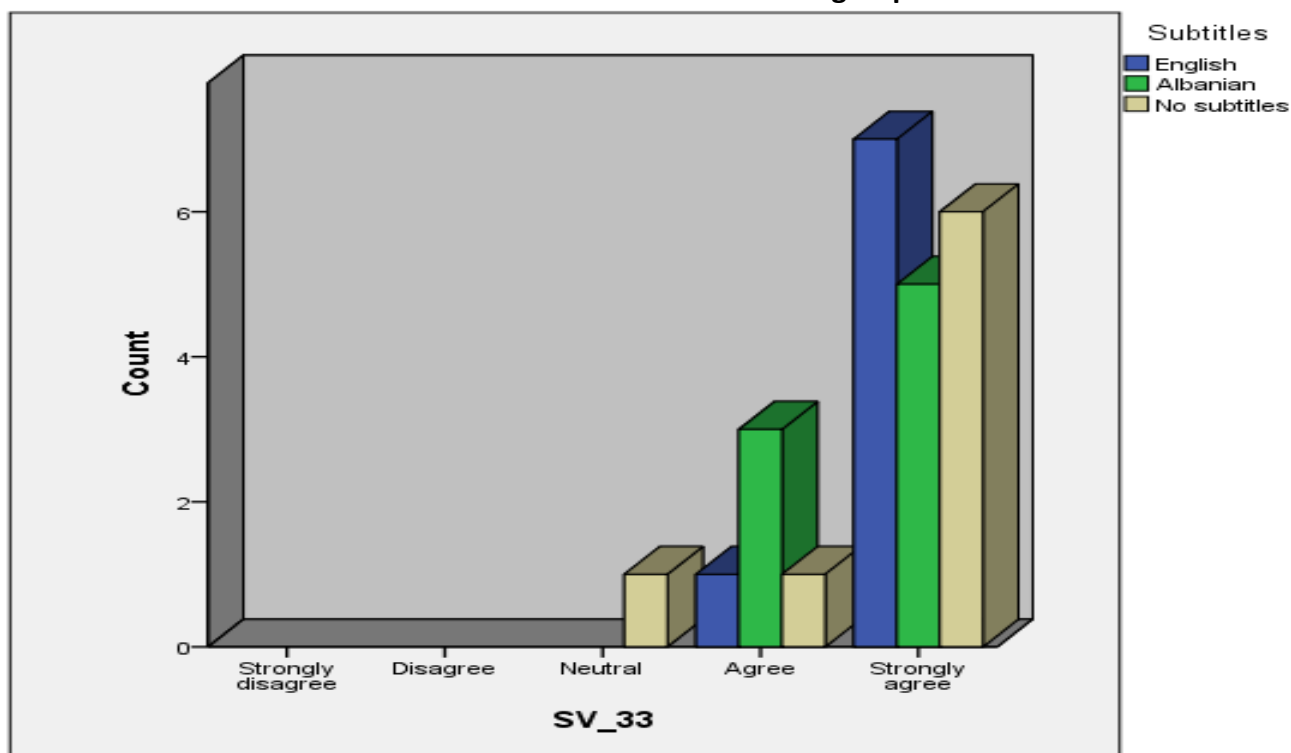
**Answers to question 30: The speech in the movie “Bruce Almighty” was in normal pace.
– All groups**



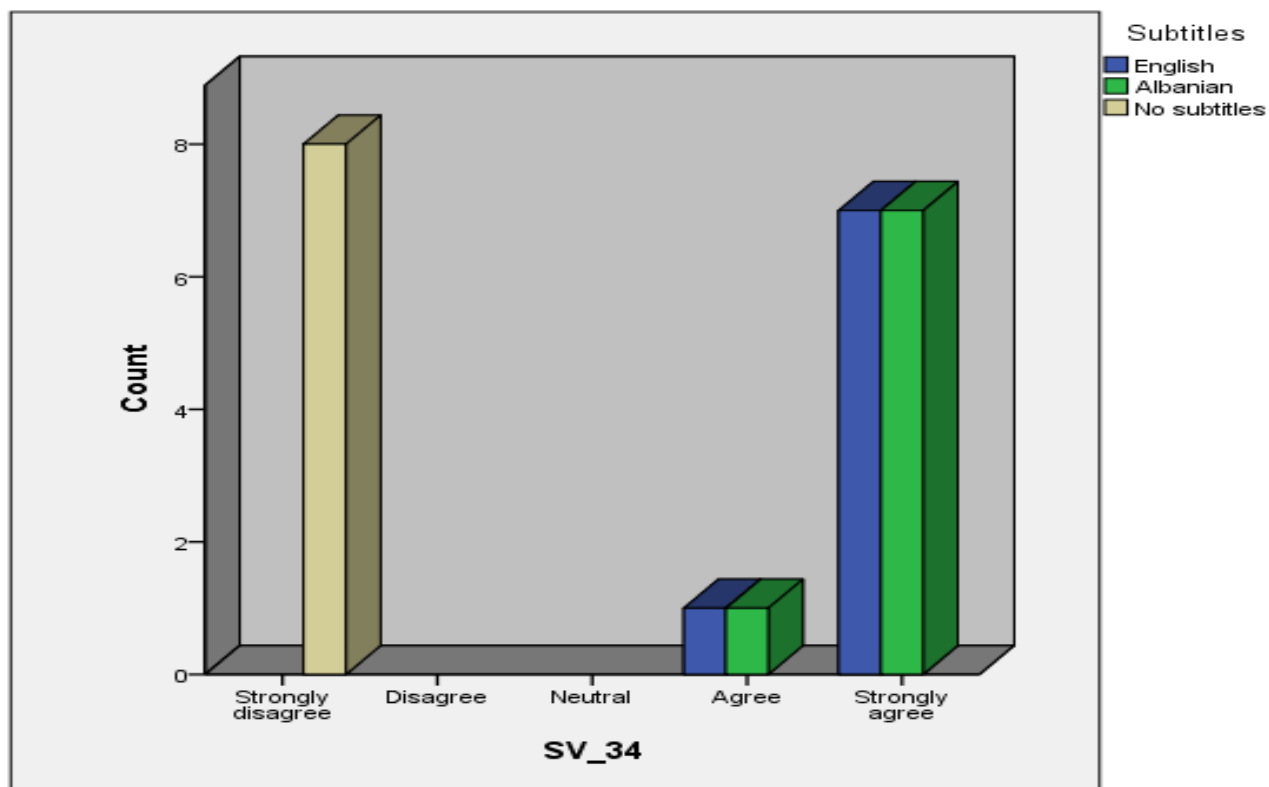
Answers to question 31: How would you classify the experience of watching the movies with the instruction from the teacher? – All groups



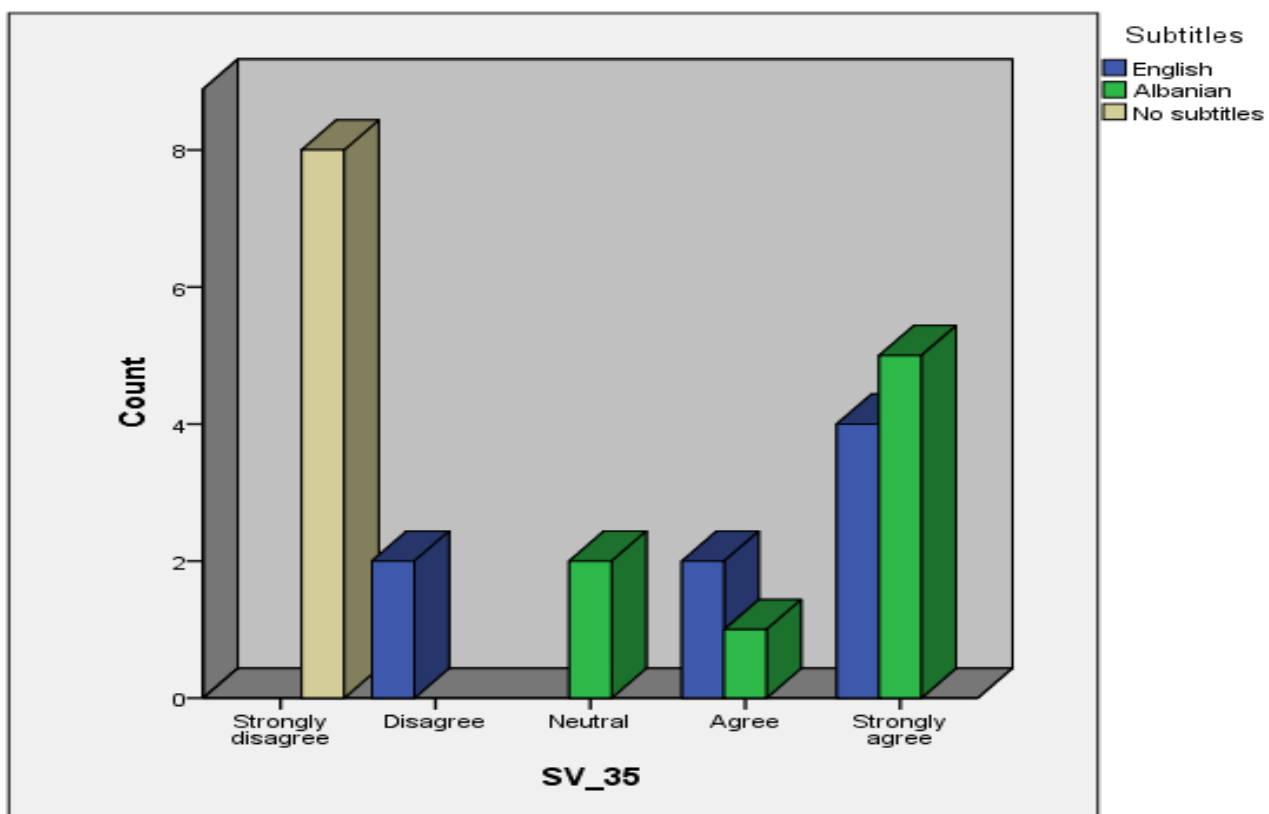
Answers to question 32: How would classify the experience of watching the movies without the instruction from the teacher? – All groups



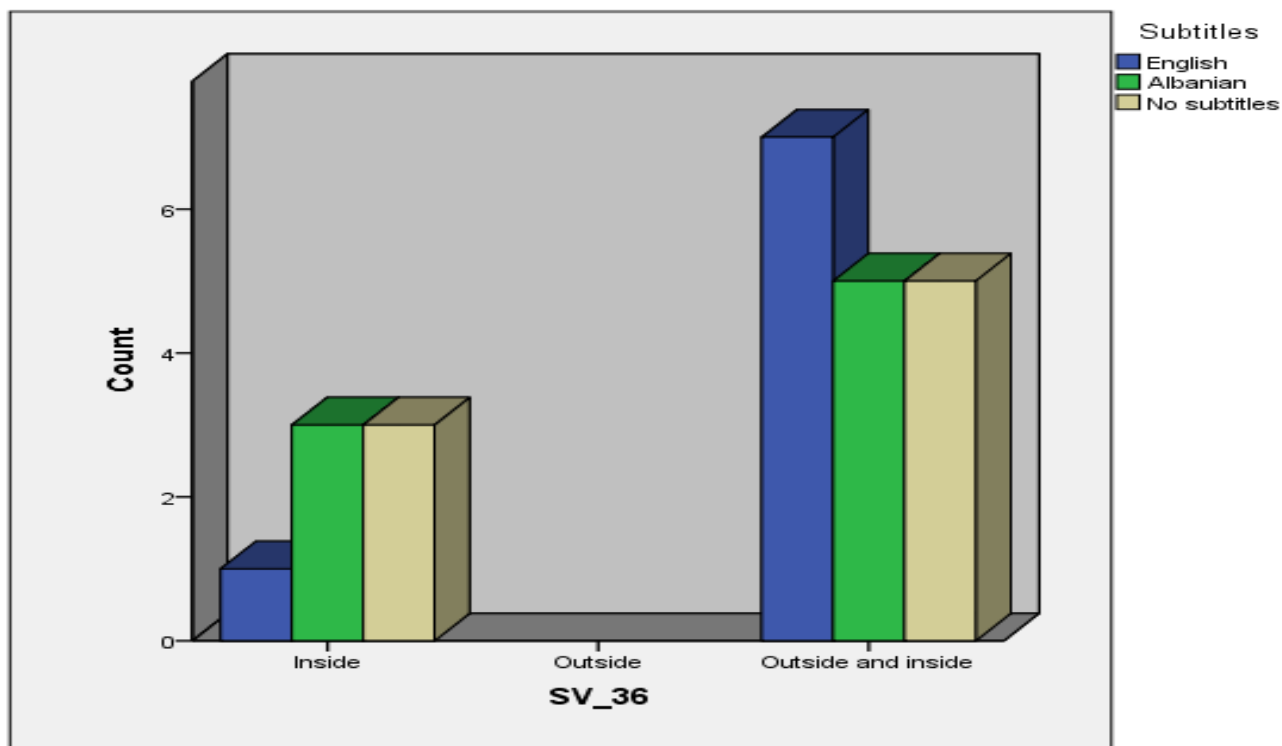
Answers to question 33: Our teacher had a vital role in teaching the vocabulary and helping us understand them – All groups



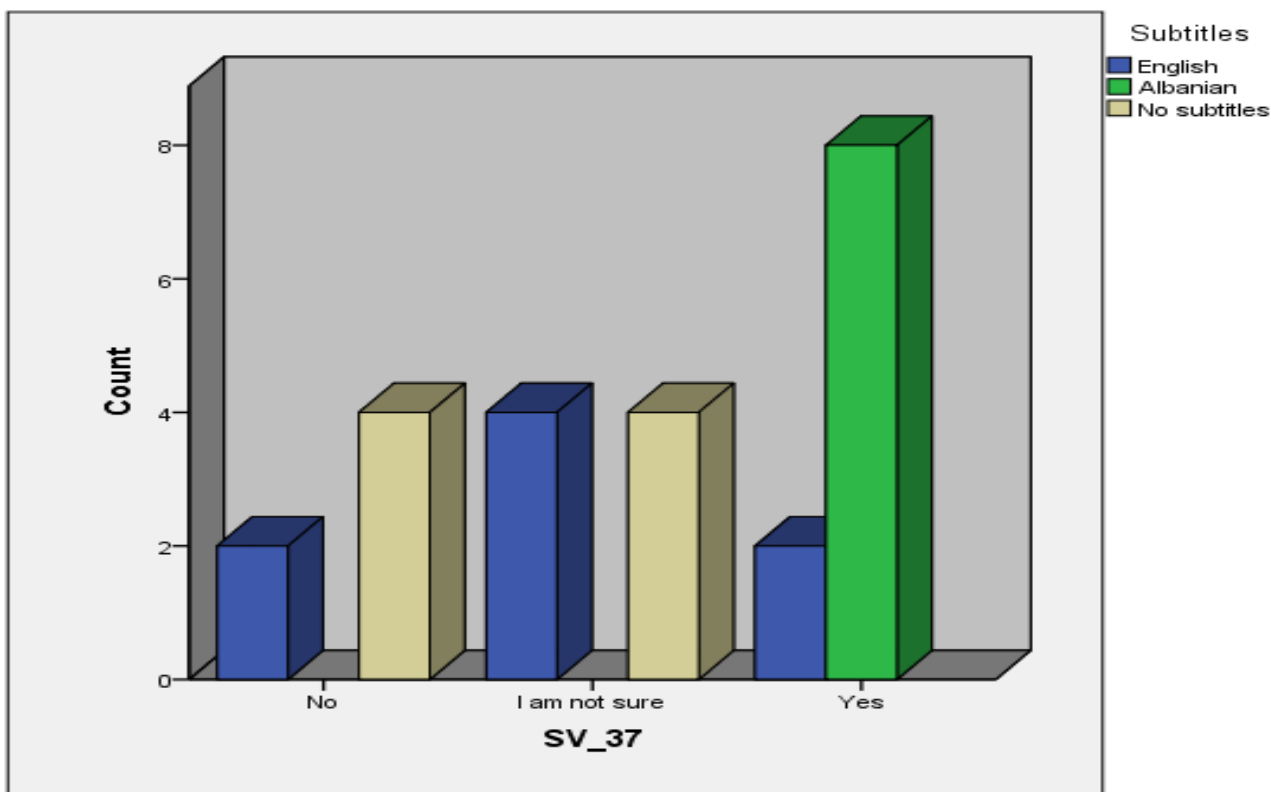
Answers to question 34: The appearance of subtitles on the screen distracted my attention on the audio – All groups



Answers to question 35: The subtitles were easy to read – All groups



Answers to question 36: Do you consider watching movies to learn vocabulary is useful inside or outside the classroom? – All groups



Answers to question 37: In the future, do you think you will watch movies (with/ without subtitles – as applied) for improving your vocabulary? – All groups

Appendix 13 – Teachers' questionnaire responses

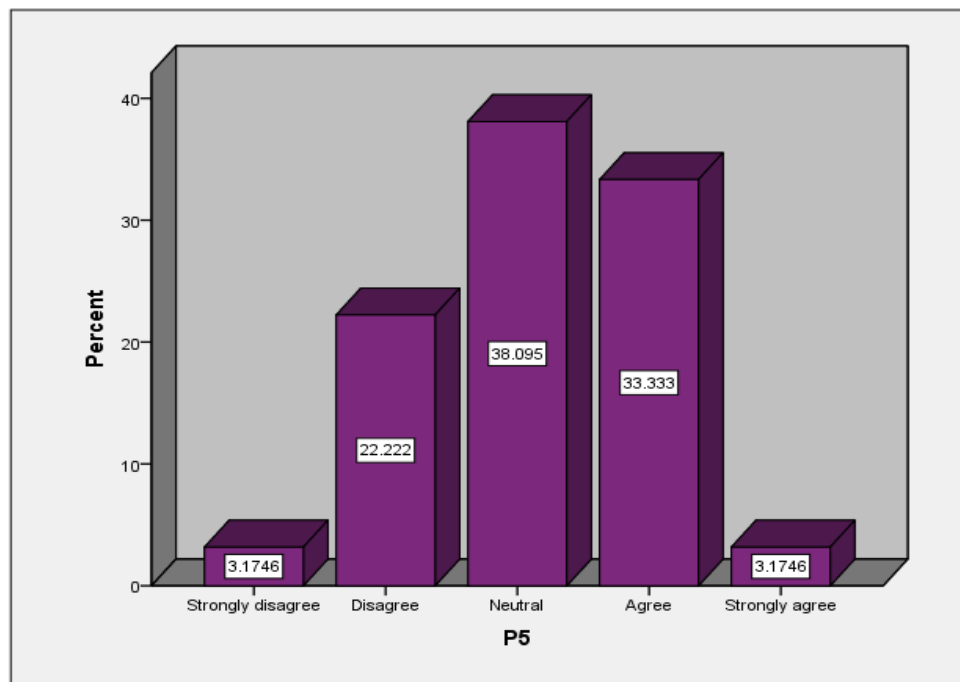


Fig. 76: Teachers' answers to question: Teaching vocabulary is easy.

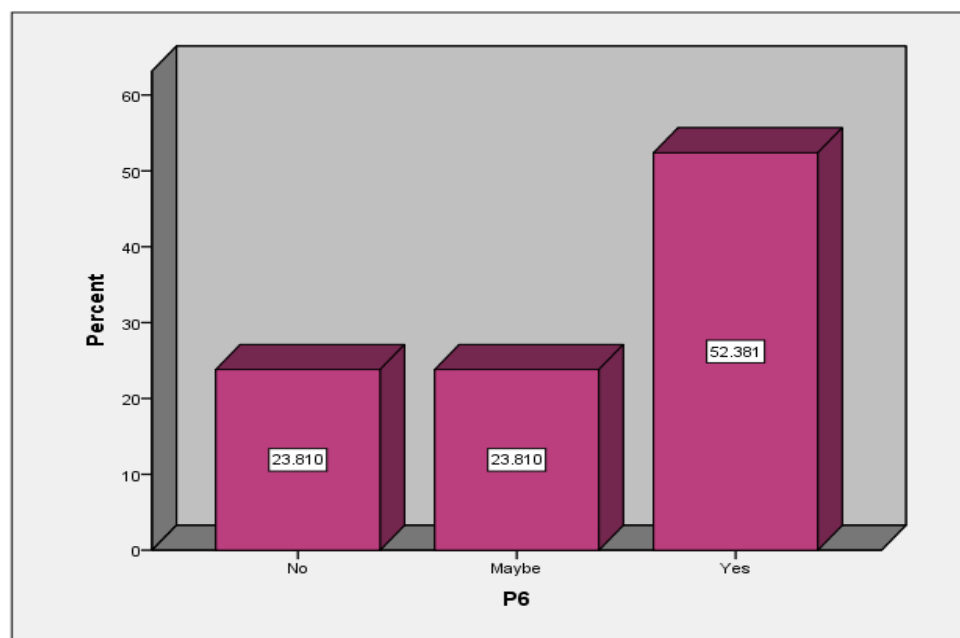


Fig. 77: Teachers' answers to question: I use movies in teaching English

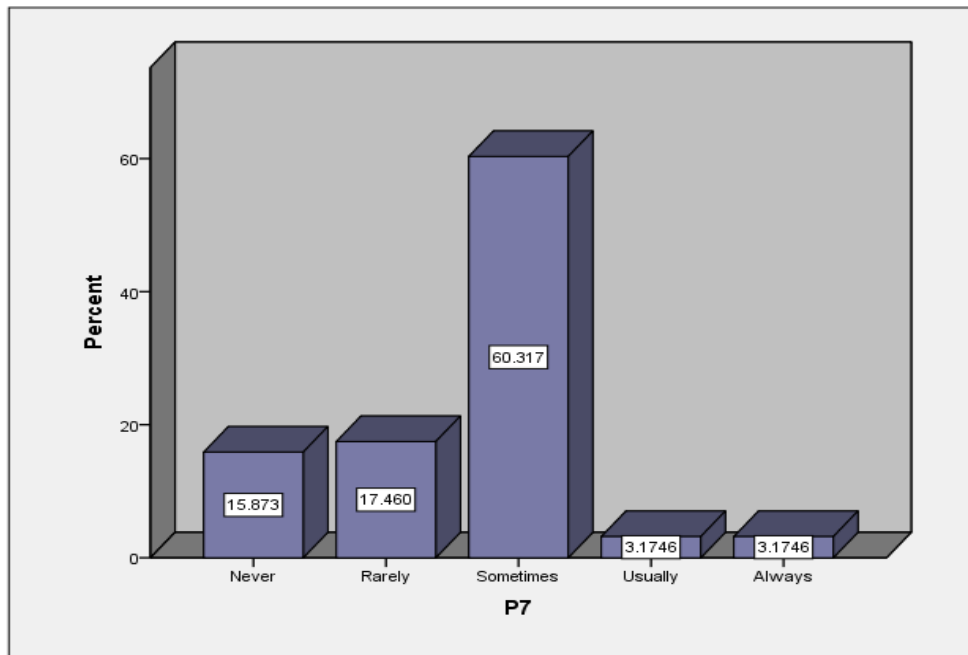


Fig. 78: Teachers' answers to question: How often do you use movies in teaching English?

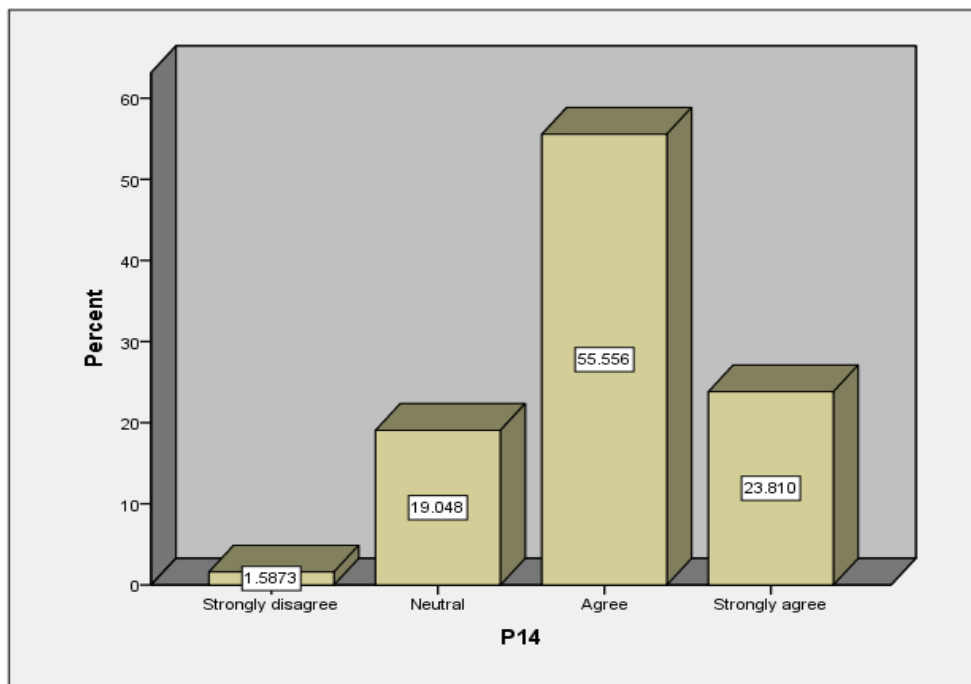


Fig. 79: Teachers' answers to question: Watching subtitled movies in English classes increase students' motivation and participation in the class.

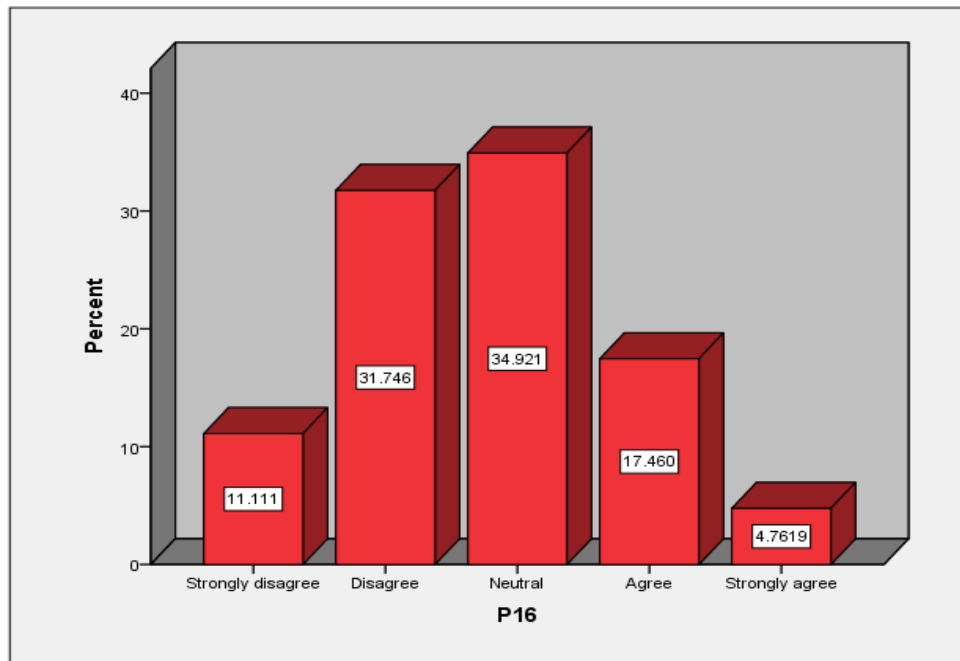


Fig. 80: Teachers' answers to question: Using subtitled movies in English classes is time consuming

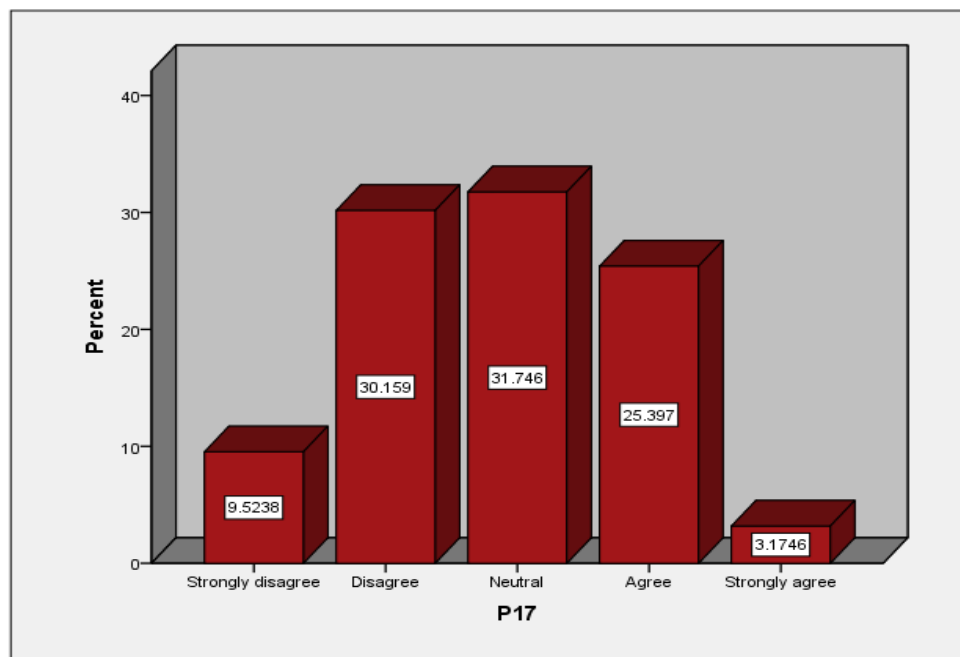


Fig. 81: Teachers' answers to question: Planning subtitled movie lessons is time-consuming

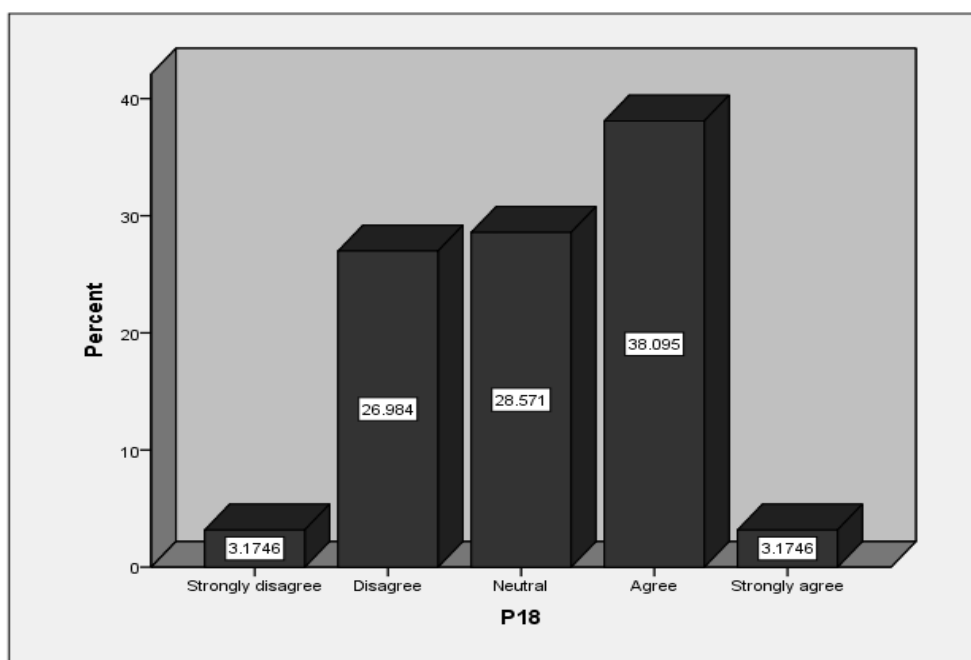


Fig. 82: Teachers' answers to question: Finding suitable subtitled movies is difficult.

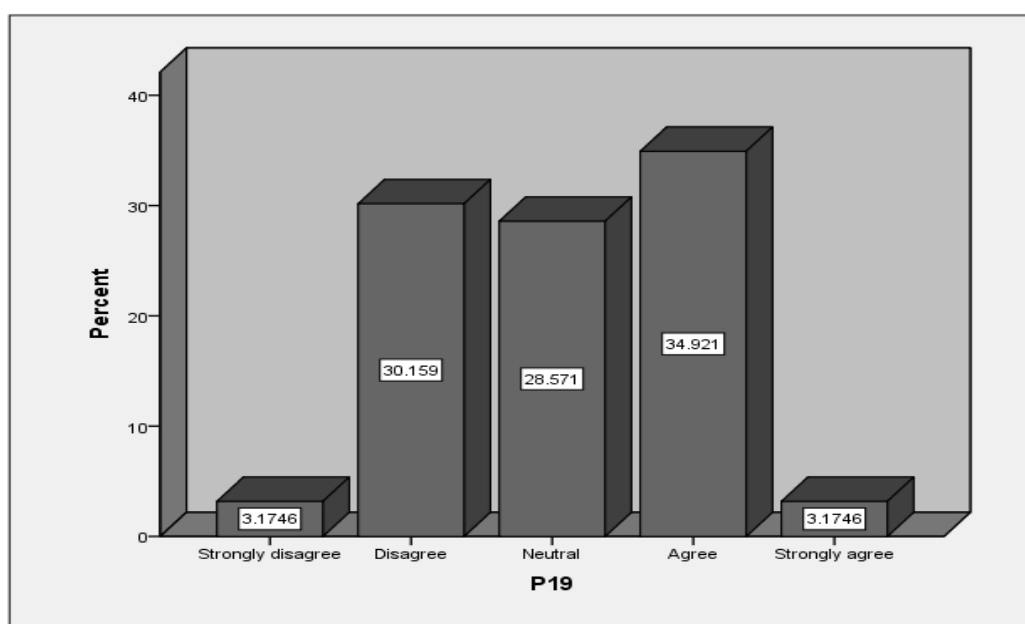


Fig. 83: Teachers' answers to question: Subtitled movies used in classes are difficult to relate to the curriculum.

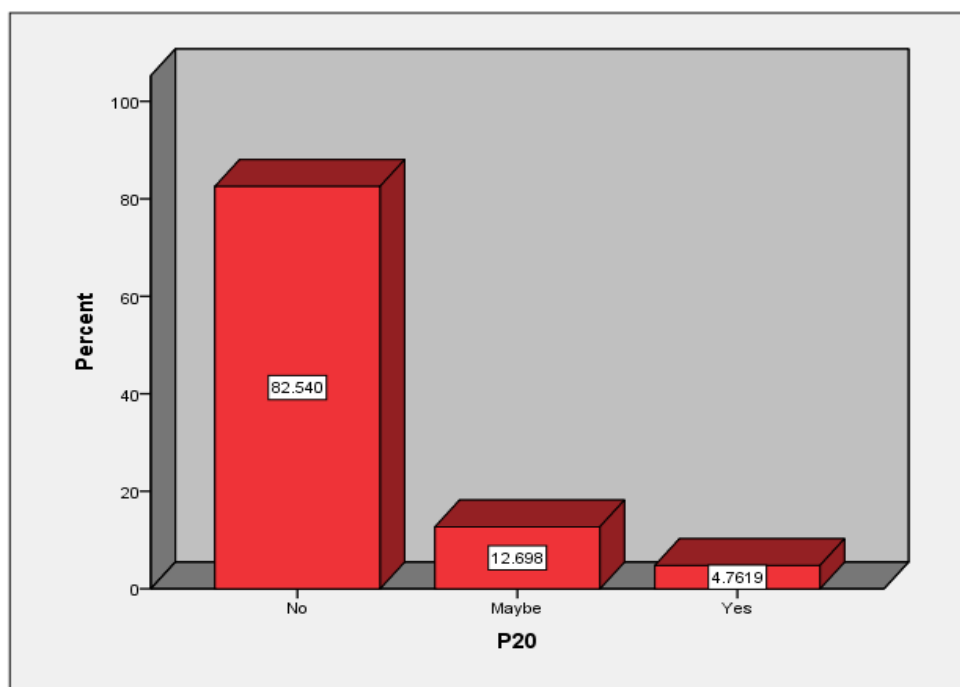


Fig. 84: Teachers' answers to question: I have been trained to use subtitled movie materials.

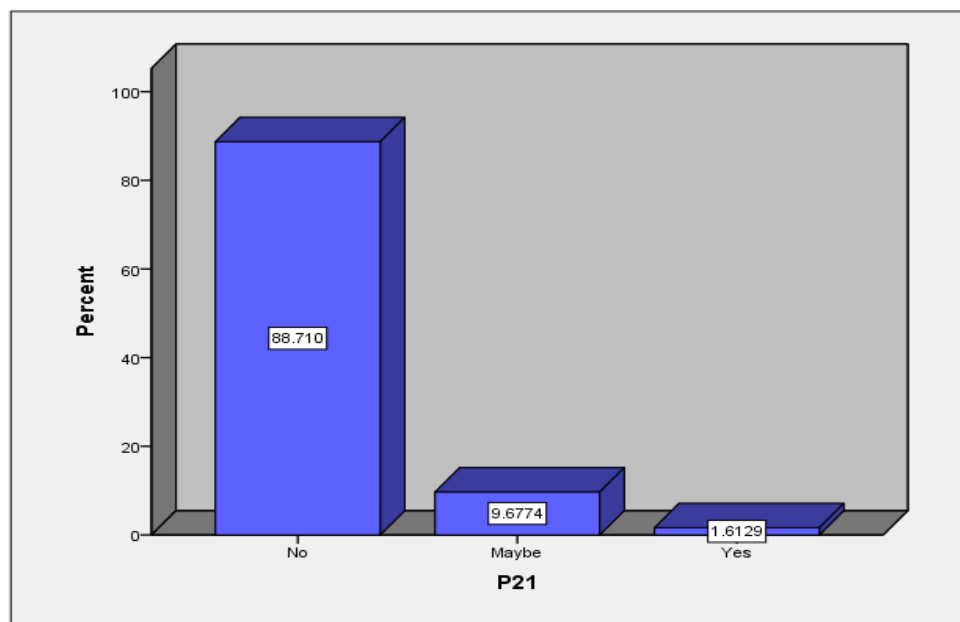


Fig. 85: Teachers' answers to question: I have been trained to create subtitled movie materials.

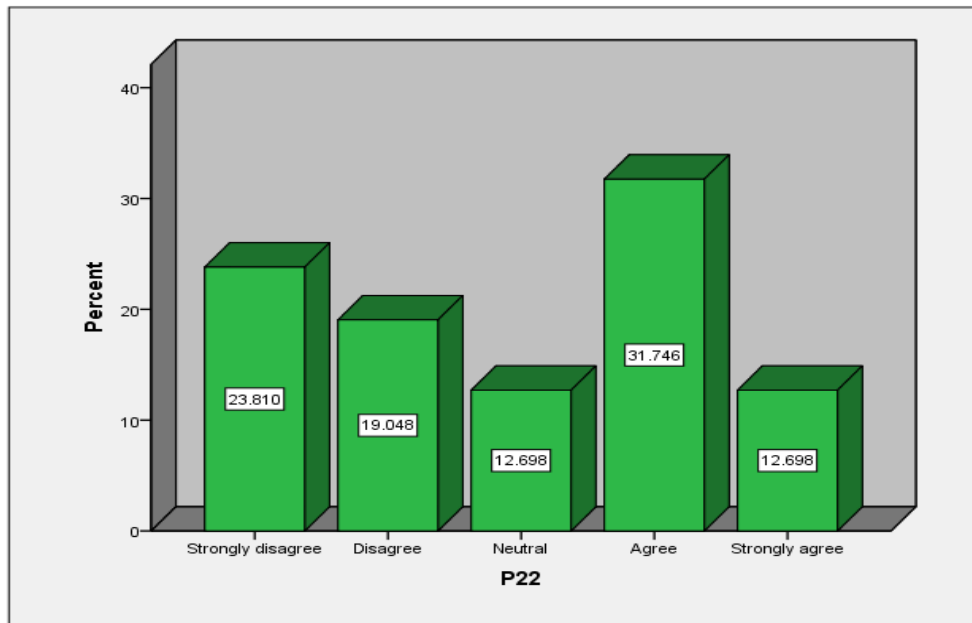


Fig. 86: Teachers’ answers to question: I have all the necessary equipment in the classroom in order to use subtitled movies when teaching English.

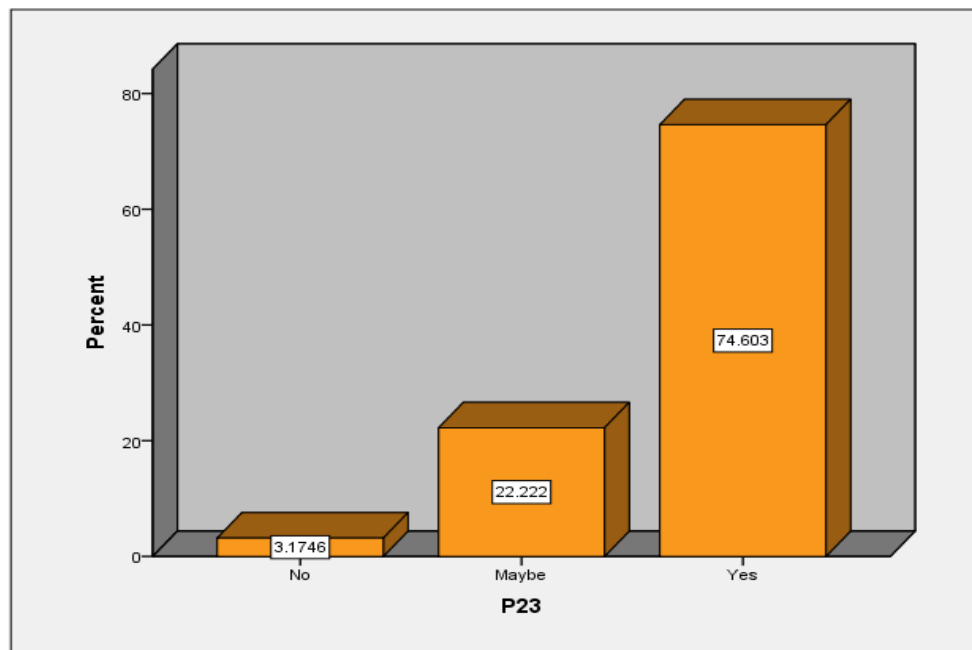


Fig. 87: Teachers’ answers to question: In the future, do you think you will show subtitled movies to students for improving their vocabulary?

Appendix 14 – Detailed VKS results of each participants based on the target words and students

"Bruce A."	Anchorm.			Certainly			Drawer			Filthy			Free Will			Janitor			Kneel			Needle			Prayer beads			Riot			Stack			Wish jar		
	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test			
English Subtitles 1-8 students	2	5	5	1	3	3	2	5	4	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	4	4	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	4	3	1	3	2	1	3	3	2	5	5
	1	4	4	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	4	4	2	2	2	1	3	3	1	1	1	2	5	4	1	3	3	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	5	5
	1	5	5	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	4	3	2	2	2	1	3	2	1	2	2	2	5	4	2	5	5	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	4	4
	1	4	4	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	3	3	2	3	3	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	4	4	2	5	4	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	3	
	1	3	3	1	1	1	2	5	4	1	4	3	2	2	2	2	5	4	1	3	2	2	4	3	2	5	5	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	4	4
	1	4	4	2	3	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	4	3	1	3	2	1	1	1	2	4	4	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	3
	2	5	5	1	2	2	2	4	3	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	5	4	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	2
	1	5	5	1	2	2	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	1	4	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	2	4	3	1	4	3	1	3	2	2	4	3
Albanian Subtitles 1-8 students	2	5	5	2	3	3	1	5	4	1	5	4	2	4	4	1	4	3	1	3	3	1	4	3	2	5	4	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	4	4
	2	4	4	1	1	1	1	5	5	1	4	3	2	3	3	2	5	5	1	3	3	2	5	5	1	3	3	1	3	3	2	4	4	2	4	4
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No Subtitles 1-8 students	1	4	3	1	1	1	2	5	4	1	2	2	2	3	3	1	5	4	1	2	2	2	4	3	2	5	4	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	3
	2	4	4	1	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	5	4	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	3	3
	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	4	3	1	2	2	2	5	4	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	5	5
	1	4	4	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	5	5	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3
	1	5	5	1	1	1	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	4	2	1	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	
	1	5	5	2	3	2	1	3	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	2
	1	5	5	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	3	3	2	4	3	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	4	3	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	5	5
	1	4	3	1	3	2	2	5	4	1	3	2	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	4	2	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	4	4

"Click"	Bathrobe			Bark			Burglars			Cough syrup			Drowning			Enormous			Groom			Pale			Pocket			Remote c.			Sew			Wipe		
	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test	Pre-t	Post-t	D-Test
English Subtitles 1-8 students	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	5	5	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	4	3	2	5	5	1	1	2	1	1	1
	1	1	1	1	3	3	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	2	2	4	4	1	2	3	2	2	2
	2	3	3	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	5	5	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	5	5	1	1	1	2	2	3
	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	3	2
	2	5	4	2	3	2	1	2	2	1	3	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	1	1	2	1	2	2
	1	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	5	5	2	3	2	2	2	2
	2	4	4	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	4	4	2	5	4	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	4	3	2	4	4	1	1	1	2	2	2
	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	4	3	2	2	2	1	4	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2
Albanian Subtitles 1-8 students	2	4	3	2	4	4	1	3	3	1	3	3	2	2	2	2	4	3	1	2	2	2	4	4	2	5	4	2	5	5	1	3	3	1	3	3
	1	3	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	3	3	2	4	4	2	3	3	1	2	2	1	3	3	2	4	4	2	5	5	2	2	2	2	2	2
	1	2	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	1	2	1	4	4	2	3	3	1	3	3
	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	3	3	1	5	4	2	4	4	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
	2	4	4	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	4	4	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
	1	3	3	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	5	5	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	3	3
	2	4	4	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	5	4	1	1	2	2	2	2
	2	3	2	1	3	3	2	4	4	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	2	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	1	5	5	1	2	2	2	2	2
No Subtitles 1-8 students	2	2	2	2	4	4	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	3	1	3	3	2	2	2
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	2
	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	1	1
	1	2	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	5	4	1	2	2	2	4	4	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	2
	2	3	3	1	1	1	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	5	5	2	2	2	1	1	1
	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	1	1	1
	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	3	3	2	4	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	1	1	1
	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	5	5	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	5	5	2	3	2	2	1	1

Click	Student 1			Student 2			Student 3			Student 4			Student 5			Student 6			SE 7			Student 8		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T
Bathrobe	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	3	3	2	5	4	1	2	2	2	4	4	2	2	2
Bark	1	2	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	3	2	1	3	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
Burglars	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2
Cough S.	2	5	5	3	3	3	2	5	5	1	3	2	1	3	3	2	4	4	2	3	2	2	4	3
Drowning	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	3	2	4	4	2	2	2
Enormous	2	3	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	2	5	4	1	4	2
Groom	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
Pale	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Pocket	2	4	3	1	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	3	3
Remote c.	2	5	5	2	4	4	2	5	5	2	4	4	2	2	3	2	5	5	2	4	4	1	3	3
Sew	1	1	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	2
Wipe	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total:	18	33	31	17	26	26	19	29	30	17	27	25	18	29	27	18	30	28	19	33	30	19	29	26

Bruce Almighty	Student 1			Student 2			Student 3			Student 4			Student 5			Student 6			Student 7			Student 8		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed T
Anchorm.	3	5	5	1	4	4	1	5	5	1	4	4	1	3	3	1	4	4	2	5	5	1	5	5
Certainly	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	2	1	2	2	1	2	2
Drawer	2	5	4	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	5	4	1	3	3	2	4	3	2	4	3
Filthy	1	3	2	1	4	4	1	4	3	1	3	3	1	4	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2
Free W.	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	3
Janitor	1	4	4	1	3	3	1	3	2	2	5	5	2	5	4	1	4	3	1	5	4	1	4	3
Kneel	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	2	1	1	1	2	2	1
Needle	1	3	2	2	5	4	2	5	4	1	4	4	2	4	3	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	3	3
Prayer b.	2	4	3	1	3	3	2	5	5	2	5	4	2	5	5	2	4	4	1	3	3	2	4	3
Riot	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	4	3
Stack	1	3	3	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	2
Wish jar	2	5	5	2	5	5	2	4	4	2	3	3	2	4	4	2	3	3	1	3	2	2	4	3
Total:	18	42	37	17	33	32	18	36	33	17	34	31	19	39	34	16	33	30	16	34	30	19	40	33

Appendix 15 – Detailed VKS percentages for each subtitle treatment

Click - Pre Test Results	Level 1	Level 2
English Subtitles:	56.20%	43.80%
Albanian Subtitles:	57.30%	42.70%
Subtitles Total:	56.80%	43.20%
No Subtitles:	52.00%	48.00%
Total:	55.20%	54.80%

Bruce Almighty - Pre Test Results	Level 1	Level 2
English Subtitles:	50.00%	50.00%
Albanian Subtitles:	50.00%	50.00%
Subtitles Total:	50.00%	50.00%
No Subtitles:	48.00%	52.00%
Total:	49.30%	50.70%

Click - Post Test Results	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
English Subtitles:	18.70%	41.70%	21.90%	10.40%	7.30%
Albanian Subtitles:	11.50%	34.40%	29.20%	15.60%	9.30%
Subtitles Total:	15.50%	38.00%	25.50%	13.00%	8.00%
No Subtitles:	30.20%	35.40%	21.90%	7.30%	5.20%
Total:	20.20%	37.10%	24.30%	11.10%	7.30%

Bruce Almighty - Post Test Results	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
English Subtitles:	15.60%	19.80%	27.10%	20.80%	16.70%
Albanian Subtitles:	6.30%	7.30%	33.30%	30.20%	22.90%
Subtitles Total:	11.40%	16.70%	26.60%	25.50%	19.80%
No Subtitles:	21.90%	20.80%	28.20%	15.60%	13.50%
Total:	14.90%	18.10%	27.10%	22.20%	17.70%

Click - Delayed Test Results	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
English Subtitles:	14.60%	55.20%	16.60%	8.30%	5.30%
Albanian Subtitles:	9.30%	38.50%	31.30%	14.60%	6.30%
Subtitles Total:	12.10%	46.90%	23.90%	11.40%	5.70%
No Subtitles:	26.10%	45.80%	16.70%	7.30%	4.10%
Total:	16.70%	46.50%	21.50%	10.10%	5.20%

Bruce Almighty - Delayed Test Results	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
English Subtitles:	18.80%	27.00%	28.10%	16.70%	9.40%
Albanian Subtitles:	5.20%	14.60%	38.50%	25.00%	16.70%
Subtitles Total:	12.10%	20.80%	33.30%	20.80%	13.00%
No Subtitles:	18.80%	36.40%	25.00%	11.40%	8.40%
Total:	14.20%	26.00%	30.60%	17.70%	11.50%

