



SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuselu

ADVERTIMENT. L'accés als continguts d'aquesta tesi doctoral i la seva utilització ha de respectar els drets de la persona autora. Pot ser utilitzada per a consulta o estudi personal, així com en activitats o materials d'investigació i docència en els termes establerts a l'art. 32 del Text Refós de la Llei de Propietat Intel·lectual (RDL 1/1996). Per altres utilitzacions es requereix l'autorització prèvia i expressa de la persona autora. En qualsevol cas, en la utilització dels seus continguts caldrà indicar de forma clara el nom i cognoms de la persona autora i el títol de la tesi doctoral. No s'autoritza la seva reproducció o altres formes d'explotació efectuades amb finalitats de lucre ni la seva comunicació pública des d'un lloc aliè al servei TDX. Tampoc s'autoritza la presentació del seu contingut en una finestra o marc aliè a TDX (framing). Aquesta reserva de drets afecta tant als continguts de la tesi com als seus resums i índexs.

ADVERTENCIA. El acceso a los contenidos de esta tesis doctoral y su utilización debe respetar los derechos de la persona autora. Puede ser utilizada para consulta o estudio personal, así como en actividades o materiales de investigación y docencia en los términos establecidos en el art. 32 del Texto Refundido de la Ley de Propiedad Intelectual (RDL 1/1996). Para otros usos se requiere la autorización previa y expresa de la persona autora. En cualquier caso, en la utilización de sus contenidos se deberá indicar de forma clara el nombre y apellidos de la persona autora y el título de la tesis doctoral. No se autoriza su reproducción u otras formas de explotación efectuadas con fines lucrativos ni su comunicación pública desde un sitio ajeno al servicio TDR. Tampoco se autoriza la presentación de su contenido en una ventana o marco ajeno a TDR (framing). Esta reserva de derechos afecta tanto al contenido de la tesis como a sus resúmenes e índices.

WARNING. Access to the contents of this doctoral thesis and its use must respect the rights of the author. It can be used for reference or private study, as well as research and learning activities or materials in the terms established by the 32nd article of the Spanish Consolidated Copyright Act (RDL 1/1996). Express and previous authorization of the author is required for any other uses. In any case, when using its content, full name of the author and title of the thesis must be clearly indicated. Reproduction or other forms of for profit use or public communication from outside TDX service is not allowed. Presentation of its content in a window or frame external to TDX (framing) is not authorized either. These rights affect both the content of the thesis and its abstracts and indexes.

Anca Daniela Frumuselu

**SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL
CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL
LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION**

University Rovira i Virgili, Spain

Department of English and German Studies (URV)

University of Antwerp, Belgium

Department of Training and Educational Sciences (UA)



UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI



Universiteit
Antwerpen

DOCTORAL THESIS

Supervised by

Dr. Mar Gutiérrez Colón Plana (University Rovira i Virgili)

Dr. Sven de Maeyer (University of Antwerp)

Dr. Vincent Donche (University of Antwerp)

Tarragona

2015

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu



Dra. Mar Gutiérrez-Colón Plana, STATES that the present study entitled **Subtitled television series inside the EFL classroom: long-term effects upon colloquial language learning and oral production** presented by Anca Daniela Frumuselu for the award of the degree of Doctor, has been carried out under my supervision at the Department of English and German Studies of the University Rovira i Virgili.

The research and the thesis fulfill all the conditions for the award of an INTERNATIONAL DOCTORATE, in accordance with current Spanish legislation.



NOMBRE GUTIÉRREZ-
COLÓN PLANA MARÍA
DEL MAR - NIF
39699928L
2015.11.05 14:51:29
+01'00'

Tarragona, 7th November, 2015

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu



Dr. Sven de Maeyer, STATES that the present study entitled **Subtitled television series inside the EFL classroom: long-term effects upon colloquial language learning and oral production** presented by Anca Daniela Frumusele for the award of the degree of Doctor, has been carried out under my supervision at the Department of Training and Educational Sciences at University of Antwerp.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Sven de Maeyer', with a long horizontal line extending to the right.

Antwerp, 18th November 2015

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu



Dr. Vincent Donche, STATES that the present study entitled **Subtitled television series inside the EFL classroom: long-term effects upon colloquial language learning and oral production** presented by Anca Daniela Frumusele for the award of the degree of Doctor, has been carried out under my supervision at the Department of Training and Educational Sciences at University of Antwerp.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'V. Donche', with a long horizontal stroke underneath.

Antwerp, 18th November 2015

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Acknowledgements

Looking back at the beginning of this process, I could only say that it has been an intricate, but fascinating journey. It is incredible how many people joined me in what it seemed five years ago, an endless expedition over the turbulent waves of research. I am going to be everlasting thankful to all the people who supported me along the development of this project. Foremost, I am highly grateful to my supervisor, Dr. Mar Gutiérrez-Colón Plana, for her constant support, guidance and insightful revision of my research all these years, but also for encouraging me to move on when I felt everything was going backwards. Her recommendation to follow a summer course in research design, methods and techniques used in design-based research at the University of Antwerp (Belgium) brought into my research life my other two pillars, Dr. Vincent Donche and Dr. Sven de Maeyer, to whom I will be ceaselessly thankful for accepting to join me in the last phase of my project and for their invaluable feedback and priceless observations concerning my research.

I feel extremely fortunate for having met so many friendly and helpful people at both universities, who eased the ride through my journey. Special thanks to the staff at the department of English and German Studies, who believed in me since I arrived to Tarragona 6 years ago and who made me feel like home. I also thank them for the pre-doctoral grant they provided me with in the last year of this project, which was essential for finalizing this thesis. I want to express my appreciation to Dr. Anthony Pym for his invaluable feedback and recommendations along the way and by permitting me to have a glimpse into what it seems his boundless knowledge on any research topic. Thank you to all the fellow researchers at the department for being so friendly and reassuring, and the mutual encouragement 'YES, WE CAN!' coming from my colleague Kasia, who was also completing her thesis, definitely helped me to gather my forces and reach an end. Special thanks to my dear friend and colleague, Olga, who was a cornerstone throughout the whole process, supporting my decisions and comforting me whenever I felt I would not make it through the end of this journey.

My special gratitude for being so welcoming and friendly to all the staff at the department of Training and Educational Sciences in Antwerp, who did not doubt in helping me every time I needed it. Thank you to all the fellow researchers at the department who were so friendly and treated me so well during my stay there. Special thanks to my dear colleague and friend, Leen, who from the moment we started sharing the office, she became an unceasing help and support with either the administrative tasks, or with any kind of enquiries I had about Flemish food or culture. I also thank her for revising my abstract in Dutch and for her unconditional help throughout this last phase. Without any doubt, the most enjoyable part of this PhD project was meeting amazing people from various corners of the world, either during my travels to conferences and mobility programmes, or at the universities where I had the chance to spend more time. They enriched me both as a person and as a researcher.

Finally, I would like to thank my family and friends, who although were not part of the academic world or they were unaware of what exactly I was doing, they were unquestionably supporting me to finish this laborious project. I thank them for their unconditional love and friendship and for trusting me that I could reach the end of this journey. Special thanks to my fiancée, my person, my friend and my greatest supporter, who had to cope with all my ups and downs, but he never stopped believing I can finish this challenge I set to myself. Last but not least, I thank my students, who participated in this study, for cooperating and for giving me the permission to use the collected data. Without their help, this research would have not been possible.

Acest proiect îl dedic fără doar și poate părinților mei, fără de care nu aș fi ajuns aici. Această teză nu a început acum 5 ani, a început cu mult timp în urmă și este doar rezultatul efortului depus de ei pe tot parcursul formării mele profesionale. Le mulțumesc pentru ca m-au sprijinit necondiționat în tot ceea ce am făcut și în toate deciziile pe care le-am luat. Le mulțumesc pentru valorile pe care mi le-au insuflat de mic copil și pentru că m-au lăsat să zbor și să mă formez acolo unde m-a purtat vântul, deși de multe ori și-ar fi dorit să fiu mai aproape de ei. Pentru tot ce au făcut pentru mine și pentru tot ce mi-au oferit și încă îmi oferă, nu am suficiente cuvinte de mulțumire.

Abstract

Nowadays, we are surrounded by multisource information coming from television, the web and digital media. Various types of multimodal texts are persuasive means of connecting us with different languages and cultures. The use of subtitles in cinema theatres, in public and commercial TV channels, and on DVDs is regarded to exert several benefits upon foreign/second language learning. This research investigates the extent to which the use of subtitled and captioned audiovisual materials enhances informal and colloquial language learning and fosters oral production.

An initial quasi-experimental study sought to explore whether the L1/standard subtitled or L2/captioned audiovisuals are more profitable for EFL informal and colloquial language learning and recall. 49 participants were randomly divided into two subtitle groups: English sound + Spanish subtitles and English sound + English subtitles. Participants' lexical comprehension and recall were tested before and after they were exposed to subtitled episodes from the TV series *Friends* over a long-term period of 7 weeks. The data analyses reveal that the English subtitles benefit the acquisition of colloquial lexical items more than the Spanish subtitles. A second study measured learners' short-term retention of colloquial and idiomatic vocabulary after they watched each subtitled/captioned episode from the sitcom *Friends* along the 7-week period (13 episodes in total). The results show that students' scores tended to increase in both subtitle groups, however there is no prevalence of one subtitle condition over the other. Study 3 explores students' retention of colloquial and informal language after a 14-week exposure time to captioned episodes from *Friends*. The analyses reveal the group tendency of increasing significantly their scores after being exposed to captioned television series, but also a big variance among learners' individual scores, as low- and high-level students responded differently to the treatment. Study 4 evaluated participants' oral production of informal and colloquial expressions in role-play activities and their speech fluency, spontaneity, ability to improvise well and sound naturally. High correlations are found between learners' scores in Study 3 and their oral productions in Study 4. Hence, students who scored high in their post-test showed the ability to express themselves using the colloquial expressions and informal lexical items learnt.

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Resumen

Hoy en día estamos rodeados de información de múltiples fuentes, como la televisión, internet y los medios digitales. Los diversos tipos de textos multimodales son medios persuasivos que nos conectan con diferentes lenguas y culturas. El uso de subtítulos en salas de cine, en los canales de televisión públicos y comerciales, y en los DVDs se consideran como factores que benefician al aprendizaje de una segunda lengua. Esta investigación analiza si el uso de materiales audiovisuales subtitulados con la lengua materna (L1) o la lengua extranjera (L2) mejora el aprendizaje de lenguaje informal y coloquial y fomenta la destreza oral.

En un estudio cuasi-experimental inicial se buscó explorar si los materiales audiovisuales subtitulados con la L1 o con la L2 son más eficientes para el aprendizaje del lenguaje informal y coloquial del inglés como lengua extranjera. Para ello, 49 participantes fueron divididos aleatoriamente en dos grupos: en uno se les administró el material subtulado en inglés y al otro en español. El nivel de comprensión auditiva y conocimiento previo de vocabulario informal fue analizado antes y después de ver episodios subtitulados en las dos lenguas de la serie *Friends* durante 7 semanas. En un segundo estudio se midió la retención a corto plazo de vocabulario coloquial después de haber visto los episodio subtitulados a lo largo de 7 semanas (13 episodios en total). Los análisis revelan que a corto plazo no hay prevalencia de una condición de subtítulos sobre la otra. El tercer estudio explora la retención del lenguaje coloquial e informal de los estudiantes después de exponerlos durante 14 semanas a episodios subtitulados en lengua Inglesa (L2) de *Friends*. Los resultados muestran la tendencia a mejorar del grupo en general, pero también muestran una gran variación entre los resultados individuales. El cuarto estudio evaluó la producción oral de expresiones coloquiales, así como su fluidez en el habla, la espontaneidad, la capacidad de improvisación y de tener una conversación natural. Los resultados nos revelan una alta correlación entre las puntuaciones de los alumnos del tercer estudio y de sus producciones orales en el cuarto estudio. Esto indica, por lo tanto, que los estudiantes que obtuvieron una puntuación alta en la prueba final son capaces de expresarse usando las expresiones coloquiales aprendidas.

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Resum

Avui en dia estem envoltats d'informació de múltiples fonts com són la televisió, la xarxa i els mitjans digitals. Els textos multimodals són mitjans persuasius que ens connecten amb diferents llengües i cultures. L'ús de subtítols en cinemes, en els canals de televisió públics i comercials, i en els DVDs es consideren com factors que beneficien a l'aprenentatge d'una segona llengua. Aquesta investigació estudia si l'ús de materials audiovisuals subtítolats amb la llengua materna (L1) o la llengua estrangera (L2) millora l'aprenentatge de llenguatge informal i col·loquial i fomenta la destresa oral.

Un estudi quasi-experimental inicial va buscar explorar si els materials audiovisuals subtítolats amb la L1 o amb la L2 són més rendibles per a l'aprenentatge del llenguatge informal i col·loquial de l'anglès com llengua estrangera. Per a dur a terme l'experiment, 49 participants van ser dividits aleatòriament en dos grups; un dels quals va rebre el material subtítolat en anglès i l'altre en espanyol. El nivell de comprensió auditiva i coneixement de vocabulari informal van ser avaluades abans i després de veure episodis subtítolats (en L1 i L2) de la sèrie *Friends* durant 7 setmanes. Un segon estudi va mesurar la retenció a curt termini de vocabulari col·loquial, després d'haver vist els episodis subtítolats al llarg de 7 setmanes (13 episodis en total). Les anàlisis revelen que a curt termini no hi ha prevalença d'una condició de subtítols sobre l'altra. El tercer estudi explora la retenció del llenguatge col·loquial i informal dels estudiants després d'haver estat exposats 14 setmanes a episodis subtítols de *Friends*. Els resultats mostren la tendència de millora del grup, però també mostren una gran variació entre els resultats individuals. El quart estudi va avaluar la producció oral d'expressions col·loquials dels subjectes, així com la fluïdesa en la parla, l'espontaneïtat, la capacitat d'improvisar i de tenir una conversa natural. Això indica altes correlacions entre les puntuacions dels alumnes del tercer estudi i de les seves produccions orals en el quart estudi. Per tant, els estudiants que van obtenir una puntuació alta en la prova final són capaços d'expressar-se usant les expressions col·loquials en tasques orals .

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Abstract

Informatiebronnen die meerdere types informatie combineren zijn alomtegenwoordig via televisie, het web en digitale media. Verschillende soorten multimodale teksten zijn een krachtig middel om ons in contact te brengen met verschillende talen en culturen. Het gebruik van ondertiteling in bioscoopzalen, tv-zenders en dvd's heeft verschillende voordelen bij het leren van een vreemde tweede taal. Dit onderzoek gaat na in welke mate het gebruik van ondertiteling bij audiovisueel materiaal het ongedwongen en informeel leren van talen verbetert alsook hoe ze de spraak van deze talen beïnvloedt.

In een eerste quasi-experimentele studie werd er verkend in welke mate de ondertiteling van L1 of L2 het leren van EFL als een informele omgangstaal verbeterd. 49 deelnemers werden willekeurig verdeeld in twee groepen: Engelse klank met Spaanse ondertiteling en Engelse klank met Engelse ondertiteling. Lexicaal begrip en kennis van de deelnemers werd getest voor en nadat ze zeven weken naar ondertitelde afleveringen keken van de tv-serie *Friends*. Uit de resultaten blijkt dat studenten die de Engelse ondertiteling te zien kregen meer begrippen uit de omgangstaal opnemen en herkennen dan studenten die de Spaanse ondertiteling te zien kregen. In een tweede studie werd woordenschat uit de omgangstaal op korte termijn getest telkens nadat ze een ondertitelde aflevering van *Friends* bekeken gedurende de periode van zeven weken (13 afleveringen in het totaal). Uit de resultaten blijkt dat de scores voor beide groepen toenemen, zonder dat de ene conditie meer invloed heeft dan de andere.

In de derde studie werd de kennis van omgangstaal onderzocht na het bekijken van ondertitelde afleveringen van *Friends* over een periode van 14 weken. Uit de analyses blijkt dat er een algemene trend is waarbij kennis significant toeneemt, hoewel er een grote variatie is tussen studenten onderling. Studenten met een verschillend niveau van voorkennis reageren anders op de experimentele conditie. De vierde studie evalueerde de spraakproductie van expressies uit de omgangstaal in rolspellen waarbij vlotheid, spontaniteit, improvisatie en natuurlijke klank werden bekeken. Hoge correlaties werden gevonden tussen de scores van studenten in de derde studie en hun spraakproductie in de vierde studie, dus studenten die hoger scoren op de post-test zullen beter in staat zijn om zich uit te drukken met informele expressies uit de omgangstaal.

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Declaration

I, Anca Daniela Frumuselu, hereby declare that this thesis is entirely my own work, carried out at University Rovira i Virgili and at University of Antwerp for the Degree of Doctor in Humanistic Studies and Doctor in Educational Sciences, correspondingly. The current thesis has not been submitted as an exercise for a degree at any other university. Where other sources of information have been used, they have been acknowledged. Some parts of this thesis have been previously published or are in process to be published in:

Frumuselu, A.D., de Maeyer, S., Donche, V. and Gutiérrez-Colon, M. (2015). Television Series inside the EFL classroom: Bridging the gap between teaching and learning informal language through subtitles. *Linguistics and Education*, 32, 107-117. doi: 10.1016/j.linged.2015.10.001.

Frumuselu, A.D., de Maeyer, S., Donche, V. and Gutiérrez-Colon, M. (forthcoming). Subtitles and Authentic Video Materials in the Classroom: A Longitudinal Study Tracing EFL Learners' Colloquial Language Acquisition. *Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts*.

Tarragona, 18th November, 2015

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Anca Daniela Frumuselu', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Anca Daniela Frumuselu

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Disclaimer

Although this dissertation makes use of copyrighted audiovisual materials, it does not promote, support, foster or encourage any illegal activities involving copyrighted material. The different types of activities involving the use of episodes from copyrighted DVDs are referenced for research purposes only and should not be construed as an encouragement to engage in illegal activities, such as streaming, file sharing or the unauthorized distribution or consumption of copyrighted product.

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	i
Abstract.....	iii
Resumen	v
Resum	vii
Abstract.....	ix
Declaration.....	xi
Disclaimer	xiii
Table of Contents.....	xv
List of Tables	xix
List of Figures	xxi
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	xxiii
Chapter 1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Topic Presentation	5
1.2 The Overall Aims.....	8
1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	9
1.4 Structure of the Research	12
Chapter 2. Theoretical Background.....	15
2.1 The Role of the Input in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition	16
2.2 Dual-Coding Theory	21
2.3 Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning	24
2.4 Cognitive Load Theory	32
2.5 Theory of Information Processing	37
Chapter 3. Lexical and Pedagogical Approaches in FLL.....	41
3.1 Informal and Colloquial Language Learning.....	42

3.1.1	<i>Defining informal language and colloquial speech</i>	44
3.1.2	<i>Introducing idioms, slang and phrasal verbs in EFL classroom</i>	48
3.1.3	<i>Acquiring colloquial language: challenges and solutions</i>	56
3.2	Teaching and Learning Oral Skills	59
3.2.1	<i>Introduction</i>	59
3.2.2	<i>Developing a native-like listening comprehension</i>	60
3.2.3	<i>The spoken discourse in the EFL classroom</i>	75
Chapter 4. Literature Review		99
4.1	The role of authenticity in the FL/L2 classroom.....	100
4.1.1	<i>The 'real' vs. the 'prefabricated'</i>	105
4.2	Video as a didactic tool in the classroom	109
4.2.1	<i>The authentic vs. the educational video</i>	112
4.2.2	<i>Advantages and limitations of the video in the classroom</i>	119
4.3	Audiovisual Translation (AVT): Subtitles as Language Learning Support	124
4.3.1	<i>Subtitling vs. Dubbing</i>	125
4.3.2	<i>Subtitles-an added value to language teaching and learning</i>	129
4.3.3	<i>Interlingual/Standard subtitles</i>	135
4.3.4	<i>Intralingual subtitles/Captions</i>	141
4.3.5	<i>Advantages and disadvantages of subtitles and captions</i>	147
Chapter 5. The Empirical Approach		153
5.1	Introduction	153
5.2	Methodology.....	154
5.2.1	<i>Participants</i>	154
5.2.2	<i>Material</i>	159
5.2.3	<i>Procedure</i>	162

5.3	Study 1. Long-Term Effects of Captioned and Subtitled Videos upon Informal and Colloquial Language Learning	165
5.3.1	<i>Introduction</i>	165
5.3.2	<i>The Aims</i>	166
5.3.3	<i>Data Analyses and Results</i>	169
5.3.4	<i>Discussion and Conclusions</i>	172
5.4	Study 2. The Implication of Subtitled and Captioned Videos upon Short-Term Informal and Colloquial Language Learning	176
5.4.1	<i>Introduction</i>	176
5.4.2	<i>The Aims</i>	177
5.4.3	<i>Data Analyses</i>	181
5.4.4	<i>Results</i>	183
5.4.5	<i>Discussion and Conclusions</i>	185
5.5	Study 3. The Effects of Long-Term Exposure to Captioned Videos upon Informal and Colloquial Language Learning	188
5.5.1	<i>Introduction</i>	188
5.5.2	<i>The Aims</i>	189
5.5.3	<i>Data Analyses and Results</i>	192
5.5.4	<i>Discussion and Conclusions</i>	197
5.6	Study 4. Enhancing Spoken Production of Colloquial and Informal Language through Long-Term Exposure to Captioned Videos.....	201
5.6.1	<i>Introduction</i>	201
5.6.2	<i>The Aims</i>	203
5.6.3	<i>Participants and Instruction</i>	205
5.6.4	<i>Material and Testing Procedure</i>	206
5.6.5	<i>Criteria for Assessing Oral Discourse</i>	208

5.6.6	<i>Data Analyses and Results</i>	212
5.6.7	<i>Discussion and Conclusions</i>	217
Chapter 6. Discussion		221
6.1	Introduction	221
6.2	The Effect of Subtitled/Captioned Audiovisual Materials on EFL/ESL.....	222
6.3	Impact on Colloquialism and Informal Vocabulary Learning	228
6.4	Implications for Spoken Production and Listening Comprehension	233
Chapter 7. Final Conclusions and Considerations for Future Research		237
7.1	Overview and Synthesis of the Key Findings	237
7.2	Contributions and Limitations	239
7.3	Considerations for Further Research	243
References		249
Filmography		269
Appendices		271
9.1	Appendix 1. The Questionnaire.....	271
9.2	Appendix 2. Pre-/post-test used for Study 1.....	279
9.3	Appendix 3. A sample of a 20-item immediate test used for Study 2	282
9.4	Appendix 4. Pre-/post-test used for Study 3.....	284
9.5	Appendix 5. The dialogue scripts used for Study 4	287
9.6	Appendix 6. Classification of the informal and colloquial terms used by the participants	293

List of Tables

Table 1. T-test of post-test by group, mean scores (SD) in each condition, the level of significance and the effect size (Cohen's r).....	170
Table 2. ANCOVA test-analysis of covariance	171
Table 3. ANCOVA test-Covariate and interaction analysis of the numerical and categorical variables.....	172
Table 4. Summary of conducted steps and their corresponding models.....	182
Table 5. Information on the comparison of model fit for the different models tested ...	183
Table 6. Parameter estimates (Est.), Standard Errors (S.E.) and p-values for Model 7	185
Table 7. Paired two sided t-test of pre-and post-test score	193
Table 8. Correlation coefficients and p-values between written post-test and oral productions.....	213
Table 9. Features of students' oral discourse in percentages and mean differences ..	215

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

List of Figures

Figure 1. Mayer's (2009) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning	25
Figure 2. Wang& Shen's (2007) model of foreign language learning through video and subtitles	40
Figure 3. Anderson's comprehension model based on cognitive learning theory	66
Figure 4. Communicative areas based on Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983a) model of communicative competence	85
Figure 5. Participants' mother tongue in percentages	155
Figure 6. Participants' nationality in percentages	156
Figure 7. Participants' contact with English native speakers in percentages	156
Figure 8. Participants' choices in terms of subtitles use	158
Figure 9. Estimated growth curves for the individual students, based on Model 4	184
Figure 10. Boxplot of students' pre-/post-test data	194
Figure 11. Scatter plot of students' pre-/post-test scores along the line of best fit.....	195
Figure 12. Graph of lines per individual scores	196

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACTFL- American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Languages

AV-Audiovisual

AVT- Audiovisual Translation

CANCODE - Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English

CATLM - Cognitive Affective Theory of Learning with Media

CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching (Same initialism used for 'Cognitive Load Theory')

CLT-Cognitive Load Theory (Same initialism used for 'Communicative Language Teaching')

COLT-The Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language

CTML-Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

DCT- Dual-Coding Theory

DVD – Digital Video Disk

EACEA-Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency of the European Commission

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

ESL – English as a Second Language

EU – European Union

EVP- English Vocabulary Profile

FL – Foreign Language

FLL-Foreign Language Learning

FLT-Foreign Language Teaching

ICT- Information Communication Technology

IELTS-International English Language Testing

IPT- Information Processing Theory

L1- First language (native language or mother tongue)

LMER -Linear Mixed Effects Regression

LTM-Long-Term Memory

L2 – Second language

NS-Native speakers

NNS-Non native speakers

PVs-Phrasal Verbs

SL – Second Language

SLL-Second Language Learning

ST- Source Text

STM-Short-Term Memory

TESOL-Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

TOEFL-Test of English as a Foreign Language

TL-Target Language

TS-Translation Studies

TT- Target Text

WM-Working Memory

Own only what you can always carry with you: know languages, know countries, know people. Let your memory be your travel bag (Solzhenitsyn, n.d.).

UNIVERSITAT ROVIRA I VIRGILI

SUBTITLED TELEVISION SERIES INSIDE THE EFL CLASSROOM: LONG-TERM EFFECTS UPON COLLOQUIAL LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Anca Daniela Frumuseanu

Chapter 1. Introduction

Being in constant contact with different languages, different countries, different people, is like crossing an endless bridge between cultures and traditions. The more you step on it, the more you become bewildered by its magnificent beauty and diversity. Gazing through the fascinating world of languages opens your eyes upon a whole new territory, a whole new adventure and alluring experience. Having access to this global language reality though, it is far more complicated for a non-native language learner, who does not have the possibility to live out a first-hand encounter with the target language.

Coming from a country in which the direct contact with English native speakers was far from being a common practice, but rather a scarce occurrence, I found myself emerged into the target language and its cultural background by two means. I was either mesmerized by the pictorial and textual excerpts about culture and historical figures present in the coursebooks or by the vivid representations of places and regions, foods and habits, customs and traditions, people and their way of acting or speaking depicted in audiovisual media, such as films, cartoons, TV programmes, documentaries and sitcoms. At the time when I started my learning journey over the intricate bridge of English as a foreign language, the possibility of travelling abroad or even studying in an English speaking country was a rather remote option. Apart from the financial issues, which were a delicate problem for most of the families, the right to freely travel or study abroad was a constant struggle for Romanian citizens before becoming a European Union member in 2007.

Therefore, the only way of witnessing the foreign language and its culture was through actors' performances, which caught life on screen in original version films and TV series with Romanian subtitles. At first look, it may sound that the political and economical limitations of the country I was born in may have hindered our opportunities to have direct contact with English native-speakers and to experience the language in a natural environment (which to a certain extent it did). However, it also offered a lot more than I was able to be conscious of at that time. Back in the 90', my first attempt of

reading the subtitles and listening to the audio simultaneously while I was watching the American series *Dallas* together with my family, trying to pick up with the speed of the subtitles. At that time, I was not aware that the subtitled original version of films, documentaries and TV sitcoms were encompassing a whole new world, in which not only the plot and the actors' roles were the main attractions, but also the spoken language and its pragmatic use in a natural environment. Although primarily aimed at native audience, subtitled TV programmes and films turned out to benefit my language proficiency and that of my friends and classmates, as foreign language learners.

Living in a traditionally subtitled country and listening to the original voices of the actors and the way certain brands or famous figures were pronounced, made me unaware that well-known film characters, such as Harry Potter /'hæəri 'pɒtər/ was different from the French *Harry Potter* /aʁi pɔtɛ/ or the Spanish *Harry Potter* /a'ri pot'ter/. Little did I know when I travelled to France as an exchange student that the pronunciation of Harry Potter would put me in an uncomfortable situation, which actually made the family I was living with to explain to me that the film we will watch is about that boy with the glasses and his magic wand. My reply at that moment was : *Ohh, Harry Potteur* /'hæəri 'pɒtər/!!! Looking back at that experience, I realize the strong influence the subtitled programmes, films and TV shows had on my perception, my knowledge and after all, on the way I was interacting with people coming from a different cultural and linguistic background.

Notwithstanding, the dose of reality check I experienced in France got even more sizable once I moved to Spain, another traditionally dubbing country, to do my master's studies. Over a period of ten months I discovered how much people were missing from a cultural and linguistic point of view by watching the dubbed version of films, but at the same time, I got the chance to enrich my perspective upon the process of second/foreign language learning. Although I was constantly surrounded by a captivating Catalan and Spanish bilingual community, I still missed going to the cinema and being able to enjoy the authentic linguistic and socio-cultural touch brought by original film versions. I could say that my first-hand experience with people coming from different backgrounds and countries broadened up my viewpoint on the importance of

teaching language in its authentic cultural context. Thus, television and videos are perceived as optimal means of promoting not only authentic language, but also the culture of the language taught, which Vanderplank (2010) refers to high culture, also known as *big C* culture or cultural products, and to low culture or *little c* culture, such as daily customs and practices, lifestyles (p.9).

While attending courses during my master's degree, some dynamic debates among professors and classmates about how people from different countries pronounce international brands or figures, such as the famous *Spiderman* /spajdærmæn/ (in Spanish '*Espiderman*' /espi'ðerman/) made me wondering if the access to original version films and TV series would actually have an impact on learners' foreign language proficiency. Moreover, tackling subjects related to the effect of input on foreign/second language learning shaped my interest towards the topic of authentic input and subtitled audiovisual aids. Looking back at the reasons which drove me to start investigating about this theme, I acknowledge the importance of the events that marked my past and my present and how much they resemble a domino game, one piece triggering the movement of the other one. Thus, the accumulation of experiences, contact with people from different cultural backgrounds and my curiosity of finding out up to what degree is the subtitled audiovisual input beneficial for foreign/second language learning encouraged me to propose this topic to my tutor as a future doctoral investigation.

After expressing my interest in researching into the area of subtitled audiovisual input, my supervisor recommended me to start reading and digging into what has been explored into the field. I must admit I was completely astonished by the amount of research that has been done into the field of subtitled audiovisuals since the 80's. Ever since Karen Price's pioneering work in 1983 set the starting point for research in the field of same language subtitles (captions) as a means to give access to foreign language films and TV programmes to non-native speaker viewers, a considerable bulk of researchers took up various paths and combinations of subtitles (standard, reversed, captions, close-captions) in order to find out how foreign language learners make use of these when watching and their impact on foreign language proficiency. However, the underlying question, according to Vanderplank (2015), is whether watching subtitled

programmes over time helps long-term language skills development. This question is undoubtedly of high interest for the current investigation and lies on evidence brought by other researchers in the field (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990), who acknowledged that the effect of watching subtitled television programmes regularly over long periods of time is strong and cumulative (Vanderplank, 2010, p. 21).

After reading the initial literature regarding the use of subtitles and captions as foreign language learning tools, I realized there was one aspect that was barely tackled, i.e. the impact of subtitled/captioned TV programmes and videos upon informal and colloquial language acquisition. I admit I was surprised by the lack of empirical studies that focused on this area of vocabulary learning, given that a high percentage of films and TV programmes, especially comedies, dramas and sitcoms, make use of single-word lexis and multi-word colloquial expressions, such as idioms, phrasal verbs and slang in their soundtrack. Thus, the use of language tends to be closer to spontaneous daily conversations in the dialogue heard in films and television series (Forchini, 2009; Quaglio, 2009), as 'speech is specifically written to be spoken as if it had never been written and different sociolinguistic varieties and accents are more frequently reproduced' (Ghia, 2012, p. 21). Moreover, in comedies, dramas and television series, soundtrack and images usually complement each other, speech being more frequently reflected in on-screen action and closely related to the discourse (Pavesi, 2012).

Thus, I adopted mainly a quantitative longitudinal approach to detail the effect of both interlingual (standard/ L1) subtitles and intralingual (captions/L2) subtitles over a prolonged period of time upon English foreign language (EFL) learners' acquisition of informal and colloquial expressions from the American TV sitcom *Friends*.

1.1 Topic Presentation

Multimedia technology has changed the way we communicate with each other and it has brought with it a growing number of skilled users, who have become independent learners and many of them want to study foreign languages (Caimi, 2015, p. 11). The constant growing accessibility to subtitled audiovisuals makes the current topic even more meaningful in nowadays multilingual learning contexts. Additionally, the technological advances made in the last fifteen years provide immediate and interactive access to resource materials, especially in the case of generating subtitles, which is a strong competitor with other forms of fluid textual and multimodal support, due to computer-generated transcripts and hyperlinked texts (Danan, 2015, p. 42). In contrast to the intricate and time-consuming practices of editing or adding subtitles to a video or clip in the past, currently, viewers have the ability to manipulate the subtitles and soundtracks with the language of their choice on most DVDs and digital television programs. Likewise, the availability of extensive amounts of audiovisual material online that can be downloaded on personal computers makes the handling of clips and subtitles even more accessible by users from any corner of the world.

In the last thirty years, extensive research has been done in the field of audiovisual translation (AVT) and foreign/second language acquisition (FLA/SLA), which unveiled various ways in which subtitles can facilitate formal and incidental language learning. Moreover, more recently AVT and information and communication technology (ICT) have gathered their forces in new synergies and led to the creation of virtual communities, which encourage self-tailoring of learning strategies and the social dimension of learning (Caimi, 2015, p. 10). Up to now, we have learned from a vast body of literature on dubbing and subtitling that various types of subtitles: standard/interlingual (L2 audio and L1 subtitles), captions/same-language/intralingual (L2 audio and L2 subtitles) and reversed (L1 audio and L2 subtitles) facilitate language learning and foster foreign language skills (Danan, 2015, p. 45).

Watching films with L1 (standard) subtitles over a prolonged period of time appears to promote incidental learning, as it has been determined in European countries where subtitling is the norm and where consumers are exposed to a substantial number of hours of English-language TV programmes and films (Danan, 2015; Media Consulting Group, 2011; Talaván, 2013; Van de Poel & D'Ydewalle, 2001; Vanderplank, 1988). Films with L2 audio and text seem to stimulate language acquisition, especially vocabulary and listening comprehension, due to the reinforcement of spoken forms on screen in the shape of same-language subtitles. Several studies have also testified the benefits of using captions upon reading skills in both learners' L1 and L2, especially in India and South Africa where the issue of literacy among the population is still an ongoing topic (Hefer, 2013; Kothari, Takeda, Joshi, & Pandey, 2002; Kothari, 2008). Reversed subtitles, however, appear to facilitate vocabulary learning since learners can quickly comprehend the message thanks to the L1 soundtrack. By understanding first the message in the film or video, they can establish connections between L1 and L2 systems, having time to notice and remember the corresponding L2 subtitles (Danan, 2015, p. 45).

The two language systems present in the audio and text on screen are reinforced by a third channel, i.e. the visual imagery or emotional context, as it is stated in Paivio's (1986) dual-coding theory. Thus, in a subtitled programme there is a triple connection established between image, sound in one language and text in another. Subtitled audiovisual texts are perceived as 'semiotically and communicatively complex works' (Ghia, 2012, p. 2), given their constant exchange among their aural and visual components. It is in fact this exploration of the acquisitional potential of all these components considered purposeful in a learning-oriented context. The relevance of the linguistic input is of paramount importance in the language acquisition process and albeit, both the quantity and quality of the input learners access is considered to play a fundamental role in foreign language acquisition (Ellis, 2008; Gass, 1997). The audiovisual (AV) text acts through four semiotic channels: the non-verbal visual channel (pictures), non-verbal audio channel (music and sound effects), the verbal audio channel (the dialogue) and verbal visual channels (signs and captions) (Lertola, 2015, p. 251). Therefore, learners are involved in a dynamic task of watching and listening to

the L2 audiovisual input. The additional paralinguistic dimension of the audiovisual text, such as images, gestures, body language enriches the non-verbal visual channel and fosters socio-cultural awareness, familiarizing learners with the authentic world outside the classroom.

The use of subtitles in cinema theatres, in public and commercial TV channels, and on DVDs are believed to exert several benefits upon foreign/second language learning. The development of motivation would be one of the main gains, together with learner's awareness upon language diversity and the similarities and differences between certain languages. Additionally, developing competences in the foreign language after having basic knowledge of the target language (no evidence of learners acquiring a language from scratch only by watching subtitled audiovisuals has been reported so far) constitutes another asset brought by the use of subtitled audiovisuals (Gambier, 2015, p. 68).

Furthermore, the interest among academia in the use of subtitles as language learning support and the task of subtitling, i.e. the creation of subtitles as a language learning task, gave rise to European funded research projects, such as *LeViS-Learning via Subtiling*¹ (2006-2008), *ClipFlair* (2011-2014)², but also to contributions from recent EU projects, such as *Subtitles and Language Learning* (SLL) (2009-2012) funded by EACEA-Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency of the European Commission, aimed at promoting multilingualism by means of audiovisual tools; or to European studies such as the one commissioned in 2011 by the Directorate-General Education and Culture, aimed at investigating the educational benefits of subtitles for language learning (Media Consulting Group, 2011).

¹ <http://levis.cti.gr/>; LeViS Project (2006-2008) funded by the Programme Socrates/Lingua II of the European Commission and implemented in six countries. It focused on the creation of a new software tool, a subtitling simulator (LvS), which enables learners to add subtitles to open-source digital material. The project ended in 2008 and ClipFlair is the follow-up project that supports revoicing and captioning.

² www.clipflair.net; Clip Flair (2011-2014), a European funded project, is a web platform, part of the Lifelong Learning Programme, that promotes foreign language learning through interactive captioning and revoicing of clips.

Needless to claim that the aforementioned pieces of empirical evidence and studies have demonstrated that subtitles and audiovisual aids can actively engage learners and enhance language learning. However, longer-term studies are vital to understand how subtitles function with different types of learners, material and learning environments (Danan, 2015). Despite the variety of areas and language skills that have been approached in relation to subtitled audiovisuals so far, informal and colloquial vocabulary learning and spoken production are two of the language areas that have been scarcely investigated, especially over a long-term period. Therefore, a close examination of these two issues is of paramount importance for the enlargement of the current spectrum in the field of second/foreign language learning and audiovisual translation.

1.2 The Overall Aims

When FL learners are exposed to L2 audiovisual input with subtitles (either interlingual or intralingual), they are introduced not only to a linguistic content, but also to interactions between speakers that disclose sociolinguistic traits of various types of social relations and politeness conventions, such as the use and choice of greetings, address forms and expletives and turn taking encounters (Lertola, 2015, pp. 257–258). Thus, being aware of the differences among the politeness conventions from culture to culture is of paramount importance to avoid inter-ethnic misunderstandings. The audiovisual input is often rich in idioms, proverbs and other fixed formulae (folk wisdom) used by different individuals in various kinds of registers and contexts, ranging from formal to neutral or informal. Thus, learners should become active witnesses of the socio-cultural elements present in the audiovisual input and develop their ability to recognize, internalize and ultimately, reproduce the cultural conventions they are exposed to.

The sparse evidence of longitudinal studies exploring learners' informal and colloquial language acquisition through subtitles (interlingual and intralingual) and authentic audiovisual materials set the basis for the development of the current doctoral

study. Thus, the present investigation seeks to approach the added value of subtitled video materials upon colloquial and informal language acquisition amongst students in higher education. The prime goal of the current investigation is to examine the relationship between the use of subtitled and captioned audiovisuals and the development of FL learners' oral skills, by tracking their learning process and the impact brought by extensive watching and listening to subtitled videos upon vocabulary learning, mainly informal single-word lexis and colloquial expressions and formulae. Finally, we will analyze learners' ability to reproduce orally the lexical items previously acquired in appropriate spoken productions and their capacity to maintain the conversational register and style required. In order to grasp the depths of the abovementioned issues, the current empirical approach has been divided into four research studies, each being detailed in the forthcoming chapter five. Each empirical study aims to delve into the effects of subtitled and captioned audiovisuals upon learners' informal language acquisition and spoken production.

The overall goal of the current doctoral thesis is to contribute to the ever growing field of audiovisual translation (AVT) and second/foreign language acquisition (SLA/FLA) in relation to the impact of subtitled audiovisuals upon English language oral skills and vocabulary learning. The aspect of informality and colloquialism is approached in connection to learners' ability to grasp the meaning of phrasal verbs, slang, idioms, and fixed formulae from the rich audiovisual input they are exposed to over a long-term period of time. Likewise, it also aims to investigate students' capacity to internalize previously acquired lexical items and formulae and ultimately, reproduce them orally in peer face-to-face interactions.

1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The first quasi-experimental study seeks to determine which of the two subtitling conditions, either L1/standard subtitles or L2/captions, is more profitable for informal and colloquial language learning and recall, by means of dividing the learners into two subtitle groups (G1-English sound + Spanish subtitles and G2-English sound + English

subtitles). Participants' lexical comprehension and recall is tested before and after they are exposed to subtitled and captioned episodes from the TV series *Friends* over a period of seven weeks. Thus, the following research questions have been formulated for this study:

- Will exposure to English subtitled/captioned episodes from the TV sitcom *Friends* have greater effect upon learners' colloquial language acquisition than exposure to Spanish subtitled episodes?
- Will the two subtitling conditions have an effect on students' different proficiency levels? If that is the case, will one subtitling condition have a greater effect than the other one on students' proficiency level?

In this context, it is hypothesized that the *intralingual condition* (English subtitles) will lead to a more significant effect upon colloquial lexical item acquisition than the *interlingual condition* (Spanish subtitles) after exposure to authentic episodes from the TV sitcom *Friends*. Additionally, it is believed that independently of learners' previous proficiency level, the *intralingual condition* will have a greater effect on students' post-test scores than the *interlingual condition* after exposure.

The second empirical study intends to broaden up the long-term perspective of the first study by approaching learners' short-term and immediate acquisition of colloquial and idiomatic vocabulary. Participants' progress is assessed immediately after they watch each subtitled episode from the sitcom *Friends* along the seven-week period (13 episodes) in order to investigate any significant differences between the two types of subtitling conditions and students' performance. The following research questions can be applied to this study:

- Do students progress differently on the acquisition level of informal and colloquial vocabulary learning, according to the two subtitle conditions (interlingual and intralingual) they are exposed to?
- Do high proficient students progress more over time than low proficient students when exposed to one of the two subtitle conditions (either interlingual or intralingual)?

In this case, learners are expected to show different progress levels when exposed to the two subtitle conditions, however learners under the intralingual condition (English subtitles) are expected to make more progress over time than the ones under the interlingual condition (Spanish subtitles). Moreover, high proficient students are assumed to advance more over the seven-week period than low proficient students when exposed to the two subtitle conditions (interlingual or intralingual), therefore their scores on informal and colloquial vocabulary tests are expected to increase throughout the viewing sessions.

For the development of Study 3 the period of exposure is doubled to 14 weeks in order to measure students' retention of colloquial and informal language after an extensive period of time. Students are exposed to episodes from the American TV series *Friends* with L2/intralingual subtitles (English sound + English subtitles). Students' achievement is measured by means of pre-/post tests in order to disclose any long-term retention of colloquial and informal language acquisition. Thus, the following research questions have been formulated:

- How much will students' performance increase after being exposed to English subtitled audiovisual input over a prolonged period 14 weeks?
- Will students' individual performances differ significantly between each other at the end of the experimental condition, in terms of their colloquial and informal language acquisition and recall?

Therefore, it is hypothesized that students' scores will increase significantly after being exposed to subtitled television series over a fourteen-week period, starting-off the premise that exposure for a long period of time to captioned audiovisual materials fosters learners' lexical acquisition. Moreover, students' individual performances are assumed to differ between each other in terms of their colloquial and informal language acquisition.

Study 4 comes out as a natural extension of the third study and aims to delve into two aspects of spoken informal vocabulary: first, to test participants' oral production of informal and colloquial expressions in role-play activities, by measuring the amount of

expressions used appropriately by each participant; and second, to examine features of oral production in students' speech, such as fluency, spontaneity, ability to improvise well and sound naturally. As such, the following research questions have been formulated:

- Will students' post-test results correlate with students' ability to use appropriately colloquial and informal vocabulary in oral speech?
- How will students express themselves when performing the oral tasks with their peers? Will they be able to sound natural, fluent, spontaneous or are they going to be nervous and unable to maintain the conversation?

Accordingly, a high correlation is expected between learners' post-test scores and their oral productions, hence students who scored high in their pre-test are believed to show also the ability to express themselves using the colloquial expressions and informal lexical items in the oral tasks. Additionally, it is assumed that students will be able to express themselves naturally, spontaneously, fluently and to improvise accordingly in the given context.

1.4 Structure of the Research

Chapter 2 offers an overview of the theoretical background that sets the core of this research and their implication for the upcoming empirical studies. First, given the large amount of input the learners are exposed to along the development of the project, the role of input in second/foreign language acquisition is considered as one of the paramount theories. Further on, the chapter opens up to the backbone theories that support the use of subtitled audiovisuals in FL learning, starting with Paivio's (1986, 2007) dual-coding theory (DCT), which claims the presence of two functionally independent but interwoven multimodal systems: a non-verbal and a verbal one considered to foster language learning. The principles of Mayer's (2009) cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML) are fundamentally rooted in the didactic use of subtitled audiovisuals, as it claims that people learn better from words and pictures than

from words alone. The cognitive load theory (CLT) and the theory of information processing (IPM) are considered two supporting approaches on the use of subtitled audiovisual materials in foreign language teaching and learning. They take into consideration the cognitive load learners encounter while watching and listening to subtitled audiovisuals aids and its implication on short-term and long-term memory.

Chapter 3 introduces the lexical and pedagogical approaches developed in this research, starting with an outline of what informal and colloquial language learning implies in the field of FLA/SLA and the challenges of acquiring and developing this demanding component of vocabulary. The following two sections of the chapter focus on oral skills, i.e. listening and speaking, and on means of introducing and enhancing these abilities in foreign language classroom through the use of subtitled and captioned videos.

The literature review is outlined in Chapter 4, tackling the main aspects developed throughout the thesis. The issue of authenticity and its impact in the FL/L2 classroom is highlighted in the first part of the chapter. Transferring the features of 'real life' interactions into classroom settings is one of the main facets developed in the first part of the third chapter. The implications of using an authentic video versus an educational one shed light on means of benefitting from authentic linguistic and cultural interactions between native speakers in classroom settings. Furthermore, the chapter presents a thorough overview of the fundamental empirical studies and research projects on the use of subtitles and captions as foreign language teaching and learning tools and their main advantages and drawbacks.

The methods employed for this research are presented in Chapter 5. The first section provides an overview of the methodological framework, introducing the participants, the material and the procedure used. The chapter goes on to describe each empirical study, presenting the selection and use of the data collection methods, the statistical analyses applied and the results found. Finally, it concludes with a discussion and conclusion section for each of the four research studies and their possible implications for SLA/FLA and AVT fields.

Chapter 6 outlines an overall discussion about the implications of subtitled and captioned audiovisual aids in foreign language learning, focusing primarily on their impact on informal and colloquial language learning and on the development of spoken production and listening comprehension. The last chapter concludes with a synthesis of the main findings and consequently, the contribution of this research to the field, both from a theoretical and empirical point of view. It also frames the limitations of the current investigation and proposes possible considerations for future research.

Chapter 2. Theoretical Background

This chapter will address several theories which sustain the approach to this research and which enhance the pertinence of the points under discussion in the following sections. In order to shed light on the learning processes encountered when learners are exposed to subtitled audiovisual materials, we considered vital to look into the mechanisms of several theoretical approaches in second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning (FLA). Hence, developing the main characteristics of the role of input in foreign/second language learning comes as a crucial requirement in being able to understand how foreign language (FL) or second language (SL) learners interact with large exposure of target language and how they process the amount of language input they receive.

Furthermore, we make references to the theory of dual coding and multimedia learning in order to comprehend the interconnection between visual, written and auditory sources present in subtitled materials. This brings to light the cognitive processes learners are going through when exposed to subtitled audiovisual materials and how learning occurs in the given context. Terms such as short-term, long-term and working memory are exploited in the theory of cognitive load and the theory of information processing, so as to better apprehend learners' manifold inner mechanisms when due to listen to the sound, watch the images and read the subtitles at the same time. In this way, it is of paramount importance to grasp the relationship between FL/SL learning and the cognitive processes developed when learners experience this multi-process procedure.

2.1 The Role of the Input in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition

The underlying question in relation to the role of input in second/foreign language learning is whether foreign/second language learning is the same inside the classroom as outside (Cook, 1996). Some scholars argue that learners go through the same sequence when acquiring grammatical forms in both situations and that they go through the same stages in language acquisition when learning the language in a 'natural' way or inside the classroom (Ellis, 1984). However, what does it happen in the case of vocabulary learning and listening comprehension? Do learners acquire lexical items inside the classroom in the same way they do outside the classroom in a natural environment with native speakers (NS)?

Discourse studies imply the idea that second language data are made available to learners in the form of the input they receive. However, the input is not determined only by the NS, but it is also determined by the learner himself. The feedback the learner provides affects the nature of the input received from the native speaker. Thus, learners' output serves as input to their own language process of acquiring the data (Ellis, 1985). The type of discourse that learners take part to depends on whom the learner is, whether he is a child or an adult. Therefore the two types of discourses would be quite different in terms of approaching a certain topic or idea of the conversation, because if to a child the content is presented visually so to ease understanding, to an adult there are used more verbal explanations in order to make him get the meaning of the topic.

The role of language input in second language acquisition has been promoted by various theories of language learning, with some considering the role of input of primary importance in language learning and with other theories attributing a rather small influence to the input upon L1/FL acquisition (Bahrani, Sim, & Nekoueizadeh, 2014). However, all SLA theories acknowledge the need for language input (Ellis, 1994, 2008). Another role of the input in FLA and SLA is that the learner is able to establish a form-function relation, cue validity and cue strength. Thus, when learners have internalized an incorrect lexical form, they are provided simultaneously with positive and negative evidence when hearing the correct form (Gass, 1997, p. 46).

According to Ellis (2008) the role of language input is based on behaviourist, mentalist, and interactionist SLA theories of language learning. The behaviourist view concerns the linguistic environment as the crucial factor for the acquisition of a language. In this way, the learner is exposed to language input in the form of stimuli and feedback and thus, the learner internalizes the patterns by imitating them. The behaviourists state that the input should be graded in a series of steps, so that each step constitutes the right level of difficulty for the level that the learner has reached. Feedback is also meaningful in this process, as it indicates when learners' utterances are incorrect and reinforces the correct patterns by improving them. The nativist view on the other hand, accounts that the exposure to language cannot be sufficient for the acquisition of a language. Therefore, the nativists perceive the input as an impulse which activates the internal mechanism of the learner. The nativist perspective emphasizes the internal factors of the learner in the process of acquiring a language and minimizes the importance of input, perceiving it as an outsider factor. The third view, the interactionist perspective, regards second language acquisition as the result of the interaction between learners' mental abilities and the linguistic environment. Thus, the quality of the input affects and is affected by learners' internal mechanism and by their abilities. The external and internal factors interact and can be manifested in the actual conversation between two or more interlocutors; therefore, the interactionist perspective sees language acquisition as the effect of the discourse which the participants construct.

Gass (1997) also treats the role of language input in different ways in the input-interaction model, the input hypothesis, the universal grammar model, and the information processing model. According to Gass (1997), the language input that learners receive is enhanced by the handling of the input through interaction which forms a basis of language development (pp. 86–87). As far as Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis is concerned, language acquisition is believed to take place merely by means of comprehensible input which the learners receive. 'The comprehensible input is that piece of language that is heard or read and that contains language slightly ahead of learner's current state of grammatical knowledge' (Gass, 1997, p. 82). The input to which a learner is exposed must be at the $i+1$ level in order to be of use in terms of

acquisition (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). Therefore the i level is considered the current state of knowledge of the learner and the next stage is $i+1$, meaning one level forward to the initial state of knowledge. This assumption reinforces the vital presence of comprehensible input into learners' learning process in order for language acquisition to take place. Information should be slightly above students' level of competence and the main focus should be on the meaning and not on the form of the message. One way learners can understand the input above their level of proficiency is by making use of extralinguistic cues, which are highly abundant in video materials (e.g. gestures, intonation, body language, stress), or by comprehending the input through images, noises and representations of the spoken dialogues in written forms, i.e. subtitles.

However, Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input theory is questioned given the claim that it is uncertain how one could define learners' current status of knowledge and provide them with materials one level beyond their language competence (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Bearing in mind the importance of establishing students' knowledge level before exposing them to the target language, we considered essential the design of a pre-test which would disclose students' acquaintance with the target vocabulary (i.e. colloquial and informal expressions) exploited throughout the development of the research study. The issue of acquiring grammatical knowledge only by being exposed to extra linguistic information is controversial, as it does not ensure the acquisition of syntactical items (e.g. 3rd person singular -s in English), unless it is reinforced later by the teacher. Moreover, another inquiry pointed out is whether the lack of mastering certain grammatical structures would hamper communication with a native speaker. Thus, it is claimed that an appropriate vocabulary item is crucial for an effective comprehension and communication, minimizing the effect of an incorrect grammatical item.

If a learner fails to mark agreement or puts items in the wrong order, there is greater likelihood that a NS can fall back on his or her grammatical knowledge to make sense of what a learner is saying. However, if a learner uses an inappropriate or nonexistent vocabulary item, the NS may be sent down a comprehension path from which there is little possibility to return (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 312)

The Affective Filter Hypothesis developed by Krashen (1985) is tightly related to the effectiveness of the comprehensible input. In other words, the comprehensible input is not sufficient for acquisition to take place if there is a mental block (e.g. anxiety, lack of self-confidence, motivation) that prevents the learners to allow the input 'in' (p.3). Thus, according to this theory learners need to have the affective filter 'low' (e.g. not to be angry, frustrated, nervous, bored or stressed, but on the contrary to be motivated and willing to learn) and understand the input they receive in order to convert it into intake³. However, when there are gaps in the L2 input, especially when the grammatical system cannot be explicitly understood by merely being exposed to the target input, Gass (1997) suggests that one may have to draw learner's attention to the gap, and conversational interactions indeed serve a similar purpose (p.84). According to Gass & Selinker (2008), input alone is not sufficient for acquisition because language can be interpreted when heard without considering the correctness of syntax, whereas when learners are involved in some sort of language production or output, they are forced to put words into some order (pp.325-326). Thus language production may encourage learners to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing (Swain, 1985).

Besides the role of language input in SLA which has been considered from the perspective of different language learning theories and models, language input has also been given the initial role to provide the necessary data for second/foreign language learning in some frameworks. Among the researchers who have studied the role of language input in SLA and FLA, Gass & Selinker (1994) and Ellis (1997) proposed two

³ *Input* refers to what is available to the learner, whereas *intake* refers to what is actually internalized by the learner (Corder, 1967 in Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 305)

frameworks which indicate the importance of input in the language learning process. Within the framework introduced by Gass & Selinker (1994) there are five levels for turning input into output: apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration, and output which account for the SLA process. According to their model, language input refers to various sources of second language data which the learners are exposed to. First, some of the language input is perceived by the language learner due to features such as frequency, prior knowledge, affect and attention and becomes apperceived. Then, learners move to comprehend the bit of language input that is apperceived. At this stage, as the input becomes internalized and comprehended, it turns into intake. Finally, the integration of intake with prior knowledge becomes spoken and written output.

Likewise, Ellis (1997) introduced a basic computational model with an initial focus on language input. In this model, language learners are first exposed to language input which is then processed in two stages. First, some parts of the input that are comprehended by the language learners turn into intake. Second, some of the intake which finds its way to the long-term memory is then turned into knowledge which results in spoken or written output. Although both theoretical frameworks for second language acquisition and foreign language learning give importance to language input, they differ from each other in the number of stages that language input is processed in the minds of language learners.

The abovementioned theories set the foundation for the development of the upcoming empirical studies (see chapter 5), which sustain the use of subtitled authentic audiovisual materials over an extended period of time as a source of comprehensible input. They also foster language output via collaborative spoken activities in English foreign language classroom, addressing aspects such as colloquial and informal vocabulary learning and FL students' ability to use the newly apprehended language in spontaneous oral conversations. However, these theories are upheld by more contemporary ones that concern the use of multimedia learning and dual coding systems in order to acknowledge the cognitive process learners go through when interacting with audiovisual aids and written cues in the form of subtitles.

2.2 Dual-Coding Theory

The main assumption behind Paivio's (1986, 2007) dual coding theory (DCT) is that cognition covers the activity of two functionally independent but interwoven multimodal systems: a nonverbal one, that refers to the perceptions of nonverbal objects and events; and a verbal system, that controls the linguistic stimuli and responses. The two systems are believed to be formed of mental representational units, structures and processes that are learned in cultural contexts, memory, given perceptual and other innate capacities resulted from biological evolution. These models can be activated directly or indirectly by making use of previous inner representations that have already been stored and spread out (Paivio, 2007, pp. 33–34).

However, it is unclear how two functional independent systems can be related later on in a mental representation in learner's mind. The functional independence between the verbal and nonverbal representations can be activated separately or together, mainly depending on the task learners are due to carry out. Thus, this means that different 'sensorimotor modalities within nonverbal and verbal representations (e.g. auditory and visual language systems) can function independently' (Paivio, 2010, p. 208), due to the way these systems differ in how they are organized.

Although initially Paivio (1971) named the dual coding theory representational units verbal and nonverbal (imaginal) that vary in sensorimotor modality, later on he claimed that both words and things have visual, auditory, haptic (touch), and motor forms. Nonetheless, tastes, smells, and emotional experiences are exclusively nonverbal and although words do not comprise the abovementioned modalities, they can be triggered in one's memories when such experiences are actively associated by words as well as by nonverbal objects and events (Paivio, 2010). The verbal and nonverbal representations are named 'logogens' and 'imagens' (Paivio, 1978) and they are the key features of the DCT structural and processing model.

The term logogen is perceived as a multimodal concept that refers to auditory, visual, haptic and motor logogens, as well as separate logogen systems for different languages of multilingual people (Paivio, 1986). Paivio's logogens are viewed as

hierarchical structures of increasing length, from phonemes (letters) to syllables, conventional words, fixed phrases, idioms, sentences and longer discourse units (Paivio, 2010, p. 209). Imagens, on the other hand, are mental representations that generate conscious imagery and mediate performance in recognition, memory, language and other functional domains. Similarly to logogens, imagenes appear in different forms, such as visual, auditory, haptic and motor. They are hierarchically organized, too, but in the case of visual images they appear in 'spatial nested sets' (Paivio, 2010, p. 210), for instance pupils within eyes within faces, rooms within houses within larges scenes.

Logogen and imagen units are fundamentally different in terms of meaningfulness. On the one hand, logogens have no meaning in the semantic sense that characterizes the views of linguistic lexical representation, as they become 'meaningful' only when activated with some sort of familiarity. On the other hand, imagens are inherently meaningful, in the sense that the conscious activated images resemble the objects and scenes they represent. Furthermore, both logogens and images give rise to meaning when there are referential associations between them. Thus, the referential connections between concrete-word logogens and imagens give rise to names for objects and thereafter, names activate images that represent world knowledge. Making associative connections between logogens (whether concrete or abstract) and imagens triggers a within system associative processing that defines a deliberate associative meaning between word association and analogous nonverbal procedures (Paivio & Sadoski, 2011, p. 200).

The type of task and the contextual stimuli play a vital role in determining the dual coding theory units connections and their activation. Therefore, the description of the same DCT concepts (logogens, images and the connections between them) is preceded by the contextual relations and the properties of the task learners are engaged in. For instance, mental images reveal situational contexts for language in the absence of referent objects and settings. Additionally, verbal associations include meaningful relationships such as synonymy, antonymy and paraphrasing together with intralinguistic contextual relations. Thus, the DCT units and their corresponding contextual relations are engaged in different tasks such as learning word pairs or

understanding sentences and longer texts. The tasks could take place in unconnected contexts, so that they could either enhance, interfere with, or have no effect on task performance (Paivio & Sadoski, 2011, p. 200).

The dual coding theory is considered by Talaván (2011, 2012, 2013) one of the three relevant theories that explain how brain processes input when learners are exposed to subtitled films or when they are engaged in the active task of producing subtitles. Therefore, when the verbal information is upheld by images, language learning is facilitated, as learners are able to build referential connections between the two forms of mental representations. Information is stored more efficiently in learners' mind when it is coded dually, through both memory systems (Paivio, 2007). In this way, subtitles, as a supportive didactic tool and subtitling as an active task, involving the creation of subtitles, include an additional verbal mode, i.e. the written form, connecting the verbal (oral) mode and the visual one in order to facilitate language retention and comprehension (Talaván, 2011, p. 200).

Likewise, Lambert, Boehler, & Sidoti (1981) claimed in one of their first empirical studies that combining the oral text with the written one in audiovisual materials is more thoroughly processed by language learners than if either the dialogue or the script is presented alone. Thus, they sustain the information coming from two sources of input is a lot more beneficial than only coming from one source of input. Moreover, Talaván (2012) points out the additional cognitive connection created by the presence of translation, especially if the two modes come in two different languages (e.g. the audio in L2 and the subtitles in L1). She also alludes to the additional mental effort needed, considering the constraints brought by the general rules of official subtitling procedure in terms of time and space (e.g. one to two lines in the case of regular subtitles and three to four for hard of hearing and deaf audience), punctuation and spelling (Díaz Cintas, 2003), as subtitles are not a direct word by word representation of the spoken dialogues on screen (Talaván, 2012, p. 5).

The dual coding theory represents one of the basic theories that supports the methodology, the design and the pedagogical resources employed for the current research. First, the use of audiovisual materials in the form of subtitled television series

comprise visual, auditory and written units, thus learners are able to make connections and associations between them. The language present in the dialogue is enhanced by the visuals and the subtitles, thereby meaning comprehension and vocabulary learning is facilitated by their combination. The contextual stimuli are essential for triggering activation of the DCT units and store the newly acquired knowledge, hence the presence of the target vocabulary (i.e. informal and colloquial language) in a meaningful context underpinned by both visual and written modes could only benefit language learning. Furthermore, principles supporting a newer theory that involves multimedia learning will be discussed in order to reflect upon how learners process information coming from more than two sources and how the use of subtitles, as language learning support, can foster vocabulary acquisition and oral comprehension.

2.3 Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

The rationale underlying Mayer's (2009) cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML) is that people learn better from words and pictures than from words alone. Multimedia instruction entails the presence of both words and pictures rather than words alone. Here we can make reference to the one-way traditional university lectures, in which the professor/lecturer is holding the teaching sessions by making use of words only. In contrast, nowadays there are modern and newer ways of presenting the information, for example by making use of pictures, graphs, tables in the form of power point presentations or on-screen projections of illustrations and images, in which the visual element has acquired a central role together with the verbal one. Meaningful learning outcomes are believed to depend on the cognitive activity of the student during learning, rather than on the learner's behavioural activity during learning (Mayer, 2009, p. 3).

Thus, we need to look into the depths of learners' cognitive activity while engaged in multimedia processing in order to explain their learning outcomes. Multimedia learning comprises learning from words and pictures and it can include learning from textbooks that contain text and illustrations, computer-based lessons that contain animation and narration or even face-to-face slide presentations that may contain graphics and spoken words (Mayer, 2009, 2014).

The CTML infers that the human information processing system includes dual channels for visual/pictorial and auditory/verbal processing. Each channel is considered to have limited capacity for processing and in order to assure active learning takes place, several appropriate cognitive processing during learning should be carried out (Mayer, 2009, p. 57). Figure 1 below shows Mayer's (2009) cognitive model of multimedia learning, which seeks to express the human information processing system. Pictures and words enter the sensory memory as a multimedia presentation through ears and eyes. Sensory memory keeps the pictures and printed text in the form of visual images for a short period of time in the visual sensory memory and the spoken words and other sounds are held as auditory images for a brief moment in the auditory sensory memory. Pictures and words enter the sensory memory as a multimedia presentation through ears and eyes. Sensory memory keeps the pictures and printed text in the form of visual images for a short period of time in the visual sensory memory and the spoken words and other sounds are held as auditory images for a brief moment in the auditory sensory memory.

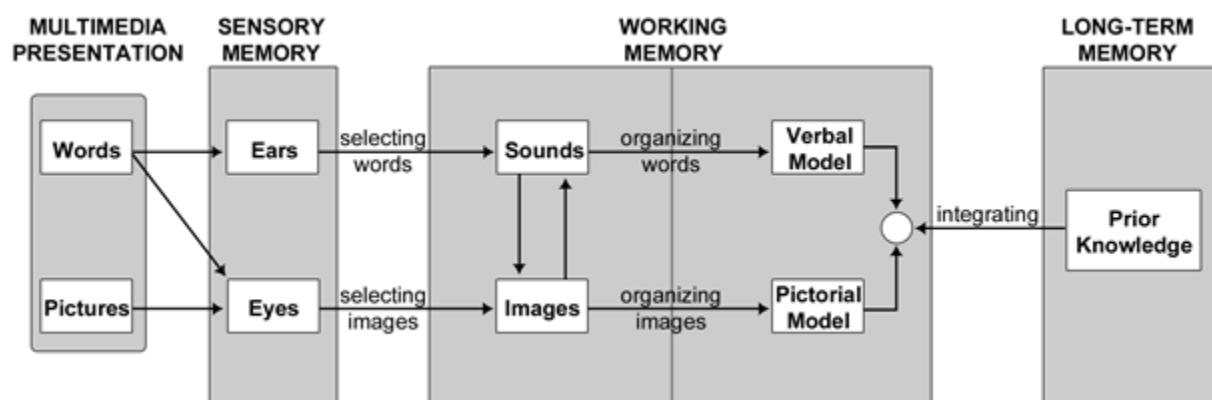


Figure 1. Mayer's (2009) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

Thereafter, the main activity of multimedia learning takes place in working memory, which manipulates and holds knowledge in active consciousness for a limited span of time. Basically, the left side of the working memory shows the raw material that gets in under the form of sounds and images, and after moves into the processing right side, in which knowledge is constructed into verbal and auditory models and connections between them. Finally, information arrives into long-term memory, which corresponds to 'learner's storehouse of knowledge', and it is able to hold large amounts of knowledge for a long period of time (Mayer, 2009, pp. 61–62).

There are three assumptions that underpin the cognitive theory of multimedia learning: the *dual channels*, *limited capacity* and *active processing*. The dual channels assumption has its roots in Paivio's (1986) dual coding theory and it refers to the fact that humans possess separate channels for processing visual and auditory information. When information is brought out to the eyes, such as pictures, illustrations, videos or on-screen text, people begin processing that information in the visual channel. However, when information is presented to the ears, such as narration or nonverbal sounds, learners begin by processing those pieces of information in the auditory channel (Mayer, 2009, p. 64).

The underlying question is whether learners process the information first through their eyes or their ears, in other words either visually or auditorially. Although information may enter first via one channel, learners may be able to transform the representation for processing in the other channel. For example, an on-screen text may be initially processed visually, but an experienced reader may be able to mentally change images into sounds, which are processed via the auditory channel. Likewise, a picture of an object, which initially is processed visually can be mentally converted into its corresponding verbal description in the auditory channel, as well as a narration that arrived via auditory channel can be shaped into a mental image. These cross-channel representations play a crucial role in Paivio's (1986, 2007, 2010, 2014) dual coding theory.

Furthermore, the assumption of limited capacity entails that humans are limited in the amount of information they can process in each channel at one time. Thus, working memory is limited in the amount of knowledge it can process at one time, as only a few images can be kept in the visual channel and only a few sounds can be held in the auditory channel of working memory. Learners are able to store reflected parts of the presented material rather than an exact copy of it. For instance, when a narration is presented, the learner is able to keep only a few words in working memory at one time, reflecting parts of the presented text rather than a verbatim recording of it. The notion of limited capacity has its origin in Baddeley's (1992, 2007) theory of working memory and Chandler & Sweller's (1991) cognitive load theory. The drawbacks on our processing

capacity compels us to make decisions concerning which pieces of incoming information to pay attention to and the degree to which we connect the selected pieces of information to our prior knowledge. These *metacognitive strategies* are employed to allocate, monitor, coordinate and adjust these limited cognitive resources (Mayer, 2009, p. 67) and they are the key features of what Baddeley (1992) calls the *central executive*, the system that controls the distribution of cognitive resources.

The concept of active processing brings out the notion that people engage in active learning when they focus on relevant incoming information, when they organize selected information into coherent mental representations and when they integrate those mental representations with already apprehended knowledge. The major cognitive activities required for multimedia learning are the arrows labeled as selecting images, selecting sounds, organizing images, organizing sounds and integrating (see figure 1 above). Active learning takes place when a learner processes cognitively the incoming material by constructing coherent mental representations, in other words building a 'mental model' (Mayer, 2009, p. 68) that would help the learner to build a cause-and-effect system.

Given that the outcome of active learning implies the construction of coherent mental representations, it is appropriate to consider some basic knowledge structures stated by Cook & Mayer (1988) that underpin some typical ways knowledge can be constructed. They incorporate the notion of *process* (cause-and-effect chain), *comparison* (compare and contrast two or more elements), *generalization* (description of the main idea and support with details), *enumeration* (presentation of a list of items) and *classification* (analysis of a domain into sets and subsets). These structures are of primary importance for multimedia design, as it implies that multimedia material should contain coherent structures and should provide guidance to learners (Mayer, 2009, pp. 68–69).

Framing the cognitive theory of multimedia learning and building on the three aforementioned assumptions, learners need to get involved in five cognitive processes: select relevant words for processing in verbal working memory, select relevant images for processing in visual working memory, organize selected words into a verbal mental

model, organize selected images into a visual mental model and integrate verbal and visual representations (Mayer, 2009, pp. 70–71). The process of selecting relevant words refers to the fact that learners can pay attention only to some of the words (due to the limited capacity of storage in each channel) that are presented in the multimedia message, as they go through the auditory sensory memory. If the words appear as speech, the process begins in the auditory channel and if the words are introduced as on-screen or printed text, then the process starts in the visual channel, although it can later on move to the auditory channel if the learner mentally expresses them. The selection of words is not random, as the learner must decide which words are the most relevant to be processed. Similarly, the process of selecting relevant images comprises learners' attention on some parts of the illustration or animation presented visually in the multimedia message. As in the case of words, this operation begins in the visual channel, but it can gradually become part of the auditory channel if the learner mentally narrates a continuous animation. Due to the limited capacity of the cognitive systems, it is not possible to store complex images, and therefore learners need to select the most significant illustrations.

After the formation of a word and image solid background from the incoming words and pictures of a section of multimedia messages, one can move on to the organization of words and images into coherent mental representations. Thus, learners can associate pieces of verbal and pictorial knowledge, either in the auditory or visual channel in order to establish mental constructions of a cause-and-effect chain. The last step requires building connections between word-based and image-based representations. In this last stage, there is a crucial cognitive shift, as learners should integrate and connect representations that correspond to both the pictorial and the verbal model with prior knowledge from long-term memory (Mayer, 2009, pp. 72–75).

The core principle of cognitive theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 2009) and of the cognitive load theory (Chandler & Sweller, 1991; Sweller, 2005) revolves around the idea that learners are engaged in three kinds of cognitive processing while learning: extraneous processing, essential processing, and generative processing. Extraneous processing refers to cognitive processing that does not serve the instructional objective

and it is caused by poor instructional design and confusion. If extraneous processing exhausts all cognitive capacity due to poor design, then the learner will not be able to fulfill other cognitive processes, such as selecting, integrating and organizing, which in turn will lead to poor language retention and performance. Essential processing is the cognitive processing aimed at mentally representing the displayed material in working memory and it is caused by the complexity of it. Too many steps and underlying processes at this stage could lead to an overload of learner's cognitive capacity. That is why, learners should be provided with key elements to ease that complexity and eventually focus on essential processing, resulting in good retention.

Finally, generative processing entails the cognitive processing focused on understanding the material and it is grounded in learner's effort to get involved in the learning process, such as selecting, organizing and integrating the presented material. This stage is strongly related to learner's level of motivation and engagement in the learning environment. If learners accomplish to immerse themselves in essential and generative processing, it is likely they perform meaningful learning outcomes with good retention and good transfer performance. The ultimate goal in this respect is to reduce extraneous processing and in turn to manage essential processing and foster generative processing (Mayer, 2003, 2009, 2014).

Furthermore, motivation is considered as having a key role in fostering generative processing (Mayer, 2011), thus learners should undertake the cognitive processes of selecting, organizing and integrating required for meaningful learning. Another theory that is in line with this concept is the cognitive affective theory of learning with media (CATLM) (Moreno, 2005), which focuses on motivational and metacognitive factors that are somehow overlooked in the cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML). Notably, Moreno & Mayer (2007) acknowledge the importance of 'motivational factors in mediating learning by means of increasing or decreasing cognitive engagement' and moreover claim that 'metacognitive factors mediate learning by regulating cognitive processing and affect' (p.310). The motivational factors are considered to improve student learning by fomenting generative processing as long as the learner is not permanently overwhelmed with extraneous processing or constantly distracted from essential processing (Mayer, 2014).

Among the researchers that highlight the relevance of the abovementioned theories and principles in the didactic use of subtitles as language learning support, Talaván (2011, 2012, 2013) points out the capacity of expansion of the information processing system when an additional channel (i.e. textual in the form of subtitles) is added to the picture. Hence, by generating extra related information to the visual and auditory channel, the limited capacity of information processing claimed by Mayer (2009) is more likely to expand and prior knowledge activation becomes more accessible (Wang & Shen, 2007). In other words, comprehension and incoming information is more efficiently coded when it gets in through more than one channel, in this way becoming a lot easier to grasp and acquire. Hence, the communicative situations disclosed in the subtitled audiovisual materials take the shape of what Krashen (1985) called *comprehensible input*, so essential for making progress in learning a FL/L2 (Talaván, 2012).

Moreover, relying on Moreno's (2005) and Moreno & Mayer's (2007) assumption of reducing the extraneous processing through learners' engagement and motivation in the learning process, the belief of adding a third channel in the form of subtitles can be only productive in establishing mental connections among the different channels and between the textual information and previous knowledge, therefore facilitating comprehension and language retention. Subtitles can be considered a solid support tool in FL/L2 language teaching and learning, as far as there is a clear goal both for teachers and learners in using them. In other words, students need to learn how to use the subtitles by having a meaningful objective in mind and that should be far from understanding 'everything' they hear. This can be accomplished by making use of the common characteristic of subtitles, i.e. the reduction and contraction of the linguistic information on screen. This feature is key in order for the subtitles to be appropriately synchronized with speech and the time allocated on screen. These linguistic differences between aural and written text can be only beneficial in this context, not only because they foster learner's attention and motivation in following those discrepancies, but also because they reinforce learners' belief in their ability to understand the foreign language they listen to (Talaván, 2013, p. 73).

The cognitive theory of multimedia learning represents one of the core theories of the current research due to its apparent implications in second/foreign language learning when information is coded via several channels. The empirical studies carried out imply the use of multimedia messages, which come in the shape of subtitled audiovisual materials, presenting the language visually, aurally and textually. The interconnections between the three modes enhance learner's active participation in the process of language learning by selecting the most relevant images and words, building internal connections among the selected words and pictures, and eventually linking the verbal, pictorial and written models with their prior knowledge, hence creating external connections. According to Mayer (2009) these are the three basic processes required for active learning and which should lead to better language retention and comprehension.

Likewise, learners have a clear goal in all the tasks they were involved in, as they are not simply watching television series for the sake of doing it, but they are due to focus on the overall comprehension of the episode, paying special attention to both the contextual and linguistic information of colloquial and informal language use. The motivational factor is fundamental in easing the load of the extraneous cognitive processing (Mayer, 2009, 2014; Moreno & Mayer, 2007; Moreno, 2005) and enhancing the essential and generative cognitive processing. Therefore, choosing the American sitcom *Friends* as a didactic tool was considered meaningful for the current situation due to its entertaining and motivational traits, highly appropriate for our learners age and rich in informal contexts and colloquial language.

Furthermore, the current theory is backed up by Sweller's (1994, 2005) theory of cognitive load (CLT), which suggests that learning happens best under conditions that are in line with human cognitive architecture and that by combining structures and elements together, we ease the load of long-term memory and we permit to treat multiple elements as a single element. This theory shares common principles with the theory of multimedia learning and subsequently, it will be approached in the following section in order to broaden the perspective on the cognitive process of language learning.

2.4 Cognitive Load Theory

Sweller's (1994) cognitive load theory (CLT) implies that for instruction to be effective, the brain's capacity for processing information should not be overloaded. Moreover, CLT promotes the idea that the activities students are engaged in should be directed at *schema acquisition* and *automation* (Chandler & Sweller, 1991; Sweller, 1994). In other words, the instructor should not create unnecessary activities in connection with a lesson that requires excessive attention or concentration, as this may lead to overloading the working memory and prevent students from acquiring the essential information that is to be learned. This principle is vital in any form of instruction, but it is fundamental to be considered in multimedia instruction, due to the ease with which distraction can be included (Sorden, 2012).

The cognitive load theory accounts for three types of cognitive load: intrinsic, extraneous and germane. Intrinsic cognitive load occurs during the interaction between the nature of the material to be learned and the expertise of the learner. Extraneous (extrinsic) cognitive load shares common grounds with Mayer's (2009) extraneous processing and it is caused by factors that are not essential to the material to be learned and split learner's attention between several sources of information. Both theoreticians agree that this type of load should be minimized as much as possible in order to avoid working memory overload. The germane cognitive load, however is considered to boost learning by organizing and integrating information in working memory (Sweller, Van Merriënboer, & Paas, 1998).

According to Sweller (2005), working memory has a limited capacity of storing novel information, as opposed to long-term memory that has an effectively unlimited ability of holding cognitive schemas that can vary in their degree of complexity and automation. Therefore, human expertise is considered to come from knowledge gathered in cognitive schemas and not from the capacity to engage in comprehending the new elements yet to be organized in long-term memory (Van Merriënboer & Ayres, 2005, p. 6). A schema is a cognitive concept that organizes the elements of information in the order with which they will be dealt with. Newly acquired information is modified so

that it is compatible with knowledge of the subject matter. In this way, knowledge of the subject matter is arranged into schemas and it is these schemas that decide how new information is processed (Sweller, 1994, p. 296). Namely, schemas have the property of explaining most of the learned and intellectual skills people show, therefore one's knowledge and intellectual abilities are dependent on schema acquisition (Sweller, 1994, p. 297). Another property of schema is that it can reduce working memory load, because even a complex schema can be treated as one element when brought into working memory. As such, the capacity of working memory is expanded, and hence the cognitive load of working memory is reduced (Van Merriënboer & Ayres, 2005).

Eventhough cognitive schemas are kept in and reclaimed from long-term memory, new information must be processed in working memory. The main concern of CLT is the ease with which information may be processed in working memory, as this can be affected by intrinsic cognitive load (the inner nature of the tasks themselves), by the extraneous cognitive load (the way in which the tasks are presented) or by germane cognitive load (the amount of cognitive resources that learners supply in schema construction and automation (Sweller et al., 1998; Van Merriënboer & Ayres, 2005). Sweller (1994) argues that there are two critical learning mechanisms: 'schemata acquisition and the transfer of learned procedures from controlled to automatic processing' (p.298). When a difficult and complex intellectual skill is acquired for the first time, it may be available only if substantial cognitive effort is put into the process. Thus, time and practice may convert it into an automatic skill, which may require minimal thought to be conducted afterwards. Sweller (1994) perceives automation an essential mechanism of learning without which performance would be slow and liable to error.

The main principle of cognitive load theory is to decrease extraneous cognitive load and to increase germane cognitive load, considering the limitations of the available processing capacity of working memory, and hence preventing cognitive overload. Both *schema acquisition* and *automation* share a common characteristic, i.e. they have the effect of reducing working memory load. On the one hand, schemas increase the amount of information that can be stored in working memory by 'chunking individual elements into a single element' (Sweller, 1994, p. 299). On the other hand, automation

allows working memory to be sidestepped, as processing that occurs automatically requires less working memory space and consequently, the working capacity is released to carry out other functions.

Nevertheless, one aspect that needs to be taken into account is learner's level of expertise, because this decides the intrinsic cognitive load of the learning tasks. If for a person a large number of items can represent challenging and difficult elements to process, for a more experienced person the same number of items can be perceived as a single automatic element, because he/she has already got the necessary schema to incorporate it in the working memory. Therefore, extraneous load can be increased if either the visual or the auditory processor of working memory is overloaded with challenging or unnecessary information. For instance, providing learners with multiple sources of information, such as a written text and a diagram, may overwhelm the visual processor more than if the written material is presented in spoken form, thus permitting a shift of the cognitive load to the auditory processor (Van Merriënboer & Ayres, 2005, p. 7).

The implication of cognitive load theory has been investigated in the context of multimedia learning, mainly due to the use of technology as an instructional tool that processes and regards information in different presentation modes and sensory modalities. A process theory that supplements CLT is the cognitive processes in multimedia learning depicted by Mayer (2009). The basic principles in the theory of multimedia learning are the dual coding assumption and the dual channel assumption (for further details see section 2.3 above). While the dual coding assumption refers to the presentation mode of the information (verbal and pictorial), which is processed in separate but interconnected systems, the dual channel assumption makes reference to the sensory path of information perception, highlighting that visual and auditory information are processed in different systems, but that can be easily interchangeable. Based on cognitive load theory, several principles have been identified as describing the impact of instructional design on multimedia learning. Thus, these principles refer to ways of reducing extraneous load by reinforcing schema construction and information integration, to the individual's limited capacity and the differences in one's level of

expertise, and finally, to ways of optimizing the use of available capacity for information processing (Brunken, Plass, & Leutner, 2003).

If we make reference to the sensory modality of information, Mayer (2009) states that knowledge is better acquired if the materials are presented simultaneously auditorially and visually. CLT supports this theory by exemplifying the modality effect in relation to the memory load. Hence, a picture-and-text format implies a higher load in visual working memory, because both types of information are due to be processed in this system. In comparison, the picture-and-narration mode generates a lower amount of cognitive load in visual working memory, because auditory and visual information are each processed in their respective system, thus the total amount of load is distributed among the two systems. However, the amount of actual cognitive load present in the two presentation formats has not been measured yet. Although research in multimedia learning uses cognitive load as a theoretical rationale to explain the differences in learning outcomes, it does not actually determine the amount of cognitive load imposed on the learners (Brunken et al., 2003).

Both the theory of cognitive load and the theory of multimedia learning point out the principle of redundancy as relevant for instructional design, in the sense that adding redundant printed text to narrated graphics is believed to create extraneous processing. This aspect is crucial for discussion at this point, given the didactic materials used for the design of the current experimental studies, i.e. episodes from television series with subtitles and captions, which at first sight may seem inappropriate for language learning and prone to cause extraneous processing and cognitive load. Mayer, Lee, & Peebles (2014) claim that extraneous processing may occur, when redundant on-screen captions are used, when the student tries to integrate two verbal streams in order to make sure the printed words correspond to the spoken words, and when the learner scans between the words in the caption area to the corresponding part in the graphic above. It is believed that redundant printed text can lead to split attention in the visual channel in which learners may miss information if the video is too fast-paced and they need to spend too much time reading the printed words (p.654).

However, redundancy is considered beneficial if it involves learning academic presented in one's second language, as it is the case of our participants that are studying a BA in English as a foreign language. On the basis of cognitive load theory (Sweller, 2005) and the cognitive theory of multimedia learning (Mayer, 2009), the redundancy facilitation hypothesis suggests a reverse redundancy effect in scenarios where the redundant material can support and reinforce basic cognitive processing that is not yet automated in non-native speakers, while minimizing extra cognitive load (Mayer et al., 2014). Ultimately, principles of CLT interweave with assumptions of CTML, which offer a solid theoretical rationale for the use of subtitled audiovisual materials as didactic tools in foreign language/second language settings. By exposing learners to several channels and modes simultaneously (audio, visual and textual) we ease the load of working memory, as we distribute the information among the three systems, which instead of being a burden to comprehension, they complement each other and reinforce language meaning, that may come only from spoken or visual mode.

As it has been aforementioned, subtitles and captions do not act as a redundant tool, first because they are not a word-by-word transcription of the spoken dialogues; and second, because they offer a support in understanding the linguistic items in a meaningful, implicit and authentic context. In this way, learners are prone to internalize the linguistic concepts and transform them into automated forms, whose difficulty will diminish over time, hence reducing the cognitive load of the working memory. In the current research studies, time has been considered a key element in analyzing language performance and acquisition, therefore participants are exposed to subtitled episodes from television series over an extended period of time. As it has been mentioned by Sweller (1994), time and practice are the key requirements for challenging and extraneous items to be automated, so that foreign language learners could chunk schemas into single elements.

In the following section, the *theory of information processing* will be discussed, focusing on how the human memory system acquires, transforms and uses information. This will offer a more in depth view upon the processes undergone by learners when exposed to subtitled audiovisual materials for an extended period of time and their effect upon informal and colloquial language learning.

2.5 Theory of Information Processing

Information processing theory (IPT) focuses mainly on cognitive processes and it is linked to advances in communication and computer technology. Information processing approaches have been applied to learning, memory, problem solving, visual and auditory perception, cognitive development, and artificial intelligence (Schunk, 2000). Accordingly, principles of the information processing theory should be reviewed in relation to the focus of the current research on visual and auditory perception, learning and memory. Thus, this theory can be considered one of the supporting backbones to the use of subtitled audiovisual materials in foreign language teaching and learning.

Theoreticians investigating information processing theory question the behaviourist view that learning involves association between stimuli and responses. IPT is less concerned with external conditions and focuses more on internal (mental) processes that come between stimuli and responses. Learners are perceived as active seekers and processors of information, by selecting features of the environment, by transforming and rehearsing information, by relating information to previously acquired knowledge, and finally by organizing knowledge in meaningful structures (Mayer, 1996). Information processing takes place in stages that interfere between receiving a stimulus and producing a response. Moreover, the human system is believed to function similarly to a computer: it receives information, stores it in the memory and then uses it when necessary, taking part in all cognitive activities, such as perceiving, rehearsing, thinking, problem solving, remembering, forgetting, and imagining (Mayer, 1996; Schunk, 2000).

The memory system is divided into three main storage structures: sensory registers, short-term memory (STM) and long-term memory (LTM). The first stage of processing is registering stimuli in the sensory memory system. People receive information from the environment through different types of receptors, such as: eyes, ears, nose, mouth and sense of touch. The information enters the body as a sensation and the sensory registers hold raw information until the stimulus pattern is recognized or lost. In other words, the sensation that is needed or wanted is transformed into a message and sent to memory. STM holds information in its recognized form instead of its raw sensory form (e.g. visual-icon, auditory-echo, textual-alphabet). An important

characteristic of STM is that both visual information (through the video images) and phonetic coding (through the audio) are the main modalities of learning, especially when language learning is involved. Information that we remember, even for a short amount of time, goes into long-term memory. In contrast, LTM has an unlimited capacity to store knowledge, therefore elaboration and practice are the two processes that need to take place in short-term memory, so that information moves into long-term memory (Moore, Burton, & Myers, 2001).

The dual-store/dual-memory model, according to Schunk (2000) implies that information processing starts when either a visual or auditory stimulus reaches one of the senses (e.g. sight, touch, etc). Then, the sensory register receives the input and keeps it briefly in sensory form, and subsequently the act of perception takes place, which means that the stimulus input is assigned a meaning. Next, the sensory register sends information to short-term memory, also known as working memory (WM), which corresponds to awareness and has limited capacity (Mayer, 2009; Sweller, 2005). While information is held in working memory, related knowledge in long-term memory is activated and transferred into WM to be integrated with the new information. The flow of information in the information processing system is determined by what is called *control(executive) processes*. Rehearsal is one of the vital control processes that takes place in WM, which is fundamental if we want information to be stored in LTM. Short-term memory is the place in which information may be rehearsed, elaborated, used for decision making, lost or stored in long-term memory (Moore et al., 2001, p. 852). Other control processes include putting information in meaningful contexts, visualizing and organizing information, monitoring level of understanding and using retrieval strategies (Schunk, 2000, p. 121).

Processing information presented in an audiovisual text requires a form of watching named *audiovisual (AV) watching* (Incalcaterra & Lertola, 2014), which refers to negotiating meaning as a complex combination of verbal and non-verbal signals. Listening to an audiovisual aid involves relating and decoding aural elements with visual and other elements of the text, too (p.72). Talaván (2011, 2012, 2013) considers the theory of information processing relevant for the use of subtitled videos as foreign

language learning tools. Hence, she points out the importance of the two filters of information in this process, i.e. visual and verbal, and the three channels involved (images, audio and text). When both the audiovisual aids and subtitles are used in SLL/FLL, the two filters are reinforced by replicating one of them, i.e. the written form is linked to the oral text by means of translation (either interlingual or intralingual) (Talaván, 2011, p. 200). Moreover, Wang & Shen (2007) argue that captioned authentic videos are a meaningful source of language input. They propose a model in which they summarize the relevance of information processing theory when subtitles or captions are involved in foreign language learning (see figure 2 below).

During language learning, not all input has equal significant value and only input that is observed can become available for intake and effective processing (Wang & Shen, 2007, p. 9). Thus, noticing and paying attention to language is a necessary step, but not a sufficient condition for effective processing to take place. Video has the intrinsic quality of catching learners' interest and attention, especially in nowadays environment run by all types of media sources. Therefore, the language input that comes with the video is much easier to be noticed. Captions and subtitles possess an added value, as they can raise learners' awareness on the salient input, which otherwise could be missed if students rely either only on their listening ability or only on reading the subtitles as a primary task. By grasping the salient language input from subtitled or captioned videos, learners are prone to store the information in long-term memory. Once the input is stored in LTM, it is split into two parts and stocked either in the form of semantic memory or episodic memory. As audiovisuals are mainly episode-orientated, the content of the video can be easily remembered in long-term memory. Storing the input into an episodic or visual memory form can be beneficial for later activation of the content of semantic memory, in other words, lexical items can be easier remembered if associated with the visual elements, thus easing the load of working memory (Wang & Shen, 2007, p. 10).

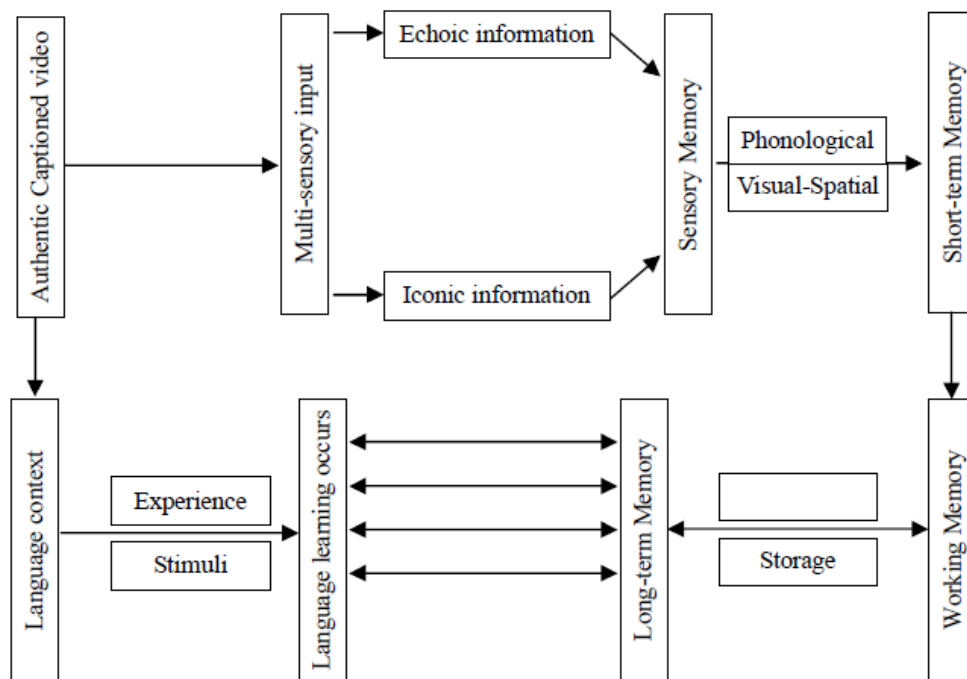


Figure 2. Wang & Shen's (2007) model of foreign language learning through video and subtitles

Chapter 3. Lexical and Pedagogical Approaches in FLL

The current chapter will introduce the key terms of this research. The first section will focus on the aspect of informality and colloquial language learning, as one of the prime facets of this investigation. Colloquial speech and slang is one of the neglected areas of language vocabulary, given the scarce amount of research studies conducted on this topic. The ever growing access to Internet websites, to online TV programmes and series and to international chats or face-to-face interaction with native speakers increases the need to make L2/FL learners aware of the language spoken outside the classroom and of ways to learn and use it appropriately. In other words 'the language of the streets must be brought into the classroom so that students can cope with everyday spoken English' (Engkent, 1986, p. 225).

Therefore, this section aims to introduce the main aspects related to informal and colloquial language learning by first, defining the terms that comprise this area, and then present some of the challenges EFL instructors and learners encounter when acquiring colloquial speech. Possible solutions to the learning challenges encountered and effective methods to develop informal speech in classroom settings are suggested in a brief review at the end of the first section. The main approach to foster colloquial and informal language use and learning supports the methods, the procedure and the material developed throughout the current doctoral investigation.

The second part of the chapter will outline the main aspects connected to teaching and learning oral skills, i.e. speaking and listening, as another overall goal of this dissertation is to investigate to what extent subtitled audiovisual materials foster listening comprehension, spoken production and vocabulary acquisition. Developing a native-like listening comprehension is part of an arduous process of becoming a proficient foreign language learner and this entails making use of learning strategies to approach the limitations of non native speakers (NNS) when interacting with native speakers (NS), and subsequently to develop one's speaking ability to become effective language users. Thus, features of both listening and speaking will be inquired to gain insight into how learners' listening and speaking skills could be enhanced in foreign

language settings. This section will also look into aspects related to assessment and evaluation of speaking and listening in SLA/FLA. The sections devoted to assessing listening and speaking skills were considered important for the design and preparation of the tests and assessment sheets used for the practical part of this research, i.e. the four empirical studies. Moreover, aspects such as the interconnection between listening comprehension, spoken production and vocabulary acquisition are disclosed in order to support the pragmatic exploration of communicative tasks in the EFL classroom via subtitled and authentic audiovisual materials.

3.1 Informal and Colloquial Language Learning

Colloquial speech seems to be one of the most difficult areas for achieving native-like language competence in the acquisition of a foreign language, so very few studies have been conducted on this topic. In fact, acquiring colloquial speech of a discourse community is crucial for foreign language learners who wish to achieve native-like proficiency in the target language of such community and failing 'to acquire colloquialisms, or even slang, could result in the failure of mastering the language' (Bradford, 2010). Research on L2 colloquial speech acquisition is very limited, as most of the materials available in this field are dictionaries or thesauruses that present colloquial speech and slang examples of the target language, but which neither define the specific terms of colloquial speech and slang, nor give insight into the acquisition of this type of speech. Other pedagogical materials related to informal language revolve around self-study coursebooks that present lists of idioms, collocations or phrasal verbs for independent language learners. There are studies that examined the attitudes towards teaching of colloquialisms in language classroom settings, or the opinions native speakers have towards non-native speakers' use of colloquial speech and slang (Bradford, 2010, p. 1), but there is a lack of studies that focus on the process of learning and acquisition of this aspect of vocabulary.

The poor evidence in the literature tackling the issue of informal and colloquial language acquisition in instructional settings makes the aim of this investigation even more feasible in the current context. Bravo (2008) states that in Portugal the approach to teaching and learning idioms should undergo a revision and focus on the communicative competence. She claims that the assessment and testing methods need to be upgraded, too as there is a discrepancy between the testing of idioms and phrasal verbs in the national exams and what it is taught in the classroom. Similar suggestions are encouraged in the Spanish educational system, such as idioms, phrasal verbs and colloquialism are required and tested at upper-intermediate and advanced levels, but barely tackled in the classroom.

As for learners' perception in relation to the need of these lexical items as a constant teaching practice, Liontas (2002) analyzed students' self-awareness in relation to their knowledge of idioms both from a teaching and from a learning perspective. The results showed that the majority of students have not been taught idioms in the classroom, but emphasized a high importance in doing it, as they perceived idiom use as a significant part of natural communication and a tool to increase conversational fluency. Moreover, the participants mentioned that idioms should be presented with authentic language use and in a real-life context in order to increase self-confidence when exposed to a variety of communicative settings. The lack of acquisition of L2 colloquial speech is believed to be due to the difficulty learners encounter as outsiders to achieve group membership (Bradford, 2010). Moreover, physiological and sociological factors such as race, sex, age, and religion contribute to the type of language people use and with whom (Fishman, 1979). A speaker who is not part of a particular group will barely be able to use the language specifically associated with that group, as there is a general tendency among L2 learners to stay away from colloquial speech and slang because they may not feel that they are belonging to a specific group or culture that uses a culturally specific vocabulary (Xu & McAlpine, 2008).

Although belonging to a cultural specific group is an important factor to consider, when looking into learners' production of informal and colloquial speech, there are other aspects that need to be acknowledged when investigating this linguistic area, such as the time spent in an English speaking country, interaction with the target language and

culturally specific communities, learner's proficiency and formal instruction of colloquial speech and slang in the classroom. However, in order to have access to considerable amounts of input, it is needed extensive exposure to authentic communities in which the culturally specific language is spoken, as some researchers claim that 'the benefits of residence in an L2 context only begin to appear after about 2 years' (Laufer & Paribakht, 1998, p. 366). Although colloquial speech is not often studied in language classroom settings, it is a rich part of any language vocabulary and its acquisition could be meaningful for L2 language learners and their social integration into a community and comprehension of various forms of media, such as movies, television, radio, conversation with peers (Bradford, 2010).

People seem to be sensitive to errors in register as much as or even more to errors in grammar. Although native speakers allow such errors in the speech of non-native speakers, register errors may lead to serious social gaffes and misunderstandings (Engkent, 1986). Register is often neglected in language learning, as usually there is more focus on errors of register in writing tasks than in speaking interactions. However, overly informal language could make both native speakers and non-native speakers feel uncomfortable in inappropriate discourse interactions. Thus, L2 learners should be made aware of the importance of spoken register, because if EFL teachers want their learners to avoid sentences like 'You can see a lot of kids hanging around the mall' in formal academic essays, they also do not want them to address classmates with 'Pardon me, sir' (Engkent, 1986, p. 225). Thus, further exploration of this topic is of paramount importance for both EFL instructors and learners, due to the consequences that may bring misplacing a sentence or a spoken affirmation in the inappropriate discourse register.

3.1.1 Defining informal language and colloquial speech

According to Crystal's (2008) definition in *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, 'formality is a dimension of social behaviour ranging from the most strictly regulated to the least regulated, and reflected in language by varied linguistic features'. Informal language is defined as 'loosely structured, involving a high level of colloquial

expression, and often departing from standard norms, by using slang, regionalisms, neologisms, and code-mixing' (p.195). The term 'colloquial speech' does not appear as an entrance in the abovementioned dictionary, but there are references made to it in the definition of other linguistic terms, when referring to exceptions from standardized versions of the language and which are considered as part of colloquial and everyday speech. Although the author does not indicate the term directly, he infers the presence of non-standard variations of the language in colloquial and everyday speech.

Defining a part of the language that is constantly changing and whose shape cannot be easily recorded, especially in written form, is undoubtedly a challenging task. Several linguists who have written about *colloquial speech* and *slang* seem to have agreed on that there is no easy way to define either term (Bradford, 2010). Others like Sornig (1981) gathers the terms colloquialism, slang and casual speech together and portrays them as terms that are used to express a type of language usage somewhere between individual speech and standard language norms. Ur (1984) makes a distinction between formal speech or 'spoken prose' and the informal speech used in most spontaneous conversations. He points out we cannot refer to the two terms as absolute opposites, but rather to gradual nuances, ranging from extremely formal (ceremonial formulae, political speeches) to fairly formal (news-reading, lectures) to fairly informal (television interviews, most classroom teaching) and to very informal (gossip, family quarrels), however he makes an overall distinction between the types of discourses that fall in the first two categories, considered as 'formal', and the ones that fall in the last two categories as 'informal' (p.6). Steel (1985) claims that his aim is not to find theoretical solutions to the terminology, but he points out that in his book he will use colloquial as opposed to spoken, considering the latter too ambiguous. Thus, he defines colloquial as informal, often racy or popular, spoken language that differs in some way from formal language and if it falls under one of the proposed categories: a) speech that lies outside the areas described by standard syntax; b) speech that displays peculiarities of meaning not amenable to literal interpretation; or c) speech that fulfils particular dialogue functions and needs (p.14).

Steel's definition offers some practical insights, although he does not make clear distinction between colloquial speech and more specific terms such as slang, euphemisms, taboo words, idioms and whether he would integrate them in the same category of colloquial. Xu & McAlpine (2008) are even less explicit when defining the type of speech they used in their study, as they refer to it as 'culturally specific vocabulary' or 'Canadianisms', which is limited to items specifically used in Canada and that generally describe Canadian past times, food, or culture (p.12).

Colloquial speech in English consists of both lexical and phrasal items. Items are considered lexical if they have only one word, such as *cool*, and they are considered phrasal if they contain more than one word, such as *take it easy* (Bradford, 2010, p. 4). Informal speech is usually characterized both by spontaneity and colloquialism, as opposed to formal speech, which is lacking these two features. On the one hand, the degree of colloquialism of speech affects its pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and syntax, and the degree of spontaneity affects its syntax and discursal structure (Ur, 1984, p. 7). Ur (1984) also highlights some of the characteristics of this type of speech, which are connected with the skills learners need to develop in order to be able to cope with it effectively.

Redundancy is one of the features that although seems unnecessary at first hand, it enables speakers to express and figure out what they really mean, so it helps listeners to follow their speech by providing extra information and time to think. Repetitions, false starts, re-phrasing, self-corrections, elaborations, tautologies and additions such as 'I mean' or 'you know' are some of the examples that can be considered redundant utterances.

The opposite to redundancy is 'noise', which takes place when the information does not reach the listener because of interference. 'The noise' can be created either by an outside disturbance or by a temporary lack of attention on the part of the listener or by the fact that a word or phrase was not understood because it was mispronounced or incorrectly used, or because the listener did not know it. In this case, the listener needs to try to reconstruct the missing information and figure out the meaning of the word or phrase from the surrounding linguistic context. He may also ask for clarification 'What was that?' or 'Sorry, I didn't quite catch...'. This scenario is likely to happen in

conversations between native speakers and non-native speakers and it can come from both ways, but usually for NNS there is far more 'noise' they need to cope with than for NS (Ur, 1984, pp. 7–8).

Colloquial language is an essential feature of informal conversation, as in most of the cases the sounds a listener is exposed to during a normal conversation confer partial resemblance to a transcript in standard orthography. Native speakers may not be aware of this difference, so when saying for example: 'I don't know; where do you thing he can be?' in an informal conversation, they are actually pronouncing 'dno, wej'thinkeeknbee' with no pauses between words, and eliminating and shortening sounds together. However, a similar sentence pronounced in a formal context would take the shape of the written form. Likewise, the choice of vocabulary would differ from formal speech, and would correspond to a rather spontaneous informal speech, filled with items, such as : 'I mean', 'sort of', 'just', 'you know' or lexical expressions similar to 'for ages', 'stuff', 'guy' (Ur, 1984, p. 8).

The auditory character of spontaneous conversation is usually uncontrolled, has frequent pauses and overlaps, goes sporadically faster and slower, louder and softer, higher and lower, as opposed to a piece of spoken prose, which happens at a fairly even pace, volume and pitch. Hesitations, interruptions, exclamations, emotional reactions to surprise, irritation or amusement are some of the characteristic traits of a natural dialogue, in which the speaker does not prepare carefully the speech beforehand, but he rather relies on vocal emphasis of raising or lowering his pitch in order to convey his message across. However, these natural and spontaneous effects of an informal speech make a non-native speaker facing a challenging situation of struggling to comprehend the spoken discourse. Thus, what consequences would this trigger for foreign language classroom? The author recommends the incorporation of real-life listening characteristics in classroom practice in order to prepare the FL learners for natural communicative situations (Ur, 1984, pp. 9–10).

Overall, the aforementioned testimonies raise awareness upon the urgency of investigating this vital part of language learning, taking into account not only the traits and characteristics of informal and colloquial speech, but also the specific difficulties faced by foreign language learners to acquire and cope with spoken language and its

lexis. Moreover, by bringing lexical colloquial elements into regular classroom teaching, such as idioms, slang, phrasal verbs and informal words and expressions, we increase learners' accessibility to this type of conversation. Therefore, in the following section, I will consider means of introducing idioms, slang and phrasal verbs in EFL classroom as fundamental units of informal and colloquial speech.

3.1.2 Introducing idioms, slang and phrasal verbs in EFL classroom

The lexical meanings of a foreign language vocabulary are some of the most complex and difficult to decipher, especially in the case of English that a word can cover a whole spectrum of connotations. As Cook (1985) points out 'learning L2 vocabulary is not just learning a word once and for all but learning the range of meanings that go with it' (p.55). This issue is strongly related to the aspect of formality and register when interacting with both native and non-native speakers in oral interplays. Thus, non-native speakers are believed to be more formal and polite than native speakers when making requests from strangers and when thanking them. For instance, they tend to say 'Thank you very much' rather than 'Thanks', regardless of whom they are addressing to (Cook, 1996, p. 61). This aspect makes reference to the pragmatic side of language that needs to be taught together with the lexical content suitable for the situation in question, and moreover makes learners aware of the natural interaction between native speakers, by exposing them to conversational discourses in the target language. Therefore, introducing colloquial vocabulary in foreign language classroom, under the form of idioms, slang, phrasal verbs and informal expressions, should be given the same emphasis as teaching grammar, writing or reading.

Idiom is defined as a 'term that covers a wide range of set combinations of words with a figurative meaning which is different, as a whole, from that of the individual components out of which is made' (Sanderson, 2015, p. 323). Although transparent to native speakers, idioms hold complexity for those who are acquiring a second/foreign language. In Crystal's (2008) *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* the term is described as referring to a sequence of words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, so that they function as a single unit. Semantically, the meaning

of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole and syntactically, the words often do not permit the usual variability they display in other contexts, for instance: 'it's raining cats and dogs' does not permit 'it's raining a cat and a dog/dogs and cats' (p.236).

The idiomatic expressions⁴ are considered to belong to the vast family of fixed phrases, clichés, proverbs, indirect speech acts, speech formulas, that shares some degree of conventionalization of meaning, but at the same time differs in semantic as well as syntactic properties (Cacciari, 1993, p. 27). The author also pinpoints the difficult and controversial task of defining an idiomatic expression, given the slim border between literal and idiomatic expressions on the one hand, and the metaphorical and idiomatic expressions on the other hand. However, an aspect to contemplate is the role of the contextual information in which the sentence or the utterance is taking place, and which may trigger an either literal, idiomatic or metaphorical meaning of the expression.

Other authors, such as Flores d'Arcais (1993) state that idiomatic expressions cover a broad area of linguistic phenomena, ranging from lexical idioms, such as 'rail at', to phrasal idioms such as 'to kick the bucket'. Idioms can either represent a simple or complex lexical unit, which can be taken to be synonymous with a single word, e.g. 'to pull someone's leg' means 'to tease', or can be expressed with a whole proposition, e.g. 'to take the bull by the horns' means 'to attack a problem without fear' (p.79). The author also highlights some of the characteristics of idioms. Frozenness and flexibility are the properties that indicate that idioms differ to the degree to which they can permit morphological and syntactic operations, as parts of some idioms can be quantified, modified, or even omitted, or even lexical elements or clauses can be inserted in idiomatic phrases. For example, 'the bucked was kicked by John' is syntactically possible, but by transforming it into passive voice, we lose the idiomatic meaning of the original expression. On the other hand, other morphological and syntactic operations are allowed for almost all idioms, such as inserting an auxiliary in the phrase, e.g. 'he has kicked the bucket' or 'he kicks the bucket'. Therefore, idioms can be classified on

⁴ Used as synonym for 'idioms' (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1993)

the basis of their degree of frozenness, from very frozen to very flexible (Flores d'Arcais, 1993, p. 80).

Another important distinction among idioms is their degree of transparency or opacity. Idioms such as 'to leave the cat out of the bag' is considered transparent, as its literal meaning is available, whereas in an opaque idiom such as 'to take a leak', the literal interpretation is rather nonexistent, therefore a lot more difficult to guess and interpret its meaning (Cacciari, 1993; Flores d'Arcais, 1993). The abovementioned principles should be taken into consideration when introducing idioms into foreign/second language classroom as a means to raise learners' awareness and foster this sector of vocabulary learning. Students should be provided with the necessary tools in order to be able to understand, and subsequently use appropriately the idiomatic expressions they come across either in media audiovisuals or in face-to-face interactions.

Likewise, *slang*, as part of colloquial language, is another term difficult to define (Dumas & Lighter, 1978), although the two authors strive to offer a concrete definition of slang by providing some of the criteria a word should meet in order to be considered 'true slang'. First, the expression should appear in an informal context and not in serious discourse or standard English, except for special rhetorical effects in which the speaker or the writer wants to show deliberately intimacy with the audience. Then, the use of a slang word implied user's special familiarity with the referent or the class of people he directs his speech to. This particular familiarity implies aversion for what is conventionally accepted by the dominant society. Finally, if it is a tabooed term in ordinary discourse with people of higher status or greater responsibility, then it can be considered slang language. In other words, in authors' definition of slang can be deduced a rather vulgar and unacceptable nuance of the term, which is usually shared among a restrictive group of people, who are familiar with the connotations of the term.

There are a few dictionaries that identify words and expressions as slang, such as *The Oxford Dictionary of Modern Slang* (Ayto & Simpson, 2010), *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Mayor, 2009) and *The Oxford English Dictionary* (Simpson & Weiner, 1989). The lexicographers Ayto & Simpson (2010) claim that slang incorporates

the vocabulary of 'the underworld' (street gangs, drug-trafficking) as well as the specific vocabulary of a particular calling or profession and colloquial language 'below the level of standard educated speech', consisting of 'new words or of current words employed in some new special sense' (cited in Stenström, 2000, p. 90). According to the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Mayor, 2009), slang is very informal language that includes new and sometimes not polite words and meanings, and it is often used among particular groups of people and it is usually not used in serious speech or writing. On the other hand, Eble (1996) stresses the social aspect of slang, as he defines it as an ever changing set of colloquial words and phrases that speakers use to establish or reinforce social identity or cohesiveness within a group or with a trend or fashion in society at large (p.11). The general belief among researchers is that the term slang is still unclearly defined in dictionaries and encyclopedias, however they seem to agree upon the feature of ever changing colloquial language variety that is closely related to a specific social group and it is below the level of stylistically neutral language (Stenström, 2000).

The intricate question of 'What is slang?' is approached by Stenström (2000) in an article in which she focuses on teenage language, mostly as it emerges in *The Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language* (COLT). COLT is a half-a-million-word corpus that recorded spontaneous conversations involving 13 to 17 year-old boys and girls, coming from various social backgrounds and from different school districts in London. The conversations were recorded by the students themselves and they took place in a variety of settings, the most common ones being connected to school (e.g. classroom, school playground, common room, study) or home (TV lounge, the street outside) (p.89). By analyzing several extracts of teenage talk, she reached the conclusion that teenage slang is extremely informal, often obscene, but it also contains plenty of new slang words and a few current words used with a new sense. Taboo words, in the sense of proper slang words (e.g. *piss somebody off*, *screw up*, *to be pissed*) and swearwords (e.g. *shit*, *for fuck's sake*), tend to dominate the spoken discourse, together with an overuse of pragmatic markers (e.g. *yeah*, *you know*, *sort of*) with partly new functions. Therefore, in teenage talk there is a rather leaning tendency of slang usage, ranging from generally acknowledged slang words and expressions

(e.g. *thick*=stupid, *nick*=steal) to marginal cases, such as words more or less accepted in standard language (e.g. *telly*) and to swearwords or typical teenage use of pragmatic markers (e.g. *go* and *be like* for *say* as quotative verbs) or even to the use of pragmatic markers such as *like*, *really*, *yeah*. That is why, the author prefers to call this 'slanguage' rather than 'slang' (Stenström, 2000, p. 107).

Given that slang is associated with a rather obscene and vulgar language that belongs to a certain category of people, the underlying question is if it is pedagogically correct to teach slang language in class. Although there is no clear distinction between colloquialism and slang, it could be said that colloquial expression covers a wide spectrum of language use, out of which slang could be referred to as a sub-category of it (Fein, 2011). Many language teachers are reluctant to include slang as a regular feature of language teaching, due to several reasons outlined by Fein (2011) in his article about the promotion of this 'vulgar' type of vocabulary in classroom settings. Despite the issues behind teachers' reluctance of introducing slang to foreign language learners, the author counterbalances this negative opinion with strong arguments in favour of a piece of language that should not be ignored, but rather made available to students, as it enables them to become active users of the outside-of-class, real language.

The first reason why teachers do not teach slang could be because they feel uncomfortable teaching something they do not master and not use on a regular basis, especially as non-native language teachers. Nonetheless, language instructors could focus on widely accepted and well-known slang words, that the students are likely to encounter on a regular basis while immersed in the target language or when having contact with natives, for instance an alternative of 'I have no money' could be 'I am broke'. Secondly, many of slang words tend to be out of fashion very quickly. Therefore, teachers should avoid slang that has come into usage recently and whose life span could be limited. In this case, it would be better to focus on 'classic' slang terms that have stayed in usage for a long period of time, for example the term 'loaded' as a synonym for drunk, which it has been used since 1890 for over a century (Fein, 2011, pp. 98–99). Another constant worry of teachers is that learners will not use slang

appropriately. However, if slang is taught in conjunction with other widely accepted forms and in a meaningful context, they can be made aware of the differences between these types of slang. For instance 'Attention!', 'Look out', 'Watch out' and 'Be careful' have all the same meaning, but they can be used in different contexts and registers.

Moreover, the general belief among teachers is that we should focus on teaching grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary, but not slang, as this is something that students can acquire on their own when travelling abroad or when interacting with native speakers. This assumption is rather outweighed by the interviewed students in Fein's (2011) study who perceive slang essential language structures that should be learned together with other aspects of language learning. Some of the students' testimonies presented highlight the importance of teaching slang in the language classroom as future preparation for effective communication with native speakers, as a means of boosting social interaction between NS and NNS, and finally, to foster the ability to understand authentic speech and not sound as textbooks when interacting with natives (p.99). Liontas' (2002) study on learners' perception on the integration of idioms in the classroom, reveals that students consider 'idioms should be learned along with other aspects of graphonemics, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, culture, and conventions of discourse'. They also claim that separating 'idioms from other aspects of learning is like separating language from culture, poetry from literature, history from politics, or time from space' (p.303). In other words, informal language, either in the form of idioms or slang, raises interest among foreign/second language learners, who identify their own needs outside the language classroom and apprehend the necessity of developing this chunk of language inside the classroom.

Phrasal verbs are regarded as a complex area of English vocabulary (Bolinger, 1971) and although traditionally were understood as being comprised of a verb and adverbial particle, there is still a lack of consensus among linguistics on what exactly qualifies as a phrasal verb (Gardner & Davies, 2007). English foreign language learners encounter several difficulties when dealing with phrasal verbs and one of the most recurrent one is highlighted in the definition from *The American heritage dictionary of phrasal verbs* (2005), which refers to the fact that 'a phrasal verb is a combination of an

ordinary verb and a preposition or an adverbial particle that has at least one particular meaning that is not predictable from the combined literal meanings of the verb and the preposition or particle' (p.v. cited in White, 2012). Phrasal verbs, similarly to other multiword units such as multi-word verbs, idioms and collocations often pose problems even for advanced learners, especially those who learn English in a foreign language learning (EFL) situation in the classroom (Wray, 2000). The issue of ambiguity is a major inconvenient for learners of English, mainly due to the chameleon feature of phrasal verbs, whose meanings can vary from transparent or literal (e.g. stand up) to aspectual or completive (e.g. eat up) to opaque or idiomatic (e.g. face off) or even worse, most of the phrasal verbs are polysemous (White, 2012, p. 419). Other reasons for the difficulty of mastering native-like use of phrasal verbs involve the structural and grammatical features of phrasal verbs (e.g. word order), the semantic features (e.g. the degree of transparency of meaning), or the lack of phrasal verbs in learners' first language, therefore the lack of adequate strategies to recognize and process them (Trebits, 2009).

Other researchers, such as Biber, Johansson, Leech, & Conrad (1999) distinguish between phrasal verbs, propositional verbs, phrasal-prepositional verbs, free combinations and other multi-word constructions (e.g. take a look at, make fun of) and propose various structural and semantic criteria to make a distinction between them. However, they admit that in some cases, it cannot be made a clear-cut distinction between multi-word verbs, as many of them can belong to more than one category, depending on the context. For example 'come back' may be defined as phrasal verb meaning 'to resume an activity' or as a free combination meaning 'to return'. Although these detailed grammatical distinctions between phrasal verbs may be of interest for linguists, they may be of little instructional value for non-native speaker and learners of English who attempt to master these areas of vocabulary and grammar (Gardner & Davies, 2007).

Thus, throughout the current doctoral investigation I decided to adopt the definition proposed by Gardner & Davies (2007), who consider two-word items consisting of a lexical verb and an adverbial particle as phrasal verbs (PVs). Given that all the four empirical studies in this thesis are investigating students' ability of learning

informal vocabulary and colloquial expressions, I decided to include and consider phrasal verbs in the form of verb + adverbial particle in order to make clear the difference among the other parts of informal vocabulary investigated, i.e. slang, idioms, informal single words and spoken expressions. The distinction between the vocabulary terms investigated were also considered by consulting several online English dictionaries, such as *Macmillan Dictionary Online*, *Cambridge Dictionary Online*, *Longman Dictionary Online*, *The Free Dictionary*, *The Urban Dictionary*⁵ (mainly for slang and idiomatic words and expressions).

One issue criticized in the literature is how textbooks present phrasal verbs, which in most of the cases are lists of phrasal verbs with their corresponding definitions or gap-fill exercises that imply plain memorization of the presented terms (Gardner & Davies, 2007; White, 2012). Memorization without any conceptual consideration and rationalization of the terms may constrain the knowledge of new concepts. Thus, learners may struggle when they encounter phrasal verbs used in a different context than the one presented in the exercises of the textbook (White, 2012, p. 420). The authors of more recent books, *Exploring Spoken English* (Carter & McCarthy, 1997), *Phrasal Verbs in Context* (Dainty, 1991) approach the issue of the lack of context by providing meaningful texts in which they exploit the phrasal verbs organized according to thematic topics and gap-fill reinforcement exercises. Two books exclusively dedicated to phrasal verbs *English Phrasal Verbs in Use* (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2004, 2007) present chapters by functional topics (e.g. talking about time), by theme (e.g. weather), by shared verb (e.g. phrasal verbs with up). Despite this systematic organization, which should ease the load on memorization, there are still plenty of arduous combinations of verb and particle, which may mislead and overwhelm the learners.

Notwithstanding that phrasal verbs have been analyzed linguistically in order to address the problems faced by L2 learners, less has been devoted to practical suggestions on how to teach these troublesome lexical items. Thus, the current doctoral investigation provides pedagogical proposals on how to foster informal language and colloquial expressions acquisition and oral production (i.e. idioms, phrasal verbs, slang

⁵ <http://www.macmillandictionary.com/>; <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/>; <http://www.ldoceonline.com/>; <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>; <http://www.urbandictionary.com/>

and informal single-word lexis and expressions) in the EFL classroom through the use of subtitled audiovisual aids. Given the intricate features of informal and colloquial language, audiovisuals are considered essential providers of meaningful contexts, due to the visual and oral elements that reinforce the lexical units presented.

3.1.3 Acquiring colloquial language: challenges and solutions

One of the most challenging aspects of learning English vocabulary is developing native-like proficiency in both spoken and written language (Trebits, 2009). Acquiring the L2/FL vocabulary implies more than mere memorization of words, learning their definition or even putting words in context. Learning FL vocabulary involves 'learning the meaning relationships between one word and all the other words in English within the full context of cultural life' (Cook, 1996, p. 50). Therefore, apart from the linguistic traits of words, we should introduce the cultural heritage in which they are used and applied, which would subsequently trigger a meaningful context for L2/FL learners to witness.

The problem, however, does not just lie in learning L2 words, but also remembering them, which is dependent on how deeply people process them. According to Bahrick and Phelps (1987) cited in Cook (1996), repeating words as strings of sounds is low-level processing and badly remembered, but working out how words fit in the grammatical structure of the sentence is deeper processing and may lead to better memory. Additionally, using meaning of words together within the whole meaning of the sentence is the deepest level of processing and a word is remembered best if practiced every 30 days rather than at more frequent intervals (p.53). This belief contradicts teachers' conviction that a word should be practiced as often as possible within a short period of time. On the contrary, the focus should be on how the word is practiced, rather than how often. Nonetheless, such exact time spans for word practicing suggested by the abovementioned researchers seem unreliable, considering learners' different learning styles and capacity of remembering some words faster or slower than others. However, it is believed that teachers should focus on making the first occurrence of the word memorable rather than practicing it several times and a noticeable example is

students' ability to remember effortlessly swear words they have heard only once (Cook, 1996, p. 54).

This viewpoint can be easily applied to informal and colloquial language learning, too, as the method developed in this investigation helps words become memorable for the target EFL learners. Firstly, by using subtitled audiovisual aids we resorted to the triple reinforcement of the target vocabulary (visually, aurally and written), and secondly, the contextual and paralinguistic information, such as the setting, actors' voices, body language and gestures, amplify the meaning of words, and consequently their remembrance. In this way, learners can make associations between what the actors are saying, the context it took place and the images displayed on screen. Thus, word associations and their meanings could be a lot more accessible and easy to remember on a long-term basis.

White (2012) recommends language teachers to consider possibilities of inferring from cognitive linguistics and sociocultural theory in order to create innovative methods for teaching phrasal verbs and informal vocabulary in the classroom. From a cognitive linguistics point of view, one approach could be to make students aware of metaphor in general and of the target language particular use of conceptual metaphors, such as 'anger is fire' in the expressions 'burning with rage, inflame with wrath, and boiling with anger' (p.421). Another application of cognitive linguistics to vocabulary teaching is identifying the core of a word meaning and how additional meanings are metaphorical extensions of the core sense. This procedure is believed to be very beneficial for teaching prepositions and for exploiting the various meanings of word associations, so challenging to learn (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008a; White, 2012). The authors believe that rather than letting students struggling to combine literal meanings, teachers should raise their attention on metaphorical extensions in the classroom. By doing this, we provide tools to students to break through the opacity or idiomaticity of phrasal verbs and colloquial vocabulary.

Building on Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) theory of the development of human mind as a social process, Lantolf (2000) develops the sociocultural theory by stating that the human mind is formed on the basis of the mediation provided by concepts, artifacts, and

speech. From the perspective of a sociocultural theory, education should enrich learners' cognition by providing symbolic artifacts that learners can adopt as psychological tools (Kozulin, 2003 cited in White, 2012). One of the major applications of sociocultural theory to L2 pedagogy is considered to be the concept-based instruction, which contains the following main principles: teachers should highlight the concept and not the rules of language, the materials should enhance learners' ability to understand the concepts, and finally, verbalization prompts to promote internalization of concepts (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The main focus, from a sociocultural perspective point of view, is on developing learners' skills to produce results through the activity of their own production and creation, which could be translated in what is called a tool-and-result methodology (Newman and Holzman, 1993 cited in White, 2012), which contrasts with tool-for-result method. While the latter focuses on ready-made tools to produce results, the former sets its focal point on self-accomplishment and creation (p.422). This method is highly linked to the idea of discovery, thus learners are engaged into the process of discovering their own tools and strategies to face appropriately their needs. However, the teacher has a key role in this process, functioning as a guide and mediator between the already mastered information and the one the students is aiming to attain, therefore promoting learner autonomy.

Overall, it can be concluded that L2/FL students encounter several obstacles when faced with informal and colloquial language learning both inside and outside the classroom. It is clear there is no magic solution to deal with this challenging side of language, but undoubtedly there are learning strategies and procedures that could be employed in order to boost the acquisition of colloquial speech. The first step for foreign language instructors is to actually decide to implement this part of language into their teaching practice in class. The fear of not being able to approach it appropriately or the constant failure of students to acquire slang, idioms and phrasal verbs keep language teachers away from integrating informal speech as a regular teaching part of the target language.

Second, extensive exposure to colloquial speech in meaningful contexts is primordial for L2 learners, as they need to become active witnesses of the language structures they are exposed to. The material aid should enhance their learning and not reprehend it, therefore I believe the use of subtitled audiovisuals are genuine holders of authentic and relevant slices of informal language presented in purposeful contexts. Finally, FL students should be given the opportunity to practice the language acquired in class through communicative activities aimed to prepare them for real life performances outside the classroom. Thus, using informal and colloquial expressions previously acquired in interactive role-plays would give learners the chance to feel more secure and confident when leaving the walls of the school.

3.2 Teaching and Learning Oral Skills

3.2.1 Introduction

It is believed that learning a language is the process of 'producing and receiving instances of it in spoken or written forms' (Byram, 2008, p. 549), therefore language behaviour can be defined in terms of four skills, spoken: speaking and listening, and written: writing and reading. The current section will focus on the oral skills, listening and speaking, as one of the overall goals of this dissertation is to investigate to what extent subtitled audiovisual materials foster listening comprehension and spoken production. Features of both listening and speaking will be further on inquired to gain insight into how learners' listening and speaking skills could be enhanced in foreign language settings.

Hence, the current section aims at revealing aspects related to teaching, learning and assessing speaking and listening skills in second/foreign language learning as a means of relating the four empirical studies carried out with the theories and concepts behind the development of oral skills. First, listening comprehension in foreign language learning will be defined in terms of difficulties encountered by non native speakers (NNS) to grasp native speakers' (NS) oral discourse. Subsequently, strategies to approach the limitations of NNS when interacting with NS are discussed, together with

practical procedures in classroom settings to be used by language teachers and instructors. Moreover, aspects such as the interconnection between listening comprehension, spoken production and vocabulary acquisition are disclosed in order to support the pragmatic exploration of communicative tasks in the classroom via subtitled and authentic audiovisual materials. In addition, tools and criteria to assess listening skills are gauged in relation to factors such as validity and reliability when applying listening comprehension tests as assessment materials.

The second part of this section is dedicated to speaking interaction and production. Features of spoken discourse in EFL classroom are reviewed as well as methods to enhance learners' speaking ability in simulated real-life interactions inside the foreign language classroom. Furthermore, differences between written and spoken discourse are mentioned, as these discrepancies should be taken into consideration when teaching and exposing students to spontaneous oral discourse inside and outside the classroom. Developing learners' speaking ability is closely related to enhancing their communicative competence, thus characteristics of communicative competence are unveiled and meaningful strategies and tasks are presented as didactic methods to reach it. Finally, assessment criteria and tools are put under discussion in order to corroborate the materials and tasks used in Study 3 to assess participants' speaking productions with the most common practices in assessing speaking skills in foreign/second language acquisition theories.

3.2.2 Developing a native-like listening comprehension

One might wonder why we find listening in our mother tongue so easy and effortless and why listening to a non-native language can become a frustrating and challenging process. Some might argue that because we were not born with it and we did not grow up listening to it or in other words, because 'it depends on our previous experience of listening to speech' (Cutler, 2012, p. 1). Listening seems the easiest cognitive operation, if compared to reading, speaking or writing, which entails rather a learning process throughout our life. Listening, on the other hand, seems to hold no difficulty, as no child

when he grows up needs to learn how to listen to speech, as he might need to become familiar with writing, reading or spelling words. However, listening involves a series of mental tasks which should be carried all at once with speed and accuracy. Focusing on meaning and form at the same time, recording information, paying attention to the way words are pronounced, stress, accent, sounds of speech are only some of the complex cognitive activities a listener is bound to carry out. (Cutler, 2012, p. 2).

Bearing in mind the mental tasks a listener is committed to perform, the issue of comprehension rises as the key concept in the process of understanding in verbal communication (Rost, 1990). Could be alleged that interlocutors understand each other in any type of verbal interaction? Do they comprehend the words the speaker is using or do they interpret ideas related to the words used by the speaker or even more plausible in second language learning contexts, do they guess the meaning of the words from the context provided by the speaker or by making associations with the words they are familiar with? In order to answer all these questions, the process of verbal communication and the roles allocated to the speaker and the listener should be looked into.

Communication is perceived as sending and receiving information, a 'travelling-thoughts process' (Rost, 1990, p. 2) with the speaker as the sender of the information and the listener as the receiver. The theory of transfer of information gave rise to the information processing theory, which is further detailed in chapter 2 (see section 2.5.), making reference to the core content of words, i.e. meaning and to the common 'ideas' the interlocutors are supposed to share when involved in the verbal communication act. However, do the interlocutors in a second language learning context share a common 'idea' or 'message'? Do they reach the level of comprehension required in order for the spoken discourse to take place? It could be said that especially second language learners could comprehend only a certain amount of information from what the speaker says, which may vary depending on their foreign language listening skill.

Listening is considered not only a key language and communication skill, but also a means to provide a channel through which new language can be received and may become intake (Brett, 1997, p. 39). Therefore, this skill has been the foundation of many

theories of second language acquisition (Krashen, 1985; Long, 1985) which account for the facilitating effect of exposure to authentic listening and reading texts by which new language and linguistic rules are believed to become internalised and easily reproduced. An essential role in these acquisition theories lies the role of the 'comprehensible input' (Krashen, 1985), which is further developed in section 2.1.

Listening comprehension is considered one of the most complex skills in language learning (Oxford, 1993) and this might be mainly due to the difficulty learners encounter to control the speed of input they are exposed to from native environments, given its real-time nature (Buck, 2001). A heavily culturally referenced speech and with too much slang in it, could be feasible reasons why second language learners struggle to grasp the foreign aural input (Robin, 2007, p. 110). Age is another factor that affects learner's listening skills, as it is considered problematic to acquire a second language after the age of ten in the same naturalistic way a child does; however, there are adults who become successful foreign language learners, by putting the time, the effort and the approach needed (Rost, 2014, p. 142). He also states that non-native listeners face major challenges in three complementary domains: the affective, cognitive and interpersonal and he brings to light some of the strategies that could be used to overcome the shortcomings in these domains and to maximize learners' listening ability. In the affective domain two strategies are suggested: showing resilience and making commitment to the target language (TL) culture.

The first strategy refers to subjective perception of the NNS in relation to one's perceived negative evolution in the listening situation, showing resilience in dealing with such stressful situations. Stress is believed to be one of the major aspects of the bilingual listening experience and high levels of stress are reported to correlate with low levels of listening comprehension, recall, inferential efficiency, and with increased response times (Eysenck *et al.*, 2007; Rai *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, promoting a low level of anxiety environment through the use of subtitles and authentic audiovisual materials permits learners to allow the input 'in' instead of blocking it, according to Krashen's (1985) theory of low 'affective filter' (pp. 3–4). Getting access to understanding the language of another group takes more than simply getting exposed to the spoken

language of the TL. The listener's affective orientation to the language and to the speakers of that language plays a vital role in the quantity and quality of access the listener receives, which ultimately might determine the level of proficiency he or she will achieve (Rost, 2014, p. 133).

The second affective strategy makes reference to the learner's ability of shifting one's identity in order to establish a purposeful connection with the target language culture. The L2 user is going through an identity transition, facing the situation of changing from monolingual to bilingual and being forced to spot the differences between the L1 and L2 listening in a non familiar context, in which fear of failure could lead to poor performance of attention, of inferencing or even memory. A successful L2 user needs to come to terms to changing his identify and embracing the new one as an active user of the TL and moreover staying open and flexible to construct a 'hybrid identity' (Rost, 2014, p. 135), that will allow him or her to operate comfortably between the two language worlds.

In the cognitive domain, the author states the need of two strategies to compensate for the adversities the native listening discourse may bring. First, the L2 listener should learn the L2 phonological system as an independent one, without making references to the L1 system, hence having the chance to get as close as possible to the efficiency and speed of a native listener. This idea reinforces the focus of this research study, as exposure to authentic materials such as: series, films, documentaries, etc is playing a vital role in making learners aware of the TL phonological system, independently of their L1 system in a meaningful and realistic context. Accordingly, most foreign and second language teachers pursue an ideal learning situation, in which their students become to reach the native-like listening comprehension. The question is if it is possible or necessary to reach it. Is the "unattainable" attainable? Rost (2014) claims that it is neither necessary, nor desirable or possible to listen like a native speaker (p.136). This is mainly because every person is fundamentally influenced by his or her mother tongue, which is perceived as a valuable resource rather than an obstacle (Cook, 2002). The L2 speech is believed to be filtered by our L1, as adult speech perception is highly constrained by L1 categories,

therefore hearing an L2 speech would be regarded as deviations from our L1 rather than as part of a whole and concrete phonological system (Cutler, 2012, p. 305). On account of the aforementioned beliefs, the argument of having direct access to the L2 phonological system, under the form of authentic speech dialogues, is even more purposeful for our target learners, who may not become native-like listeners, but they would definitely have the chance of coping with the constraints of a native discourse by being aware of its characteristics.

The second cognitive issue encountered by L2 listener is the cultural and general background that leads towards the understanding of the new discourse. Significant cultural differences might cause clashes between the interlocutors, and consequently might distort the native speaker's discourse. A possible solution to it is making learners aware of the rich cultural and pragmatic package a language comes with and possible ways of dealing with it in face-to-face encounters. Thus, exposure to visual representations of language in context via films, series or documentaries is highly to reveal what lies underneath the language, i.e. the cultural and realistic side of it.

As for the interpersonal domain, in which the listener is involved in social collaboration with others, Rost (2014) mentions two broad strategies: first, finding a task-oriented view of conversation, i.e. focusing on the goals of the conversation rather than on the language; and second, finding a conversation style that fits well into the culture of the TL, i.e. by learning active listening strategies from the native listeners, such as asking for clarification or follow-up questions and having a active role in the conversation, rather than trying to imitate them and become the native speakers in question (Rost, 2014, p. 143).

To sum, the abovementioned strategies can help L2 learner to develop and enhance their listening skills, paving the way towards becoming proficient L2 listeners and ultimately proficient speakers of a foreign or second language. However, how do teachers approach these strategies in class? This aspect is believed to be of high relevance and importance for the overall aims of this research study, therefore it is going to be further detailed in the next section.

3.2.2.1 *Listening and language learning in the FLL/SLL classroom*

As it has been illustrated in the above section, listening is not just a mere receptive skill, which does not require any active mental action; but on the contrary, it entails a series of effective cognitive plans in order to reach the status of a proficient L2 listener (Aponte-de-Hanna, 2012). Teachers are advised when planning listening lessons to focus on teaching students how to approach the listening tasks and information that is not 100% comprehensible (David Mendelsohn, 1994, p. 134), instead of focusing on assessing their 'natural assimilation' of the language, also called 'osmosis' (Mendelsohn, 1984 as cited in Mendelsohn, 1994). How could be described the concept of listening as a cognitive process?

Chamot (1995) as cited in Aponte-de-Hanna (2012) highlights the presence of several stages where information, in the form of sounds, reaches listener's auditory and visual receptors and it is further on filtered through the listener's short memory, working memory, and eventually long-term memory. Subsequently, the listener is selecting and interpreting the information in order to understand it. This model is known as Anderson's model of comprehension, which describes what is happening to the information the moment the listener receives it via audio or audiovisual means (Anderson, 2000). A visual representation of this model can be seen in figure 3 below. Understanding the process of listening comprehension is important because it offers teachers an insight into what is happening when learners are faced with the challenge of elucidating aural information and moreover, the chance to distinguish between effective and less effective language listeners in the classroom, which is a crucial stage in classroom practice (Aponte-de-Hanna, 2012, p. 4).

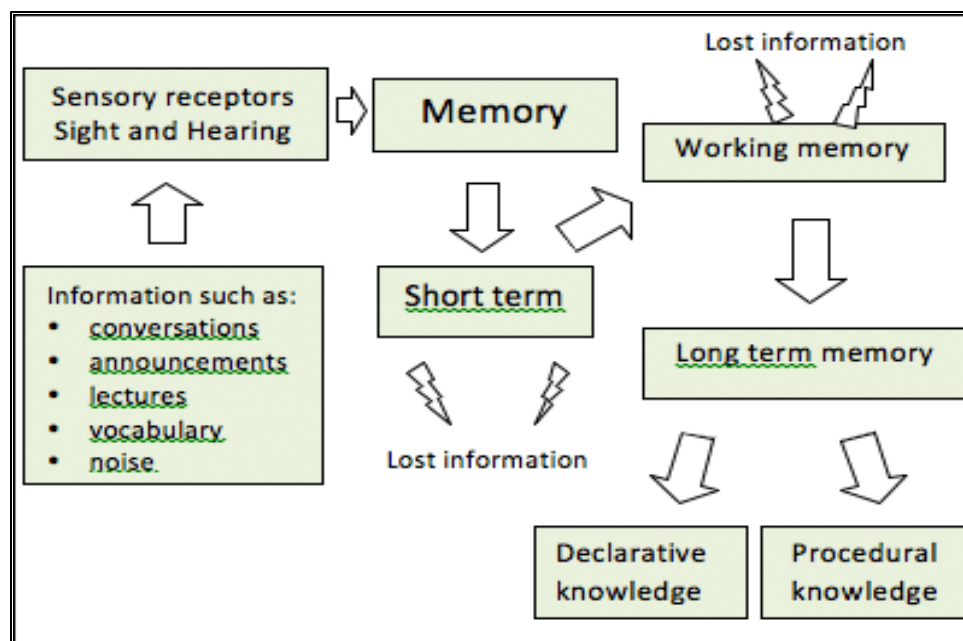


Figure 3. Anderson's comprehension model based on cognitive learning theory

Language teachers should also focus on teaching language listeners how to develop 'metastategic awareness' in order to help students become autonomous learners (Mendelsohn, 1997). In addition, making use of diverse sources in order to practice listening comprehension, rather than testing it, offers ample opportunities for learning. Teachers are offered a set of six suggestions by the abovementioned author to be put into practice in class: first, find out the strategies students are using when listening, select the ones were missing and explain them to students; then, incorporate those strategies with think aloud protocols, ask students to describe what they heard, give opportunities to students to practice their listening strategies and assess their own performance; and finally encourage students to practice on a continuous basis (Chamot, 1995) as cited in Aponte-de-Hanna (2012, p. 5). However, could these strategies be considered efficient to enhance L2 listening comprehension and to pave the way towards a proficient L2 speaker? In a realistic environment, where both students and teachers are constantly constrained by time, curriculum and school requirements, the strategies mentioned could be used every now and then, but they are rather time-consuming and utopian from a pragmatic point of view.

The issue of a possible interconnection between listening comprehension, spoken production and vocabulary acquisition should be tackled. Thus, listening comprehension is tightly related to vocabulary acquisition, as what we hear could be stored in our long-term memory, and furthermore expressed orally in later spoken discourses. Foreign language learners are believed not to have sufficiently broad vocabulary to cope with the aural input from different audio or audiovisual sources; nevertheless, they could make use of on-screen text and captioning to overcome the lack of vocabulary size as well as listening problems (Montero Perez, Van Den Noortgate, & Desmet, 2013, p. 722). Creating awareness on the schematic structures of the texts and representing those schematic structures visually is another strategy recommended to teachers to be used during listening activities in the classroom (Ülper, 2009). The author carried out a study in which he investigated the effect of two different uses of a strategy which depended on first, creating awareness of the schematic structure of stories, and second, representing it visually to the students in narrative comprehension processes. The results showed evidence of enhancement of students' listening comprehension level under the experimental application.

Apart from the issue of vocabulary size, learners face the problem of understanding the pronunciation of colloquial vocabulary. When L2 students learn a new word or expression, they usually learn both the written and the spoken form. Thus, students are able to recognize words by remembering the spoken and written forms of previously learnt words. But what does it happen when the word neither sounds as pronounced carefully by the teacher, nor it looks like on paper? If a word is pronounced differently in informal speech from the way it is said formally, or was said when it was learnt, the listener may not recognize it as the same word, or may even miss its presence. For instance, frequently occurring small function words like 'for', 'to', 'him', 'is' and 'has' are heard when in unstressed position as /fə/ (/fr/ American English), /tə/, /ɪm/, /z/, /z/. Some words may even disappear completely 'Where are you going?' may be acceptable as 'Where you going?' in spoken discourses without a grammatical mistake being made or heard. The juxtaposition of two words may also trigger changes in pronunciation, as one of the sounds of the junction point is assimilated by the other or it even disappears, as in /'tem'pi:pl/ for 'ten people' or /'ɔ:'raɪt/ for 'all right'. Moreover,

colloquial collocations are the most confusing, as there are certain groups of words which occur together and tend to merge as a single item in informal speech. Forms such as /'gɒnə/ for 'going to', /ʃwi:/ for 'shall we..?', /də'nəʊ/ for 'I don't know' are commonly present among native speakers in informal speech (Ur, 1984, pp. 18–19).

The abovementioned drawbacks learners need to deal with can be diminished by integrating subtitled audiovisual materials as effective tools to enhance listening comprehension of audiovisual content and subsequently, to train learners to become proficient listeners of the L2/FL language. The value of subtitles as support for listening comprehension is advocated by numerous researchers and their experimental studies with reliable results (Caimi, 2006; Garza, 1991; Guillory, 1998; Talaván, 2010, 2011). Exposing learners to semi-authentic audiovisual texts, which were originally created for native speakers and, even if they follow a script, they are still expected to display natural and almost authentic speech) (Talaván, 2011, p. 206), we provide them with large amounts of L2/FL language in communicative and natural interactions, boosting their vocabulary size, but also their listening comprehension skills. Likewise, students can take profit of actors' oral discourse and observe actively the changes in pronunciation between juxtaposed words or spoken colloquial single-word items and expressions.

Teaching of listening should also include attention to improving skills of perception, combined with strategy instruction that teachers train learners how to use top-down strategies, such as inferencing from context (Goh, 2000). Foreign language learners often complain of being unable to grasp the meaning of certain words and then reporting they lost the entire message of the discourse. The tendency of learners to fixate their attention on the unfamiliar words may come from the lack of teachers' instruction on how to deal with such situations. Learners should be monitored and instructed accordingly, so they should be aware that they continue receiving spoken input despite their temporary setbacks (Goh, 2000, p. 70). This belief is of high relevance for the overall research study, as being exposed to authentic audiovisual materials in the same way native speakers are could cause temporary lapses in students' listening perception and understanding. This may hinder them from

assimilating certain linguistic aspects, but it would not impede listeners to perceive the broad message of the spoken discourse, as they could make use of their prior knowledge, clues or clarifications, by listening to others parts of the speech. The visual, extralinguistic and written aids, under the form of subtitles, are all meaningful hints that could help students infer unfamiliar cues from the context.

At last, teaching and learning listening is a challenging and demanding task for both teachers and learners. However, by employing the appropriate strategies to build up upon this intricate skill and by using the adequate resources to approach it, the task is neither unfeasible nor unattainable. Getting an insight into learner's means of dealing with the adversities of listening to native speakers in a natural environment and teaching them adequate strategies to cope with it, offers language instructors meaningful tools to use in classroom settings. After addressing issues such as developing strategies to confront with native-like listening discourses and the pragmatic side of applying it in the classroom, the question of assessing learners' listening skills should be raised.

3.2.2.2 Assessing listening skills

Assessing a macro skill like listening is not an easy job in foreign language settings, given the intricate validity of tests and activities attempting at establishing a reliable relationship between learners' listening level and their scores. However, before tackling issues such as validity and reliability in listening testing, criteria for task validity should be considered, because 'good listening instruction creates the condition for meaningful learner involvement, outcomes and evaluation' (Rost, 1990, p. 170).

Thus, second language instructors should take into consideration the following overall procedures when designing listening tasks. The following considerations are all based on Rost's (1990) checklist of what he considers to be good teaching practice, which are in concordance with Oxford's list (1993, p. 210) for selecting and using L2 listening activities. First, the activity should be based on or have applications towards real-world tasks that learners are expected to perform. Then, it should be consistent with valid approaches to language learning, that are familiar to learners, such as

learning styles and procedures. The task should take into consideration several aspects that are due to influence the complexity of spoken texts, for instance: speaker's accent and pace, the number of speakers talking at the same time, the linguistic structure of the utterances and visual aids, print or prior reading material or presentation as supporting material.

Moreover, the task should 'require attention to the information conveyed through speech' (Rost, 1990, p. 171), focusing on listener's ability to construct meaning and not on the formal features of the discourse. In addition, the listening activity should stimulate listener's prior knowledge and use of environmental cues in interpreting speakers' discourse. Several input considerations are also claimed by the author when designing a task. On the one hand, he states that the source should be interesting enough to engage the learners, to be rich in linguistic and ideational content, so that learners can apply their skills and strategies at their own level of competence and on the other hand, he highlights the importance of contextualized samples of comprehensible speech together with appropriate sizes of segments or chunks at a pace which allows both monitoring and continuity of events (Rost, 1990, p. 172).

The aforementioned criteria are relevant to validate the use of tasks in the classroom for the current research investigation. First, it stands to reason that listening to authentic audiovisual materials, such as the series *Friends* we used as instructional material, is meant to meet the real-world demands, because learners are dealing with this practice in their everyday life, outside the classroom and it is essential for them to become familiar with the procedures of this practice. What is more, both linguistic and extralinguistic elements, such as non verbal communication were taken into account when students were asked to watch episodes from *Friends*, because even though this series is targeted at native speakers, the level of complexity is feasible for the proficiency level of our participants (A2 to C1), due to the visual (images) and written (subtitles) support on screen. Watching authentic audiovisual materials reinforces the requirement of the task focusing on meaning rather than on form and the need of interpreting it from contextual cues (images) and making use of prior knowledge (written form of words in the form of subtitles). As far as the type of input is concerned, the

series *Friends* contain an entertainment and motivational context, rich in informal lexicon and highly relevant for our participants' age. Furthermore, it presents authentic cultural aspects of an English speaking country in communicative, real-life situations. Hence, it seems plausible to claim that the tasks designed for data collection and the type of input chosen for the current investigation are meeting the criteria mentioned by Rost (1990, 2002, 2014) and Oxford (1993) and they could be considered as being part of a valid teaching practice.

Despite the lack of consistent empirical models in describing and assessing listening comprehension, an 'invisible cognitive operation' (Brindley, 1998, p. 171) among researchers, there are a number of common beliefs on the essence of listening processes. Second language learners are believed to comprehend aural texts, that can be arranged in a hierarchy from 'low order' (involving understanding of utterances at a literal level) to 'higher order' (involving inferencing and critical evaluation) (Brindley, 1998; Buck, 2001; Rost, 1990). Specific skills involved in assessing listening comprehension have been proposed in relation to levels of difficulty, such as: listening for specific information, understanding main ideas, inferring speaker's meaning, etc. They formed the basis of the levels of listening ability in proficiency rating scales for English official certificates, such as Cambridge ESOL Examinations and IELTS and for the description of language competences for each level (A1 to C2) in the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001).

When it comes to the illustrative scales for overall listening comprehension, CEFR proposes general instructions referring to the abilities FL/L2 learners should possess at each specific level. For example at C1 and C2 level, FL learners are expected to be able to perform the following tasks:

C1: Can understand enough to follow extended speech on abstract and complex topics beyond his/her own field, though he/she may need to confirm occasional details, especially if the accent is unfamiliar. Can recognise a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialism, appreciating register shifts. Can follow extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly.

C2: Has no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, delivered at fast native speed.

(Council of Europe, 2001, p. 66)

A central issue in the debate of testing is the purpose of exams and assessment activities. Why are students tested? One might argue because there is a need to report on learners' status and learning process, or in other words to provide 'norm-referenced information on learner ranking', which comes in contradiction with the overall aim of the learning process, i.e. to provide 'criterion-referenced feedback to students in order to help them reach learning objectives in attainable steps (Rost, 1990, p. 176). Are students assessed so they pass the test and move further up in school or job ranking, or are they tested in order to reflect how well the learning objectives have been met? Students' feedback and teacher's observations in class are important aspects in deciding on the planning, revision and rectification of pedagogic tasks, so to ensure the reliability and validity of tests.

Reliability measures the degree to which the same assessment procedure is likely to give consistent results (Rost, 1990, p. 176). The author believes that in order for a test to be reasonably reliable, error of measurement should be as low as possible, i.e. the variation in test results among test-takers should not represent differences between individuals, but rather differences among the examiners, differences in testing conditions, etc. However, many language teachers express their concern in relation to tests that may be reliable and administratively efficient, but they might not be relevant for the needs of the students and teachers in certain learning contexts (Duran *et al.*, 1987). Reliability of tests are tightly related to several aspects of validity. The validity of listening tests is put under question, given the fact that tests might incorporate and assess other language skills, apart from listening (Brindley, 1998, p. 174). Test-takers might have to read written stimuli, sometimes at the same time they are listening, and provide oral and written answers to the test questions, therefore several language skills are needed in order to test listening comprehension. Another important characteristic of test validity is the extent to which examinations resemble real-life tasks and which replicate authentic language use (Brindley, 1998; Rost, 1990).

This is a rather challenging task because in daily life practices, listeners are not required to prove their level of understanding of aural input (e.g. listening to the radio or television programs), as they simply process the information and store it until they need to use it later on. Nonetheless, types of authentic text types are reported in communicative listening tests and they resemble situations learners might encounter in real-life contexts outside the classroom, such as conversations, announcements, directions, lectures, narratives, anecdotes, news broadcast, interviews, debates, etc (Hughes, 1989; Weir, 1993). According to Rost (1990), content validity is the degree to which the items in the test adequately reflect learners' ability to carry out a certain task (p.177). In other words, if test items reflect the tasks students had engaged in, then the test has high validity.

Following these assertions, the type of tasks the participants in the first 3 studies were asked to carry out were realistically orientated, because watching authentic series and eliciting informal and colloquial vocabulary (Study 1, 2 and 3) can be considered a meaningful and purposeful activity that enhances learners' listening skills and vocabulary acquisition, building up on their abilities in dealing with this type of task outside the classroom in their daily life watching habits. Additionally, making use of newly acquired language in spoken interactions (Study 4) reveals the added value of this type of task in communicative situations, which is highly probable to be encountered by students when interacting with foreign-native speakers in face-to-face communication.

The question of reliability and the issue of validity have been approached in order to get a deeper insight into the process of listening comprehension and its adequate assessment in the foreign language settings. Most of the poor test performances are attributed to the lack of linguistic understanding, mainly poor vocabulary and grammar knowledge. However, there are procedural and pragmatic sources that might cause difficulties in interpreting the spoken discourse, due to inappropriate activation of prior or contextual knowledge or simply to the inability of understanding the type of answer is expected (Rost, 1990, pp. 180–181). A strong interconnection between the item characteristic present in the test and the person abilities is reported by Buck & Tatsuoka

(1998), as most of the theoretical discussions focus on the person performance abilities, mainly cognitive and linguistic, the item characteristic being ignored when it comes of its influence on the person's performance. With this in mind, Brindley (1998) proposes an overview of some of the mostly used types of listening test types, highlighting both their advantages and shortcomings. Our attention focused on multiple-choice tests, as data collection for the three studies carried out was performed by making use of multiple-choice and open questions. Open questions are not approached in his article, but there are some references made to short answers, which are similar to these type of questions.

Many major international tests of listening comprehension make use of multiple choice questions (Cambridge TESOL examinations, IELTS, TOEFL), mainly because they are easy to score and due to their high internal reliability. However, many language testers argue against the use of these type of questions, because they do not resemble normal language use and that items might be easily guessed by students. Nonetheless, when multiple choice questions are used to test inferencing may engage students in readjusting their inference if it does not correspond to one of the response options (Brindley, 1998, p. 178), which means that it allows for a deeper processing of word meaning and not relying on guessing. Short answers are claimed to be a fair tool to determine learner's level of understanding and that they work well if they are kept short and they do not depend on learners' writing skills (Hughes, 1989).

The tests used as materials for data collection combined two types of assessment items, multiple-choice and open questions. The reasons why combination of the two type of questions is more feasible in the current situation are: first, to avoid learners relying entirely on guessing in the case of multiple-choice and second, to activate their prior knowledge, by giving them the chance to use freely any strategy to convey the meaning of words in the case of open questions. The use of synonyms, description of the target vocabulary, reference to the situational context or even the use of mediation, in the form of translation, were some of the strategies used by the participants to answer the open questions. They were meant to test learners' comprehension in terms of word meaning and context and no further instructions on the

strategy they could use to answer these types of questions was provided. The main focus was on identifying meaning rather than form, thus no penalization on their correctness, in terms of grammar or spelling, was taken into consideration. Moreover, the recommendation to try to include a variety of item formats in a test (Brindley, 1998, p. 179) reinforced the assumption of mixing two items of test formats in order to increase its reliability and validity.

Furthermore, the issue of spoken production should be taken into consideration, which is the aim of our fourth study (see chapter 5, section 5.6), because in 'everyday communication, listening usually occurs together with speaking' (Oxford, 1993, p. 206) and language instructors should be encouraged to teach learners 'to comprehend realistic spoken language in a realistic manner' (Buck, 2001). Hence, spoken production should be regarded as the result of listening interaction between speaker and listener and the aural discourse. Factors affecting speaking production, the importance of the input and ways of approaching speaking and tools to assess it in classroom settings are further described in the following section.

3.2.3 The spoken discourse in the EFL classroom

Learning to speak a second or a foreign language is one of the demanding challenges FL learners are facing throughout the learning process. Teachers get on board of this intricate journey, recurring to different methods and resources to help learners 'build a road map through the uncharted territory of the new language' (Burkart, 1998, p. 2) and pave their way to becoming efficient foreign language speakers. Moreover, English in itself has become a vital means to establishing communication across the world and in this context, acquiring proficient communication skills is a prerequisite for every person who wants to be part of the changing global scenario (Vitthal, 2010, p. 8). With this in mind, what skills are to be taught in the EFL classroom in order for learners to communicate effectively in the foreign language? What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the student? What are the characteristics of the spoken discourse and how is the spoken language different from the written one? Can FL learners claim to produce

a native-like spoken discourse? If so, what type of vocabulary should they use? These are some of the questions we aim to answer in this section, bearing in mind their relevance for the current research study.

Spoken interplays inside the classroom are meant to be closely related to real life interactions outside the classroom. Thus, there are several types of speech that are aimed at being practiced inside the classroom as a reflection of the reality that resides outside the educational setting. A range of text types in oral language was disclosed by Hadley (2001), following Byrnes (1984) and Beile's (1980) four basic modes of speech: i.e. a) spontaneous free speech, that refers to interaction and production free of constraints; b) deliberate free speech, such as interviews and discussions; c) oral presentation of a written text, for example: newscasts, formal commentaries, lectures and d) oral presentations of a fixed script, such as the ones produced on stage or in a film (p.181). Due to the type of activities carried out by the participants in the four current research studies, mode a) and d) of speech can be identified as being applied to Study 4 (role-play oral interactions) and in Study 1, 2 and 3 through exposure to television series over the course year.

Similarly, McCarthy (1991) suggests the following types of speech as some of the most frequent ones: casual conversation with strangers, friends, family or close relatives; monologues of various kinds, such as stories, speeches, jokes; telephone calls; service encounters in shops, ticket offices; language in action, such as demonstrating assembling, cooking, etc; organizing and directing people at work, at home, etc; job, journalistic interviews; classroom talk, such as seminars, lectures, tutorials; and rituals, for instance weddings, church prayers, etc (pp.118-119). The variety of the spoken discourses reveals the wide range of lexis and syntactic variation one might encounter when talking in any of the previously mentioned talks.

Furthermore, all these types of oral interaction have their own ways of opening or closing the encounter, different purposes, different role relationships between the speakers and different settings (McCarthy, 1991, p. 8). Hence, oral discourse variation triggers the question of speaker's adaptability to accustom to many varying factors, as spoken language is due to change according to the number of participants involved and

their social and psychological roles in relation to one another. The type of topic and the setting may influence participants' type of discourse as well, and thus, competent speakers of a second language need to learn how to take into account 'to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason' (Burkart, 1998, p. 4) when interacting orally with other interlocutor(s). Non-native speakers need to be aware of these changes in speech in order to avoid misunderstandings and/or interactional clashes with the people they are speaking to.

A main difference can be distinguished between classroom talk and conversations outside the classroom. Classroom talk tends to be a rather question-and-answer session, with the teacher in the role of checking students' knowledge and encouraging further practice of language forms, whereas in a natural discourse, speakers support and complete each other's speech acts, by relying on their mutual replies and other conversational features, such as intonation and gestures (McCarthy, 1991). Given the differences between spoken discourses, the issue of making out students aware of the type of conversations outside the classroom in natural and spontaneous settings should be argued. The incapability of second language learners to efficiently comprehend native speakers' oral discourses, as it has been aforementioned in the listening section (see 3.2.2) may result from the lack of exposure to natural oral interactions in the classroom. Henceforth, exposing the participants in this study to types of 'real'⁶ world conversations via authentic television series, which although considered by some linguists not real life interactions mainly because the actors are following a scrip (Rose, 2001; Tatsuki, 2006), they reflect natural and spontaneous oral interactions between native speakers, raising students' awareness on the type of discourse (lexical, syntactic and phonological) used outside the classroom.

Subsequently, the grammatical and lexical features of spoken language should be tackled, as there are significant differences both in form and function between the spoken and written discourse (Brown & Yule, 1983; Hadley, 2001). For a long period of

⁶ Dialogues we hear in films and TV series are not genuine conversations, as they follow a scrip prepared by the screenwriter; however they are written for native speakers as a main audience and the interactions resemble real-life interactions (Fernández-Guerra, 2013)

time, language teaching has been concerned with the written language because the rules of written English are rather well known and well described by generations of grammar-writers and dictionary makers (Brown & Yule, 1983), whereas the spoken language appears to have many variables in terms of the grammar and the lexis used, especially that 'most spoken language consists of paratactic (unsubordinated) phrases which are marked as related to each other, not so much by the syntax as by the way the speaker says them' (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 4). Meaning in the written discourse cannot be negotiated directly with the reader and common knowledge cannot be assumed, as it is in the case of the spoken interaction (Hadley, 2001, p. 180). Similarly, the models of grammar representing the spoken language are still descriptions of the grammar of written English, as most language learning coursebooks have failed to approach features of the grammar of interactive talk (Carter & McCarthy, 1994, p. 4), leading to the assumption that everyday speech is 'wrong', 'grammatically incorrect' and not accepted by the native speaking community. Features of native speakers' conversations should be integrated in the grammar teaching curriculum, as this would reveal how NS of different ages, sexes, dialect groups and social classes interact and communicate with each other and if those speakers are 'wrong', then SL/FL learners should be taught to face this particular 'wrong' aspect of the language when listening to and interacting with NS of the TL.

Major differences between the spoken and the written discourse are associated with informality as opposed to formality in syntax and vocabulary, the latter being considered a rather formal discourse with complex syntactic and lexical structures. However, spoken language can be formal as well as informal and formal excerpts of oral language can be found in religious and social ceremonies or events, such as weddings, political speeches, academic lectures, etc (Miller & Weinert, 1998). The type of participants involved in the spoken discourse is crucial to determine the type of register they are using in conversations, as exposure to written language and formal education may be an essential factor in determining their oral discourse. Hence, university-educated speakers of the language are believed to use utterances with complex syntactic structures, a good deal of subordination and a confident marking-out

of what they are going to say by phrases like *in the first place, in the second place and finally* (Brown & Yule, 1983).

Nonetheless, these type of oral discourses are common when speakers are reproducing expressions of opinion which they have thought about or they have previously prepared. In everyday life conversations, they tend to use simpler syntactic structures, such as 'incomplete sentences', avoiding conjunctions or using general non-specific words and phrases, for instance: even when it's *something*, and *one* reads and *the others*, using interactive expressions like *well, oh, whuh* and adding one piece of information at the time as in: *draw a square, a red square, with equal sides, quite small* as opposed to the noun phrase *a small, red equal-sided square*, which does not seem to be used in spoken language by most speakers (Brown & Yule, 1983). Thus, another difference between the spoken and the written language is the density of packing of information, as in the written language information may be packed densely, making use of pre-modified noun phrases, with heavy adverbial modification and complex subordinating syntax, whereas in the spoken language these type of structures are scarcely met, especially in teenagers and young adults everyday speech.

Nevertheless, public speakers, such as lawyers, presidents, academics, scientists are prone to make use of formal and complex syntactic structures to deliver their oral speech in public events and encounters, but these kinds of discourses are not the focus of this dissertation, due to the target students participating in this study (second year university students), who are likely to face spontaneous oral language interactions between people of their age. Hence, features of spontaneous spoken language are further reviewed, given the relevance for the overall aim of the study, i.e. to corroborate informal and colloquial language acquisition through exposure to subtitled television series with the ability of using the acquired language in oral conversations.

According to Miller & Weinert (1998), spontaneous spoken language has certain key properties that need to be taken into consideration when comparing it with the written language, such as:

- It is produced in real time, impromptu and with no opportunity for editing
- It is subject to the limitations of short-term memory between the speaker and the hearer
- It is usually produced face-to-face between people in a particular context
- It involves pitch, amplitude, rhythm and voice quality
- The face-to-face speech is accompanied by gestures, eye-gaze, facial expressions, body language and postures, which all add extra information to the linguistic message
- Information is dozed in small quantities, carefully staged
- It typically has less grammatical subordination than the written speech and much more coordination or simple parataxis⁷
- The syntax of spoken language is usually fragmented and unintegrated, phrases are less complex than phrases in written language and the clausal constructions are less complex
- The range of vocabulary in spontaneous language is less than in written speech
- Several constructions may appear in spontaneous spoken discourse but not in written language, and vice-versa (pp. 22–23).

The distinction between the written and the spontaneous oral language is essential for the understanding of how face-to-face interaction develops and the conditions under which it is produced, which means that the syntax of spontaneous spoken language cannot be treated as resulting from performance error (Miller & Weinert, 1998, p. 23), but rather from the circumstances in which the conversation is taking place. The spontaneous spoken discourse is far more than clauses and complex phrases, it is dependent on the contextual and world knowledge and it is 'inherently embedded-for both speaker and listener-in the material surround, including the

⁷ The placing of clauses or phrases one after another without coordinating or subordinating connectives (<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/parataxis>)

corporality of the interlocutors themselves, and in the entire ambiance of socio-cultural and personal life' (O'Connell & Kowal, 2008, p. 215).

In other words, the spontaneous spoken discourse comprises not only the individual linguistic elements, such as words, phrases, clauses, sentences, but also what resides around it, such as gestures, prosodic variations, the socio-cultural context, gaze between interlocutors, the setting; in all, the extralinguistic factors that are associated with certain communicative situations. (O'Connell & Kowal, 2008, p. 216). Amongst the tools of spoken communication, hesitation phenomena (repeats, false starts, fillers, such as *uh, oh, well*, pauses), interjections and laughter represent sources of spontaneous and coherent discourses in real time for both speaker and listener and signs of fluency and communicative effectiveness (Hadley, 2001, p. 180; O'Connell & Kowal, 2008, p. 219). The richness of the spoken discourse should be made available to the students and one way of blending both linguistic and extralinguistic elements is by bringing subtitled television series into the classroom, hence reinforcing the linguistic aspect through the presence of subtitles on the screen and the extralinguistic one through the visual actions the actors are performing. These bits of real life communication are essential to raise students' awareness concerning the choice of syntactic and lexical structures in oral conversations and the differences between the written and the spoken discourses.

Moreover, choosing to deliberately avoid written syntactical structures in oral conversations, such as subject pronouns or complex noun phrases does not mean a less professional and grammatically incorrect speech, but rather an adequate and appropriate use of the language in an acceptable style and register by the second language target community. Furthermore, several key points need to be borne in mind when addressing the choice of vocabulary in conversational language. McCarthy (1998) states that speakers are under the constraints of real-time planning, therefore the selection of vocabulary and the way they put words together is totally different from the written context. He also adds that more than one speaker usually contributes to the vocabulary which occurs in an oral conversation and roles may vary between speakers, one actively participating more than the other(s) and dominating the vocabulary

selection, but roles may also shift which may lead to changes in vocabulary choice. The topic is neither pre-determined or singularly defined, according to McCarthy (1998), as speakers jumping from one topic to another or making connections to other topics is a regular practice in spoken interactions. Spoken language is considered to be more implicit and situation-dependent, as the lexical quantity may vary from the written texts on the same topic.

Communicative accommodation between speakers is another element stated by the author as being relevant to the composition of lexical structures in conversational interactions, which contain a number of prefabricated lexical expressions which facilitate fluency and which are often idiomatic in structure and meaning (McCarthy, 1998, pp. 109–110). The latter argument reinforces the overall aims of the studies, i.e. developing learners' awareness towards the exploitation of idiomatic and colloquial expressions in FL class (Study 1, 2, 3) and testing students' ability to use the acquired language in oral discourses (Study 4). Focusing on this particular aspect of the language is of primary importance to the development of FL learners' ability to become proficient users of the language, as it is mentioned in the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) guidelines at C1 and C2 level description of overall spoken interaction:

C1: Can express himself/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions. There is little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies; only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.

C2: Has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialism with awareness of connotative levels of meaning. Can convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of modification devices. Can backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.

(Council of Europe, 2001, p. 74)

Another significant factor in spoken discourse is topic negotiation and the variation between the exact repetition of vocabulary, also known as 'relexicalisation' (McCarthy, 1998), which refers to rephrasing of words using synonyms, antonyms or hyponyms to avoid repetition, as the exact replication, in terms of syntax, lexis and intonation is not always pragmatically appropriate and often suggests a 'non-increment to the topical progression of the discourse' (McCarthy, 1998, p. 114). Therefore, learners' ability to vary one's lexis, using synonyms and antonyms is a sign of interaction and of moving forward with the conversation, which constitutes a fundamental feature of lexical competence and it is one of the skills required in everyday talk. This type of practice helps building up students' vocabulary and brings abstract notions, such as synonyms and antonyms to life, which might offer students a hint of how lexical relations are exploited interactively in real context. Learner's inability to have word replacements available for everyday interactions may lead to an unnatural spoken discourse, ergo students may become the 'victims of socio-pragmatic breakdowns in communication' (McCarthy, 1998, p. 115).

The notion of relexicalisation has been exploited throughout the activities prepared for this research project, first, in the type of questions used for the pre-post and immediate tests in Study 1, 2 and 3 (open-questions aimed to enhance students' ability to rephrase and explain the meaning of unknown colloquial and idiomatic words and phrases) and second, in the dialogue scripts participants were required to identify the colloquial and informal expressions exposed to throughout the semester and make use of them in oral conversations (Study 4). The dialogue scripts contained synonyms or definitions of the language exploited in the television series and students were expected to role-play an informal encounter between two people and make use of the colloquial language suggested, therefore apply the strategy of relexicalisation to build up a meaningful dialogue that would suit the situational context, the required register and style. Accordingly, students were requested to exploit lexical alternatives in real time and expand their pre-existing knowledge of vocabulary to produce spoken discourses in communicative encounters.

Furthermore, after having looked into features and characteristics of the spoken discourse, tools to develop learners' speaking ability in the EFL classroom should be tackled. Issues such as transactional and interactional talk, turn-taking, teaching in context and spoken interaction are some of topics that will be brought up for discussion in the following section in order to broaden the perspective upon means of enhancing students' speaking competence in the EFL classroom.

3.2.3.1 Developing learners' speaking ability

Learners' ability to adjust one's language production to the various contextual factors is part of what is called the *communicative competence*, a term that refers to students' capacity of understanding and using language appropriately to communicate in authentic (rather than simulated) social and school environments ("Communicative Competence – Supporting English Language Learners," n.d.) and introduced by Habermas (1970), Hymes (1971), Jakobovits (1970) cited in Byram (2008), Savignon (1972) and Canale & Swain (1980). Teachers embraced the communicative approach due to the rich and innovative techniques and materials that helped fostering students' speaking skills (Carter & McCarthy, 1994, p. 3). Communicative language teaching (CLT) refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning, the communicative competence having a central theoretical concept in it. CLT has derived from various multidisciplinary perspectives, such as linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology and educational research and its main focus is on the elaboration and implementation of programmes and methods that promote the development of functional language ability through learner cooperation in communicative encounters.

The focal point in communicative language teaching is on the learners and their needs, which provides the framework for elaboration of programme goals in terms of functional competence. The evaluation of learner achievement implies a global, qualitative assessment, rather than a quantitative one made of linguistic features. This global, qualitative assessment can be translated into classroom activities such as in-class presentations, reports, stories, role-plays; overall, more holistic evaluation

activities meant to encourage learner performance (Byram, 2008, p. 126). This approach to teaching provides authentic opportunities for learning that goes beyond repetition and memorization of grammatical patterns in isolation (“Communicative Competence – Supporting English Language Learners,” n.d.), and figure 4 below illustrates how each communicative area contributes to the communicative competence, a model based on Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983a, 1983b), that state that communicative competence is comprised of four areas of knowledge and skills: linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence.

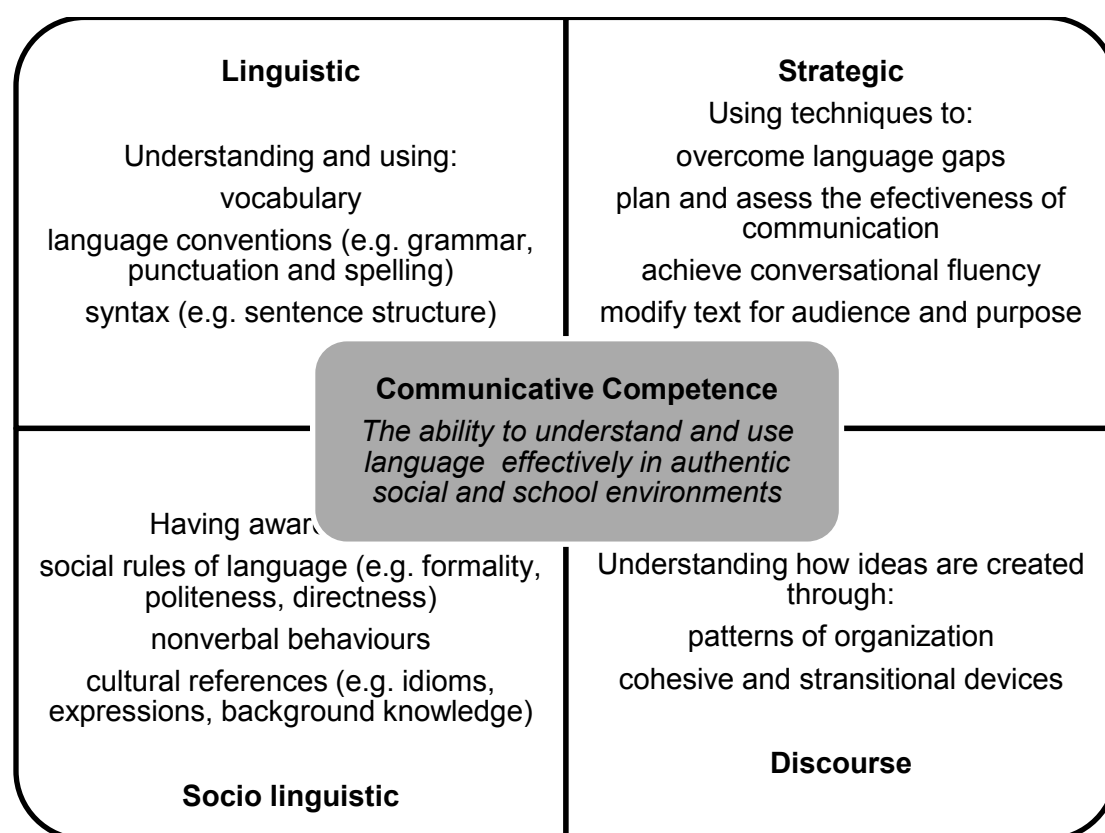


Figure 4. Communicative areas based on Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983a) model of communicative

Proficiency in a FL/SL is believed to go beyond knowledge of its grammar and vocabulary, which is known as linguistic competence, because language does not occur in unrelated sentences, but in larger linguistic contexts, where longer stretches of language are part of a whole, which is called the discourse competence (Burkart, 1998, p. 4). Being a proficient language speaker entails being aware of how to use and respond to language appropriately, in terms of formality, politeness and taking into account factors such as: the settings, topics, functions, role relationships and the cultural references of a language (idioms and informal expressions), hence the social context that surrounds the use of language. This type of knowledge is known as socio linguistic competence. Finally, as there are breakdowns and gaps in communication, the strategic competence is needed to detect and overcome the communication breakdowns and to find purposeful ways of getting your message across in order to achieve conversational fluency, even by making use of nonverbal communication, such as: gestures, eye gaze and body language (Canale, 1983a).

However, building learners' communicative competence does not mean ignoring the grammatical aspects of the language, as research findings support the integration of form-based with meaning-focused exercises, as long as learners relate the grammar to their communicative needs and experiences (Byram, 2008, p. 127). Furthermore, the issue of communicative efficiency is to be posed. Learners should make themselves understood using their current proficiency to the fullest and avoid confusion, that might occur due to their faulty grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation, when communicating their message. They should also avoid offending partners, which may be caused due to the use of a socially inadequate style (Burkart, 1998, p. 5). Therefore, being a competent learner is not synonymous of becoming a native-speaker (Byram, 2008, p. 128), but rather being an efficient language speaker, by communicating effectively with NS and NNS.

The materials and the activities designed for the current research studies have taken into consideration the communicative language teaching approach. On the one hand, by using semi-authentic language data (television series) that displayed a range of both oral (audio discourses of the actors) and written (under the form of subtitles and

captions) texts in a meaningful context (setting, topic, roles, genre) and on the other hand, by providing learners with qualitative and communicative types of assessment activities, focusing on both form and meaning (i.e. written vocabulary acquisition tests) and developing students' speaking ability in interactive role-plays in the classroom (Study 4). According to Savignon (1972) the linguistic competence must adapt to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more of the interlocutors (p.8); hence, in addition to syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation, the use of gestures, intonation and facial expressions also contribute to communication. Thus, the use of television series as an instructional material seeks to exploit the paralinguistic aspect of the language in addition to the linguistic one as a means to provide learners with an overall perspective of language use in context. By providing learners with a variety of language experiences, instructors need to pave the way to the construction of students' own expression of meaning, which is one of the key elements to becoming a competent language user and speaker (Byram, 2008, p. 128).

Building on learners' speaking skills entails being aware of the various kinds of talks and strategies used in spoken discourse. Turn-taking is a piece of natural language discourse that refers to the way people take turns when interacting with each other. Features of turn-taking imply smooth turns between the interlocutors, with only little overlap and interruption and only brief silences between turns (less than a second) (McCarthy, 1991, p. 127). However, there are cases in which speakers predict one another's utterances by overlapping or by completing them, which may sound and look chaotic at first glance, but this shows evidence of how 'real life conversations' might look like. Teaching materials usually disclose a transcription of an idealised representation of speech and the conversations are in an ordered, non-overlapping turn-taking (McCarthy, 1991, p. 128).

Moreover, interaction can take place without a proper turn-taking, in the cases where there is a dominant speaker and the other interlocutor's speech is reduced to so-called 'backchannels', like *m, yes, oh, I see, really*, as a sign of attention (Stenström, 1994, p. 1) and the use of lexical items, such as *well, sort of, you know* create a natural flow of speech in the conversation. Turn-taking rules, rate of speech, length of pauses

between speakers are some of the characteristics of spoken language that are not paid attention to in language courses (Burkart, 1998, p. 8). Turn-taking in itself is familiar to learners from their mother tongue, nevertheless there are specific linguistic features (e.g. *Can I interrupt for a moment?, Hang on a minute, I've got something to tell you*) that need to be practiced in the target language and cultural differences that need to be pointed out, so to avoid L1 transfer conventions to the L2 context. For instance, silence has a more acceptable role in some cultures than in others, for example in the Japanese culture the 'thinking-time' before a response is longer than silence in English (McCarthy, 1991, p. 129), or as O'Connell & Kowal (2008) mention 'interruption is a form of turn-taking, not an alternative to turn-taking, and it may in some cultural settings indeed be the normal case (p.152).

Hence, language teachers need to be aware of the characteristics of his/her target group individuals in order to mention to them these types of cultural differences when necessary. Authentic instructional materials are perceived as valuable antidotes to the flaws of pedagogic materials, as students would gradually become aware of the natural encounters between native speakers (Burkart, 1998, p. 8).

The distinction between transactional and interactional talk should be furthermore unraveled, as it has been noted a tendency in language teaching of the notional-functional school to overstate transactional talk at the expense of interactional talk (McCarthy, 1991, p. 137). Transactional talk is mainly aimed at delivering your message as a need to change the situation in question, e.g. *to tell somebody something they need to know, to get someone to do something, to purchase something*, whereas the interactional talk is about establishing and maintaining social relationships, and thus precise understanding is not compulsory, as the interlocutors can ask for clarification while engaged in the spoken interaction (Brown & Yule, 1983; Burkart, 1998; McCarthy, 1991; Nunan, 1991; Stenström, 1994). However, in natural spoken interactions both transactional or interactional talks can easily interweave, as people often engage in interactional talk or 'small talk' about weather and daily life routines before the transactional phase. The difference between the two is definitely worth remembering in the design of speaking activities for language classroom, as 'teaching materials are

imbalanced between the two types of talk' (McCarthy, 1991, p. 137), and hence learners should be aware of and exposed to an even language speech.

Accordingly, the current strategies used in the classroom, i.e. exposure to authentic audiovisual materials (television series aimed at native-speakers in Study 1, 2, and 3) and further on, active practice of the acquired language in role-plays (Study 4) can be considered purposeful means of offering learners the chance to become active observers of native turn-taking, of both transactional and interactional talk, and afterwards to apply the acquired knowledge in practical activities, i.e. role-plays. Conversation is believed to run smoothly when the speakers cooperate on four levels: interaction, discourse, organization and communication. Therefore, students are expected to observe the basic rules of turn taking and to listen actively when they are not speaking. What is more, they are required to transmit their message in a way that does not cause misinterpretation and be able to deduce from the context what is expected from them (Stenström, 1994, p. 18).

Speaker's message in conversation is tightly related to the 'immediate and wider context' (Stenström, 1994, p. 26), i.e. what the previous speaker just said on the one hand, and the speech situation: the topic, the speakers and their relationship to each other and the knowledge they share, on the other hand (Nunan, 1991, p. 42). The speech situation can be formal or informal, it can involve talking about daily issues or more technical topics, it can involve speakers that are close friends or speakers that have never seen each other, it can be of private or public nature, and therein all these factors can affect interaction and the way interlocutors address to each other.

Approaches to the teaching of speaking in a second language focuses on three areas: students' exposure to spoken language, the quality of the interaction between teacher and student and the designing of tasks aimed at engaging learners in appropriate processing of language (Byram, 2008, p. 563). In an interactional speaking task, communication is considered a 'collaborative venture' (Nunan, 1991, p. 47) in which speakers negotiate meaning in order to achieve one's communicative goals. In light of the above, teaching and enhancing speaking skill in a SL/FL entails four issues: the variety of spoken language to teach, the type of input and the means to provide it,

how interaction between teacher and student can be lead to the development of speaking, and the design and use of communicative tasks (Byram, 2008, p. 565). Hence, learners should be exposed to a variety of spoken language in different contexts, having access to authentic input to be used for listening comprehension activities.

However, exposure only cannot boost students' speech production (Byram, 2008) because interaction has features such as turn-taking, lexico-grammatical prompts, which play a significant role in building up on learners' speech (Carter & McCarthy, 1997). Interactive teacher-class speech is therein encouraged, although believed to limit its effectiveness in developing students' speaking ability to talk (Byram, 2008, p. 565). As such, a third element should be introduced in classroom practice, i.e. oral tasks, such as role-plays aimed at increasing learners' ability to initiate and sustain purposeful interactive speech.

On the grounds of the aforementioned theories, the current research studies encompass both exposure to authentic input and to a variety of spoken discourses via television series and confer interaction a central role, by making use of communicative tasks design. As such, students were required to perform oral tasks as a means to develop their speaking ability and language acquisition in the classroom. After having looked into ways of boosting and building up second language learners speaking skills, it comes logically to approach the aspect of assessment and evaluation criteria in order to shed light on the most common practices in assessing speaking in second language acquisition literature and disclose either convergent or divergent validity (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011) of the criteria used in Study 4 to assess participants' speaking production.

3.2.3.2 *Assessing speaking skills*

Assessing communicative performances has never been an easy task for SL teachers and likewise, establishing clearly defined criteria for the evaluation of spoken production is still a topic under discussion among SLA researchers and theoreticians. The notion of communicative competence is widely accepted as a core for testing both oral and written language proficiency; however, there is still debate over the most adequate form a model of communicative competence should take and the types of competencies that should be included in such a model (Pillar, 2011).

The assumption behind the idea that having perfect linguistic form and accuracy in an L2 or a FL does not necessarily represent a competence in verbal communication that can be considered feasible, as the communicative competence entails more than using mere syntactic and lexical correct forms. Considering the aforementioned communicative competence assumptions, questions inferring oral proficiency testing should be posed. Hence, debates concerning spoken production tools and criteria and testing approaches will be further on proposed as a means to place the assessment methods used in Study 4 under the umbrella of effective evaluation tools for spoken production.

Among Backlund's (1982) recommendations of ways to assess speaking skills, the issue of testing the students in a naturalistic situation rather than a contrived one emerges. He states the need to avoid testing students in contrived situations, i.e. isolated from regular classroom activities and unfamiliar to students, and instead use classroom activities familiar to students, i.e. naturalistic situations aimed at testing learners' speaking skills in common communication demands (pp.12-13). Therein, the issue of setting evaluation and the relevance of the activities used in the classroom have been raised, two important factors that need to be considered when designing oral tests. When designing and applying oral tests in the classroom, issues such as oral proficiency and oral assessing criteria should be tackled. In this context, what does assessing oral proficiency entail and what criteria should teachers use when assessing oral skills? These are central questions aimed to be developed in order to advocate the choice of test items used for the data analyses in Study 4.

As far as speaking proficiency is concerned, Hadley (2001) states that proficiency is not 'a monolithic concept representing an amorphous ideal that students rarely attain; rather it is comprised of a whole range of abilities that must be described in a graduated fashion in order to be meaningful' (p.9). Thence, proficiency is perceived as a fusion of abilities and not as a vague concept that students desire to reach, without being aware of what skills are needed in order to accomplish it.

The American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) proposes a set of proficiency guidelines, defining and measuring language ability in speaking, listening, reading and writing. ACTFL scale considers four interrelated assessment criteria for speaking proficiency descriptions: global tasks/functions, context/content, accuracy and text type as they appear in ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview Tester Training Manual (Swender, 1999). Global/task functions refer to real-world tasks that the speaker can do in a language and the ability to do that ranges from: the lowest level of being able to just name objects or use basic greetings; to the intermediate level, which entails the ability to handle more challenging tasks, such as asking for information and responding to simple questions; to the advanced level, which involves people being able of paragraph-length descriptions and narration in different time frames, and finally to the highest level of proficiency, in which learners are able to accomplish complex tasks, such as supporting an opinion or persuade someone.

The context refers to the setting in which the conversation takes place and learners at lower levels are believed to handle predictable situations or situations in which they can make use of memorized or learned material. At the higher levels of proficiency, the context of the conversation usually requires more participation due to the unpredictability of the situation. As for the content, this makes reference to the topics one is able to deal with. At low levels, the topics discussed are mainly related to information about oneself, as opposed to high levels of proficiency that require students to increase the range of topics they can talk about. However, the content dimension of the assessment criteria should not be regarded as a hierarchical list of topics or themes, as any topics can be exploited at any level of proficiency (Hadley, 2001, pp. 13–15).

Accuracy indicates the 'quality and the precision of the message conveyed' (Swender, 1999, p. 25) and some of the features considered are fluency, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, pragmatic competence and sociolinguistic competence. Many beginner speakers make mistakes in most of these areas, often being incomprehensible to native speakers, however it is possible for beginners to be accurate when using memorized material (Hadley, 2001, p. 15). Text type indicates the structure of the discourse, i.e. 'the quantity and the organizational aspects of speech' (Swender, 1999, p. 29), therefore beginners can produce only isolated words or phrases, whereas intermediate and advanced level speakers are able to produce sentence-length and paragraph-length discourses, using appropriate connectors and transitional phrases (Hadley, 2001, p. 16). The characteristics of each level of the ACTFL scale shed light on how the concepts of communicative competence described by Canale (1983a) can be measured on a scale, providing a tangible tool FL teachers and instructors can use to measure the oral communicative competence.

Similarly, The European Council (Council of Europe, 2001) conceived the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) which was aimed at describing the levels of language learning skills. Nowadays, they are at the core of the organization of language teaching and assessment in Europe, parts of Asia and Latin America. The levels are structured into a global scale of six levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2) with general descriptions of language competence for each level and the names for each of the six levels are: *Breakthrough* and *Waystage* (A1 and A2) which would correspond to Basic user; *Threshold* and *Vantage* (B1 and B2), corresponding to Independent user, and *Effective Operational Proficiency* and *Mastery* (C1 and C2), that would correspond to Proficient user. The descriptions of levels are skill-based and take the form of 'Can Do statements'. These descriptions of ability focus on communicative purpose and make for a very practical approach, which looks at what people can do, rather than on specific linguistic knowledge.

Apart from the 'Can do' statements and CEFR global scale for each level, the Introductory Guide to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2013) for English Language Teachers specifies 54 different scales that focus on various sub-skills and areas of competence: the basic four skills (speaking, reading,

writing, and listening), communicative language (e.g. turn-taking, asking for clarification), types of interaction (e.g. vocabulary range, phonological control), etc. In the case of the overall spoken interaction, the skills mentioned are: Understanding a Native Speaker Interlocutor; Conversation; Informal Discussion; Formal Discussion (Meetings); Goal-oriented Co-operation; Obtaining Goods and Services; Information Exchange; Interviewing & Being Interviewed. For the overall spoken production, activities such as: Sustained Monologue; Describing Experience; Sustained Monologue: Putting a Case (e.g. Debate); Public Announcements; Addressing Audiences are referenced as part of skills needed to produce spoken discourses (Council of Europe, 2013, pp. 6–7).

Moreover a language programme, i.e. English Profile Programme, was set by Cambridge University Press and Cambridge ESOL in collaboration with 9 partner organizations from 7 different countries, as a means to establish a reliable and detailed description of the actual learner English that is typical of each CEFR level. The English Profile⁸ is a collaborative programme supported by the Council of Europe designed to create a set of reference level descriptions for English and providing detailed information about what learners 'can do' in English at each of the six levels of the CEFR. Two language skill profiles have emerged, i.e. the English Vocabulary Profile⁹ and The English Grammar Profile¹⁰.

The first one shows in both British and American English which words and phrases learners know at each level (A1 to C2) and consequently, it allows teachers to find out which words and phrases, and individual meanings of each word, are typically mastered by learners at each CEFR level. The English Vocabulary Profile (EVP) project attests what learners do know at each level, instead of providing a syllabus of the vocabulary they should know. The second one describes the progressive command of grammar across the six CEFR levels. These profiles are considered valuable tools to make decisions about what to teach students as they progress and authors and editors

⁸ www.englishprofile.org

⁹ www.vocabularyenglishprofile.org

¹⁰ www.englishprofile.org/index.php/grammar-gems

make extensive use of this research in developing their course materials (Council of Europe, 2013, p. 8).

Three concepts are mentioned by the Council of Europe (2001) as being traditionally related to the issue of assessment: validity, reliability and feasibility. Thus, discussing the three terms, the relationship between each other and their relevance to the CEFR is fundamental in this subsection.

Validity refers to a test or assessment procedure that assesses 'the construct' in the context concerned and that the information obtained is an accurate representation of the proficiency of the candidate(s) in question. Reliability addresses the extent to which the same rank order of candidates in two different test administrations are assessed according to the same standard. Therefore, reliability is the 'accuracy of decisions', which means that two different organizations or examiners should use the same criteria in relation to the same standards in order to assess the same language skill.

Feasibility is an item related to performance testing. Examiners as well as candidates operate under time limitations and pressure. Examiners are exposed to a limited number of performances and type of categories used as criteria. In this sense the CEFR seeks to provide a reference for language instructors and not a practical assessment tool. Hence teachers and examiners should be aware of the categories present in the Framework and select the ones that fit their candidates' context (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 177–178).

In assessing oral skills, Luoma (2004) highlights the importance of using different test items according to the relevant purposes of target information to be tested. The author discloses three frameworks about general purposes of testing oral skills, as linguistically oriented, communication-oriented and situation-based. The linguistically oriented speaking tasks usually imply vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation and they can be carried out in structured speaking tasks. In this way examinees' performances are quite closely controlled, as the testers expect certain linguistic features, particularly in terms of pronunciation and grammar in their speech. The difference between this and more extended simulations is that the questions and answers are limited and most of the information needed for answering is present in the task materials.

In the communication-oriented tasks, such as telling a narrative or expressing and defending an opinion, discussing factors that support an opinion or argue against each other, comparing and contrasting things are some of the activities needed for overall communication to take place. The situation-task based design is thought to belong to task-based approach to define the test concept, which is used in specific-purpose testing and in vocational and professional education and it is directed at examinees' communication needs in the target situation. The approach mostly used by teachers is the linguistically-oriented one; however, the communication and situation-oriented approaches should not be ignored, given their relevance in delivering a close to reality speech, but ultimately the choice of concepts for task design should reflect the purpose and the scope of the test (Luoma, 2004, pp. 162–163).

Among the examples provided by Luoma (2004) that show the types of test items and their functions, role-plays and simulations are regarded as tasks that are suitable to stimulate communication situations that candidates could experience outside the test (p.151). The discussion about these type of tasks are of high interest due to their relevance for Study 4, which exploits the use of informal simulated role-plays between peers in order to investigate learners' acquisition of informal and colloquial expressions.

Role-plays are perceived as a way of 'making communication in a test more versatile' (Luoma, 2004, p. 153) mainly because the candidate is engaging into a meaningful conversation with another peer and not with the examiner, therefore the candidate is more likely to embrace the new communicative role with someone similar to one's language status and level. Simulated tasks are similar to role-plays in the sense that they involve acting out imagined communication situations. In order to perform the task, learners need to accommodate their language use to the simulated situation, which on the one hand stimulates peer collaboration, and on the other hand requires self- and peer-assessment while the conversation is advancing. These type of tasks put the teacher in the role of a guide and of a communication consultant, as he or she has to plan the task and the assessment criteria, choosing to focus on either linguistically-oriented concepts such as vocabulary or grammar, on communication-oriented notions such as strategies of getting the message across, or finally on the situation and the speaker role as the main concepts (Luoma, 2004, p. 157).

The activities designed for Study 4 are a combination of role-plays and simulated tasks, as the participants were assigned a role they had to simulate in an informal situational context with another peer. Hence, learners had to role-play the assigned character, but at the same time they had to imagine the communicative situation they were placed in and make use of previously acquired knowledge, i.e. informal and colloquial expressions they were exposed to via subtitled television series. The three approaches were taken into consideration when establishing the assessment criteria for this part of the project. The linguistic aspect was considered by taking into account the amount of informal expressions used by interlocutors. The communicative aspect was approached by looking at how learners interacted and delivered their speech in terms of speech characteristics, such as fluency, spontaneity, naturalness and ability to improvise in the given context. Finally, the situational concept was examined by bearing in mind the context in which the conversation took place, in this case an informal encounter, and the roles of the speakers, which represented a relevant element in the development of the conversation.

To sum, this section has covered several aspects in relation to oral proficiency and assessment of speaking skills. First, the communicative competence has been acknowledged as the key in identifying oral assessment strategies and criteria for testing oral proficiency. Relevant terms concerning the issue were defined by the ACTFL and the Council of Europe that established the CEFR, targeted at describing the levels of language learning and their corresponding competences. The creation of CEFR levels and descriptors led to the development of language tools (e.g. English Profile Programme) intended to investigate aspects related to learners' vocabulary proficiency and grammar through programmes such as English Vocabulary Profile and English Grammar Profile. The concept of validity, reliability and feasibility have been tackled too, as mentioned by the Council of Europe. Finally, Luoma's (2004) framework and examples of test items in relation to assessing speaking have been looked into and linked to the assessment criteria and procedures used by the researcher to carry out Study 4. Additionally, relevant features of role-plays and simulated tasks were brought into question as a way of integrating the assessment tasks used in Study 4 into the canvas of purposeful and communicative assessment practices.

Chapter 4. Literature Review

This chapter will give an overview of the core and foremost elements of our research: subtitled authentic videos. There are three main aspects (authenticity, audiovisual materials and subtitles) that come into play in the developing of the practical side of this dissertation. First, the role of authenticity in the FL/SL classroom will be approached and its implication for enhancing oral language skills, such as listening and speaking. The multifaceted term of authenticity will be underpinned from several theoretical perspectives and its implicit relationship with language material, task design and language use in the FL classroom. The differences between ready-made materials aimed at L2/FL learners and authentic or semi-authentic aids used in environments for native speakers will be discussed, as well as how this can affect language retention and recall. Furthermore, the implications of using authentic or semi-authentic materials, as opposed to educational videos, in FL/SL settings will be introduced in the light of both theoretical and practical testimonials present in the literature. In order to offer an unbiased outline of the assumptions on the topic, both the advantages and drawbacks of using videos in the FL/L2 classroom will be disclosed.

Finally, the last section of the chapter will thoroughly examine previous research in relation to the use of subtitles (both interlingual and intralingual) as pedagogical tools in FLL/SLL and will state its implication for enhancing informal and colloquial language learning and spoken production. Moreover, both the assets and the limitations of these tools will be addressed, together with aspects related to subtitle processing and reading.

4.1 The role of authenticity in the FL/L2 classroom

Defining the manifold and complex notion of authenticity in language teaching is a bold duty. Far from being a homogenous concept among language theoreticians and practitioners, we shall assume the challenge of depicting a framework of the term in the literature and its relevance to foreign and second language teaching and learning. The prime concern is that classroom language is often perceived as a proof of 'artificiality and unnaturalness' (Van Lier, 1996), which means that language use in the classroom is different from language use in 'real life', and thus people in the classroom must speak and write as if they were not in the classroom, in other words 'the classroom must become inauthentic as a classroom' (Van Lier, 1996, p. 123). However, the issue of authenticity in the classroom cannot be so easily standardized. The concept of authenticity is still perceived as a central benchmark for the selection and evaluation of language teaching materials (MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2000; Taylor, 1994; Widdowson, 1979) and there is a pedagogical value assigned to the similarity of the input received in the classroom with the language and social context of everyday life (MacDonald et al., 2000). Therefore, it is inferred that the reality that resides outside the classroom should be reflected in the instructional materials and practice inside the classroom.

According to Breen (1985), there are several types of authenticity and it is not always easy to distinguish between them, as many scholars do not make clear references to the type of authenticity they are referring to. He identifies four types of authenticity: text authenticity, related to the way we use the input for learners; authenticity of learners' own interpretations of such texts; task authenticity that may lead to language learning; and finally, the authenticity of the actual social situation of the classroom as a language learning environment (Breen, 1985, p. 61). The complaints about the artificiality of classroom language resides in the belief that there should be an absolute and universal notion of authenticity that should comprise all the above types of authenticity (Taylor, 1994), but applying the term to a fixed set of rules is a relative issue that needs further exploration and clarification.

Needless to mention that there is a clear relationship between the setting and the type of language use in relation to it, hence the language is bound to the setting (Van Lier, 1996, p. 124), which may trigger the authenticity or artificiality of the language discourse. However, language use has the chameleonic feature of changing whenever the interlocutors, the setting, the topic or the speaker's intentions change, so as to become relevant in the given context. Thus, 'authenticity is not a property of some piece of language, but rather, of a speaker's intention and a hearer's interpretation of the language used' (Van Lier, 1996, pp. 124–125).

In a broader sense, authenticity is linked to notions such as 'realness', 'trueness to origin' and in the field of ELT, it has been used mainly to refer to both written and spoken texts, learning material, tasks, cultural artefacts, multimedia products, forms of assessment and even types of teacher and audience (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014). According to Gilmore (2007), the term 'authentic' in ELT professional discourse has reached a total of eight different definitions, such as: the language produced by native speakers for native speakers in a particular language community (Porter & Roberts, 1981); the language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message (Morrow, 1981; Porter & Roberts, 1981); the qualities allotted to a text by the receiver, in the sense that they are not perceived as something rooted in the text, but instead they are passed on by the reader/listener (Breen, 1985; Widdowson, 1979); the interaction between students and teachers, seen as 'personal process of engagement' (Van Lier, 1996, p. 128); the type of tasks chosen (Breen, 1985; Van Lier, 1996); the social situation of the classroom (Breen, 1985; Rost, 2002); assessment (Bachman, 1991); culture and the ability to think like a target language group in order to be recognized and accepted as part of the community (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996).

The definition that fits the aims of the current research is in line with Morrow's (1981) idea of an authentic text, produced by a real speaker or writer for real audience and designed to convey a real message, which resembles Gilmore's (2007) concept of authenticity, by considering the source of the discourse and the context. However, given that the language is produced in FL/SL learning settings with NNS, a real speaker can be anyone from the teacher to the pupils. But can we consider they convey an authentic

message? They may deliver a real message, comprising the needs of the current learning process, however another element should be added in this case. Thus, Porter & Roberts' (1981) definition of authenticity would seem appropriate to complement the previous one in the current context. In this way, language produced by NS for NS would be introduced to NNS, FL/L2 language learners, in order to make them aware of the linguistic reality that resides outside classroom language. Similarly, Adams (1995) assents with the latter definition of authentic materials, considering 'unaltered language data, produced by and for NS of a common language and not for SL learners of that language' as authentic (p.3).

Limiting the description of real language from a real speaker/writer for a real audience with a real message encloses a variety of language use, from graded teacher-talk in the classroom, motherese¹¹, scripted television soap operas, which can all be considered authentic (Gilmore, 2007, p. 98). However, all these types of authentic input can have different surface discourse features and some will serve as better input, more likely to trigger language acquisition than others. Thus, authenticity is not necessarily associated with 'good', as well as contrivance does not mean 'bad' (Widdowson, 1979). Moreover, Cook (1997) states that terms such as 'authentic', 'genuine', 'real' or 'natural' and their opposites 'fake', 'unreal' or 'contrived' are emotionally laden and imply approval or disapproval, but still being ill-defined (p. 225). From the classroom teacher's perspective, Gilmore (2007) suggests that teachers should focus on learning aims and try to achieve their goals by making use of classroom materials, irrespective of their authenticity or contrivance. The ultimate goal would be to entail learners to communicate effectively in the target language of a particular speech community (p.98).

The term authenticity has enlarged its original spectrum in order to encompass both communicative and non-communicative teaching materials in the classroom. As such, the term itself has become 'inauthentic', as the current pattern of language teaching has revived the focus in the form of language together with its communicative

¹¹ When mothers talk to their children, they typically simplify their speech and make efforts to sustain communication. The formal and interactional characteristics of this type of speech is referred to as 'motherese' (Ellis, 1985)

purpose (MacDonald et al., 2000, p. 254). Another questionable issue is whether exposure to 'natural' language implicit in the original version of authenticity was ever the best context for learning or whether focus on the form of language is an 'unnatural' as was implicit in the early language learning tradition (Cook, 1997, pp. 224–225).

In language-teaching contexts the focus moves towards *text* and *task authenticity* (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014), as primary pedagogical tools. At first, the notion of authenticity was mainly used to reveal the characteristics of a spoken or written text in terms of the language used in them (e.g. authentic Scottish accent, authentic representation of the language) or the origin of the text themselves (authentic texts not being originally written for language learners; newspaper articles, recorded announcements, TV news) (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014, p. 457).

In the late 70s, Widdowson (1979) introduced the distinction between *genuine* and *authentic* language use. In this sense, genuine refers to the text itself, as an utter quality, not constructed for the purpose of language learning (e.g. newspaper article, an episode of a soap opera, a poem). Authenticity, on the other hand, embraces the relationship between the text and the reader and the subsequent responses in relation to it (Widdowson, 1979, p. 80). In other words, if we bring an episode of a TV series to class, then that is a genuine piece of language, but once introduced into the language lesson, we may ask the students to carry out *authentic* or *inauthentic* things with it (Van Lier, 1996, p. 126). A genuine instance of a discourse is aimed to meet a communicative purpose in which people play their corresponding social roles, as opposed to a contrived situation for teaching language. Authenticity is present if a text is used in ways that correspond to normal communicative activities, thus the desired aim should be 'to make genuineness correspond with authenticity' (Widdowson, 1979, p. 169). The distinction between the two terms has been very influential in the ELT community, even though it is still a common practice to use the term 'authenticity' for both cases, and materials written by a NS, or for NS, or for non-language learning purposes continue to be referred to as 'authentic' rather than 'genuine' (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014, p. 458).

Authenticity is believed to be either part of a text or allotted to a text by means of which it is put by certain people in particular situations. Thus, authenticity of language use is a matter of relativity and interpretation, as it is highly dependent on context and the type of people are engaged in the process. In other words, text authenticity can be easier defined, but when it comes of considering authenticity beyond these borders, it is rather a subjective task and a matter of interpretation (Taylor, 1994, p. 3). However, a rather meaningful distinction that should be borne in mind is that there is a difference between the instances of language (texts) and the uses to which they are put. The notion of authenticity is often used together with the term 'naturalness', questioning whether or not an ESL text sounds natural, in terms of language use. Taylor (1994) claims that a text could be 'genuine', as defined by Widdowson (1979) and corresponding to Breen's (1985) first type of authenticity, and not sound 'natural' or a text could lack genuineness and still sound natural. This can be the case of a text designed primarily for language teaching purposes (Taylor, 1994, p. 4).

However, a natural text is strictly related to context, as what sounds natural to someone and in one context may sound unnatural to someone else and in another context. Therefore, classroom language has its own authenticity by making use of real use of language in its appropriate setting. Although classroom discourse has special features, we cannot deny that what happens in the classroom is real, especially for learners, who in most of the cases cannot experience the reality outside the classroom in target foreign speaking countries. According to Taylor (1994), learners have the ability as language users to make use of the language structures acquired in the classroom in genuine communicative situations outside the classroom. Ultimately, language classroom should promote language learning and the activities used should be the tools to achieve this pedagogical aim.

Trying to define precise borders of terms such as 'authenticity', 'naturalness' and 'real' it is clear from the aforementioned declarations that it is rather a futile labour, like Sisyphus rolling the boulder up the hill, and instead a multifaceted interpretation should be acknowledged. In other words, there is no abstract global definition such as 'authenticity', which is rather seen as a function of both the language and the

participants, the use to which language is put, the setting, the nature of the interaction, and the interpretation the participants bring to both the setting and the activity (Taylor, 1994, p. 5; Van Lier, 1996, p. 138). Despite the ambiguous agreement between theoreticians about these terms, I consider vital to reiterate the role of the type of material and task used in language classroom.

Although the classroom itself has its own reality with its own authentic language, created by its participants (the teacher and the students), it is primordial to further analyze the characteristics of ready-made educational resources for FL/L2 learning in relation to what Porter & Roberts (1981) call authentic texts, created by native speakers and aimed at native speakers. I strongly believe that the type of input of an authentic resource could not only benefit foreign language acquisition and retention, but could also successfully complement the explicit pedagogical materials already present in textbooks. Thus, the principles of 'authenticity' and 'artificiality' will be further on developed from the perspective of content and material design, and accordingly their implication for foreign language learning.

4.1.1 The 'real' vs. the 'prefabricated'

The discussion about the intrinsic principles of authenticity in language learning will be further on developed, focusing on the content present in materials for both FL learners and NS with the aim to be used in language classrooms. There is a mutual consent among researchers in EFL field that the language presented to students in textbooks is a poor representation of the real language used in regular speaking lifetime interactions, highlighting the lack of informal language structures (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014, p. 458). The main advantage of using genuine texts and authentic activities in language teaching is that they provide better linguistic models than non-genuine texts, which although include language that is grammatically correct, lack the 'genuineness' and 'informality' of non-textbook language use (Gilmore, 2004). As for the authentic activities, far from detrimental, they are engaging, meaningful and 'authenticated by

learners' (Breen, 1985); more precisely they provide learners with opportunities to use the language actively and purposefully, beyond the manipulation of forms.

However, controversial discussions about authenticity may highlight the role of the native speaker as the source of authentic material, neglecting the vital forms and functions of English as a *lingua franca* (Gilmore, 2007) and triggering a negative perception of NNS teachers (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014). As far as I am concerned, a negative perception of the NNS teachers would appear if the authentic materials undervalued the teacher's role as a language instructor, mediator, guide, counselor, mentor, adviser, and if all textbook-language use were eliminated from classroom practice. This proposition is unlikely to take place, first because language materials cannot replace the humane and explanatory quality of a teacher, and secondly, because authentic materials should complement the ready-made L2 materials in order to enhance learner' language skills, and not replace them. Thus, we should provide learners with tools to cope effectively with the language they will encounter outside the walls of the language classroom, and more importantly to make them aware of the linguistic, pragmatic and cultural reality of the target spoken language.

Learners should be exposed to the types of interactional opportunity which they will encounter outside. In other words, there should be principles links between the learning opportunities presented to learners in the classroom, and the target language uses to which the language will be put. We should provide learners with an opportunity to explore the generic structures of spoken language (Nunan, 1991, p. 45).

Lately, there has been a shift in the focus of applied linguistics in relation to speech, mostly due to the appearance of audio recording technology and the development of procedures to transcribe and analyse authentic spoken language in discourses, conversations and corpus analysis. This has led to investigations and analyses of language items present in textbooks and in casual conversations that concluded there is a lack of adequate models for spoken grammar in textbooks (Gilmore, 2007). Among the researchers that reiterate the importance of acquiring a wide variety of hyponyms and synonyms is McCarthy (1991), who claims that in order

to be able to talk naturally in English, learners need to be equipped with a range of vocabulary that is probably wider than the coursebook.

An analysis of spontaneous conversation from London-Lund corpus carried out by Powell (1992) reveals high frequencies of evaluative, vague, intense or expressive language in informal contexts. This has direct implications for the interactional and affective needs of speakers in informal contexts and goes against the 'safe, clean, harmonious, undisturbed' type of linguistic world presented to learners in textbooks (Gilmore, 2007, p. 99). An investigation about the difference between spoken and written grammar found in CANCODE (Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English) was undergone by McCarthy & Carter (1994), who disclose that standard grammar does not approach extensive features in spoken discourse such as ellipsis or 'slots' at the beginnings and ends of clauses for speaker orientation, which they consider fundamental for interpretation on verb-form choices.

Furthermore, Wray's (2000) examination of formulaic sequences (idioms, collocations and sentence frames) in language learning is of paramount interest and significance for the current research study. She states that even proficient non-native learners encounter difficulties making differences between what is natural from what is grammatically possible but non-idiomatic. She reasons that the main cause for this is the lack of natural language models in the classroom and the problems teachers encounter in selecting the appropriate formulaic sequences to present. There seems to be an adversity in matching the 'real world' language experience with the requirements of the language classroom (p.468). The first step in overcoming this issue proposes exposure to carefully selected authentic language to work with in the classroom, at least until learners become aware of the process of sounding more idiomatic in English (Gilmore, 2007, p. 100). This statement is in line with the core assumptions of this doctoral thesis, as exposure to authentic informal language in natural contexts is an essential element to ease the gap between the correct and standard classroom language and the colloquial and informal language present in everyday English.

Nevertheless, including authentic materials in foreign language classroom routine is perceived in most of the cases as far too superior and difficult than any other materials purposely designed for the learner (Adams, 1995). Additionally, if authentic

aids are considered to be used as didactic learning tools, they are mainly reserved for use with advanced and proficient students (Mejia & O'Connor, 1994; Swinscoe, 1992 cited in Adams, 1995). Despite this common practice, the importance of exposing low-level students to well-selected authentic texts, appropriate to their needs and abilities, is highlighted by Huizenga & Thomas-Ruzic (1994). Learners need to have constant contact with authentic, meaningful communication and be involved in real-life communicative tasks. Thus, these claims may suggest that authentic input provides rich knowledge and information to be acquired for learners at all levels of proficiency (Adams, 1995, p. 4). This statement is of particular interest for the developing of the empirical studies in the second part of this doctoral thesis. Hence, this assumption reinforces the relevance of exposing learners with a wide range of proficiency levels to authentic materials and analyse their response to informal and colloquial language acquisition over an extensive period of time.

Among the beneficial effects of authentic texts, it is stated that the learner is able to understand the operational patterns of vocabulary, by recurring to depth of knowledge about the pragmatic application of vocabulary in natural contexts. Both depth and size of vocabulary help students to build the capacity to deduce lexical inferences and to make assumptions about the lexical items and relation between them (Rahman, 2014). Additionally, authentic materials reduce learners' reliance on pedagogical rules of grammar, and instead, redirect their attention on discovering rules, inferring the use of grammatical structures from the communicative use of language. Exposing learners to a range of authentic texts will facilitate learners' capacity of internalizing a variety of language areas and to be active witnesses in real authentic contexts, while permitting them to make generalizations (Willis, 1990).

Moreover, supplying classroom instructional materials with authentic data increases learners' ability to become efficient users of the target language by discovering the already internalized rules and their diverse applications. As Rahman (2014) states 'authentic materials are an excellent method of filling gaps in the existing syllabi, gaps that may appear due to changes in the language itself' (p.213). Therefore, learners can be made aware of the new additions in the language and their language

use, by combining their knowledge acquired during the course of instruction with the novel language used in real life situations.

On the grounds of the abovementioned assets of authentic materials and their use in language classroom, we direct the discussion towards the use of audiovisual materials and videos as authentic aids in foreign language classroom. With the imminent flourishing field of Information Communication Technology (ICT), authentic videos and audiovisual materials have started to be implemented in EFL and SLL/FLL as pedagogical tools with various goals by several researchers from various fields (Allan, 1985; Chai & Erlam, 2008; Diaz-Cintas & Fernández Cruz, 2008; King, 2002; Talaván, 2013). Thus, in the following section I will describe the implications of authentic videos for foreign language learning and its feasibility as rich and meaningful audiovisual input for enhancing foreign language skills.

4.2 Video as a didactic tool in the classroom

The approach of bringing videos and CDs/DVDs into the classroom has been successfully adopted since the eighties, however, nowadays the presence of the Internet and the possibility of adding captions to any visual material broadens up the limitations of traditional audiovisual materials. Thus, the easy access to captioned and subtitled streamed videos from websites such as YouTube and from other devices, such as tablets and smartphone applications, makes the use of video materials in the classroom even more purposeful for foreign language learners.

The majority of video promoters in language teaching focused on using the video as a content by either revealing its sequences or by presenting language models (Stempleski, 1991). Moreover, Lonergan (1984) claims that teachers need to change the passive viewing habits of students to create a climate conducive to learning. The video is perceived as a valuable resource for language learning and study, because it presents communicative situations. Videos in language learning can be used for several purposes: to present the language, the country and its culture, to tell stories and to present topics that can be followed up by debates and discussions in class. Thus, most

of the video materials carry out several of these elements at once, but the main aim is to present examples of language in use in an appropriate context (Allan, 1985, p. 19).

Theorists allege the importance of providing learners with contextualized and meaningful input for language acquisition to take place (Herron, 1994). However, the issues revolve around the best solution to ensure that students understand this input. Comprehension is availed by simplifying the message, by negotiating meaning between interlocutors, and by using linguistic and extralinguistic context, such as familiar structures, background knowledge, gestures, facial expressions (Long, 1983).

The great asset of video lies in its combination of sound and vision, which is dynamic, immediate and accessible. Communicative situations are presented in context and they can be easily perceived by language learners, mainly because the speakers in dialogues can be seen and heard. Learners can also incorporate the characteristics of the speakers (sex, relationship one to another, social status, approximate age, their behaviour, mood, feelings) in the overall picture of the video and at the same time be aware of the paralinguistic information, such as gestures and facial expressions that go along with the aural information (Loneragan, 1984, p. 4). Even though the video has appeared before the development of ICT, these technologies grant the video a higher educational relevance than it used to have in the past, mainly due to its easy accessibility and use. By using video materials, you introduce a variety of features in the educational setting, and in this way the students can become active observers of non-verbal elements, so common in everyday life interactions. Moreover, they can analyse the context to which the linguistic elements belong to, while they are listening to the dialogues, thus being able to comprehend better the target language (Talaván, 2013, p. 34).

The importance of video in language learning is pointed out by Buck (2001) as well, who states that 'as multimedia technology develops, video is likely to become the norm' (p.172). According to Allan (1985), a video in a language teaching situation is the carrier of realistic and comprehensive pieces of language, because it puts forwards the way people communicate visually as well as verbally, thus it is a good means of bringing 'slices of living language' into the classroom. At the same time, the video can

become a purposeful stimulus to genuine communication in the classroom, when it is used as a source of debate stimulation among the learners (pp.48-49). Apart from being a rich visual support and a valuable channel for extended listening to the foreign language, it also provides a variety of language structures and interactions in an entertaining and motivating environment, thus being prone to enhance motivation in learners (Allan, 1985, p. 49).

One of the concepts that supports the use of ICT and video in language learning settings is the theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1999). He claims that there are at least nine different types of intelligence by means of which learners can make use of their intellectual abilities. The linguistic (verbal), musical, spatial, logical-mathematical, bodily-kinesthetically, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic and existential are the different type of cognitive intelligences one may possess, but it seems unlikely to carry out all these types of learning at the same time, as well as make use of didactic materials that comprise all or most of the stated intelligences.

However, with the help of ICT and the types of technologies that come along with it, there are higher possibilities to exploit simultaneously several types of intelligences. The technological aids approach mainly the spatial intelligence, due to their visual component, but also the linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal, which are the ones mostly used in language learning (Talaván, 2013, p. 35). The theory of multiple intelligence is very important to language teachers as it allows them to examine their classroom techniques and assessment considering individual learner differences. Normally, a person is due to develop some types of intelligence more than others. As such, using videos and audiovisual aids in language classroom, we focus on other kinds of intelligences too, other than only the linguistic one, thus integrating a variety of individual profiles into the learning process.

The didactic implications of the use of video as authentic pedagogical tool will be further on debated. The role of educational and authentic videos in foreign language learning will be introduced in the light of the advantages and drawbacks on its use in classroom settings. Moreover, additional discussions about the quality of the audiovisual input of the TV series and videos and its relevance for language learning

will be tackled. In relation to this issue, Chaume's (2011) 'prefabricated orality' of authentic videos will be argued about in relation to other studies that reassure there is a high degree of similarity between real-life conversations and the script dialogues presented in films and television series.

4.2.1 The authentic vs. the educational video

One of the advantages of a video is that it permits students to witness authentic linguistic and cultural interactions between native speakers (Herron, 1994). Hence, a video enables learners to use visual information to enhance comprehension and to observe the gestures, facial expressions and other aspects of body language, together with the authentic language as well as cultural information about speakers of English. However, educational videos, created to be used in the classroom, are a lot more present in the lesson routine than the authentic videos (e.g. news, movies, adverts, TV series), aimed at native speakers.

The advantages of didactic videos are that they were initially created with a certain age and level in mind and they were previously revised in terms of content and duration. They are usually accompanied by multimedia resources, extra exercises and activities and a guide for both the student and the teacher. They also guarantee the accuracy of the grammatical and lexical structures that can be exploited later on through specific tasks. The disadvantage of such a video, however, is the lack of authenticity in terms of language use, and therefore it deprives the student from a direct access to a real language (Talaván, 2013, pp. 41–42).

The real videos, on the other hand, contain non-simplified language, pronounced at a real speed, in real contexts of communication. Given the fact that these types of videos had as target audience the native speaker, they contain diverse and genuine native voices, informal language, familiar language, hesitations, different accents, dialects, voice pitch and all the elements that characterize the authentic use of the language out of the grammar norms. The language is not artificially manipulated, which

is going to be very similar to what the students might encounter outside the classroom in real life (Buck, 2001; Incalcaterra, 2009; Talaván, 2013, p. 42).

The benefits of authentic videos in contrast with ESL/EFL videos have been stated since early '90. Although teachers need to spend more time previewing and selecting authentic videos, Stempleski (1991) advocates for the use of authentic videos with high-beginning through advanced-level classes. First, because they present real language, which although it is not real in the sense of being unscripted, it is real because it is aimed at native speakers. Thus, it is ungraded and unsimplified, spoken at a normal pace and it is current, by making use of idioms and expressions common in contemporary English-speaking environments. Second, they provide an authentic look at the culture, by showing learners how people in English-speaking countries live, their values, customs, clothing, food, and interactions with one another. Moreover, authentic video materials can lead to follow-up activities, such as cross-cultural discussions and writing activities. Third, by implementing video-based media into teaching, students may become more effective and critical viewers, therefore they can become aware of how to transform their daily practice of watching TV into a learning experience. Finally, authentic videos can be a motivating source for EFL/ESL learners, as they feel they achieved their goal when they comprehend the material, especially spoken material, intended for native speakers. Accordingly, they can extend this classroom practice in their free time, so they can look for authentic material to watch on their own (Stempleski, 1991, pp. 9–10).

Nonetheless, these videos follow a script, which according to Chaume (2001) they do not contain completely authentic videos, but rather a 'prefabricated orality', given that in these texts 'the linguistic characteristics are not purely spontaneous oral language, because they recite the discourse previously written' (pp.78-79). Going back to the notion of authenticity and genuineness, Jensen & Vinther (1983) stress the fact that 'genuineness' is a much more important quality than 'authenticity'. Genuine language, in this context, is defined as language produced spontaneously by native actors in a situation invented by ourselves. If the term 'authentic' is used in the current sense of the word, then 'any piece of language would be authentic if aimed at native

ears' (p.131). This may refer to many instances of non-spontaneous language, such as plays, TV commercials and radio news, which are considered written language read aloud or rehearsed by actors that is prone to lose the quality of naturalness, hence serving no purpose for language learners.

Spontaneity, in authors' opinion, is of paramount importance as both the suprasegmental characteristics (i.e. intonation, pausation, pitch of voice) and the non-verbal features (i.e. gestures, gazes, body attitudes) are genuine in an utterance the first time it is performed. They claim that the second time the conversation takes place, the speaker tries to imitate his first performance and tries to incorporate director's recommendations, thus losing that natural and spontaneous effect (Jensen & Vinther, 1983, p. 131).

These views come in contrast with other researchers, who claim that there is much more similitude that it was considered so far between the cinema and TV audiovisual language and face-to-face dialogues (Forchini, 2009, 2012; Quaglio, 2009; Rodríguez Martín & Jaén, 2009; Rodríguez Martín, 2010). As regards the audiovisual dialogue in relation to second language acquisition, Pavesi (2012) states that the first aspect to evaluate is the degree of its adjustment with spontaneous speech or its naturalness. Thus, the crucial issue is whether the language of films and TV fiction is realistic enough to provide valuable input for language learning, or adequate data for the L2 learning of spontaneous spoken language (p.159).

Accordingly, several independent corpus-based investigations (Forchini, 2009, 2012; Quaglio, 2009; Rodríguez Martín & Jaén, 2009; Rodríguez Martín, 2010) addressed the issue of naturalness or genuineness, by comparing the language of films and TV fiction with large corpora of face-to-face conversation. The aim of positioning the role of spoken language in language teaching and learning is based on Carter & McCarthy (1997) and McCarthy (1998), who stress the need to teach conversational grammar along with standard English grammar, paying more emphasis on speech and less on writing.

Starting from the same emphasis on conversational language, the researchers sought to delve into the degree of spontaneity and naturalness of screen dialogue. In this context, naturalness is defined in relation to the variety of language which audiovisual dialogue is supposed to approximate the reality of language use. However, the aim was not to prove that screen dialogue is a per se representation of spontaneous conversation and it can be a direct substitute for face-to-face conversation, but rather it searched to identify the degree of similarity to spoken dialogues and the amount of characteristics and features the two registers have in common (Pavesi, 2012, p. 159).

Forchini (2009, 2012) carried out an empirical investigation of the linguistic features of American face-to-face and movie conversation, two areas that are claimed to differ in terms of spontaneity. The method of describing the linguistic characteristics of texts was based on Biber's (1988) Multi-Dimensional analysis approach and aimed at investigating to what extent face-to-face and movie conversation differ or resemble each other. An additional lexical element was researched, i.e. *you know*, which is very frequent in conversation and it is believed to be a vital element of spoken language.

Therefore, the study questioned the frequency of *you know* in movie language, by making use of empirical data from the Longman Spoken American Corpus and of the American Movie Corpus. The choice of using an American movie conversation corpus over an available spoken American English corpora was that no corpus provided appropriate material for American movie language analysis and the transcriptions of speech available and downloadable from the web differed considerably from what is actually said in the movies, therefore they were inappropriate for the investigation. The results indicate that the two conversational domains do not differ to a great extent and that according to the multi-dimensional analyses, both are informal, non-narrative, and situation-dependent and the features portraying them are present in the same quantity (Forchini, 2009, p. 23). Subsequently, since all these aspects are linked to spontaneous conversation (Biber, 1988), it can be stated that movie language contains a significant amount of spontaneity. As for the occurrence of *you know*, it has been revealed that it appears in both domains, following similar patterns, occurring more frequently in turn mid-position, less frequently in initial position, and rarely in final position. Other lexical patterns such as *come on, all right, no no, thank you* are present both in the movie and

spoken language corpus, reflecting the interpersonal character typical of conversation.

Another corpus-based investigation of particular interest for our current research is Quaglio's (2009) multidimensional analysis of the American sitcom *Friends*, which is the most comprehensive book-length lexico-grammatical study of fictional dialogue to date (Pavesi, 2012). On the grounds of the analysis of more than 100 morphosyntactic and lexical features, Quaglio (2009) compares the language of *Friends* with a subcorpus of American English conversation contained in the Longman Grammar Corpus. He reaches the conclusion that 'Friends' presents high frequencies of the vast majority of features typically used in natural conversation. He also reveals that the language of *Friends* is involved, interactive, and affective like face-to-face conversation as it exhibits a high frequency of key correlated features such as first and second person pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, present tenses, private verbs (e.g. think, feel), contractions, emphatics, and *that*-deletions.

Among other findings, Quaglio (2009) disclosed that vague language, such as hedges (e.g. *kind of*), nouns of vague reference (e.g. *stuff*) and vague coordination tags (e.g. *or something*) was more prevalent in natural conversation than in *Friends*. These vague devices have an important discourse function at different levels and permit speakers to speed up the communicative process as well as to share the construction of meaning (p.141). Emotional language, such as adverbial intensifiers (e.g. *so*), some expletives (e.g. *damn*), certain lexical bundles (e.g. *I can't believe...*), emphatic *do*, some slang terms (e.g. *freak out*) and some copular verbs (e.g. *look, feel, and sound*) were more frequent in *Friends* than in conversation. The exception includes the expletives *shit* and *fuck*, which are absent in *Friends* data due to restrictions imposed by television network (Quaglio, 2009, pp. 142–143).

A second phase of his study focused on a frequency-based comparison of a large number of linguistic features associated with informal language. Markers of informality referred to features, such as (e.g. *son of a bitch*), slang terms (e.g. *cool*) and some linguistic innovations (e.g. preposition 'in' in negative statements with present perfect followed by a time expression, for instance *I haven't seen you in ages*) appeared more frequently in *Friends* than in spoken conversation. The high frequency of informal

elements in the sitcom reflects the casual and intimate social relationship between the characters in the show, and thus portrays the language in the series as informal. Moreover, the discourse of *Friends* contains less past perfect tenses than conversation, which is perceived as a temporal marker and an element of narrativeness. Thus, conversation in *Friends* has the tendency to be predominantly characterized by discourse immediacy, focusing on immediate concerns and making use of first and second person pronouns, greetings and leave-takings (Quaglio, 2009, p. 146).

Another series of publications compared the language of another corpus of ten American films with the conversational section of the British National Corpus and their findings are in line with previous research, in the sense that several features usually present in spontaneous conversation are also found in audiovisual dialogues, although not to the same extent (Rodríguez Martín & Jaén, 2009; Rodríguez Martín, 2010). They compared the frequency lists of screen dialogue with two other lists from the spoken and written components of British National Corpus. The findings revealed that the language of Anglophone films is closer to spontaneous face-to-face spoken English than to written and the presence of spoken language in film dialogue has deeper implications than providing information on individual frequency counts. Similarly to spoken conversation, the frequency of personal pronouns indicate the significance of personal deixis and anaphora in film language, whereas the ample distribution of the response signal *yes* highlights the activation of turn-taking adjacency pairs, which are considered two basic organizational structures of dialogicity and co-construction of meaning in spontaneous interaction (Rodríguez Martín, 2010).

The abovementioned investigations are relevant for SLA/FLA purposes, given the noticeable appearance in audiovisual dialogue of characteristics of spontaneous spoken language, despite the fact that frequencies of individual items may differ between two language registers. The language of screen dialogue is not and is not intended to be an exact copy of spontaneous conversation, however the quantitative studies mentioned advocate that screen dialogue presents language which contains major morphosyntactic, lexical and discourse patterns that resemble to a great degree the spontaneous spoken input to which learners are likely to be exposed in real life.

Namely, the empirical research pinpoints that the language of contemporary audiovisual dialogue portrays a valuable quality input for SLA/FLA, since it recreates to a great extent what learners would encounter in a naturalistic environment, as non interacting participants in face-to-face conversations outside the language learning classroom (Pavesi, 2012, p. 163). Thus, the language present in movies can be perceived as a potential source for teaching and learning spoken language features (Forchini, 2009).

Although screen dialogue does not reproduce entirely the spontaneity and realism of spoken conversation, it is in fact this partial naturalness that benefits the educational context of L2, given its normalized, standardized and comprehensible authentic language, thanks to the few number of imprecisions, contractions, ambiguities that presents as a consequence of the lack of real and natural improvisation (Pavesi, 2012). Nevertheless, the relevance of these videos for FLL is the close imitation of communicative spontaneity and the type of interactions that disclose realistic enough input for L2/FL learners, as they were created by and for native speakers (Talaván, 2013). Moreover, by exposing students to these type of realistic language in class, they will have better chances to face the problems encountered in real communicative situations with native speakers.

Learners who have followed conventional language courses and who may have developed a considerable classroom competence find that when they come into contact with native speakers of the language, they meet serious problems of comprehension. They may be able to perform adequately themselves in speech, but they frequently cannot understand what native speakers say to them. [...] they are not accustomed to hearing the language as it is produced by native speakers for native speakers (Wilkins, 1976, p. 79 in Talaván, 2013, p. 43).

A still debatable topic is whether to use the authentic video with all language levels. According to Stempleski & Tomalin (1990), both the authentic and the educational video is able to add and improve the traditional audio materials at all levels. 'Video can be used at every level, both as supplementary material for language

reinforcement and skills practice (ideally once a week but at least once every two weeks) and as the main component of an intensive course or course module provided that suitable material is available' (p.4). However, there was always the tendency to reject the use of the authentic video at beginner level of L2. The most common negative beliefs are that at this level the video is rather harmful than beneficial, given the difficulties learners encounter trying to understand the speakers of the video, and this may lead to frustration and anxiety for the student.

Nevertheless, at beginner level the use of audio only materials (e.g. CDs or cassettes) require more concentration than the video, because there are no contextual elements in the audio only material that could help the viewer to grasp the meaning of the speech. In other words, the input of the video is cognitively less demanding than the use of audio only input (Talaván, 2013, p. 50). The use of feature films in the classroom has been controversial among teachers who have time and curriculum constraints. Too many teachers perceive movies as a method of 'entertainment' that it is not appropriate for classroom use, but rather as an outside of classroom assignment or as a class treat (King, 2002, p. 511). There are still preconceptions among both classroom teachers and scholars in the field of FLA/SLA concerning the feasibility and reliability of using videos and films in pedagogical settings. Thus, the benefits and possible drawbacks will be furthermore discussed, so as to have a sense of an unbiased view on the use of the video as a didactic tool in the language learning environment.

4.2.2 Advantages and limitations of the video in the classroom

One of the beneficial effects of the video in the L2 classroom is that 'it presents realistic *slices of life*, gets students into talking, provides visual support, and offers variety and entertainment' (Allan, 1985, p. 48). Thanks to the video, the student has the opportunity to learn words and expressions directly associated to the non verbal references (gestures, images, situations). In this way, the mind of the learner enriches by resorting to the referential interconnections between the visual and aural elements, increasing the chances of remembering and using afterwards the acquired language (Talaván, 2013, p. 51). The visual support is one the most promising factor offered by the authentic

audiovisual materials, given the contextualizing power of the visual elements. The visual stimulus of the video has the capacity of generating prediction, which facilitates an easier activation of prior knowledge, and that is exactly what helps learners to understand, obtain and produce the linguistic elements already heard (Talaván, 2013, pp. 51–52).

Films offer countless opportunities to develop pedagogically sound activities for enhancing fluency. The key to using films effectively relies mainly on teacher's capacity in preparing students to make the most out of videos and the message they transmit. Thus, many teachers proposed multi-purpose ideas to boost active viewing among students. Some teachers choose to make use of viewing sheets with multiple-choice questions to promote fluency, while others integrate film-response journals into lessons or use a whole-film approach based on a response-based engagement with opinions and ideas. Films are suitable to integrate project works, raise awareness and critical thinking among students, while at the same time, fostering collaborative group work (King, 2002, p. 511). Authentic target language video materials provide rich input environment and help learners to gain broad access to oral communication, both visually and auditorially. Rich and varied authentic oral input has been considered for almost twenty years, an essential and fundamental prerequisite for achieving oral competence. By making use of multimedia computers and digital videos, spoken language can be made more easily detectable and manipulated in order to meet the needs of the learners.

Therefore, with the help of a broad selection of tasks and tools, learners' attention can be focused on phonological, grammatical, lexical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic features of target language interactions (Tschirner, 2001, pp. 306–307). Another asset of visual texts is that they are contextualized, hence the lexical phrases can be clearly and completely processed and stored with their meaning and other features of the communicative situation, so they may eventually lead to native-like grammatical competencies (Tschirner, 2001, pp. 315–316). In other words, it is inferred that by exposing learners to complete contextualized communicative interactions, learners may acquire proficient grammatical structures of the target language implicitly.

Among the many and varied advantages of the use of video in educational settings, Talaván (2013) mentions the capacity of enriching new and old mental associations, favouring in this way long-term retention and an easier post reproduction of the linguistic expressions learnt in an authentic context (p.52). Likewise, she states the motivating and entertaining aspect of a video, also reinforced by Stempleski & Tomalin (1990), which lacks the audio materials. However, for mature and advanced learners, King (2002) claims that films should not be chosen only for their entertainment value, but rather to enhance classroom discussion, by recurring to thought-provoking films that exploit a wide range of fields and topics, such as medicine, education, science, history, marriage or justice (p.512). Additionally, being a complete contextualized tool, it helps learners to comprehend the language inside a real communicative context, together with its pragmatic and sociocultural characteristics (Lonergan, 1984; Tschirner, 2001).

A fundamental aid of the video is that it carries a variety of registers (e.g. formal, informal, neutral, vulgar) with less dense information than the written register (Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990) and it incorporates elements that do not usually appear in textbooks, such as idioms, colloquial expressions, slang, which are vital in order to communicate meaningfully in the target language (King, 2002; Talaván, 2013). The flexibility of video as a teaching and learning tool highlights its multiple and diverse pedagogic goals, because it can be reproduced several times, depending on the exact aim of the learning session (Tomalin, 1986). Finally, the video fosters transferable skills, reaching a deeper and more critical thinking of the multimedia programs used to reproduce the activity. Hence, it provides access to linguistic registers and brings messages from other channels, such as television or cinema into the L2/FL environment, which may motivate learners to look for similar materials on their own spare time (Talaván, 2013, pp. 52–53).

In spite of its numerous advantages, there are certain limitations which should be considered when using a video in the classroom. In what follows, the main limitations of video will be presented. First, there are a few systematic studies and research in relation to the beneficial aspects of the video, which means it cannot be affirmed there is a fully reliable proof of the effectiveness of this aid. Some teachers had negative

experiences with the use of video in the classroom, therefore it has been created a myth around this topic, considering that using video in educational settings is a waste of time (Flórez, 2004). This prejudice is due to the passive way teachers used the tool in the past, without exploiting it appropriately in the classroom. Additionally, the use of videos may involve limitations in terms of copy rights to use the original videos in the classroom.

Nevertheless, for pedagogic purposes the regulations are less harsh, as it is stated in the report of the European Parliament (2001), which states that using fragments of videos in the classroom does not need approval of copy rights from author's side. Among other drawbacks, the authentic video contains at times unnecessary language or complex linguistic elements that can put in danger the development of the task. Notwithstanding, students are usually capable of filtering less accessible communicative encounters that are present in these types of authentic texts. Moreover, students should be made aware that it is reasonable not to understand every single word they hear, as they are going through a learning process (Talaván, 2013, pp. 53–54).

The issue of film difficulty is raised by King (2002), who attests that if a film is too challenging to understand can lead to frustration among learners or they may end up confused, depressed and convinced they will not get to understand 'real' English. Thus, from a motivating and stimulating tool it can easily convert into a frustrating experience for learners (p.514). In this sense, it is of paramount importance to consider the content and the comfort level of students when choosing a video material for classroom use. Similarly, culture and age appropriateness are factors that should be considered, as well as suitability for both genders, in order to keep both males and females equally interested in the plot of the video (pp. 514-515).

Despite possible limitations encountered while using authentic audiovisual materials, we cannot deny that learners can confront more effectively the real world outside the classroom by being exposed to spontaneous discourses in realistic communicative situations. The CEFR mentions as well, the use of video as one of the strategies and receptive activities that could be adopted in the L2 class. Apart from the oral comprehension and reading and visual comprehension, this tool focuses on an

additional receptive activity, i.e. audiovisual comprehension (Talaván, 2013, p. 54). As such, the learner receives simultaneously visual and aural information in various situations, such as watching TV, video, a film with subtitles or new technologies, such as multi-media, DVDs, Blue-Ray (Council of Europe, 2001).

At last, the audiovisual aids and the video as part of ICT enrich the effectiveness of learning, given the multisensorial components offered to the individual. Therefore, we are learning more efficiently by being exposed to audiovisual texts, especially in the case of long-term retention. Information from working memory is transferred to long-term memory if the input we receive is accessed both visually and aurally. In this sense, the following excerpt is revealing and supporting the above assumption.

We learn 1% with the taste, 1,5 with the touch, 3,5 with the smell, 11% through the hearing and 83% through the sight. Our capacity of assimilation and retention is the following: 10% out of what is read, 20% out of what is heard, 30% of what you see, 50% of what is seen and heard, 70% of what is said and discussed, and 90% of what is said and afterwards done. According to the empirical studies, after 4 days the information that has been stored is : 10% learnt only orally, 20% only visually and 65% audio visually (Ruipérez, 2003, p. 28).

In what follows, we will expand the topic by adding an extra element to the visual and aural features of the video, i.e. the written one in the form of subtitles (interlingual and intralingual). The facilitating role of subtitles combined with the presence of authentic input from videos and audiovisual materials is believed to enhance SL/FL learning process and to promote vocabulary acquisition in the target language. This aspect has been thoroughly investigated over the years by numerous researchers coming from various fields, SLA/FLA, Audiovisual Translation (AVT), psycholinguistics, and educational research. We will also provide an outline of the most promising and influencing studies that consecrated the use of subtitled videos as language learning tools and its pedagogical implications.

4.3 Audiovisual Translation (AVT): Subtitles as Language Learning Support

Due to the omnipresence of media in nowadays lives, together with the increasing access to TV, cinema, DVD, and the Internet, audiovisual translation (AVT) has reached a well-deserved importance as a sub-discipline in the field of translation studies (TS) (Anderman & Díaz-Cintas, 2009). In recent years, there has been an increasing research interest in the field of AVT in connection to English language acquisition and teaching/learning foreign languages. AVT is also considered 'a valuable asset addressing the need for multilingual and multicultural communication' (Gambier, 2006, p. 5), which reinforces European Commission's approach (2005) to developing multilingualism, promoting language learning, linguistic diversity and multilingual economy.

Subtitling in the form of intralingual subtitles (within the same language) and interlingual subtitles (from one language to another) can be considered a powerful training and teaching tool in the foreign language learning class. The interest among researchers exploiting both intralingual and interlingual subtitles led to numerous studies which accounted for their benefits upon several language skills, such as vocabulary recall and acquisition, listening comprehension, reading and pronunciation skills, and even grammar competences, although to a less extent (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1989; D'Ydewalle, Praet, Verfaillie, & Rensbergen, 1991; D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Danan, 1992, 2004; Garza, 1991; L. M. Incalcaterra & Lertola, 2011; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Kuppens, 2010; Lertola, 2012; Talaván, 2007, 2010, 2011, 2013; Van Lommel, Laenen, & d'Ydewalle, 2006; Vanderplank, 1988; Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010, 2013). However, the empirical research regarding the added value of subtitles to the classroom in relation to informal and colloquial language teaching and learning has been scarcely investigated.

4.3.1 Subtitling vs. Dubbing

Generally speaking, audiovisual products, especially television series and films, are a powerful means of transmitting values, ideas and information. As such, choosing the procedure to translate the audiovisual material will have a considerable impact upon people's perceptions of the source culture on the target one (Szarkowska, 2005). Therefore, it seems reasonable to point out the main differences between subtitling and dubbing (the main procedures of audiovisual translation) and their effect upon the understanding of the material and their possible contributions to language learning. First, we should define the two terms and focus on the differences between them, before analyzing the implications of one over the other.

Dubbing refers to the replacement of a soundtrack for a new one, with a different language than the original. Subtitling, on the other hand, means that a text is shown together with the visual material, usually at the bottom of the screen. The language used can be the same as in the soundtrack (i.e. captions or intralingual subtitles), or a different one (i.e. standard or interlingual subtitles) (Borell, 2000, p. 4). The aim of dubbing and subtitling is to make the audiovisual material available to a broad group of people and they are based on a translation of the original language into a new one. The extent of usage differs between different countries and the target groups, as in some countries dubbing is the main method of film translation used, while in other countries they prefer subtitling as the main choice.

The main countries that prefer subtitling over dubbing are: Belgium (Flemish part), Cyprus, Croatia, Denmark, Slovenia, Finland, Greece, Iceland, Israel, Luxembourg, Norway, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and Sweden¹². On the other hand, the dubbing countries are: Germany, Austria, Spain, France, Italy, Belgium (French part), Switzerland. Some other countries less developed, such as: Bulgaria, Slovakia, Hungary, Turkey and Czech Republic prefer the practice of dubbing over

¹² Australia, Canada, United States, Ireland, New Zealand and United Kingdom are subtitling countries as well, however, because they are English-speaking countries and the majority of the audiovisual material is presented in English, the practice of interlingual subtitling is not very common.

subtitling, despite its high cost¹³. Poland and Russia prefer the practice of voice-over, although Poland makes use of subtitles in the cinema and dubbing for children programs (Almeida & Costa, 2014; Koolstra, Peeters, & Spinhof, 2002; Talaván, 2013, p. 62).

Among the factors that may influence the choice of one method of film translation over the other, the economical, political, cultural and ideological aspects stand out. The financial issue is extremely important for distributors, as they need to keep in mind the audience preferences in order to obtain the top benefits, for instance they need to take into consideration that the audience used to listening to dubbed versions of the movies and television programs do not possess the skills to read the subtitles, and therefore may perceive them as disturbing and annoying. Likewise, the countries that favour dubbing over subtitling support the solid industry of dubbing, as it offers jobs to many people and this is a vital factor that is taken into account (Talaván, 2013, p. 63).

As for the political restrictions, it is worth mentioning that dubbing was used in the past as a method of censorship, as most of the great dictatorships of the 20th century (Germany, Spain, Italy) used this method of AVT as means of controlling the information that was presented to the people and that may had been against the regime. In Spain, there were mainly historical-political reasons that led to the adoption of dubbing as a form of AVT, given the regulations imposed by the Ministry of Industry and Trade in 1941, which prohibited any projections of films in a different language other than Spanish, that had to be dubbed previously in Spanish studios. Although, in 1946 with the fall of the European fascism, Spain opened up to other forms of AVT, such as subtitling. However, movie distributors preferred to continue providing dubbed movies, hence it was obvious that the financial aspects had priority in the already developed industry of dubbing (Díaz Cintas, 2001).

¹³ Nevertheless, Macedonia, Serbia, Kosovo, Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina usually use subtitling, mainly because of financial reasons.

The cultural and ideological factors are rooted into what is called the cultural *domestication* and *foreignisation* (Venuti, 1995). The domestication and foreignisation are two opposite translation concepts, and while the first one seeks to get as closer as possible to the translated text and sound as natural as possible in the target language, the second notion refers to the introduction of elements from the source language into the translation. Thus, dubbing would correspond to domestication, having the tendency to neutralize the elements of the source text and favouring aspects of the target culture. In Spain, the domestication got to the extreme point of introducing famous names of singers and sportsmen into American and British television sitcoms and cartoons (Talaván, 2013, p. 64). Subtitling, on the other hand, belongs to foreignisation, as it emphasizes the foreigner naturalness of the audiovisual product and its translation with the source culture (Szarkowska, 2005).

Luckily the two methods of AVT are not so strongly grounded in each country as it may seem. As it has been highlighted by the European Commission (2011), the industry of television and digital broadcasting is begging to change the audiovisual environment in various countries. Thus, TV viewers nowadays are able to access TV films and programmes in original versions with subtitles as an alternative to dubbed versions, or even to subtitles in a language other than the main language of broadcast (Almeida & Costa, 2014, p. 1235). In Spain, there is a growing interest among the young population to watch subtitled videos and films in order to improve their language skills. Moreover, with the easy access to websites such as YouTube or GoogleVideo, which provide films in original version with subtitles and the increasing multiculturalism of the society, it has been noticed an emerging wish among people to watch subtitled audiovisual materials, especially that they do not need to wait for the episodes to be released on national TV, so they can watch it beforehand on the Internet in original version and subtitled (Talaván, 2013, pp. 64–65).

An argument against subtitling and in favour of dubbing could be that the first could deteriorate the understanding of the material, when one has to constantly switch attention from the action and towards the subtitles (Borell, 2000, p. 3). Thus, one might wonder if subtitling could exercise a negative influence upon the understanding and perception of audiovisual materials such as movies and TV programs. Several

researchers carried out eye-tracking studies in order to spot how learners respond to reading the subtitles and watching the film at the same time (Bisson, Van Heuven, Conklin, & Tunney, 2014; Borell, 2000; D'Ydewalle & Gielen, 1992; Perego, Del Missier, Porta, & Mosconi, 2010). The findings reveal that reading the subtitles do not have a negative influence on the actual understanding of the material and that on the contrary, the use of subtitles contribute to an increase understanding of languages. More details about how learners process the subtitles and their effect upon language learning and retention will be developed in the following sections.

As for the effect of dubbed films versus subtitled ones, Borell (2000) carried out a study with seventeen subjects who watched the initial 28 minutes of the French movie *Asterix and Obelix vs. Cesar* half in French with Swedish subtitles and half of them watched the same movie dubbed in Swedish. He investigated the amount of time spent reading the subtitles with eye-gaze measurements in order to extrapolate the benefits and disadvantages of subtitling versus dubbing. The results disclosed that less than 5% of the time was devoted to reading the subtitles, and therefore it can be inferred that this does not harm the comprehension of the material. On the contrary, the author points out the positive effects of the use of subtitles and that people who perceive them as distracting and annoying may not have the habit of doing it on a regular basis (Borell, 2000, pp. 4–5). Moreover, dubbing can often entail that the facial expressions and the movement of the lips of the original actors do not correspond to the sounds of the dubbed version, as there are many phonetic and lexical differences between the two sources, which cannot be tuned in entirely (Borell, 2000; Koolstra et al., 2002).

Moreover, there is a common belief in both dubbing and subtitling countries that their own approach is the best (Koolstra et al., 2002; Spinhof & Peeters, 1999). The choice to dub foreign television programs and movies is defended with the argument that dubbed programs are more appealing and are easier to follow because viewers do not have to read while watching (Koolstra et al., 2002). However, other studies based on television spectators disapprove the idea that viewers prefer not to read the subtitles. The findings led to the conclusion that in countries where subtitling is the norm, people prefer subtitles and do not consider them as a problem, except for slower readers, such as children and older people (Danan, 1991; Koolstra et al., 2002). On the other hand, in

countries where dubbing is prevailing, people prefer this transfer language technique. Accordingly, people's preferences seem to be influenced by tradition rather than by economic and aesthetic reason and they prefer the method they were originally exposed to and have been used to (Almeida & Costa, 2014, p. 1236).

Having analyzed the elements of both sources of AVT, it can be acknowledged that subtitling will become the main protagonist in the future, given its reduced costs of production in comparison to dubbing (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999). Producing a subtitled material is also a lot more quicker than producing a dubbed one and it requires less people to fulfill the task. Accordingly, wealthier countries, such as France, Germany, Italy, Spain and Austria will gradually accustom their viewers to watch more and more subtitled programmes. Nowadays, the access to resourceful tools such as the DVD, the Internet and video webs, foster the use of subtitling as a means of AVT, due to its practical advantages (reduced number of people involved in the production of subtitled audiovisuals, reduced space and time), but also reduced financial costs (Talaván, 2013, p. 66). If subtitled audiovisuals continue to prevail over the dubbed ones, this can only benefit language learning, as the choice of one option over the other in different countries in Europe seems to influence population's foreign language competence. The implications of either subtitling or dubbing in Europe for foreign language learning will be described and discussed in the upcoming section.

4.3.2 Subtitles-an added value to language teaching and learning

In most countries, films, TV programmes, documentaries, DVDs and various audiovisual products delivered by the digital market are most common types of entertainment among people (Caimi, 2013). The contribution of subtitled movies and television programs to the learning of foreign languages is undeniable, considering the following aspects. First, subtitled television programmes offer a rich context for foreign language acquisition, as the information is presented via several means: visual images, spoken in the foreign language and in the subtitles in one's own language or the target language.

The three channels seek to complement each other, leading to better comprehension of the message(s) presented in the video, and consequently to understanding the meaning of new words and expressions. Secondly, the motivation in understanding what is shown and spoken is enhanced by presenting the information via several means (Almeida & Costa, 2014, pp. 1236–1237). Finally, if we refer to learning English, people usually have a positive attitude towards it, as it is appreciated for international contacts and in particular young people see English as a 'cool' language, because is the language of most popular films and music (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999).

Watching subtitled programmes may generate different types of language acquisition. Therefore, in addition to word meaning, learners may acquire the meaning of expressions or standard sentences and constructions, and in which situations they can be used. Pronunciation of certain words and sounds may be improved as well or even the ability to make distinction between different accents (British vs. American). The ability to construct correct sentences and distinguish between informal and colloquial connotations in spoken language, such as slang or aristocratic are some of the capacities that students may develop when exposed to subtitled audiovisual aids (Almeida & Costa, 2014; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999).

A series of research studies have been conducted in the 90s, which measured FLA after watching television with subtitles in non-instructional settings (G D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1992; Géry D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997; Géry D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999). They reached the conclusion that adult and adolescent students are prone to learn foreign language words in informal settings by being exposed to subtitled television, however the learning is more efficient when the foreign language sounds familiar to the viewer. Another study that involved young children (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999) revealed that vocabulary acquisition of the foreign language is stimulated by watching subtitled television programmes, however they raise the question of how much of a foreign language children must know before they are capable of acquiring new elements of the foreign language (p.59). It should be mentioned that the experiment took place in the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium, where children are exposed to

subtitled programmes and television since an early age, therefore implicit learning is inferred to take place before children go to school.

Several European projects analyzed the level of foreign languages among the European population in various countries. A survey entitled *Europeans and their Languages* (European Commission, 2006) was carried out in 29 European countries and aimed at finding out the level of foreign language competence, their preferences in terms of subtitling versus dubbing and the amount of foreign languages people spoke apart from their mother tongue. The results disclosed that the majority of Europeans interviewed are able to hold a conversation in a language other than their mother tongue (56%) and 28% state that they master two languages along with their native language. Only 11% mentioned that they are able to speak three languages apart from their mother tongue and a substantial share of 44% of Europeans admit that they do not master any other language, apart from their native one (European Commission, 2006, p. 8).

Another aspect of interest is the focus on the interviewees' preferences (either dubbed or subtitled television films and programmes). Therefore, the results to the statement *I prefer to watch foreign films and programmes with subtitles, rather than dubbed* showed differences according to type of AVT (either subtitling or dubbing) in the country was adopted. Thus, the interviewees in the traditional dubbing countries were skeptical to the use of subtitles, as they are not used to this method of AVT, and normally they tend to reject this option. Nonetheless, the tendency is opposite in the subtitling countries, in which viewers are a lot more open to this type of audiovisual translation, affirming that they prefer to watch the foreign films with subtitles and not dubbed (European Commission, 2006).

Comparing the results of the 2006 survey with the recent one, carried out in 2012 (European Commission, 2012a), there are apparent differences between the levels of linguistic competence among the different European countries and they seem to be grouped according to the predominant method of AVT. Therefore, in the recent survey *Europeans and their Languages* (European Commission, 2012a) discloses that in the subtitling countries people possess a higher proficiency level of foreign languages than

in the dubbing countries. These findings are in line with Koolstra's et al. (2002) study, in which they state that 25% of the primary pupils in Holland learn more English from listening to the radio and watching the TV than at their own schools. These facts had already been confirmed by other scholars that investigated the same issue (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997; Díaz Cintas, 2003). These results encourage the promotion of subtitled programmes and films in educational settings, especially in the traditional dubbing countries.

As for the case of Spain, 65% of the Spanish interviewees admitted they are not capable of speaking, writing or reading in English. It is obvious that one of the historical brick walls to promote English in Spain is the television and the cinema that rarely release films in original version. This assumption is undeniable if we compare the English level of Spanish speakers with people from countries such as Sweden or Denmark, who watch subtitled TV films in original version. As it has been showed in the 2012 survey (European Commission, 2012a), the population in the northern countries are proficient users of an L2, which in most of the cases is English, as an international *lingua franca* (Talaván, 2013, p. 69).

Another European Survey on Language Competences (ESLC) (European Commission, 2012b) measured the foreign language proficiency of approximately 54000 secondary education students across 16 educational systems. A multivariate analysis was carried out in order to reveal the school internal and external factors of language learning (Araújo & Costa, 2013). The results showed that there is a positive relationship between FL proficiency and the exposure of students to foreign languages through traditional and new media. They also revealed that the chances of moving from the lowest level of proficiency to an intermediate level is more dependent on watching movies in the original version with subtitles in the mother tongue, but with little impact in students' achievement. Making progress from the intermediate level to the highest level of proficiency is more dependent on watching movies in the original version without subtitles (Almeida & Costa, 2014, p. 1237). The results of the ELLiE study (Enever, 2011), of the ESLC (Araújo & Costa, 2013) and of the study conducted by Kuppens

(2010) coincide with the fact that watching non-subtitled movies requires a certain language proficiency.

The Study on the use of subtitling is another European project (Media Consulting Group, 2011), which involved 150 people (divided into three age groups: 12 to 18; 18 to 25; adults over 25) in 33 countries, that investigated to what extent the use of subtitles influence L2/FL learning and how useful European citizens find this practice of AVT as part of their educational training. The study concluded that subtitling helps to improve the mastery of foreign languages, it can raise awareness and provide motivation for language learning, in both formal and informal contexts, and contributes to creating an environment that encourages multilingualism. Moreover, citizens who know foreign languages and have university studies prefer subtitling over dubbing as a method of AVT. In general, the European citizens consider subtitling a useful tool to enhance their knowledge of foreign languages, especially in the case of 18-25 and over 25 years old group. The people surveyed also showed interest in watching films in the original language with subtitles if these were broadcasted by television channels. Thus, the availability of such programmes can complement an encouraging environment for the use of subtitling as a educational tool for language learning (Media Consulting Group, 2011, p. 18)

The aforementioned studies stand as proof of the added value of the use of subtitles as a didactic tool in both formal and informal settings. Given the recent research on foreign language proficiency and the interest in the significance of successful learning strategies, the optimal use of subtitles can lead to an active processing of information (Almeida & Costa, 2014). Learning is described as a 'process of successive approximation', which consists of creating and testing hypotheses (Danan, 2004). Thus, guessing, inference, metacognitive questioning, and confirmation of meaning are essential cognitive competences in the learning process. These cognitive skills can be developed both in educational and informal environments through the use of subtitles.

So far, we tackled the issue of subtitling as a general term, as part of AVT, but there are several combinations of text and sound possible, which account for their

relevance upon foreign language learning. The different types of subtitles may influence to a higher or lower degree L2/FL acquisition and the developing of a range of language skills, such as listening comprehension, pronunciation, spoken production, vocabulary retention and recall and grammar acquisition.

There are four possible combinations of sound and text, as follows: standard subtitles, also known as interlingual subtitles (foreign language audio with mother tongue subtitles); reversed subtitles (mother tongue audio with foreign language subtitles); bimodal subtitles, also called intralingual subtitles or captions (foreign language audio and foreign language subtitles) and subtitles for the deaf and hard-of-hearing (SDH), also known as closed-captions or bimodal subtitles. The latter are a special form of subtitling, as they offer paralinguistic information contained in the soundtrack for deaf and hard-of-hearing people. This type of subtitles have been researched in FL/SL learning field in relation to reading fluency, metalinguistic knowledge, the ability of immigrants to read and listen at the same time (Talaván, 2010), motivation and oral comprehension improvement in intermediate students (Huang & Eskey, 1999). Studies investigating the advantages of reverse subtitling, concluded that it is useful when working on second language skills in general (Lambert et al., 1981), for enhancing comprehension and vocabulary acquisition (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997).

Danan (1992) also studied the role of reversed subtitling in language learning and she concluded that for beginners and low intermediate learners, reversed subtitles are more beneficial than bimodal input condition, which is more appropriate at intermediate and advanced levels. Recently, Talaván & Rodríguez-Arancón (2014) investigated the potential pedagogical benefits of reversed subtitling in foreign language acquisition. Their findings revealed that writing and translation skills can be fostered with the use of reversed subtitling in an online collaborative learning framework. Although reversed subtitling proved to have beneficial effects upon language acquisition and stimulation of language skills, it is not a common practice and it does not present a realistic situation for a non-native language learner. NNS need to have contact with

authentic and realistic activities that stimulate interaction and present pragmatic and meaningful language learning situational contexts.

Therefore, the focus of this investigation is on the effects of interlingual and intralingual subtitles as language learning support in the L2/FL classroom. Both interlingual and intralingual subtitles have been investigated broadly and their benefits upon FLL have been confirmed by various researchers (Araújo, 2008; Garza, 1991; W. E. Lambert & Holobow, 1984; Pavakanun & D'Ydewalle, 1992; Vanderplank, 1988). In what follows, I will review the most relevant research studies and projects carried out on the basis of interlingual (standard, learners' L1) and intralingual (captions, learners' L2/FL) subtitles as language learning enhancement tools.

4.3.3 Interlingual/Standard subtitles

Interlingual subtitling is referred to as 'diagonal', in that the viewer changes mode and language, by moving from spoken text in one language to written text in another (Bravo, 2008, p. 70). The use of interlingual (standard) subtitles as language learning tools has caught the attention of several researchers who investigated their benefits for both children and adults in formal and informal contexts (Araújo, 2008; Bravo, 2008, 2010; D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1989, 1997; D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Danan, 2004; Incalcaterra & Lertola, 2011; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Lertola, 2012; Pavesi & Perego, 2008; Talaván, 2007, 2010, 2011, 2013).

The boosting effect of the interlingual subtitles upon foreign-language skills over a long-term perspective was highlighted by the European projects abovementioned, as well, given the fact that people in European subtitling communities showed the tendency of being more fluent in English, even without being formally taught the language, than people living in dubbing countries (European Commission, 2011, 2012a; Media Consulting Group, 2011, p. 26). Additionally, Vanderplank (1988) mentions that many people in countries like Finland and Denmark, where most foreign programmes are subtitled, have a better knowledge in English by watching subtitled American films, series, sitcoms into their mother tongue on television.

D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel (1999) investigated whether viewing subtitled programs increased comprehension and knowledge of a SL among young children and adults. They claimed that pictorial information may also help in the understanding of the two available languages. Their findings disclosed that children acquired more vocabulary when the foreign language was in the audio whereas adults learnt best from reverse subtitling (foreign language in the subtitles and native language in the audio). They also mention that for adults more new words are acquired when presented visually rather than auditorially. The results of their study support and make reference to Mayer's (2009) multimedia learning theory. In the case of bilingual situations, students rely on two separate verbal systems related by associative connections. However, in the case of subtitled visual input, there are three independent systems interconnected through triple associations between image, sound in one language, and text in another. Hence, this may lead to better processing and recall because of the additive effects of both image and translation.

Additionally, Koolstra & Beentjes (1999) investigated whether the use of a subtitled TV programme would foster English words learning among Dutch students in Grade 4 and 6. They found that Dutch elementary school children can incidentally acquire vocabulary in foreign language through watching subtitled programmes. Moreover, reading the subtitles enlarged their development of decoding skills, as reading offers practice in decoding words and more importantly the meaning of expressions and standard sentences and the appropriate context for using them (p.53). The aid of subtitles is considered to help improvement in the ability to discern separate words from the flow of spoken language and also build on word pronunciation and proficiency in constructing correct sentences. In this way, words are not being learnt, but rather the learner is trying to take in the meaning of what is being said or written, hence the learning process takes place in a meaningful context (Bravo, 2008, p. 83).

On the grounds of the above results, it is inferred that advanced acquisition of a SL takes place when the input and process of learning are implicit, thus leading to language retention. Thus, incidental learning¹⁴ through the use of pictures is believed to be very effective. A distinction between incidental and intentional language acquisition should be made at this stage. One approach to distinguish them is by looking at the circumstances in which they occur. Intentional learning is associated with formal, classroom based environment as opposed to intentional learning which takes place outside the formal institution of learning and people are believed to unconsciously acquire it (Pemberton, Fallahkhair, & Masthoff, 2004). Thus incidental learning is stated to be a by-product of the classroom focus, however without learning being the specific focus of attention in a classroom context (Gass, 1999). According to Pavesi & Perego (2008), incidental or implicit learning offers a variety of advantages as it is more robust and lasting than intentional or explicit learning. Incidental learning is likely to be age-independent, working equally well for children and for adults (Van de Poel & D'Ydewalle, 2001).

Incidental and intentional language acquisition are believed to be very different processes if we consider the object of focus of the learner's attention (meaning vs. form), the amount of exposure needed (more vs. less) or the degree of teacher's supervision and feedback (Gass, 1999; Restrepo Ramos, 2015). However, teachers could bridge the gap between the two practices by using excerpts of media, films, sitcoms and TV programs inside the classroom, hence constructing a meaningful platform for pupils' contact with English inside and outside the classroom (Kuppens, 2010, p. 80).

Standard or interlingual subtitles have been found to be helpful for both children and adults in both formal and informal learning settings (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1996; Danan, 2004; Van de Poel & D'Ydewalle, 2001). For instance, D'Ydewalle and Pavakanun (1996) showed that even a few minutes of foreign language exposure are sufficient to improve learners' L2 comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. The role of standard subtitles has been investigated in relation to several language skills. First,

¹⁴ Further reading about incidental language acquisition and its characteristics can be found in Restrepo Ramos' literature review (2015) and Gass' discussion (1999).

they are considered to foster vocabulary learning and L2 comprehension (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1992; Talaván, 2007). As for their effect upon morphology and syntax learning, the results have not been encouraging so far, hence learners may need longer exposure to the L2/FL than the usual testing conditions allow in order to perceive substantial changes in their learning (Pavesi & Perego, 2008). Interlingual subtitles are considered relevant mainly for 'less skilled learners' (Danan, 2004, p. 74), however they may also assist more advanced learners and to deepen the cognitive effort in language processing, hence developing SL/FL learning (Pavesi, 2002).

During exposure to original versions of films and TV programmes with interlingual subtitles, the viewers find themselves in a rich perceptual situation, since they are simultaneously exposed to multiple and semiotically different stimuli (Pavesi & Perego, 2008, p. 221). These contain three independent systems of information channels: images, soundtrack in one language and written text in another, which need to be interconnected through triple associations (D'Ydewalle & Rensbergen, 1989; Danan, 2004). Thus, if learners are familiar to both languages in the soundtrack and the subtitles, a considerable amount of the FL is more likely to be processed. In order to become an incidental learner, each information channel is expected to provide comprehensible input, hence the written input in the form of subtitles should be comprehensible, too in order to 'allow the learner to concentrate on the aural stimulus, comprehend it and parse it for understanding' (Pavesi & Perego, 2008, p. 221). As such, standard subtitles are given credit for offering multiple opportunities for spontaneous SLA/FLA, especially when it is meant for beginners in the original language of the audiovisual product

In relation to how proficient students need to be in order to benefit from interlingual subtitles, Danan (1992) examined how subtitled programmes increased foreign language learning by comparing beginners and intermediate French college students by assessing their results in three conditions: French audio only, standard subtitles in English and reversed subtitles (English soundtrack with French subtitles). The most beneficial condition resulted to be the reversed one and the possible explanation for this result could be that without the help of translation, beginners are

unable to benefit from the contextual cues when they read a foreign language text (p.503). They are also believed to struggle to use discourse, have difficulty recognizing semantic information in the immediate context and they need to rely on morphological and syntactic cues. L2 beginners need to make use of rigid grammar rules in order to decode the meanings present in the audiovisual aids. Reversed subtitles offer something that standard subtitles lack, and i.e. contextual information in the audio channel and it facilitates encoding and a connection between the two languages (Danan, 1992, p. 503). However, in her study Danan (1992) used a 5-minute video extract to expose learners to the three method involving subtitles, thus results on a long-term and with more exposure time to subtitled audiovisuals could lead to different outcomes.

Recently, apart from the use of subtitles as language learning support in the classroom, the practice of subtitling as an active learning and collaborative task in educational settings has been exploited by several researchers (Incalcaterra, Biscio, & Ní Mhainnín, 2011; Incalcaterra & Lertola, 2011; Incalcaterra, 2009; Lertola, 2012; Talaván, 2010, 2011, 2013). The combination of subtitles as a support and the production of subtitles of authentic video is a quite innovative idea with encouraging benefits for FLA. In this sense, Talaván (2010) claims that the active production of subtitles can help students to achieve a better comprehension of the oral input, since they need to understand the communicative messages in order to subtitle a certain scene, and not only the words and the grammar rules. Another advantage could be the use of translation as a pedagogical tool, as this practice encourages students to focus on meaning and on form simultaneously, helping them to pay attention to non-equivalences in terms of form and use (p.289).

Another study conducted at National University of Ireland in Galway with beginner, intermediate and advance learners of Italian as a foreign language investigated to what extent the creation of interlingual subtitles enhanced learners' intercultural, pragmatic awareness and translation skills (Incalcaterra, 2009). Subtitling is considered a great benefit in the context of communicative language courses, as it supports 'a holistic approach to learning through the combination and coordination of sight, hearing and tact' (Incalcaterra, 2009, p. 227). The findings revealed that the

creation of interlingual subtitles at beginner and intermediate level reinforces contrastive awareness and retention because of the amount of processing required and because it involves both the visual and the verbal codes, as defined in Paivio's (1986) dual coding theory. At advanced level, the effect of this type of task influences learners' capacity of contrasting between the ST and the TT, leading to 'contrastive knowledge' (Bell, 1991, p.36) and 'contrastive analysis' (Faber, 1998, p.9) cited in (Incalcaterra, 2009, pp. 227–228).

Lertola (2012) investigated the development of subtitling in the foreign language class by focusing on the effects of the subtitling task on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Thus, the quasi-experimental study involved 16 students studying Italian as a foreign language at the National University of Ireland, Galway. An experimental group, (the subtitling practice) and a control group (oral comprehension and writing tasks) were formed in order to measure participants' results. The results of the study show that both conditions (subtitling and non-subtitling) result in an improvement in learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition. However, the subtitling condition leads to a more significant L2 incidental vocabulary acquisition compared to the non-subtitling one. Hence, this research supports the results obtained in recent studies on the use of the practice of subtitling as an effective pedagogical tool in the FL class.

The benefits of integrating audiovisual translation modes in FLL have been discussed thoroughly in the collective volume of Incalcaterra et al. (2011), especially in the case of subtitling. Thus, a theoretical framework for using film subtitling in FL classes and a detailed structure to be integrated in FL syllabus was proposed by Incalcaterra & Lertola (2011). The task of creating subtitling in FL classes is considered to facilitate 'mnemonic retention and language awareness, to keep the learners motivated, to maintain them innovative and fun, as well as promoting learner's autonomy' (pp. 243-244). Moreover, several software programmes, web platforms and educational materials based on video subtitling have been designed, too.

LeViS-Learning via Subtiling¹⁵ (2006-2008) is a tool that has been designed for the creation of active learning task-based activities, where cultural elements are involved in an authentic and motivating way and which expose FL learners to highly contextualized language input¹⁶.

Its follow-up European funded project ClipFlair (2011-2014)¹⁷, was aimed at designing easily accessible online platform to learn a foreign language through revoicing (e.g. dubbing) and captioning (e.g. subtitling)¹⁸.

To sum, the benefits of the use of intralingual subtitles both as a support and as a task are undeniable, considering the bulk of research has been conducted so far. However, there is a lack of research studies that investigated the role of intralingual subtitles upon colloquial language learning. Thus, we chose to use intralingual subtitles as a didactic tool and as one of the independent variables in Study 1 and 2 (see chapter 5) in order to look at its implications upon this aspect of vocabulary acquisition.

4.3.4 Intralingual subtitles/Captions

After having looked into the depths of interlingual subtitles as language learning tools, I will outline the main studies that consider the use of intralingual subtitles as a means of enhancing FL skills. Intralingual subtitles (learners' L2/FL) are referred to as 'vertical', in that the viewer changes mode, from speech to writing, but not language. They were initially used for domestic programs for the deaf and hard-of-hearing (DHH), but also on foreign-language programs for language learners (Bravo, 2008, p. 69). Closed-captions,

¹⁵ <http://levis.cti.gr/>; LeViS Project (2006-2008) is a tool developed by the Laboratory of Educational Material of the Hellenic Open University, based on the simulation of a film subtitling professional activity. The project ended in 2008 and ClipFlair is the follow-up project that supports revoicing and captioning.

¹⁶ See Sokoli (2006), Sokoli, Zabalbeascoa, & Fountana (2011) for further details about the project.

¹⁷ www.clipflair.net; Clip Flair (2011-2014), a European funded project is a web platform, part of the Lifelong Learning Programme, that promotes foreign language learning through interactive captioning and revoicing of clips. The activities are offered through a social networking web platform through which the users are able to create, upload and access the revoicing and captioning activities.

¹⁸ For further details about the aims of the study, its outcomes and ways of applying the online videos see Baños & Sokoli (2015)

which offer additional information about the paralinguistic elements of the soundtrack were used for immigrants, as well, who watched TV programmes and films with closed-captions in order to assimilate the new language they resided in (Neuman & Koskinen, 1992).

Although intralingual subtitles had been initially aimed at deaf and hearing-impaired viewers, it cannot be ignored its use as a didactic tool for second and foreign language learners. Vanderplank (1988) is among one of the first scholars that carried out a study in which fifteen European learners of English, between high-intermediate and post-proficiency level, watched nine hour-long sessions of BBC general output television programmes with CEEFAX English language subtitles/captions. Subjects reported that they found the subtitles useful and beneficial to their language development and that they were able to develop strategies and techniques for using subtitles flexibly and according to need. The findings suggested that subtitled programmes may be of limited value for low-level learners, but may provide large amounts of comprehensible input for post-intermediate-level learners. The findings also indicated that subtitles promote a low 'affective filter', which is in concordance with Krashen's (1985) theory of the significant role of affective factors in language learning. Thus, due to learners' low-level of anxiety environment, they are more prone to allow the input in instead of blocking it (pp. 3–4).

In terms of comprehension and different proficiency levels, Markham (1989) carried out a study with 76 advanced, intermediate, and beginning ESL students in an American university who watched two 2- and 4-minute-long educational television programs with intralingual subtitles. The results of the multiple-choice comprehension tests based on the vocabulary and syntax of the captions showed that within each level, responses were more accurate when captions had been available. Thus, captions helped students perform beyond their proficiency level.

The effects of bimodal input upon vocabulary learning and content comprehension have been accounted also by Baltova (1999), Bird & Williams (2002), Chai & Erlam (2008), among others, who claim that the presence of captions supply further context to dialogue and increase the redundancy of information, so that the input

has higher chances to be recalled and stored in long-term memory. Thus, the overall comprehensibility of audiovisual input is increased by providing visual cues and subtitles in the same language.

Focusing on oral comprehension and oral production skills, Garza (1991) aimed to evaluate the use of captioning (on-screen target language subtitles) as a pedagogical aid to facilitate the use of authentic video materials in the foreign language classroom, especially in advanced or upper-level courses. Using Russian and English as target languages, the study strongly supports a positive correlation between the presence of captions and increased comprehension of the linguistic content of the video material, suggesting the use of captions to bridge the gap between learners' competence in reading and listening. The researcher chose five authentic videos in American English and five in Russian for captioning and for subsequent data collection. The five segments in each language depicted five different functional speech act situation, ranging from dramatic, to situational humour, to sitcoms, to news or documentary, and finally to music videos. The testing procedure involved multiple choice questions of the language content of each segment in order to gather quantitative data by comparing the captioned and non-captioned videos. The participants selected for the Russian as a FL study were students at third and fourth year classes at university, studying Russian and all of them were native speakers of English. For the ESL project, 70 participants of various nationalities, studying EFL/ESL were selected from two universities. The subjects were randomly assigned to watch either the captioned condition or the uncaptioned one. After answering the comprehension tests, 5 random students were asked to carry out an oral interview in which they were asked to recall and retell almost verbatim the video watched (pp.242-243).

The findings from various data collection indicate that captions enhance foreign language learning in various ways. First, it allows students to employ their already developed skills in reading comprehension in order to foster aural comprehension. Then, it increases the accessibility to salient language of authentic videos, as such giving the learners the opportunity to understand and enjoy the same type of input as native speakers do. It also allows students to increase the memorability of the essential

language, thus promoting the use of new lexical items in an appropriate context. Finally, the most significant conclusion suggested is that captioning may help teachers and students to bridge the gap between the development of skills in reading comprehension and listening comprehension (Garza, 1991, p. 246).

His interest in applying captions in educational settings and investigate their effect upon foreign language learning came from the first study carried out with closed-captions (initially aimed at DHH) at the University of Harvard (Price, 1983). This study was the first attempt to determine whether there was a relationship between captioned videos and learning of a foreign language. The results determined that for the 450 participants in the study, captions significantly improved their overall comprehension of the linguistic information contained in the video material. It also concluded that learners may improve not only their global linguistic comprehension, but also acquire more of the culture script the NS of English share (p.8). However, the main difference between the two studies abovementioned is that Garza's (1991) study made use of captions, which are a simplified version of the original audio script, paraphrasing accurately the soundtrack of the video (p.241). Therefore, the effects upon language learning could be different, especially that he used a less common taught language (i.e. Russian) in his study.

Another study undertaken by Borrás & Lafayette (1994) explored the effects of intralingual subtitles during a transactional task (narration and description) with multimedia courseware on oral communicative performance. Their study investigated the performance on oral communication of French college students after they watched videos with fully duplicated (literal) intralingual subtitles, also known as closed-captions. Data revealed that students in the intralingual subtitled condition had a much more positive attitude towards the use of subtitles and therefore the results were significantly higher. Oral production is one of the language skills that has received less attention from scholars, as up to date only few studies investigated the effects of intralingual subtitles upon spoken production (Araújo, 2008). Due to the lack of conclusive research in this area of language learning, Study 4 (see chapter 5) of the current doctoral thesis

seeks to approach the issue of oral production in relation to learners' exposure to subtitled audiovisual aids.

Nonetheless, this aspect of language raised interest among other researchers, as recently at the University of Barcelona, GRAL research group started to conduct a research project that examines the EFL learning potential of in- and out-of-school exposure to subtitled original version videos. Moreover, the first insights into oral production have been approached by two members of the project at International Conference FLAME-Film, Language and Media in Education (Cokely & Muñoz, 2015), who presented a pilot study aimed at enhancing learners' receptive and productive vocabulary gains as a consequence of the effects of bimodal input through video and visual prompts. The findings showed encouraging results, but given the small amount of students, further investigation is needed into the topic.

Listening comprehension is one of the skills that has been much investigated in by several researchers. Hayati & Mohmedi (2011) examined the effects of films with and without subtitles on listening comprehension of EFL learners in a study with 90 students, studying at Islamic Azad University of Masjed Soleyman. They were divided into three groups and watched six episodes (5min each) from the programme *Wild Weather* on DVD in one of the three conditions: English subtitles, Persian subtitles and no subtitles. After each viewing session, six sets of multiple-choice tests were administered to examine listening comprehension tests. Each question contained language that occurred somewhere in the episode. A final comprehension test was also administered. From the total average of scores obtained by the groups, the mean of ESG (English Subtitle Group) condition was substantially higher than PSG (Persian Subtitle Group) condition, and PSG condition in turn got significantly higher score than WSG (Without Subtitle Group) condition. So, the results revealed that students receiving the episode with English subtitles outperformed the other two groups. As a subsidiary effect of the study, it was revealed that films with Persian subtitles compared to the ones without subtitles facilitated recognition of English words by supplying the meaning of the content in students' native language and led to better understanding of listening materials.

Another group of researchers investigated the effects of captioning during video-based listening activities. Second- and fourth-year learners of Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and Russian watched three short videos with and without captioning in randomized order. Spanish learners had two additional groups: one watched the videos twice with no captioning, and another watched them twice with captioning. After the second showing of the video, learners took comprehension and vocabulary tests based on the video. Twenty-six learners participated in interviews following the actual experiment. They were asked about their general reactions to the videos (captioned and non-captioned). Results from t-tests and two-way ANOVAs indicated that captioning was more effective than no captioning. Captioning during the first showing of the videos was more effective for performance on aural vocabulary tests. For Spanish and Russian, first captioning viewing was generally more effective than second captioning viewing; while for Arabic and Chinese, there was a trend towards captioning second viewing being more effective. The interview data revealed that learners used captions to increase their attention, improve processing, reinforce previous knowledge, and analyze language (Winke et al., 2010).

Intralingual subtitles have been used by several other researchers, who disclosed in their studies the beneficial effects of same language bimodal input upon oral comprehension (Caimi, 2006; Guillory, 1998; Talaván, 2010, 2011). Students' positive reactions to the use of bimodal input as a pedagogical method, the improvement of listening comprehension skills and the oral production of communicative expressions related to the clips watched highlight the assets of using subtitles as a support for the development of oral skills (Talaván, 2011, p. 204).

The body of research carried out so far into the depths of both intralingual and interlingual subtitles and the current research projects that continue to be attracted by this topic, stand as living proofs of the resourceful and meaningful role of the two means of audiovisual translation. Given the potential of intralingual subtitles in FL learning settings, it was designated as the second independent variable in the empirical studies carried out (Study 1, 2 and 3, see chapter 5) in order to analyze its effects upon colloquial and informal language acquisition. Although the benefits of subtitled

audiovisual materials have been very much confirmed and justified by solid experiments, there are still opponents who perceive several possible limitations when using subtitled videos as language learning tools. Thus, an overview of both the pedagogical advantages and disadvantages of using subtitled material in the classroom will be discussed in the following section, focusing mainly on subtitle processing and the implication of reading the subtitles and watching the video at the same time.

4.3.5 Advantages and disadvantages of subtitles and captions

The acquisition of a foreign language through viewing subtitled audiovisual material is associated with positive effects and attitudes of learners towards media-induced resources (Danan, 2004; Diaz-Cintas & Fernández Cruz, 2008), given that we all live in a multimedia environment, surrounded by all types of digital devices. Watching a programme or film for entertainment purposes is likely to lower the effective filter or the mental block that reduces learners' positive disposition to acquire the L2 (Krashen, 1985; Vanderplank, 1990). Emotional factors may also play a decisive role in getting involved in the production of a more elaborate translation (producing interlingual subtitles), as watching a video is more enjoyable than reading a dull dialogue. 'Coordination between visual and verbal fields conveys a fuller meaning than the verbal field alone, and pragmatic elements inherent in the source text (ST) communication act are more immediately apparent (Incalcaterra, 2009, pp. 231–232).

Subtitles are perceived as source of contextualizing the language present in the audio channel, thus facilitating the self-access acquisition of receptive skills. Having access to the contextual cues and being familiar with subtitles may be a key to their valuable use, while the absence of this familiarity may lead to poorer language gains and a sense of distraction (D'Ydewalle et al., 1991; Danan, 2004, p. 73). The dual coding in audiovisual material has been shown to increase lexical and grammatical acquisition (Danan, 1992; Diaz-Cintas & Fernández Cruz, 2008), as information is simultaneously provided verbally and visually, thus facilitating the depth of processing mechanisms as well as the matching between meaning and external reference (Baltova,

1999). When there is a close interaction between pictures and verbal text, the verbal input is made more concrete, more coherent, and therefore easier to understand and remember. (Pavesi & Perego, 2008, p. 217).

Apart from the aspect of comprehensibility, which is crucial for viewers to develop L2 knowledge, the frequency of exposure has been promoted as a major factor in the development of individual language features (Ellis, 2008; Gass & Selinker, 2008) and as particularly relevant for vocabulary learning. This aspect is of particular interest for the empirical grounded studies developed in chapter 5, as they develop over an extended periods of time (7 weeks Study 1 and 2; 14 weeks Study 3) and the frequency to which learners are exposed to is considered to be of paramount importance for the development of oral skills and vocabulary learning.

However, certain limitations have been pointed out in relation to the use of subtitles in the EFL classroom. First, it is considered a passive activity, without immediate and tangible results, as learners could perceive it as a mere entertaining activity and not as an educational one. This drawback could be counterbalanced by the use of pre and post viewing activities, exploiting lexical, grammatical or even cultural aspects of the video. Moreover, several researchers proposed combining the use of subtitles as a pedagogical support with the active task of producing subtitled excerpts of authentic videos (Incalcaterra & Lertola, 2011; Incalcaterra, 2009; Sokoli, 2006; Talaván, 2010, 2011, 2013; Williams & Thorne, 2000).

Although the active practice of subtitling may seem challenging for both learners and teachers, especially from a technical point of view, as it requires the use of certain subtitle softwares and preparation and familiarity with the material, the positive results showed by several studies and its implementation in web projects cannot deny its relevance and feasibility. Subtitling as an active task is not going to be implemented in the forthcoming empirical studies, as the focus of the current research was on examining the effects of interlingual and intralingual subtitles as a didactic support upon informal and colloquial language and learners' spoken production of those corresponding lexical items.

A second issue to be debated upon is learners' capacity of processing the subtitled programs. Is processing a subtitled program an effortless procedure? Are learners achieving good levels of performance when engaged into subtitle processing without causing concession between image and text reception? Perego, Del Missier, Porta, & Mosconi (2010) conducted an experimental study in which they analyzed the cognitive processing of a subtitled film excerpt by adopting a methodological approach based on the integration of a variety of measures: eye-movement data, word recognition, and visual scene recognition. Results indicated that participants had a good understanding of the film content, regardless of the line segmentation, reached good levels of performance both in subtitle recognition and scene recognition and there was no trade-off between subtitle recognition and scene recognition (pp.262-263). The results of the study are in line with previous research (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1992; D'Ydewalle & Gielen, 1992), which highlighted individuals' ability to process, integrate and remember information coming from various sources. A possible conclusion is, therefore, that individuals will not usually encounter serious difficulties in multiple-source information processing.

Nonetheless, it contradicts an experiment carried out by Lavour & Bairstow (2011), who investigated the correlation between different types of subtitles (intralingual, interlingual or without subtitles) and English language fluency of beginner, intermediate and advanced French native speakers. The results indicated that for beginners the visual information is best processed in the film version without subtitles, however dialogue comprehension was best processed with interlingual and intralingual subtitles. Intermediate learners were not affected by any version of the film, however they did score higher in the dialogue score questions, which may lead to the assumption that they relied on the subtitled versions of the films, and hence they performed better at the comprehension level. The advanced learners, on the other hand, achieved higher comprehension for both visual and dialogue information with the version without subtitles and dialogue information processing was better than visual information processing. Overall, the authors claim that subtitles appear to be detrimental for visual information processing but have a facilitating effect for linguistic information processing (Lavour & Bairstow, 2011, p. 457).

Criticism may still arise concerning the use of interlingual subtitles as one might believe learners stop listening to the original soundtrack while reading their native language. The reading of the subtitles tend to be an automatic behaviour as mentioned in previous eye movement studies (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1992; D'Ydewalle & Gielen, 1992). Reading the subtitles and visual processing are considered highly efficient and partly automatized cognitive activities by other researchers, too (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Lang, Potter, & Bolls, 1999; Lang, 1995, 2000; Logan, 1997; Zhou, 2004). However, this does not imply that viewers stop processing the soundtrack. To demonstrate this point, a series of cognitive experiments relied on a double task technique measuring reaction times to a flashing light during a television program. The slower reactions in the presence of both sound and subtitles suggested that more complex, simultaneous processing of the soundtrack and the subtitles was occurring (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997, pp. 146–147). Another experiment confirmed that subjects processed the sound when available since slightly more time was devoted to the subtitles in the absence of sound (D'Ydewalle & Gielen, 1992, pp. 417–418). Other studies, however, reported that using interlingual subtitles led to a global deterioration in visual information processing, compared to both a soundless film and a version dubbed in the viewer's own language (Lavaur & Nava, 2008).

Another group of researchers De Bot, Jagt, Janssen, Kessels, & Schils (1986) set up a news program with subtitles occasionally deviating from speech on the phonological, grammatical, lexical, or informational levels. Two groups of subjects, 50 secondary school pupils learning English at school, and 20 advanced university students, who were no longer studying English, watched this program in English with subtitles in their native Dutch language. The subjects responded to a multiple-choice test about each news item, with questions equally divided between deviations and non-deviations. The results disproved the notion of exclusive subtitle orientation and showed that all viewers made use of the audio input, although this particular experiment was unable to quantify the extent of learning directly resulting from the spoken text (De Bot et al., 1986, pp. 78–80).

Despite some possible limitations when dealing with these types of resources in the FL/L2 classroom, it cannot be denied the potential they hold when applied in educational settings. A sign that audiovisual translation applied to foreign language learning is still a growing field is *2015 International Conference in Film, Language and Media in Education (FLAME)* that brought together teachers, scholars, specialists of language and film education and applied linguists to share current good practices, analyse new emerging trends and methodologies, and explore new avenues.

The area of AVT in relation to FL learning is constantly reinventing itself and expanding towards new methods and trends. Thus, the use of active dubbing, in which learners are recording their voices in a 'semi-professional' manner is one of the direction proposed by Talaván, Lertola, & Sokoli (2015) in order to enhance L2 learners' oral production, in terms of fluency, pronunciation and intonation. Thus, the researchers reinvented the traditional application of dubbing in a distance learning environment with adult university students, studying B2 level English course. They used intralingual dubbing (English-English) to assess the power of this tool by using Clipflair videos to develop general oral production skills. The results of the pilot study are still limited, but encouraging, given the degree of involvement among the students and their perceived enhancement of oral production. The positive findings of this recent project corroborate with the quantitative and qualitative data obtained by Talaván & Ávila-Cabrera (2015), who conducted a quasi-experimental study in which they combined the active task of dubbing with that of reverse subtitling in order to improve oral and written production skills, as well as general translation skills. As such, dubbing and reverse subtitling have been successfully ratified as instruments that help to improve L2 productive skills and general translation competence in a collaborative and technological scenario.

Renovating a traditional tool in an up-to-date learning environment and making use of meaningful resources to develop foreign language skills are the qualities needed for the field of AVT and FLA/SLA to continue reviving their endless possibilities. What can be highlighted after having looked at several studies that approached the use of subtitled audiovisual aids is the power teachers and instructors hold in their hands. In the end what makes a resource purposeful in a given learning setting is the means and

methods employed to put it into practice. Despite some stated limitations on the use of subtitled videos, it is the language teacher who should take the decision of how and in what context they are mostly relevant to be applied.

Chapter 5. The Empirical Approach

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will introduce four empirical studies conducted for the current doctoral research. On account of the theoretical approaches, the literature review, the pedagogical and lexical aspects discussed in the previous chapters, the four studies were designed in order to investigate the effects of subtitled and captioned television series upon EFL learners' informal and colloquial language acquisition and oral production. This chapter will put forward the combination of various elements discussed throughout the theoretical part of this thesis.

Hence, the four studies will make use of subtitled authentic videos, initially aimed at English native-speakers, in order to examine their implication upon two challenging aspects of English language learning: mastering an informal register, by using appropriate informal and colloquial items, and the ability to express the newly acquired vocabulary in oral communicative tasks. Each study will be approached in a separate section, underlining first its aims, the methods applied, data analyses and findings, and finally the conclusions and implications for the theoretical and empirical field of study. Given that all four studies share some common methodological aspects, such as the material used, the participants and the procedure, these elements will be discussed previously in order to frame the upcoming studies. Special testing procedures and changes in the material use in any of the four studies will be emphasized accordingly under each of their corresponding section.

There are two major theoretical premises at the core of this study: first, that authentic input and audiovisual materials facilitate the improvement of foreign language skills (Baltova, 1999; Danan, 2004; Ghia, 2012; Vanderplank, 2010); and second, that interlingual and intralingual subtitles foster incidental¹⁹ vocabulary acquisition and further proficiency in a foreign/second language (D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997;

¹⁹ Further reading about incidental language acquisition and its characteristics can be found in Restrepo Ramos' literature review (2015) and Gass' discussion (1999). See also section 4.3.3 above for more details about incidental learning.

D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Danan, 1992, 2004; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Kuppens, 2010; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Perez & Desmet, 2012). Incidental and intentional language acquisition are believed to be very different processes if we consider the object of focus of learner's attention (meaning vs. form), the amount of exposure needed (more vs. less) or the degree of teacher's supervision and feedback (Gass, 1999; Restrepo Ramos, 2015). However, teachers could bridge the gap between the two practices by using excerpts of media, films, sitcoms and TV programs inside the classroom, hence constructing a meaningful platform for pupils' contact with English inside and outside the classroom (Kuppens, 2010, p. 80).

Given the distinction between incidental and intentional learning, it can be stated the current investigation seeks to ease the void between the two types of learning by integrating subtitled TV sitcoms into the classroom. The practice of watching TV programs and films is associated with non-intentional and unconscious pedagogical tasks that foster learners' motivation and promote incidental learning. Hence, by making use of these types of tasks and materials, learners can benefit from the assets of incidental learning in formal institutions and classroom based environments.

5.2 Methodology

5.2.1 Participants

The total number of participants ($N=49$) were second year university students (A2 to C1 of CEFR), males (24%) and females (76%), between 19 and 25 years old ($M=20.2$, $SD=1.82$). However, the number of participants included in each study varies, depending on the aims of each study and learners' class attendance. The number of subjects that took part in each study will be mentioned in its corresponding section together with details about how students were assigned to various viewing conditions (either interlingual or intralingual).

An online questionnaire²⁰ was distributed before starting the collection of data in order to have an insight into subjects' background and watching habits and eliminate the ones who were not suitable for the study. The questionnaire contained several sections related to participants' background, in terms of nationality, mother tongue, contact with the target language and English speaking people, and their watching habits (for further details about the types of questions used, see *Appendix 1* for the entire questionnaire).

According to the results of the questionnaire, none of the students' mother tongue is English, which made possible to integrate them in the present study. As far as the contact with the language is concerned, 71% stated that they had contact with native speakers, such as friends, girlfriends/boyfriends or pen friends abroad to whom they speak in English. The majority, 90%, were Catalan and Spanish speakers and the other 10% mentioned they had other mother tongues such as German, Russian, Romanian, Dutch, Moldavian, but they moved in the area of Catalonia long before the experiment took place, so they were fully integrated into the Catalan/Spanish educational system and fluent speakers of both Catalan and Spanish. Figures 5, 6 and 7 below show the percentages of students, according to their answers.

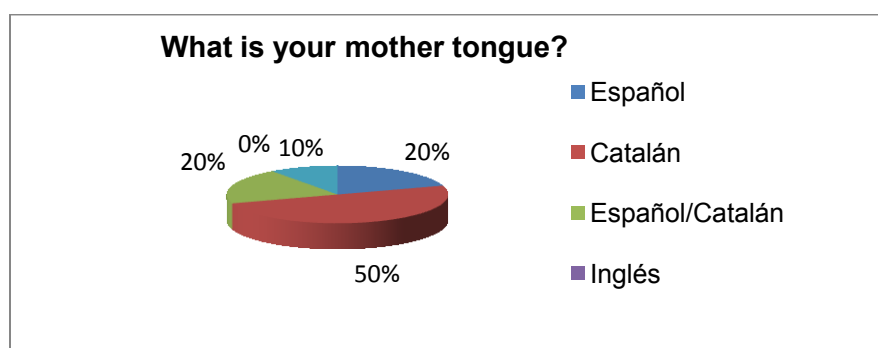


Figure 5. Participants' mother tongue in percentages

²⁰ We used www.encuestafacil.com as an online tool web to create, distribute and analyze the questionnaires. The collaboration between Universia (www.universia.net) and Encuesta facil gives free access to the consortium of university members to create questionnaires and distribute them for research purposes.

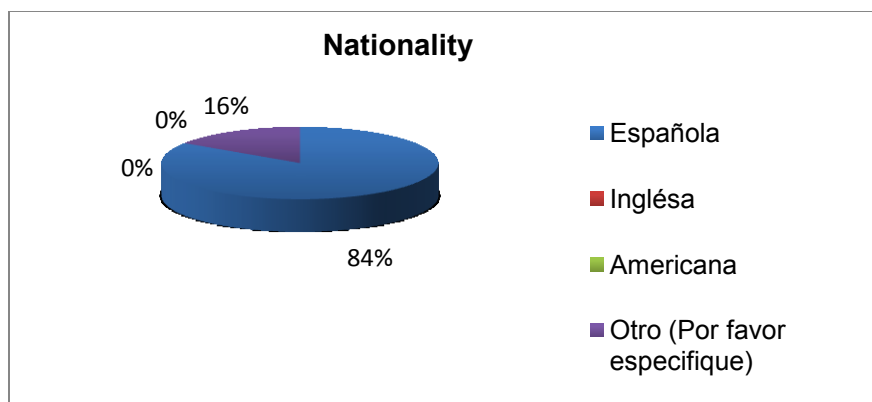


Figure 6. Participants' nationality in percentages

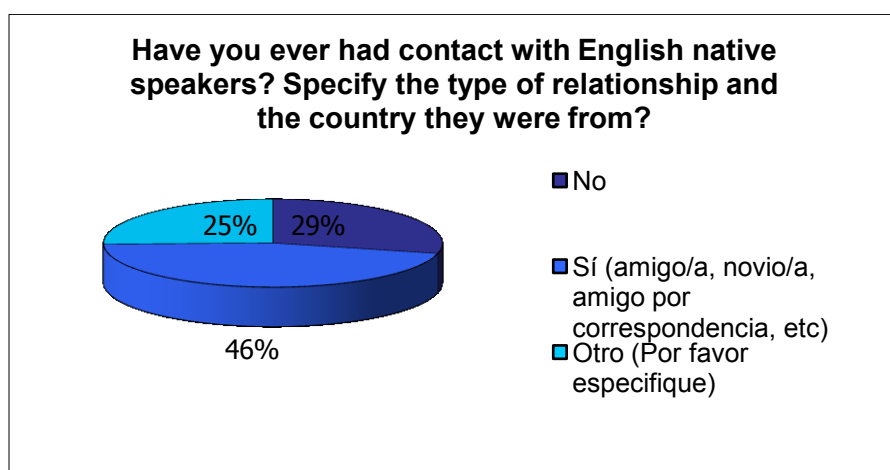


Figure 7. Participants' contact with English native speakers in percentages

The answers to the last question *Have you ever had contact with English native speakers? Specify the type of relationship and the country they were from* vary among the participants, however the majority stated that had contact with English native speakers in one way or another. The most common type of relationship they had with native speakers is of friendship and some of them had contact with host families, workmates or private teachers that were English NS. The most frequent method of communication was by email and face-to-face, but also by chat (Messenger, Skype, Whatsapp and Facebook). Asked about the age when they started having contact with the native speaker, the majority answered they were teenagers (14+), some started

after 21 years old and a few mentioned they were 25 years old (same year the research project took place) when they had contact with a native speaker.

Other relevant aspects from the questionnaires are learners' subtitle preferences and watching habits. Thus, learners were inquired about the language in which they watch TV films and programmes. 36% stated they prefer Spanish, 22% claimed they watch TV in Catalan, 35% watch it in English and 6% vary according to their native languages, Russian, Romanian, Dutch, German, and even French and Japanese. When asked whether they ever watched TV series and programmes in original version with subtitles and the type of audiovisuals they watch on a regular basis, they all answered they watched at some point subtitled programmes and films in original version. However, only 34% claimed that they watch subtitled audiovisuals very often (10%) and always (24%), while 62% said they do it sometimes, while 4% hardly ever watch it.

An additional question was the type of programme they watch on a regular basis. The majority replied they prefer watching TV series and films, but also reality shows, interviews, news, documentaries, talk shows and adult animated films. The most popular TV series and adult animated films, among the participants were *Gossip Girl*, *Glee*, *How I Met your Mother*, *Big Bang Theory*, *The Simpsons*, *American Dad*, *Futurama* and *Family Guy*. This aspect is of particular interest for the current investigation, as none of the participants chose *Friends* as part of their regular list of watching series. However, their choices are reasonable given their age and the fact that *Friends* is an old TV sitcom that was first released twenty years before the study was carried out (1994). This aspect is beneficial for the development of the studies, because although learners declared that they watched certain episodes when the sitcom was released on TV, they did not watch all the seasons and they were not watching the series at the moment the research was taking place.

Subsequently, based on their preferences, episodes from the first three seasons of *Friends* were chosen as didactic materials to be used in the classroom. As for the type of subtitles they use on a regular basis, 34% mentioned they use Spanish subtitles, 9% use Catalan subtitles, 40% make use of English subtitles, 14% prefer to watch the

videos without subtitles and rest of 3% have other choices (1 person uses Dutch and the other one says she uses the subtitles that appear automatically on TV).

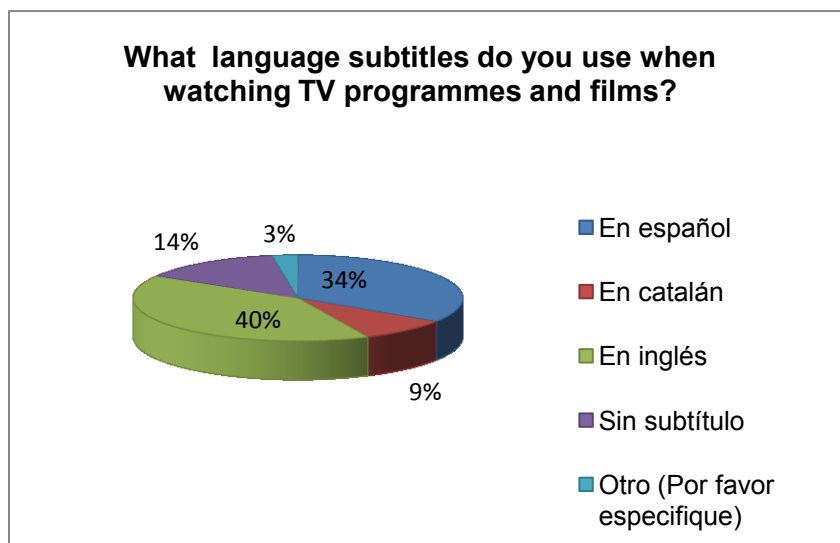


Figure 8. Participants' choices in terms of subtitles use

The participants were studying a Bachelor Degree in English Studies at University Rovira i Virgili, Department of English and German Studies and the Oral Skills (Listening and Speaking) Course is one of the compulsory courses of the English Degree Curriculum. The course is divided into 2 parts, one theoretical and one practical. As part of the theoretical part of the course, students were introduced to theories and concepts related to speaking and listening skills that made up for 1/3 of the course. As this was aimed at being a primary practical course, the rest of the time (2/3) was allocated to practical tasks and activities through which students should be having the opportunity to practice and develop their speaking and listening skills.

In order to maximise the efficiency of the course activities and to be able to closely monitor learner's outcome and progress, the department set the condition of working in smaller groups ($N=25$ in group 1 and $N=24$ in group 2), and therefore the entire group of second year English degree undergraduates were split up into two groups with two different instructors. Out of the 3 hours a week dedicated to listening and speaking activities, one and a half hour was assigned to watching subtitled episodes from the American sitcom *Friends* and to the exploitation of the informal

language present in the episodes. The rest of the class time was dedicated to speaking tasks and activities that were not related to the language or the plot of the videos.

5.2.2 Material

A set of authentic audiovisual materials (episodes from the Northern American television series *Friends*-Season 1, 2 and 3) were selected and exploited by the teacher/researcher in the classroom to be used as pedagogical support for all 4 studies.

The US sitcom comedy *Friends* (1994-2004) was considered the most popular show in the United States and around the world in the last decade. *Friends* focuses on the relationship of six friends in their 20s (Rachel, Ross, Monica, Phoebe, Joey, and Chandler) and their lives in New York, told over a period of 10 seasons during the show's ten-year run. Joey and Chandler share an apartment for most of the series and also spend time in Monica and Rachel's apartment, who are also flatmates. Ross is Monica's brother and he lives by himself, but he also spends time in the girls' apartment or in Central Perk coffee shop, where all the other friends gather. Phoebe used to be Monica's roommate, but she moved out to live with her grandmother because she could not stand Monica's obsession with cleanliness. The six friends spend a lot of time together and support and comfort each other as they try to struggle to achieve professional success and find happiness. The most recurrent themes in the series are friendship, relationships, love and sex, and finding a job. Humour is a constant characteristic of this series and it is created against social and moral issues that spread through the nineties and continue to be controversial in 2000s, such as same-sex marriage, artificial insemination, surrogate mothers and age difference in romantic relationships (Quaglio, 2009, pp. 17–18).

The language that appears in series like *Friends* is believed to be very similar to authentic conversations, given that it contains a high percentage of lexical and grammatical features present in spontaneous face-to-face conversations: 1st and 2nd person pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, present simple tenses and contractions, according to the results found by Quaglio (2009) in his study.

Thus, the sitcom *Friends* was chosen as a didactic material due to its rich informal and lexical content and because it discloses authentic cultural aspects of an English speaking country. It also presents communicative, real-life situations, which are highly relevant for the age of our participants. Due to its entertainment and motivational context, it spreads a relaxing and enjoyable atmosphere, promoting a low 'affective filter', which is greatly profitable for language learning acquisition (Krashen, 1985, p. 3). The importance of considering different audiovisual genres when applied as didactic tools in the classroom is stated by Ghia (2012), too, as different audiovisual genres, such as films, documentaries, TV series, news broadcasts and television shows 'are characterized by a different use of language and by different degrees of interaction between dialogue and images' (p.21). Therefore linguistic usage is considered to be closer to spontaneous conversation in the dialogues heard in films and television series, as opposed to news broadcasts, documentaries or television shows, which are perceived as having lower compliance to real orality (Forchini, 2009; Quaglio, 2009).

Several types of language tests were created in order to evaluate learners' response to the authentic materials they were exposed throughout the development of the four language experiments:

1. First, learner's performance before and after exposure to the subtitled episodes from the sitcom *Friends* was assessed with a 30-item pre- and post-test (15 open questions and 15 multiple-choice). The pre-/post-test was designed in order to exploit the colloquial and informal expressions and words from the authentic episodes. The 15 multiple-choice questions exploited the informal and colloquial words and expressions that appeared in the viewing sessions, containing one correct option and 2 distracters. The multiple-choice questions were meant to make students recognize and identify the correct item present in a specific scene and context in the episode. A fourth option 'I don't know' was not considered to be included in the test, because students were told explicitly not to choose any option available if they did not know the answer. An example of a multiple-choice question is the following: *The expression 'to have a blast' means: a. to be busy; b. to have a great time; c. to have memories about someone.*

Similarly, the 15 open questions contained informal words and expressions, such as slang, idioms, and phrasal verbs present in the episodes that were aimed at

developing students' ability to express in their own words the meaning of the item in question. No restrictions were imposed on the strategy they should use when answering the open questions, thus they made use of their previously acquired knowledge of the language through the use of synonyms, descriptions or by exemplifying the context from the episode or a situation they were familiar with. An example of an open question is: *Explain the meaning 'pick on' in this context 'You're picking on every detail':_____.*

This type of pre-/post-test was used for Studies 1 and 3 in order to determine the amount of informal lexical items learners acquired before and after being exposed to the subtitled audiovisual material.

2. Two separate pre-post tests were designed for Studies 1 and 3, each exploiting the lexical items present in the corresponding subtitled videos learners were due to watch over the time allocated to each study. (See *Appendix 2* for the entire pre-/post-test of Study 1 and *Appendix 4* for the pre-/post-test of Study 3).

3. A similar type of test was designed for gathering data for Study 2. Thus, a 20-item immediate test (10 open questions and 10 multiple-choice) was administered after each viewing session. The 10 multiple-choice questions exploited the informal and colloquial words and expressions that appeared in the viewing session, containing one correct option and 2 distracters. The multiple-choice questions were meant to make students recognize and identify the correct item present in a specific scene and context in the episode.

Likewise, the 10 open questions contained informal words and expressions, such as slang, idioms, and phrasal verbs present in the episodes that were aimed at developing students' ability to express in their own words the meaning of the item in question. Similar instructions were given for this test as well, as no restrictions were imposed on the strategy they should use when answering the open questions. The use of synonyms, descriptions or exemplifying the context from the episode were all considered viable. (See *Appendix 3* for an example of a 20-item immediate test).

The reasons why combination of the two type of questions is more feasible in the current situation are: first, to avoid learners relying entirely on guessing in the case of multiple-choice, and second to activate their prior knowledge, by giving them the chance to use freely any strategy to convey the meaning of words, in the case of open questions. The use of synonyms, description of the target vocabulary, reference to the situational context, or even the use of mediation, in the form of translation, were some of the strategies used by the participants to answer the open questions. The main focus was on identifying meaning rather than form, thus no penalization on their correctness, in terms of grammar or spelling, was taken into consideration. Moreover, the recommendation to try to include a variety of item formats in a test (Brindley, 1998, p. 179) reinforced the assumption of mixing two items of test formats in order to increase its reliability and validity.

4. The testing material for Study 4 is different from the other three studies, as it focuses on language production in oral encounters between students. The material consists of seven plots for seven communicative role-play tasks, previously prepared by the teacher/researcher. The oral tasks participants had to perform took place at the end of the course after watching 28 episodes from the television series *Friends* (see Study 4 in section 5.6) and after sitting the post-test at the end of Study 3. Further details will be given in the section dedicated to the testing procedure and material used for Study 4 (see section 5.6.4).

5.2.3 Procedure

For the development of Study 1, 2 and 3, students are required to watch 2 episodes of *Friends*, of approximately 25 minutes each, every week. All viewing sessions were held in the classroom at the university, using a computer, speakers and an overhead projector. The testing procedure and the materials employed in the first three studies combined two types of assessment items (multiple-choice and open questions) and they were used to investigate learners' colloquial and informal language learning, comprehension and recall.

The 30-item pre- and post-test (Study 1 and 3) were administered at the beginning and at the end of the viewing sessions in order to trace any differences between achievement scores before and after the treatment had taken place. The scoring scale of the tests was from 1 to 30, 1 point being given for each correct answer in the case of multiple-choice and for a correct explanation of the meaning of word(s) for the open questions.

The scoring scale of the immediate tests (Study 2) was from 1 to 20, 1 point being given for each correct answer in the case of multiple-choice and for a correct explanation of the meaning of word(s) for the open questions. Synonyms, descriptions, relevant examples and translation of the item in question were considered correct and no spelling or grammatical mistakes were taken into consideration, as the main focus of the tests was on meaning and not on form.

The testing procedure for Study 4 employed different methods and materials, as the aim of the study was to evaluate learners' spoken production in an oral informal communicative situation with their peers. Thus, learners had to role-play in pairs an informal encounter, following the indications on the scripts provided by the teacher/researcher. The scripts were aimed at providing students with guidelines about the contextual situation and with information about the roles of the interlocutors. The directions given were relevant for students to get an insight into the roles they had to assume and the language associated with it. The scripts served as a means to help students build up a dialogue around it, using an informal register and style and making use of the colloquial expressions they were exposed to throughout the viewing sessions in Study 3. Students were given 1-2 minutes to read the scripts and they were expected to role-play spontaneously without previous preparation an informal encounter between two people, by making use of the colloquial language suggested and any other extra expressions suitable for the given situation.

Each pair was given two plots, so they had to build up 2 spontaneous dialogues following the situational context provided by the teacher. 1 point was given for each correct informal and colloquial expression used in the dialogue (there were maximum of 7-8 expected informal expressions for each student, but they were free to use as many

as they wanted, if suitable in the provided context) . Furthermore, comments about their overall performance, in terms of fluency, spontaneity and engagement in the activity were provided for each participant in order to get an insight into participants' features of spoken production. Their spoken discourses were recorded with a Sony PCM M10 portable audio recorder in order to be later on analyzed. Participants' identity was not disclosed and it will not be present in the data analyses, as only the researcher had access to the files and the recordings and they were used solely for research purposes. Examples of the dialogue scripts can be found in *Appendix 5*. Further details about assessment criteria and testing procedure will be provided in the corresponding section of Study 4.

5.3 Study 1. Long-Term Effects of Captioned and Subtitled Videos upon Informal and Colloquial Language Learning

5.3.1 Introduction

The use of subtitles as teaching and learning support in the FL classroom is upheld by principles of Mayer's (2009) *Multimedia Learning Theory*. The dual-channel assumption developed by the author implies that learners learn better from words and pictures than from words alone. The limited capacity assumption is linked to the idea that people can pay attention for a limited span of time if the information they receive comes via only one channel (e.g. auditory). This theory is based on Paivio's (1986) bilingual dual coding theory, that alleges that the verbal and the imagery system, comprised of nonverbal objects and events, are functionally independent but linked by referential connections. Sweller's (2005) *Theory of Cognitive Load* also supports the overall theory of multimedia learning by suggesting that learning happens best under conditions that are in line with the human cognitive architecture and that by combining structures and elements together we ease the load of long-term memory and we permit to treat multiple elements as a single element (see chapter 2 for further details about the theoretical background).

Despite the bulk of theoretical and empirical studies already carried out on the issue of subtitled audiovisual materials (see chapter 4 for a detailed literature review), the aspect of informality and conversational speech in connection to the use of subtitles and audiovisual aids has been scarcely investigated. Bravo (2008) is among the few that approached a specific element of informal language and shed some light on the issue of idiomaticity in the language learning undergoing three experiments. The first two tested the understanding of content through exposure to subtitles: one was short-term and analyzed the impact of intralingual subtitled material (FL audio + FL subtitles) of Portuguese audiovisual materials on foreign students learning Portuguese; the other was over a longer-term and sought to evaluate the benefit of interlingual (and intralingual) subtitled material on Portuguese teenage students, as EFL learners. These students were exposed to English audio materials and subtitles in English or

Portuguese. The third experiment was designed to evaluate the written production skills in EFL, via the use of the mother-tongue, of students with prior exposure to subtitled material. This last group of informants also had to produce their own intralingual subtitles, using a non-professional subtitling tool for language-learning purposes. The findings from the 3 experiments indicated that both interlingual or intralingual subtitles enhanced viewers' comprehension of the content, even in culture-specific areas such as idioms.

This abovementioned research project raised interest in designing the first study of the current doctoral thesis as the issue of informality has been partially developed in Bravo's studies. Moreover, her research study took place in the Portuguese context, which is a subtitling country, as opposed to our experimental location, Spain, a traditional dubbing country, and therefore the findings could reveal different outcomes. No definite conclusions in relation to the best subtitling condition (either interlingual or intralingual) have been drawn from her second experiment either, thus on behalf of her recommendation in further investigation of the topic, we decided to expand the lexical items investigated (i.e. idioms) to other types of informal and colloquial expressions, such as slang, phrasal verbs, spoken and informal nouns and expressions in connection to the effect of interlingual and intralingual subtitles upon learner's informal vocabulary acquisition.

5.3.2 The Aims

This first quasi-experimental study aims to evaluate the effectiveness of subtitles (interlingual and intralingual) as language learning tools amongst second year learners in higher education upon informal and colloquial language acquisition in classroom settings.

The data for the current research study was collected from only 40 participants ($N=40$) out of the whole group of 49, due to their missingness in either the pre- or the post-test. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of the two groups formed, either to G1 (English sound + Spanish subtitles) or to G2 (English sound + English subtitles).

Both groups contained students from A2 to C1 level according to CEFR as follows: 1student=A2, 8students=B1, 7students=B2, 2students=C1 in Group 1; and 2 students=A2, 8students =B1, 8students =B2, 4students=C1, in Group 2. Subjects ($N=18$) in both G1 (Spanish subtitles) and ($N=22$) in G2 (English subtitles) watched thirteen episodes from the TV series *Friends* over a period of 7 weeks. Every week the participants ($N=40$) watched 2 episodes (except the first week when they watched only one episode due to time limitations) of approximately 25 minutes each, so they were exposed to 13 subtitled episodes, which stands for approximately 325 minutes in total. A 30 item pre-test/post-test were administered in order to analyse the effect of the two subtitling modes on informal and colloquial vocabulary acquisition (see more details about testing procedure and material in the methodological section 5.2).

On the grounds of the theories and research conducted in previous empirical studies, the present investigation seeks to approach the issue of informality, a scarcely researched topic in EFL classroom, by making use of subtitled authentic audiovisual materials. The current study intends to bridge the gap between teaching and learning procedures of colloquialism through the use of subtitles and authentic audiovisuals. It also makes reference to possible pedagogical implications for teachers' community and classroom instruction by investigating students' competence with colloquial language. Therefore, the following research question is central in this study: Will exposure to intralingual (G2-English subtitles) subtitled episodes from the TV sitcom *Friends* have greater effect upon learners' colloquial language acquisition than exposure to interlingual (G1-Spanish subtitles) subtitled episodes?

In the current situational context the *intralingual condition* is considered to lead to a more significant effect upon colloquial lexical items acquisition than the *interlingual condition* after exposure to authentic episodes from the TV sitcom *Friends*. This assumption is supported by several empirical studies (see a detailed review in 4.3.4) in the field of AVT and SLA/FLA that have been carried out in order to test the effect of intralingual, interlingual and non subtitling conditions upon vocabulary retention, listening comprehension and written and oral production.

Although intralingual subtitling had been initially aimed at deaf and hearing-impaired viewers, it cannot be ignored its use as a didactic tool for SL/FL learners. Thus, Danan (2004) proposed an overview of the effect of both captioning (intralingual subtitling) and subtitling (or standard/interlingual subtitling) on language learning skills. She highlights on the one hand, the facilitating effect of captioning as learners visualize what they hear, and on the other hand, the additional cognitive benefits brought by standard subtitling, which leads to deeper processing and usually results in better recognition and recall. A considerable number of empirical studies (Baltova, 1999; Bird & Williams, 2002; Bravo, 2008; Caimi, 2006; Garza, 1991; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010) aimed to investigate to what extent the captioned (intralingual) video is more beneficial than the interlingual and non-captioned one. The general conclusion led to a superior performance on comprehension and vocabulary tests under the intralingual condition. Given the abovementioned findings in relation to the benefits of intralingual subtitles upon vocabulary acquisition and recall, it is believed similar effects will occur upon the acquisition of colloquial lexical and phrasal items.

Considering participants profile (BA in English studies) and their heterogeneity, in terms of proficiency level (A2 to C1 according to CEFR), a second research question was formulated in order to investigate the effect of the two subtitling conditions on students' different proficiency levels and whether there was an interaction effect between the two subtitling conditions and participants' prior proficiency level. If that was the case, will one subtitling condition have a greater effect than the other one on students' proficiency level? Although some previous findings suggest that subtitled programmes may be of limited value for low-level learners and only beneficial for post-intermediate-level learners, as they provide large amounts of comprehensible input (Vanderplank, 1988), others reinforce the aiding and valuable effect subtitled videos have upon beginner, intermediate and advanced language learning process (Markham, 1989).

Accounting the abovementioned studies and the divergent bulk of conclusions concerning the issue of language level, it is hypothesized that independently of learners' previous proficiency level, the *intralingual condition* will have a greater effect on

students' post-test scores than the *interlingual condition* after exposure. Students are believed to perform beyond their proficiency level under the intralingual condition, mainly because they can relate the spoken words and expressions present in the video to their written form, unaffected by variation in accents and/or audio quality (King, 2002). Thus no matter their level of proficiency of the language, they will be able to facilitate their own oral comprehension by actively checking the L2/FL language forms through three channels: visual, oral and written, hence having access to large amounts of 'comprehensible input' (Krashen, 1985). The interlingual condition is more likely to boost learners' confidence, due to the reinforcement of the oral terms in a written form on the screen, therefore lowering their level of anxiety and increasing their motivation and interest .

5.3.3 Data Analyses and Results

In order to answer the research questions posed for this study, participants' pre- and post-tests results were analyzed using the statistical program R (car package). The following statistical tests and models (Levene's test, Welch Two sample t-test, the effect size and ANCOVA) were carried out following Field, Miles, & Field (2012) data analyses procedure and instruction in order to get an insight into the results of the outcome.

The dependent variable for this study is learner's post-test scores and the independent variables are the subtitle conditions the participants have been assigned to (Interlingual mode=English sound + Spanish subtitles and Intralingual mode=English sound + English subtitles).

In order to test homogeneity of variances (i.e. the variance of the dependent variable should be the same in each of the groups, or in other words the spread of the scores should be the same at each level, packed around the mean), Levene's test has been carried out both with the mean and the median. For our sample, the results of the test $F(1,40)=1.39$ with the mean and $F(1,40)=1.16$, with the median show that the variances are roughly equal. Thus, there is no significant difference between the variances of the sample as $p>0.05$ ($p=0.24$ with the mean and $p=0.28$ with the median),

which means that the homogeneity of variance assumption has been met, and therefore the null hypothesis can be considered feasible. In the current context the variances of the two groups are considered equal, and hence the test confirms the assumption that the scores in the tested population are relatively equal.

Furthermore, the Welch Two sample t-test and the effect size were carried out in order to spot the magnitude of the observed effect in our sample and to identify the difference in students' performance between the two subtitling conditions. Table 1 below shows the analysis of post-test by group using the t-test. Hence, the t-test shows significant results in relation to the boundary point set at .05 alpha value and the difference between the two groups scores reveals statistical significance ($t=-2.70$, $p=0.01$). The average for Group 2 (English subtitles) post-test ($M=14.68$, $SD= 4.97$) is higher than the average for Group 1 (Spanish subtitles) post-test ($M=10.95$, $SD=3.94$), therefore it was spotted a mean difference of 3.73 points between the two conditions, revealing higher scores under the intralingual condition.

The effect size was also calculated in order to quantify the difference between the two groups and to measure the effectiveness of the treatment (Coe, 2000). Cohen's rule of thumb suggests 0.1 or less representing a 'small' effect size, 0.3 a 'medium' effect size and 0.5 a 'large' effect size (Field et al., 2012). Reporting the effect size has been considered essential to reinforce the significant value and to support the assumption that if the results do not show at least a small effect size, no meaningful difference can be noticed, even if the alpha value is statistically significant (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 617). In our sample, the results showed that it did represent a medium-sized effect ($r=.39$), which means that the effect accounts for 9% of the total variance and the difference in means between the two groups and subtitle conditions showed a medium effect among the sampled population.

Table 1. T-test of post-test by group, mean scores (SD) in each condition, the level of significance and the effect size (Cohen's r)

Welch two sample t-test

Group/Condition	N	Mean	SD	p-value	r
G1(Sp.S)	18	10.95	3.94	0.01	.39
G2(En.S)	22	14.68	4.97		

Additionally, an analysis of covariance with ANCOVA was carried out in order to identify any effect of the pre-test on the post-test. In other words, it was aimed at establishing the relationship between participants' pre-test and their post-test scores and whether high or low results in the pre-test would trigger similar results in the post-test. Table 2 shows the data results after the analysis has been conducted. The ANCOVA test shows statistically significant results ($p=0.05$), which can be considered significant given the quite small size of the sample ($N=22$).

It is considered that results in a small sample size have lower chances of being statistically significant compared to larger sample sizes (Royall, 1986). The reason why larger samples increase the chances of significance is mainly because they are more likely to reflect the population mean, thus the larger the sample sizes, the more accurately the sample will reflect the population was drawn from, so the distribution is more likely to be closely around the population mean. Thus, the current results show significant test results $F(2,37)=12.92$, $p<0.001$ and it can be stated that for every unit a student in group 2 scored higher on the pre-test, he/she will score 2.53 points higher on the post-test. Moreover the effect of the pre-test on the post-test is significant, which means that for every unit a student scored higher on the pre-test, he/she will score 0.73 points higher on the post-test.

Table 2. ANCOVA test-analysis of covariance

Parameter	Estimate	SE	T values	p-value
(Intercept)	6.74	1.37	4.90	<0.001
Group2	2.53	1.27	1.99	0.05
Pre.test	0.73	0.17	4.08	0.001

In order to answer the second research question, the relationship between the dependent and independent variables was investigated, by taking into consideration the interaction between the two conditions (Spanish and English subtitles) and participants' prior proficiency level. Therefore, analysis of covariance using ANCOVA with interaction effect was performed. The results of ANCOVA test $F(3,36)=8.42$, $p<0.001$ reported in

table 3 show no significant interaction effect between the two groups and their prior proficiency level ($p>0.05$). Therefore, there is no significant effect of the two subtitle conditions (intralingual and interlingual) on students' proficiency level in the two groups. In other words, the difference in scores between both subtitle conditions is not dependent on students' prior proficiency level. The results support the assumption that learners' prior proficiency level did not influence the post-test scores after being exposed to subtitled episodes in any of the two subtitling conditions.

Table 3. ANCOVA test-Covariate and interaction analysis of the numerical and categorical variables

Parameter	Estimate	SE	T values	p-value
(Intercept)	7.16	2.06	3.47	0.001
Group2	1.85	2.75	0.67	0.504
Pre.test	0.65	0.32	2.04	0.047
Group2:Pre.Test	0.10	0.39	0.27	0.783

5.3.4 Discussion and Conclusions

The aim of the current study was to evaluate the effect of intralingually and interlingually subtitled authentic audiovisual materials on informal and colloquial language acquisition in higher education. Thus, the results support and reinforce previous literature in relation to the use of subtitles as language didactic tools (Araújo Santiago, 2008; Bird & Williams, 2002; Bravo, 2008, 2010; Caimi, 2006; Danan, 2004; Talaván, 2010). Indeed, the significant effect of the intralingual condition (Group2-English subtitles) over the interlingual one (Group1-Spanish subtitles) enlarges the current spectrum on the issue and adds a justified value to the potential of intralingual subtitles in higher education as a teaching and learning tool for both instructors and foreign language learners.

Overall, the results disclose a significant effect of the intralingual condition (Group2-English subtitles) on participants' post-test scores when exposed to authentic episodes from the American sitcom 'Friends'. Students were able to rely on the visual, audio and written elements from the videos in order to identify the correct meaning of the informal expressions and words in the provided context. We can conclude that

based on the findings of the study, the first research question can be answered and the first hypothesis can be confirmed. Thus, students who were exposed to authentic audiovisual materials for a period of 7 weeks with intralingual (English) subtitles benefited more than those who watched the episodes under the interlingual (Spanish) condition. The current hypothesis contradicts previous research studies which claim that interlingual subtitles are more beneficial for language learning than intralingual subtitles (Bianchi & Ciabattini, 2008; Bravo, 2010; D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999), but supports several investigations that accounted for the benefits of same language subtitles (Araújo, 2008; Bird & Williams, 2002; Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; Caimi, 2006; Chai & Erlam, 2008; Garza, 1991; Vanderplank, 1988).

The data analysis shows that there is no significant interaction effect between participants' post-test scores and the interlingual and intralingual subtitling conditions, which means that the difference in scores between both subtitling conditions is not dependent on students' previous proficiency level. The medium-sized effect ($r=.39$) also reinforces the belief that independently of students' low, intermediate or high proficiency level, they can benefit from exposure to authentic audiovisual materials subtitled in English, and therefore acquire informal vocabulary and colloquial expressions in the provided context. Therefore, the second research question can be answered and the second hypothesis can be considered feasible, as the intralingual condition will have a greater effect on students' post-test scores than the interlingual condition after exposure to authentic video materials, regardless of their proficiency level.

The statistically significant differences found in this study between the two groups and the missing effect of the interaction between the two conditions and learners' proficiency level enhances even further the belief that intralingual subtitles are more beneficial than interlingual subtitles for higher education students, independently of their level of mastery of the language at the outset of the intervention. Both groups contained students from A2 to C1 CEFR level (1student=A2, 8students=B1, 7students=B2, 2students=C1 in Group 1; and 2 students=A2, 8students=B1, 8students=B2, 4students=C1, in Group 2I), which contradicts previous empirical studies that state that intralingual subtitles are not favorable for beginner students, but rather for intermediate

and advanced learners (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994). Our current sample, however may have responded differently to the subtitle conditions, given their acquaintance with the system of the SL/FL while studying a BA in English Studies. Thus, the beneficial effect of English subtitles upon learners' outcome could also be due to the fact that they have already mastered certain skills and aptitudes in the foreign language, and therefore they are prone to develop their previously acquired knowledge and make use of intralingual subtitles as a support and reinforcing method.

On the other hand, this study supports other research studies that claim that 'viewers regardless of educational level or language background benefited significantly from captioning, even with only one viewing' (Price, 1983, p. 8). I believe that the educational context that our participants came from could partially explain the results of the study. Students are more likely to be interested in the intralingual subtitles, as their main purpose when studying an English Degree is to maximize their interaction with the FL as much as possible. Accordingly, by being able to see the written form of the spoken language, especially the informal and colloquial expressions that are so challenging to acquire and to remember, they felt confident and reassured that the item they were listening to was the correct one. In this way, they could easily identify its meaning by connecting the visual, the oral and the written form, thus 'linking pronunciation to the written form and the mental division of sounds into single words' (Caimi, 2006, p. 87). The quantitative results corroborate with the information students provided in the questionnaire before the starting the treatment, and consequently with their watching habits. 40% mentioned they watch TV films and programmes with English subtitles and when asked about the type of subtitles they consider it enhances vocabulary learning and listening comprehension, the majority (84%) replied that watching films with English subtitles is the most profitable condition for developing FL vocabulary and oral skills.

However, there are limitations concerning this study. Firstly, due to the limited number of participants (N=40) and to the profile of the participants (higher education students studying a BA in English Studies) it is not possible to draw definite conclusions. No delayed tests have been carried out after the treatment, which could

have strengthen our findings and offer a broader perspective on the topic. A non subtitle group was not possible to be formed due to the limited number of participants and the design of the course. Having a control group (a non-subtitle condition) would have brought further relevance to the use of intralingual subtitles as language learning tools in the classroom. Nevertheless, previous research investigating the effects of all three subtitle conditions (intralingual, interlingual and no subtitle) reached the conclusion that content comprehension, language learning and listening comprehension was more beneficial under one of the subtitle condition, either inter or intra, while under the no subtitle condition, learners showed the poorest results (Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Bravo, 2008, 2010; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011).

This study investigated only vocabulary acquisition, so expanding the experiment to testing other language skills, such as spoken production, would be recommendable for future research. Other issues in relation to informality and subtitles should be explored, too. For instance, the effect of intralingual subtitles over a longer period of time and its effects on oral production, which is an approach that has been scarcely investigated so far and it would be of interest and relevance for the field of teaching and learning SLA/FLA and AVT.

Nonetheless, the beneficial results of the intralingual condition makes the study even more relevant in the Spanish context, a traditionally dubbing country, where people perceive subtitles of 'bothering nature' (Talaván, 2007, p. 42) and where there is a general belief in the quality of the dubbing industry. This makes the researcher/instructor confident of the powerful mark the experiment had left on the participants' learning process, motivating them to expand their watching habits outside the classroom context and make use of the potential power that resides in subtitled television series, films and other audiovisual materials.

Given the results of the first study, the decision to analyse learners' immediate learning acquisition was taken, so as to examine whether the results on a long-term perspective (before and after seven weeks of treatment) would coincide with the result of instant responses to subtitled series after watching each video, throughout the seven weeks. In other words, Study 2 comes as a natural extension of the first study, by

making use of the same participants, testing procedure and materials (except the amount of testing items, which are 20 instead of 30), but refocusing on the continuous progress of the learners over seven weeks in an additional longitudinal study.

5.4 Study 2. The Implication of Subtitled and Captioned Videos upon Short-Term Informal and Colloquial Language Learning

5.4.1 Introduction

Teaching and learning informal language in the form of single word lexis and multi-word expressions (idioms, collocations, phrasal verbs, slang, etc) has always been a challenge to be dealt with in the EFL classroom. The importance of acquiring informal vocabulary started to be acknowledged more substantively by the mid 1980s, but helping students remember target vocabulary over a long-term period has remained scarcely approached. Boers & Lindstromberg (2008) claim that FL learners are able to learn new words and expressions incidentally, similarly to the way children learn their L1 and the best way teachers should promote vocabulary learning is by encouraging learners 'to deploy their pre existing ability to infer word meanings from context.' (p.3) Foreign language teaching (FLT) theoreticians perceive learning vocabulary, in the sense of words and phrases, as being the key to attaining a high level of proficiency. According to these premises, we believe that the use of subtitles and audiovisual aids, in the EFL setting, should be regarded as meaningful tools to develop and enhance such a vital language skill.

By adding subtitles to the audiovisual material, either in the form of interlingual (learners' L1), or in the form of intralingual (learners' FL/L2) subtitles, the power of language acquisition is increased because of its beneficial function as a bridge between reading and listening skills (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994). Merging the powerful assets of authentic videos with the reinforcing and facilitating effects of subtitles inside the EFL classroom, learners are prone to benefit from the abovementioned aids and enhance

and develop their informal and colloquial language acquisition, although considered a laborious and demanding task of language learning.

As it has been mentioned in the previous chapters, a considerable amount of empirical studies and theories pinpointed the value of the use of intralingual and interlingual subtitles as language learning tools in the classroom, but they also show deficits with regard to longitudinal research on informal and colloquial language teaching and learning, which is the main focus of the current study.

Previous empirical studies have scarcely investigated the issue of informality and conversational speech in connection to subtitles and audiovisual aids and very few longitudinal studies have been carried out on this specific field. The results of the previous study (see Study 1) showed that the intralingual condition proved to have a significant effect on participants' long-term post-test scores when exposed to subtitled and authentic audiovisual materials. Therefore, students exposed to the intralingual condition were able to identify the correct meaning of the informal expressions and words in the provided context. Accordingly, FL learners who were exposed to authentic audiovisuals with intralingual subtitles benefited more than those who were under the interlingual condition. The positive results gave rise to the current in depth analysis, which seeks to further investigate subjects' immediate acquisition of informal and colloquial language over a period of seven weeks under interlingual and intralingual conditions and detect whether there are any similarities or inconsistencies with the previous outcome.

5.4.2 The Aims

The scarce presence of longitudinal approaches in the literature exploring learners' informal and colloquial language acquisition through subtitles (interlingual and intralingual) and authentic audiovisual materials led to the current empirical study. Thus, the present investigation seeks to approach the added value of subtitled video materials upon immediate colloquial and informal language acquisition amongst students in higher education.

The participants, forty-nine students ($N=49$) (A2 to C1 of CEFR) were randomly assigned either to interlingual mode (English sound + Spanish subtitles) or to intralingual mode (English sound + English subtitles). Both groups were exposed to a total of 13 episodes from the American series *Friends* over a period of 7 weeks. Learners' short-term and immediate acquisition of colloquial and idiomatic vocabulary acquisition was tested with a 20-item multiple choice and open question test administered after each viewing session. LMER (linear mixed effects regression) procedure was used to build several growth models in order to investigate any significant differences between the two types of subtitle conditions and students' performance.

The exposure time (7 weeks) has been deliberately chosen, given the previous statements in the literature referring to the process of language acquisition. Bisson et al. (2014) states that the lack of differences across conditions in their study might be due to the limited exposure to the FL (only 25 min) and that future studies should measure the impact of long-term exposure to FL films with subtitles on language acquisition, given the slow process of incidental vocabulary acquisition with small vocabulary gains. In order to make reference to possible pedagogical implications for teachers' community and classroom instruction, D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel (1999) claim the need of further studies to use longitudinal exposure in order to assess cumulative effects. The research questions of the current study aim on the one hand, to examine whether students progress differently on the acquisition level of informal and colloquial vocabulary learning, according to the two subtitle conditions (interlingual and intralingual) they are exposed to; and on the other hand, whether high proficient students progress more over time than low proficient students when exposed to one of the two subtitle conditions (either interlingual or intralingual).

Based on previous evidence, we expect learners to show different progress levels when exposed to the two subtitle conditions. Learners under the intralingual condition are expected to make more progress than the ones under the interlingual condition, because previous findings in Study 1 showed that on long-term pre-post tests, acquisition of informal and colloquial language is prone to take place under the

intralingual condition. Moreover, high proficient students are assumed to advance more over time than low proficient students when exposed to the two subtitle conditions (interlingual or intralingual), therefore their scores on informal and colloquial vocabulary tests are expected to increase throughout the viewing sessions.

A longitudinal study undergone by Araújo (2008) aimed at testing the assumption that the use of subtitled films can improve students' oral proficiency, focusing on listening comprehension and speaking skills. The lessons of the study were designed using interlingual subtitles for beginners and intralingual subtitles for intermediate and advanced level students. The choice was made because interlingual subtitles might be more easily accepted in elementary courses, however students asked to have intralingual subtitles in their course, too. After watching the film sequence, listening and speaking activities were prepared and students received phonetic training to help them improve their pronunciation (p.229). Pre- and post-tests were given at the beginning and at the end of every semester and two kinds of tests were prepared to analyse students' oral proficiency in terms of listening comprehension and speaking tests. For listening comprehension, multiple-choice questions were used at the beginning and then, open questions. The speaking test was a filmed session, in which an interviewer asked students general questions on topics such as, family, jobs, hobbies. The testing procedure consisted first, of a pair work task in which learners were asked to have a conversation on a given topic, and then of a one-to-one chat, in order to evaluate individual's performances (p.232).

Evaluation questionnaires in Portuguese were handed out to find out students' opinion on the use of subtitles as a pedagogical tool. The results show that the experimental group did better than the control group in listening comprehension tests. The main difference was that learners responded better to questions whose answers depended on the relationship among subtitles, image and speech. Therefore, in order for students to answer the questions correctly, they had to have understood the sequence, making use of all features of an audiovisual text (p.234).

The results of this study showed that students enjoyed having audiovisual translation in class, suggesting that the use of this pedagogical tool should be extended to other courses at university level. They felt motivated and stated that they would have liked to have subtitled films until the end of the course. Her results were not conclusive, but they corroborate other studies that sustain that subtitles do improve FL learning and can be a powerful pedagogical tool. Although students' listening comprehension skills were expected to improve the most, the speaking ability was the one that produced the best results (Araújo, 2008, p. 238).

Another study revealed the impact of intralingual subtitles after a three-month period, in which learners of EFL watched BBC television programmes enhanced with Teletex subtitles (closed-captions for deaf and hard-of-hearing) (Vanderplank, 1990). After exposure, learners were able to reproduce diatopic and diastratic varieties that they had heard and noticed in the series. Thus, it appeared that watching FL television with intralingual subtitles for a prolonged period of time directs learners' attention to language and results in a concurrent development of productive skills in the L2. An empirical study carried out by Ghia (2007, 2011) showed similar beneficial effects for long-term exposure to film input enhanced with interlingual subtitles. Italian EFL learners watched fifteen English and American movies with Italian subtitles over a three-month period. Learners watched one film per week and were tested on general L2 proficiency and syntactic skills before and after exposure. The results disclosed that learners' general L2 proficiency improved considerably, especially syntactic patterns typical of spoken English, including questions, cleft sentences and dislocations (Ghia, 2012, p. 19). The fact that learners acquire typical patterns of spoken English raises interest in the development of the current longitudinal study, because it is exactly this area of vocabulary that is being investigated and learners' reaction to immediate testing over 7 weeks.

Additionally, Bravo (2008) observed similar positive results of long-term exposure to audiovisual input enhanced either with bimodal or interlingual subtitles on L2 comprehension and learning. A group of Portuguese learners of English as an L2 were exposed to a popular American television series *The Fresh Prince of Bel-Air*, for a

period of 10 weeks. The findings indicated that both interlingual or intralingual subtitles enhanced viewers' comprehension of the content, as well as vocabulary learning of idiomatic expressions in L2.

The aforementioned empirical proofs encourage and support the aim of this investigation, as previous findings are still inconsistent, as some claim intralingual subtitles are more beneficial than interlingual, while others advocate the latter are enhancing learners' L2 skills. Therefore, this current study comes to unveil which of the two subtitle conditions favour informal and colloquial vocabulary acquisition. The poor evidence in the literature tackling this issue in instructional settings makes the aim of this investigation even more feasible in the present context.

5.4.3 Data Analyses

The analyses comprise three steps. In a first step we tested several models that summarize the basic growth model. There is a basic growth model as a point of departure to test differences between the two types of subtitle conditions, i.e. interlingual and intralingual, amongst our subjects. As advised by Singer & Willett (2003), we first built a good overall polynomial growth model in the fixed part. This procedure is done by adding stepwise different terms in the model that estimate the effect of Time raised to the power. All models were tested through a -2 log likelihood test, and thus first, a model is tested with only a Time1 effect, then a Time2 effect is added and finally, a Time3 effect is added to the model. The decision of proceeding with each of these steps was taken when the according model fitted the data better and when the different parameter estimates of the effects of time showed to be statistically significant. Once these steps were taken, we added stepwise these estimates of time effects to the random part of the model, as well. As such, we modelled individual differences between students in growth curves.

In a second step, we added the effect of pre-test scores to the model. Accordingly, we aimed at controlling for the fact that although students were randomly assigned to the different subtitle conditions, there are possible differences between both

conditions in ability and students can have higher or lower scores as a result of their pre- test scores.

The third step of the current analyses tackles the overall research question of the study: i.e. Do students in the different subtitle conditions (interlingual or intralingual) differ in how their proficiency develops in terms of informal and colloquial language acquisition? This step is implemented by adding first, the main effect of the type of subtitle condition and then, the interaction effect of the type of subtitle condition with time to the model. As follows, table 4 below summarizes the abovementioned conducted steps and their corresponding model.

Table 4. Summary of conducted steps and their corresponding models.

Step	Model	Description
Step 1 (building basic growth models in 5 steps)	Model 1	Fixed linear effect of time; intercept variance between students.
	Model 2	Fixed non-linear effect of time (Time2 added); intercept variance between students.
	Model 3	Fixed non-linear effect of time (Time3 added); intercept variance between students.
	Model 4	Fixed non-linear effect of time + linear part of growth added to the random part.
	Model 5	Fixed non-linear effect of time + non-linear part of growth added to the random part.
Step 2 (build on the basic model; add the effect of Pre testZ)	Model 6	Add main effect of Pre testZ
	Model 7	Add interaction effect between Pre testZ and Time
Step 3 (test the effect of Condition-the type of subtitles)	Model 8	Add only the main effect of Type of subtitles
	Model 9	Add interaction effect between Type of subtitles and Time

5.4.4 Results

The model fit comparison information for the different alternative models is presented in table 5 below. Therefore, based on the model comparisons, we can decide that Model 4 is the best basic growth model among all the five models tested. Its significant value ($p=0.024$), in comparison to the other growth models, confirms its validity for our sample. In this model the proficiency of students is modelled as a quadratic growth curve and we assume individual differences between students, concerning the linear part of the growth in proficiency. This basic model can be visualised in figure 9 below. As the graph reveals, there is a general tendency in subjects' scores of increasing between session 5 and 9, as the estimated growth curves for the individual students disclose. Nevertheless, it can be spotted a decrease in this trend towards the last sessions. The tendency is not homogenous among all the students, as there are obvious differences between their results after the first session, i.e. some of them scoring higher than others, and moreover showing noticeable ascent throughout all the 13 sessions, as well as others scoring high after the first session and showing tendency to decrease towards the last viewing sessions.

Table 5. Information on the comparison of model fit for the different models tested

	Chi ² difference (2LL)	(- df.	p-value
<i>Step 1: building a basic growth model</i>			
Model 2 vs. Model 1	15,649	1	<0,001
Model 3 vs. Model 2	1,219	1	0,270
Model 4 vs. Model 2	7,488	2	0,024
Model 5 vs. Model 4	4,573	3	0,206
<i>Step 2: test the effect of pre test</i>			
Model 6 vs. Model 4	184,590	1	<0,001
Model 7 vs. Model 6	4,490	1	0,034
<i>Step 3: test the effect of type of subtitling</i>			
Model 8 vs. Model 7	1,612	1	0,204
Model 9 vs. Model 7	1,749	2	0,417

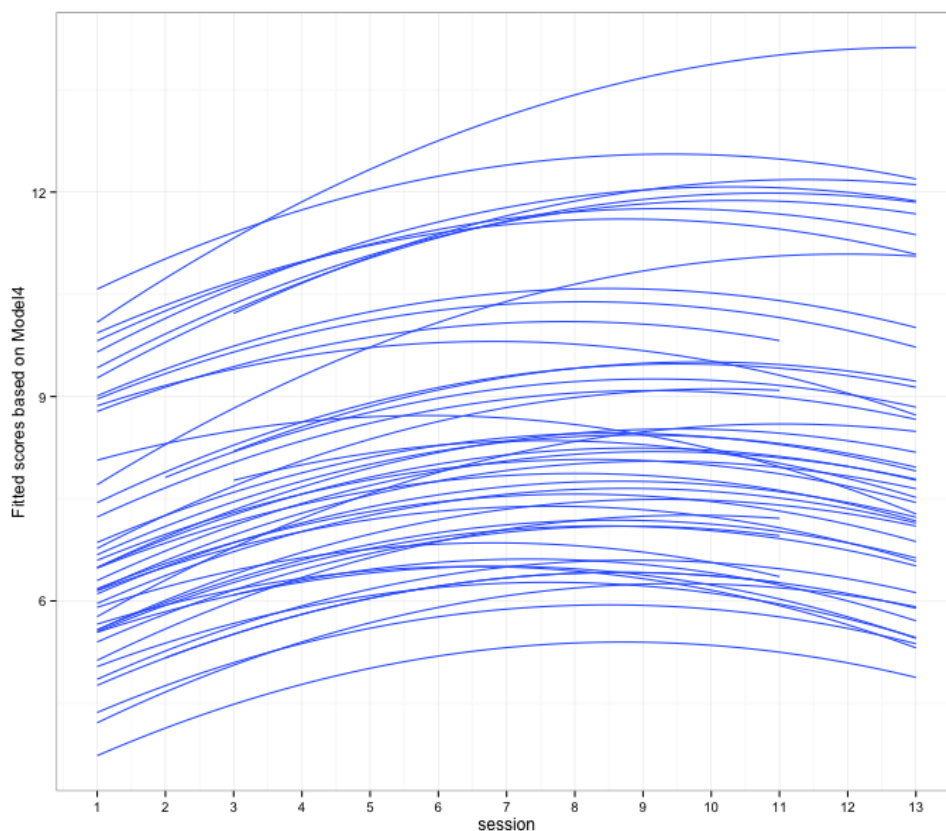


Figure 9. Estimated growth curves for the individual students, based on Model 4
(each line = a student)

In step 2, we added the effect of pre-test scores. Based on the comparisons of the models, we can conclude that the model including both a main effect of pre-test scores and the interaction effect of pre-test scores with the time variable (Model 7) fits the data best. Table 6 below contains the parameter estimates of this model. Therefore, from the estimates we can see that the pre-test has a significant positive effect on the students with a high proficiency at the start of the course, as they also score higher on the tests after each session. Moreover, as the interaction effect between pre-test and session is statistically significant and positive, we can conclude that as time goes by, i.e. the effect of each viewing session, the difference between high and low proficient students increases.

Table 6. Parameter estimates (Est.), Standard Errors (S.E.) and p-values for Model 7

	Est.	S.E.	p-value
<i>Fixed Part</i>			
Intercept	6,516	0,392	<0,001
Session	0,486	0,102	<0,001
Session ²	-	0,007	<0,001
	0,027		
Pretest (z-score)	0,864	0,313	0,008
Pretest * Session	0,061	0,028	0,035
<i>Random Part (Variance estimates)</i>			
Student level			
	Intercept	Session	
Intercept	2,805	$r = -0,40$	
Session	-0,069	0,011	
Residual	3,932		

The two alternative models to analyse the effect of type of subtitle condition show that these models, including the effect of type of subtitles used, do not outperform the models without the subtitling effect. Hence, it can be concluded that the type of subtitles used (either interlingual or intralingual) has no significant effect on how the proficiency of students evolves throughout the different sessions.

5.4.5 Discussion and Conclusions

The aim of the current study was to investigate students' immediate recognition and recall of informal and colloquial expressions by means of authentic subtitled audiovisual materials (both interlingual and intralingual) over an extended period of time (7 weeks). Therefore, students' immediate scores, tested after each session, reveal that the two subtitle conditions are not significant in changing the proficiency acquired in terms of informal and colloquial vocabulary, although individual growth has been observed independently of the type of subtitles students were exposed to.

The current findings contradict previous results of Study 1 carried out with pre-/post-tests over the same period of 7 weeks, in which the intralingual condition was showed to be more beneficial than the interlingual one. These results could be explained due to the time allocated to learners to internalize the vocabulary concepts and further recall, as they were facing an added difficulty when tested, compared to the previous study, mainly because the testing procedure was different. In this case, subjects were having contact with most of the idiomatic and colloquial expressions for the first time and they had to answer the test immediately after they watched the episode. Consequently, they had to remember in an ad-hoc way the target vocabulary from the episodes and the tests were not comparable between themselves, containing colloquial and informal expressions related only to the episode in question. This could constitute the primary difference and explanation between the results of the two studies. Students were already familiar with the target vocabulary when tested in the first study and they had time to internalize the target language over 7 weeks, whereas in the current experiment they were watching episodes every week and their vocabulary recall was tested immediately after, which did not allow them to base their answers on previously acquired knowledge.

The conclusions of this longitudinal study contradicts previous outcomes, which either revealed the benefits of intralingual subtitles (Vanderplank, 1990) or were in favour of interlingual subtitles (Ghia, 2007, 2011). However, it supports Bravo's (2008) study, that showed that both conditions (interlingual and intralingual), with no major significant differences, led to better comprehension of dialogue, even in culture specific items, such as idioms.

As such, the research questions can be answered, however the two hypotheses cannot be fully confirmed. The first hypothesis can be partially confirmed, as learners show individual growth when exposed to the two subtitle conditions, although the ones under the intralingual condition do not make more progress than the ones under the interlingual condition. The individual growth and score differences between the learners could have also been determined by students' own characteristics, such as motivation and interest in the target vocabulary, which could be a further point to be investigated in

the future. The second hypothesis can be confirmed, as high proficient students score higher than low proficient students and their test results increase over time.

Yet, several limitations concerning this study should be mentioned. Firstly, due to the limited number of participants ($N=49$) and their profile (higher education students studying the English Degree) it is not possible to draw definite conclusions. No delayed tests have been carried out after the treatment and no control group was established, which could have strengthened our findings and offer a broader perspective on the topic. This study investigated only vocabulary acquisition through written production and recall, so expanding the experiment to testing other language skills would be recommendable to exploit in future studies. Other issues in relation to informality and the use of subtitles need to be further explored. For instance, the effect of intralingual subtitles only (as this proved to be more beneficial for our target learners on long-term retention) on oral production, which is an approach that has been scarcely investigated so far and would be of high interest for the field of teaching and learning second/foreign language and audiovisual translation.

Nonetheless, the beneficial results of subtitled audiovisual materials from the current study and the previous one make the investigation relevant and meaningful, by adding another 'brick' on the 'wall' of subtitled audiovisual materials as educational tools. Moreover, the positive effects of both interlingual and intralingual subtitles upon informal and colloquial language acquisition on both long and short-term reiterate the already existing outcomes and add an undeniable value for the practice of such methods and tools inside and outside the classroom. The nowadays easy access to subtitled audiovisual materials makes the task of the teacher a lot easier than in the past and it lies in the hands of the instructor to provide meaningful tools to his students, so that they benefit from this practice outside the classroom, too.

5.5 Study 3. The Effects of Long-Term Exposure to Captioned Videos upon Informal and Colloquial Language Learning

5.5.1 Introduction

The poor evidence of long-term studies upon informal and colloquial language acquisition through the use of subtitled audiovisual input, set the tone for the development of the current study. Study 3 comes as an extension of Study 1 and 2, given the results of the previous two studies, but also due to the need to further investigate the topic of subtitled audiovisual input over an extended period of time. Likewise, limitations in previous empirical studies in relation to long-term studies, which investigated either learners' ability of language reproduction by making use of closed-captions (Vanderplank, 1990) or by assessing learners' oral skills by means of one-to-one interview (Araújo, 2008), gave rise to the current research study. Previous investigations examined learners' production skills in non-communicative tasks, by either making use of closed-captions, which contain paralinguistic information on screen and it is different from captioning that comprises the information from the oral dialogues (Vanderplank, 1990), or by mixing interlingual with intralingual subtitles, which may lead to different outcomes (Araújo, 2008).

Participants in Study 1 and 2 were randomly divided into two groups and subsequently exposed to either the intralingual (English) or the interlingual (Spanish) subtitled episodes from the American series *Friends* over a period of 7 weeks. Their performance was tested with both pre-/post-tests (Study 1) and weekly tests (Study 2) in order to inspect the degree to which their performances were influenced by the subtitled conditions they were assigned to. Both pre-, post- and weekly tests measured their written achievement in terms of informal and colloquial language acquisition over a period of 7 weeks, corresponding to thirteen viewing sessions.

The results of the pre-/post-test administered at the beginning and at the end of Study 1 revealed higher performance under the English subtitles (intralingual) mode for both low and high level proficiency students. Learners' short-term acquisition of colloquial and idiomatic vocabulary acquisition was tested with a 20-item multiple choice

and open question written tests in Study 2. The tests were administered after each viewing session in order to gauge whether the results from Study 1 corroborate with the ones in Study 2. Contrary to the outcome in Study 1, the results in the second study indicate that the type of subtitle condition (either interlingual or intralingual) has no significant short-term effect on how the proficiency of students evolves throughout the different sessions. However, individual growth in both subtitle conditions has been observed throughout the viewing sessions, which means that students exposed to audiovisual input with both interlingual and intralingual subtitles made progress over time in terms of informal language learning.

After having looked into the effectiveness of subtitles as language learning tools in the classroom (both interlingual and intralingual) in Study 1 and 2 amongst learners in higher education and their informal and colloquial language acquisition via pre-/post-tests in the first quasi-experimental study and via immediate tests in the second longitudinal study, an intrinsic need to further explore learners' written and oral production of colloquial and informal expressions has emerged. Hence the inquiry to further exploit learners' production after increasing the exposure time (from 7 to 14 weeks) to subtitled television series arose.

5.5.2 The Aims

The main objective of Study 3 is to investigate students' ($N=49$) colloquial language acquisition after being exposed to authentic subtitled audiovisual materials (English sound + English subtitles) over a period of 14 weeks. Students' achievement is measured by means of pre-/post-tests in order to disclose any long-term retention of colloquial and informal language acquisition. Thus, participants in Study 3 watched 28 episodes from television series *Friends* (from season 2 and 3) with English subtitles over a three- and-a-half-month period. Their performance is tested at the beginning and at the end of the experimental condition in order to gauge any group and individual differences between their scores before and after exposure to the subtitled episodes. Therefore, the first research question arose so as to explore how much will students'

performance increase after being exposed to intralingual (English) subtitled audiovisual input over a prolonged period of time (14 weeks) .

We expect students' performance to increase significantly after being exposed to subtitled television series over an extended period of time (14 weeks) due to the belief that exposure for a long period of time to subtitled audiovisual materials fosters learners' vocabulary acquisition. This assumption is supported by empirical studies which measured the effects of subtitled television after a prolonged exposure upon language acquisition and productive skills (Bravo, 2008; Ghia, 2007, 2011; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Vanderplank, 1990). Similarly Ghia (2012) states that the amount of time learners are exposed to audiovisual input plays an important role in the acquisition process, as L2 patterns and linguistic items can be more easily internalized and automatized if learners access it frequently (p.20). The boosting effect of subtitled audiovisual materials upon FL skills on a long-term perspective is also highlighted in most European subtitling communities, in which people tend to be more fluent in English than the ones living in dubbing countries, even without being formally taught the language, as stated in the final report of EU funded project *Study on the Use of Subtitling* (Media Consulting Group, 2011, p. 26). Long-term exposure is believed to be beneficial for L2 syntactic patterns acquisition and the development of L2 proficiency, too (Ghia, 2007, 2011).

As for the use of intralingual subtitles in EFL contexts, many researchers (Baltova, 1999; Bird & Williams, 2002; Bravo, 2008; Caimi, 2006; Garza, 1991; Winke et al., 2010) among others, suggested that intralingual subtitles proved to be a very powerful tool to be used in the language classroom, being beneficial for both beginners and advanced language learners. Moreover, using English subtitles as a means to provide learners evidence of spoken speech in the aural source is believed to increase the amount of comprehensible input (Vanderplank, 1988) and promote a low 'affective filter' (Krashen, 1985, p. 3), which would increase students' motivation and active participation in the learning process. Besides the accounted benefits of intralingual subtitles upon language learning in literature, participants' own assumptions that stated they have the feeling of learning more by being provided with English subtitles played an important factor in choosing to carry out Study 3 only under the intralingual condition.

Given the accounted benefits of intralingual subtitles in the literature and the favourable effects of intralingual (English) condition on long-term retention in Study 1, together with the individual growth observed in both subtitle conditions in Study 2 over a period of 7 weeks, two decisions have been taken for the development of Study 3: a) to expand the exposure period to 14 weeks in order to observe the effects of subtitled audiovisual materials upon learners' FLA process over an extensive period of time; and b) to use English subtitles (the intralingual mode) for all the episodes watched by both groups of participants. Additionally, on the grounds of the findings in Study 2 (individual growth in both subtitle conditions: intralingual and interlingual), a second research question was formulated for the current study, which seeks to examine whether students' individual performances differ significantly between each other at the end of the experimental condition, in terms of their colloquial and informal language acquisition and recall.

Due to the heterogeneity of the group (A2 to C1), we considered essential to further look into the individual differences, so as to better explain the outcomes of the study and not draw conclusions only on the results obtained from the whole group tendencies. Therefore, it is expected students' individual performance will differ between each other in terms of their colloquial and informal language acquisition, however there will be an increase in learners' post-test scores as compared to their pre-test results. This assumption is based on the promising results revealed by Ghia (2007, 2011), who revealed that prolonged exposure to interlingual subtitled audiovisual input had positive effects on the acquisition of syntactic patterns in L2 and general L2 proficiency. However, her studies involved a limited number of participants (15) and she used the standard subtitle condition (L1), while we aim to see if captions (L2) will have the same effect on learners' development of colloquial language.

5.5.3 Data Analyses and Results

Participants' tests results in Study 3 were analyzed using the statistical program *R*. A paired two-sided *t*-test was carried out in order to investigate the effect of English subtitled television series upon colloquial language learning before and after the viewing sessions took place. Additionally, explorative plots were created to generate deeper exploration into participants' performances and their results tendencies. As follows, each step in the data analyses will be explained and the results will be revealed, and subsequently discussed.

The first step in data analysis was to run a paired two-sided *t*-test, so to examine whether there was an effect of the English subtitled television series upon EFL learners' informal language acquisition before and after the viewing sessions took place. Table 7 below shows the analysis of pre-/post-test using *t*-test. Hence from the results of the *t*-test, it can be stated that the difference between the two conditions was significant ($t=7.94$, $p<0.001$, $95\%CI=3.71-7.60$) and the average ($M=10.46$, $SD=2.6$) for pre-test is lower than the average ($M=16.15$, $SD=4.5$) for post-test. The mean difference between the two conditions is ($MD=5.65$), which reinforces the belief that participants' scores increased on average with 5.65 points after being exposed to episodes from authentic subtitled television series over a period of 14 weeks. The *p*-value of the *t*-test shows very significant results in relation to the boundary point set at $p<0.05$, which confirms that the results of the post-test are valid and that an increase in learners scores can be observed. The results disclose an increase in students' performances and the significant *p*-value ($p<0.001$) supports the group tendency of rising after the experimental condition had taken place. However, from the abovementioned *t*-test results no individual differences can be observed ($SD=2.6$ in pre-test, $SD=4.5$ in the post-test), as the results show the overall performance of the two groups. Thus, participants' individual evolution should be looked into, so as to depict whether there is a general tendency of evolvement among all the participants or there are noticeable differences between their performances in terms of pre- and post-test results.

Table 7. Paired two sided t-test of pre-and post-test score

Condition	N	Mean (SD)	Mean Difference	t	df	p-value	95%confidence interval	
Pre-test	37	10.46(2.6)	5.65	7.94	34	<0.001	Lower	Upper
Post-test	37	16.14(4.5)	5.65				3.71	7.60

In a following step the aim was to explore how scores are distributed and if any differences between the two tests can be noticed in terms of group and individual performances. Therefore we created a box plot, a scatter plot with the line of best fit and a geom line plot in order to analyze participants' scores in Study 3. Thus a box plot²¹ was employed to inspect participants' individual pre-/post-test scores. Figure 10 below summarizes participants' data results and depicts graphically both groups of numerical data (pre- and post-test). The graph shows that an increase in learners' post-test scores is perceived; hence the minimum score (first quartile) in the pre-test is 5 as opposed to 8 in the post-test, the maximum score (third quartile) is 16 as opposed to 25 in the post-test. The median²² shows a difference in students' scores between the two conditions, i.e. 10 in the pre-test compared to 16 in the post-test.

Moreover neither the spreads nor the median overlap, therefore a major difference can be observed between pre-test and post-test scores, with wider boxes in the post-test condition. Greater variances between students' scores can be observed in participants post-test scores, which entails that the distribution of scores in the post-test among the participants is not close to the mean, but rather spread out. To sum, on average, students scored higher in their post-test, but there was also a bigger variance between their scores in the post-test. Accordingly, further investigation is needed in order to inspect individual changes and tendencies among the participants of the study.

²¹ Box plots are useful to show overall patters of response among groups, for identifying outliers and for comparing distributions (Tukey, 1977)

²² The median is represented in the graph by the thick black line that crosses horizontally each of the boxes (Tukey, 1977)

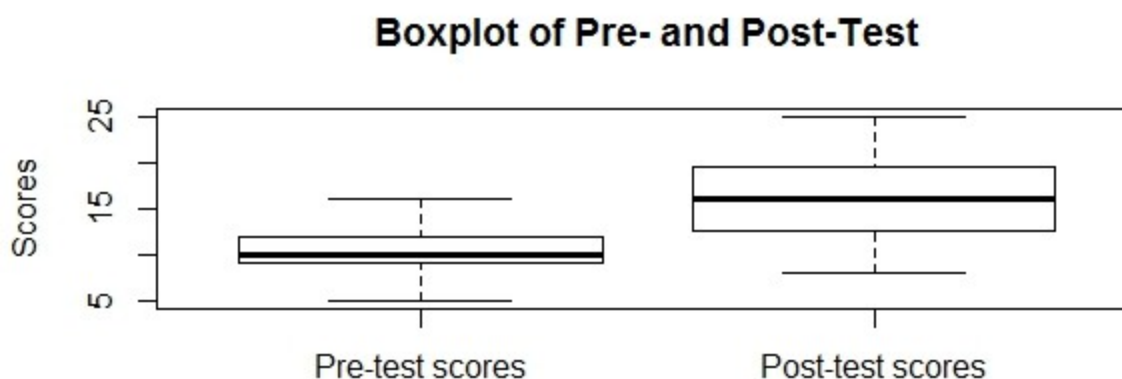


Figure 10. Boxplot of students' pre-/post-test data

Furthermore, figure 11 below discloses a scatter plot²³ that has been created to identify participants scores along a 45 degrees trend line, which brings evidence about the distribution of scores. The line of best fit has been superimposed on the scatter plot, as it gives an overall view of the direction in which the data points are sitting. The scatter plot suggests a positive linear relationship between the two sets of values, i.e. between participants' pre- and post-test scores. First, the graph below shows a linear positive relationship between the two variables. This means that an increase in students' pre-test results correlates with an increase in students' post-test scores. As for the strength between the variables, there is not a strong relationship between the pre- and post-test results, as the dots in the graph are spread out together and no closely tight to the line of best fit. Thus, a rather weak positive linear relationship can be observed between the two conditions, which leads to a certain degree of correlation between pre- and post-test results, but not to a perfect correlation. There are a few outliers that can be observed, too in the graph and these are either participants that scored low in the pre-test and then very high in the post-test or vice versa, they scored high in the pre-test and then their performance decreased in the post-test. Accordingly,

²³ Further explanations about scatter plots in R (Kabacoff, 2014)

these outliers offer additional information about participants' trend in increasing or decreasing in their post-test results and therefore a more detailed observation into individuals' achievement is needed.

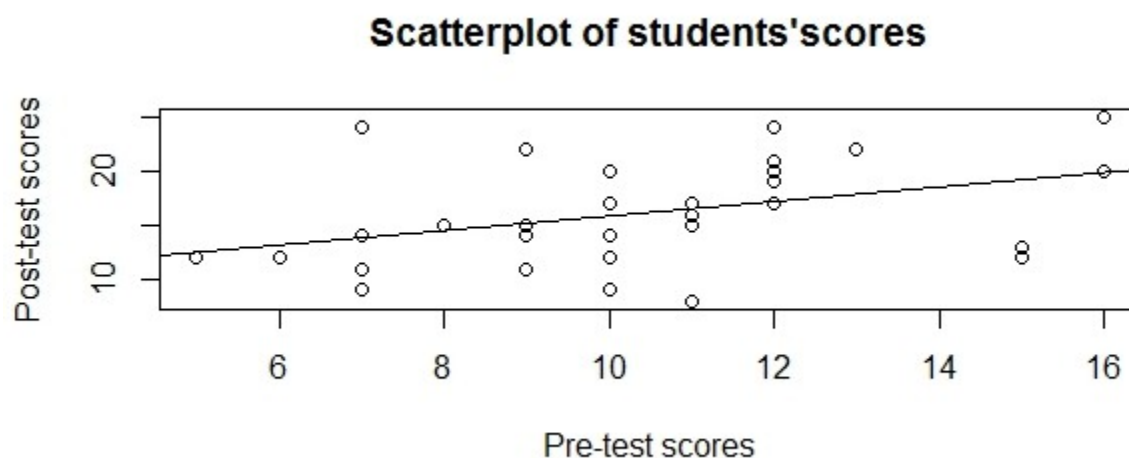


Figure 11. Scatter plot of students' pre-/post-test scores along the line of best fit

Hence, an additional geom line plot was run in order to investigate learners' individual trends in relation to their pre-/post-test results. Figure 12 below shows a graph of lines that reveals each individual score (each line representing a student in the current study). First, a small variation was detected between individuals' scores at the pre-test condition, ergo the difference in scores is small, which means that most of the students scored similar results in their pre-test. The graph shows contrary results at the post-test condition, as the variance between participants' scores is a lot larger and denotes a greater difference between post-test results. Thence, the difference between learners' scores after being exposed for 14 weeks to authentic English subtitled episodes from *Friends* is much bigger than before watching the series. This means that the range between the lowest and the highest score is greater and a noticeable increase in performance can be perceived. Moreover, individual tendencies of increasing or decreasing can be observed, too, as there are learners who decrease²⁴ in

²⁴ The score line is progressing towards the lower right corner of the graph

their post-test results, and there are students who have great, moderate or small rise²⁵ in their performance, too.

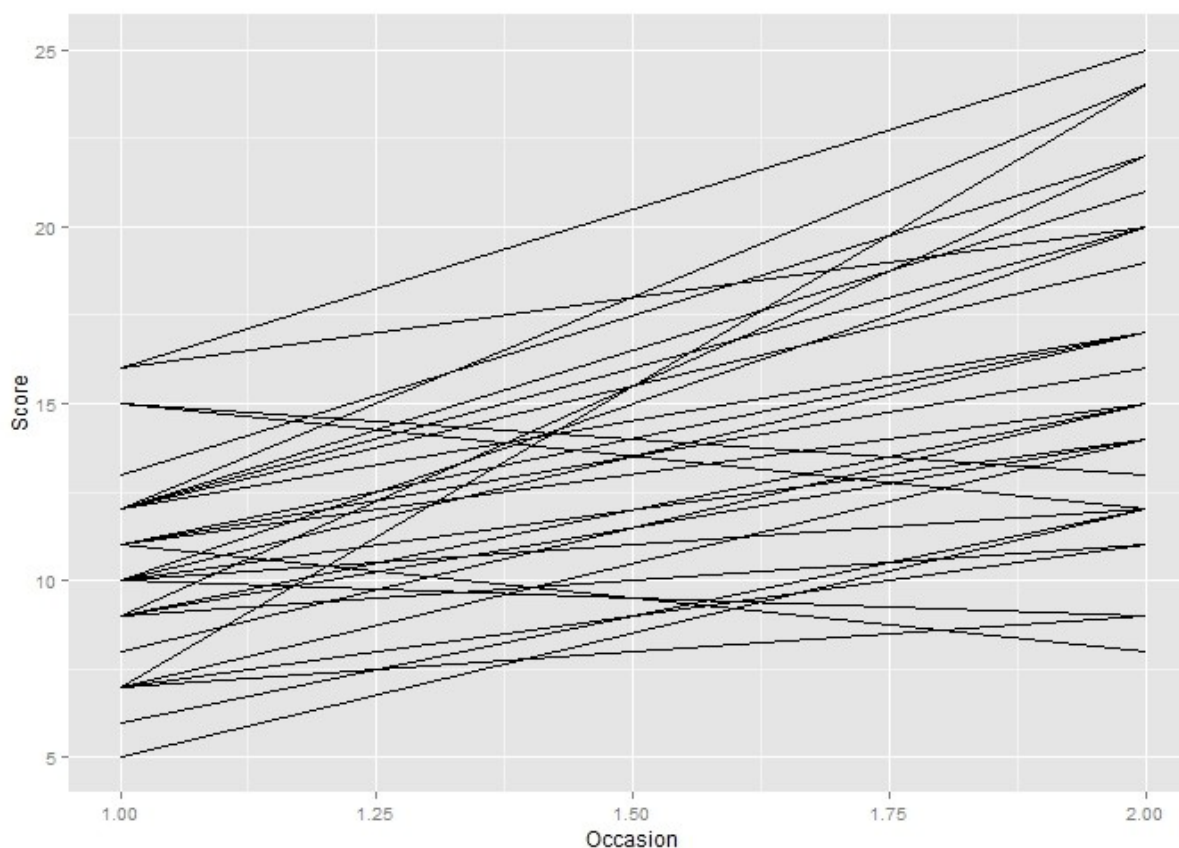


Figure 12. Graph of lines per individual scores
(each line=a student)

The findings were significant ($p < 0.05$) and the mean difference of 5.65 points, on average, between pre- and post-test results reinforced the belief that participants' scores increased after being exposed to authentic subtitled television series over a period of 14 weeks.

Several plots explored the relationship between individuals' scores and their distribution. Thus, the box plot revealed higher scores on average in students' post-test, but also big variance between individuals' scores in their post-test. The scatter plot

²⁵ The lines tend to progress towards the upper right corner with different degree angles

showed a positive linear distribution that corresponds to the assumption that an increase in students' pre-test triggers an increase in their post-test, too. However, the strength between the two variables was not strong, so no perfect correlation between the two conditions was found. This means that students' individual scores differ from each other and they were rather spread out instead of being tightly close to the mean. Therefore, the geom line plot showed that differences among participants were smaller when they performed the pre-test, their results being close to each other, as opposed to the results of the post-test which differed a lot more when the post-test was performed. A few decreasing tendencies were observed too, as not all the participants showed an increase in their post-test scores, some students scoring lower in their post-test. However, the majority of the participants showed signs of involvement, even though the degree with which they increased differed also between them.

5.5.4 Discussion and Conclusions

Study 3 aimed at investigating students' colloquial language acquisition after watching 28 episodes from television series *Friends* with English subtitles over a period of 14 weeks. Consequently, their performance was tested at the beginning and at the end of the experimental condition with a pre- and a post-test in order to gauge any group and individual differences upon students' informal and colloquial vocabulary learning.

The first research question sought to explore how much students' performance will increase after being exposed to English subtitled episodes from television series *Friends* over a three-and-a-half months period. Therefore, we ran several testing procedures and we created explorative plots in order to try to answer the research question posed and confirm the hypothesis formulated. The outcomes of the paired sample *t*-test showed significant results in relation to the boundary point set at $p < 0.05$, which confirms that the scores of the post-test are valid and that an increase in learners scores can be observed. The findings disclose an increase in students' performances and the significant *p*-value ($p = < 0.001$) supports the group tendency of increasing after the experimental condition had taken place. The mean difference between the pre-test

and the post-test scores is 5.65 points on average higher in the post-test, which also shows a sound proof in the group tendency of increasing. Thus, the first hypothesis can be confirmed, as we can observe an increase in students' performance after being exposed to English subtitled episodes from *Friends* over a period of 14 weeks.

The findings support previous long-term studies (Araújo, 2008; Bravo, 2008; Ghia, 2007, 2011; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990), which investigated the effects of long-term exposure of both interlingual and intralingual subtitled audiovisual input upon L2 comprehension and learning. Moreover, the outcome in the current study provides valuable information about the use of intralingual subtitled audiovisual aids in instructional settings as means to develop learners' informal language proficiency. The current study broadened also the spectrum of informal language²⁶ by integrating phrasal verbs, idioms, slang, spoken expressions and nouns as part of informal language data analysis and took a step forward in bringing evidence about the benefits brought by long-term exposure to intralingual subtitled audiovisual materials.

The second research question enquired the relationship between students' individual performances and their score differences at the end of the experimental condition and after being exposed for an extensive period of time to intralingual subtitled episodes from *Friends*. Hence, the descriptive plots brought to light information about the individual performance of the students before and after they sat the pre- and post-test. The box plot revealed higher scores on average in students' post-test, but also big variance between individuals' scores in their post-test. The scatter plot unveiled a positive linear distribution, which refers to an increase in students' post-test according to their pre-test. However, the strength between the two variables was not very strong, so no perfect correlation between the two conditions was found, which means that students' individual scores differed from each other and were rather spread out instead of being tightly close to the mean. Finally, the geom line plot showed that differences among participants were smaller when they performed the pre-test, as opposed to the results of the post-test which differed a lot more when the post-test was performed.

²⁶ Condinho Bravo (2008) focused only on idioms in her doctoral thesis

Differences between participants' scores were noticeable too, as not all of them increased in their post-test results, which marks a change in their tendency of evolvement, few of them decreasing in their post-test results.

Based on the abovementioned findings the second hypothesis can be partially confirmed, as differences between individuals were detected, but not all of them increased in the same way in their post-test results. Nevertheless, the group tendency is of evolvement and the majority increased in their post-test scores. The individual differences between the students may be caused either by the way they responded to the exposure condition, in terms of personal interest and motivation in the target language from the episodes, or by their ability to grasp the meaning of the informal expressions from the visual context. Although several empirical studies proved the beneficial effects of intralingual subtitles for vocabulary acquisition and recall (Bird & Williams, 2002; Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; Bravo, 2008; Talaván, 2007; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990), there are still various types of learners who might employ different learning styles when acquiring new vocabulary in the target language (Gijbels, Donche, Richardson, & Vermunt, 2014), thus further research is needed in order to evaluate the individual differences in learners' scores.

The overall findings of Study 3 add relevant information to the field of SLA/FLA and AVT and shed light on learners' colloquial and informal vocabulary acquisition and recall after being exposed to intralingual subtitles audiovisual materials over an extensive period of time (three and a half months, i.e. the longest period of exposure to subtitled materials in an empirical study up to the researcher's knowledge). However, several limitations concerning this study should be acknowledged. The outcomes in the current study rely on written evidence of spoken production and seek to test language production characteristic to informal spoken interactions. This could lead to several threats when it comes to assuming the validity of the results and therefore, further

research in demonstrating convergent or divergent validity²⁷ (Cohen et al., 2011) of the written results should be considered.

Thus, using written tests to analyze learners' informal vocabulary acquisition can be perceived as one of the major limitations of Study 3 (but also of Study 1 and 2), as fully relying on learners' written recall to assess vocabulary acquisition may mislead and threaten the validity of the results. Firstly, because students' scores on paper may not reflect entirely their oral acquisition of informal and colloquial expressions and most importantly, their ability to use the words orally in meaningful contexts. Secondly, the visual and written clues from the episodes may have helped students identify and store the meaning of words in their long-term memory and subsequently use them in the written tests. Therefore, the need to exploit students' oral productions in communicative tasks, for example communicative role-plays, is considered vital for further validation of the existing findings. Students' current results should be corroborated with their spoken productions in communicative role-play tasks in order to examine whether learners are able to use previously acquired colloquial language in informal oral encounters with their peers.

Other shortcomings of the current study would be the lack of a control group, which due to the design of the course was not possible to form. That is why, we base our findings on the considerable amount of empirical studies carried out in the field and which claimed the undeniable beneficial impact of subtitled audiovisual input upon foreign language learning. Moreover, we considered the effect of the pre-test a vital starting point in analyzing learners' comprehension and retention at the end of the treatment, because of the heterogeneity of the group and the lack of an official solid test on informal language, which could have given us a more reliable view on learners' L2 proficiency level. Due to the long-term development of the study, some students missed several sessions. Because some of the students missed on a regular basis the classes ,

²⁷ Convergent and divergent(discriminant) validity are facets of construct validity; convergent validity is demonstrated when two related or similar elements of a construct are shown to be related or similar to each other, i.e. the results coincide with each other; divergent validity on the contrary, shows unrelated items, elements or factors or different from each other (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 189)

which is one of the aspects that is almost impossible to control, especially at university level, data from pre-test scores could not be taken into consideration from all the students enrolled in the course.

To conclude, despite the apparent limitations, the current investigation shed light into participants' scores and how they responded to the extensive exposure to intralingually subtitled episodes from *Friends* and it offered valuable findings that can be further on analyzed and correlated with learners' spontaneous oral performances in communicative encounters.

5.6 Study 4. Enhancing Spoken Production of Colloquial and Informal Language through Long-Term Exposure to Captioned Videos

5.6.1 Introduction

Study 4 will consider the implications brought by exposure to subtitled (intralingual) audiovisual materials over 14 weeks upon learners' spoken production in role-play activities. The goal of the current study is to examine whether students' written results from Study 3 correlate with their spoken productions in communicative role-play tasks and if there is significant evidence to support the claim that learners are able to use previously acquired colloquial language in informal oral encounters.

The poor evidence of empirical studies concerning the effect of subtitled audiovisual materials upon oral production (Araújo, 2008; Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990) reinforces the goal of this study. Vanderplank's (1988) study was among the first one that reported the use of speaking activities such as acting out dialogues and scenes from situation comedies as a means to test oral proficiency after exposing learners to intralingual subtitled BBC television programmes. However, no explanation was revealed about the scoring method employed when assessing speaking and only findings related to the implication of learners' language development and their ability to develop strategies and techniques to use subtitles flexibly were disclosed. Therefore no reliable conclusions could be drawn from his study in relation to

speaking proficiency. In his second study, Vanderplank (1990) measured the effect of intralingual subtitles upon learners' ability to reproduce what they had heard and noticed in the BBC television series after being exposed for a three-month period. Although the results showed considerable development of learners' productive abilities in the L2, the tasks students had to be performed were neither natural, nor communicative, as learners had to make use of their memory skills, rather than of their linguistic abilities.

Borras&Lafayette's (1994) study was one of the first one that brought evidence on oral communicative performance of French college students after they watched videos with fully duplicated (literal) intralingual subtitles, also known as closed-captions. Nevertheless, limitations concerning their study should be pointed out. First, they focused on transactional task practice with multimedia courseware, such as description or narration, which cannot be considered fully communicative tasks, therefore the need to implement both transactional and interactional tasks²⁸ under the form of communicative and interactive activities in the classroom in this study. Then, the use of closed-captioned video excerpts is not a common practice, highly encountered in students' everyday watching habits, so it does not reflect a recurrent form of watching films and videos and it is also time-consuming to be used by language teachers in the FL/SL classroom as a didactic tool. Finally, the lack of long-term effects of speaking practice under the subtitled condition (learners participated in the experiment for less than 180 minutes) reveals partial conclusive results in relation to learners' ability to develop their speaking skills.

Araújo's (2008) study considered a longitudinal research project aimed at developing oral proficiency, focusing on listening and speaking skills. However, she assessed speaking from a pronunciation and fluency point of view, as she tested phonetic interference between Portuguese and English and analyzed learners' fluency by means of interviews on general topics in one-to-one chat activities. Limitations considering her study should be mentioned, as speaking ability cannot be measured

²⁸ *Transactional talk* is aimed at delivering your message as a need to change the situation in question, e.g. to tell somebody something they need to know, to get someone to do something, to purchase something, etc, whereas the *interactional talk* is about establishing and maintaining social relationships, as the interlocutors can ask for clarification while engaged in the spoken interaction (Brown & Yule, 1983; Burkart, 1998; McCarthy, 1991; Nunan, 1991; Stenström, 1994).

only in terms of pronunciation and fluency and moreover, the type of task does not reflect real-life interactions in communicative contexts.

Thus, the drawbacks of the abovementioned studies in relation to the methodologies, testing procedures and type of tasks used to test speaking production reinforced the need to further exploit this language aspect. Hence, the current study marks its novelty in the literature by bringing to light valuable information concerning EFL learners' ability to use informal spoken language in oral interactions. This approach is considered different and innovative from the previous studies due to: first, its focus on informal spoken language, an area scarcely investigated (except the effect of idioms upon written production and recall analyzed by Bravo (2008)); and second, due to the new methodology and testing procedure used to compile the data, i.e. role-play dialogue scripts designed to replicate spontaneous informal encounters between two people. Accordingly, students had to make use of previously acquired colloquial expressions from the audiovisual input in face-to-face interactions.

5.6.2 The Aims

On the grounds of the abovementioned limitations of previous research studies, Study 4 aims to delve into two aspects of spoken informal vocabulary: first, to test participants' oral production of informal and colloquial expressions in role-play activities by measuring the amount of expressions used appropriately by each participant; and second, to examine features of oral production in students' speech, such as fluency, spontaneity, ability to improvise well and sound naturally. Furthermore, students' written results from Study 3 will be corroborated with their spoken productions in communicative role-play tasks from Study 4, so as to examine learners' ability to use colloquial language structures formerly encountered in oral interactions.

The rationale behind the 4th study is related to the outcome of previous studies (Study 1, 2 and 3). On the one hand, the beneficial effects of interlingual (English subtitles) condition upon informal and colloquial language learning in Study 1 and on the other hand, the individual growth of students in both subtitle conditions (English and

Spanish) in Study 2, which encouraged further analysis over an extended period of time in Study 3. Therefore, the favourable results found in Study 3, i.e. significant increase in participants' post-test score, led to the design of Study 4. This was aimed to provide additional information in relation to students' informal and colloquial language acquisition in informal oral encounters by testing parts of typical spoken language, such as idioms, slang, phrasal verbs, spoken nouns and expressions in communicative role-play tasks. Thus, the following research questions are fundamental for the development of Study 4. The first one enquires whether students' written post-test results will correlate with students' ability to use appropriately colloquial and informal vocabulary in oral speech.

We expect that performance in students' written post-test from Study 3 will correlate with students' ability to use appropriately the colloquial and informal vocabulary in oral productions. Hence, expectations to demonstrate convergent validity (Cohen et al., 2011) are raised, i.e. the results in both oral and written tests will be related to each other and will show similar outcomes. This implies that learners who proved that acquired a considerable amount of informal expressions in the written tests will also show the ability to express themselves using phrasal verbs, slang, idioms, spoken nouns and expressions in oral tasks.

The second issue aims at having an insight into the quality of students' oral discourse, and therefore it is put forward by the second research question. How will students express themselves when performing the oral encounters with their peers? Will they be able to sound natural, fluent, spontaneous or will they be nervous and unable to maintain the conversation, as an effect of the study?

We believe students will be able to express themselves naturally, spontaneously, fluently and improvise accordingly, due to the effects brought by extensive access to authentic audiovisual input enhanced with intralingual subtitles. Thus, relevant features of oral discourse will be traceable in students' oral speech when interacting with their peers. Longer exposure to input is considered to bring greater learning benefits (Caruana, 2006; Ghia, 2007, 2011), therefore learners could have become familiar with

characteristics of spoken discourse by constantly being exposed to features from the film dialogues they watched for three and a half months.

To sum, Study 4 is set to scrutinize whether learners are able to use previously acquired colloquial expressions in oral spoken productions. Therein, the primary goal is to investigate whether any possible relationship between the tests from Study 3 and students' oral productions from Study 4 is detectable. The current study seeks to demonstrate if findings from learners' tests converge or are similar to their spoken productions, and therefore convergent validity can be shown (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 189). Moreover, features of learners' spoken production such as fluency, spontaneity, ability to sound natural and improvise well in the given situation were inquired in order to grasp insight into learners' quality of spoken speech.

5.6.3 Participants and Instruction

As Study 4 employs different testing procedure and material, additional details will be provided in this section about the number of participants included in this study, the material used and the testing procedure. Therefore, 37 student ($N=37$) were included in Study 4 and their oral productions were recorded to be later on analyzed in terms of language use and features of spoken discourse. Further explanations about the type of participants and their characteristics can be found in section 5.2.1.

An essential aspect to be mentioned is that all the participants ($N=49$) belonged to a heterogeneous group in terms of proficiency, language levels ranging from A2 to C1 according to CEFR. Determining participants' proficiency level was essential for the development of the current study, so as to create pairs with similar language proficiency that would perform the role-play tasks together. Randomly assigned pairs would have resulted in a breakdown in communication while performing the task, so in order to avoid participants discrepancies in terms of informal spoken proficiency, the informal language pre-test was used as a means to indentify learners' level and to form the pairs. Due to the lack of official proficiency tests measuring informal and colloquial vocabulary, the teacher/researcher faced the need to design a pre-/post-test (used for testing in

Study 3) targeted at informal and colloquial vocabulary from the upcoming episodes in order to establish the three proficiency level categories and to get an insight into students' familiarity with this aspect of the language

The pre-/post-test consisted of 30 multiple-choice and open questions items and one point was given for each correct answer. Hence, students who scored between 1 and 9 points were placed under L1/A2 level, the ones who scores between 10 and 12 were considered to belong to L2/B1 and B2 level, and finally students who scored 13 points or above were falling under L3/C1 level. Three proficiency levels were considered, 11 participants were found to belong to L1, 20 were found to belong to L2, and 6 students to L3. The range between levels was determined given the boundaries between participants' scores, and eventhough the range in L2 level seems the smallest, the majority of the students have fallen into this category, as their scores ranged between 10 and 12. On the contrary, in the L3/C1 category the range is more ample than the previous level (between 13 and 30), however only 6 students were considered to belong to this level as the highest score was 16.

5.6.4 Material and Testing Procedure

The teacher/researcher prepared 7 plots for 7 communicative dialogues in an informal register. The scripts were aimed at providing students with guidelines about the contextual situation and with information about the roles of the interlocutors. The directions given were relevant for students to get an insight into the roles they had to assume and the language associated with it. The scripts served as a means to help students build up a dialogue around it, using an informal register and style and making use of the colloquial expressions they were exposed to, throughout the 28 viewing sessions. Students were given 1-2 minutes to read the scripts and they were expected to role-play spontaneously, without previous preparation, an informal encounter between two people by making use of the colloquial language suggested and any other extra expressions suitable for the given situation.

Each pair was given two scripts with two plots, so they had to build up 2 spontaneous dialogues following the situational context provided by the teacher. 1 point was given for each correct informal and colloquial expression used in the dialogue (there were maximum of 7-8 expected informal expressions for each student, but they were free to use as many as they wanted if suitable in the provided context) .

Their spoken discourses were recorded with a Sony PCM M10 portable audio recorder in order to be later on analyzed. Furthermore, comments about their overall performance, in terms of fluency, spontaneity and engagement in the activity were provided for each participant in order to get an insight into participants' features of spoken production. Participants' identity was not disclosed and it will not be present in the data analysis, as only the researcher had access to the files and the recordings and they were used solely for research purposes. Examples of the dialogue scripts can be found in *Appendix 5*.

Students' oral performance was assessed by taking into consideration several colloquial and informal language sections, such as phrasal verbs (e.g. *get over someone, feel down, move on, break up with someone, etc*), idioms (e.g. *once in a blue moon, sow ones' wild oats, hurt someone's feeling, to have a fling, etc*), slang (e.g. *jerk, yankee, bimbo*), spoken and informal expressions (e.g. *what's up?, are you kidding me?, to feel blue, to feel clobbered, no way!, to be nuts, etc*) and informal nouns (e.g. *sweetheart, sweetie, honey, nutcase, etc*). For a detailed classification of the informal and colloquial terms used by the participants see *Appendix 6*. These categories were selected according to the frequency of appearance in the episodes and divided in the aforementioned sections following the criteria and classification in several online dictionaries, such as Macmillan Dictionary Online²⁹, Cambridge Dictionary Online³⁰, Urban Dictionary³¹, The Free Dictionary³² and Merriam-Webster Dictionary³³.

²⁹ <http://www.macmillandictionary.com>

³⁰ <http://dictionary.cambridge.org>

³¹ <http://www.urbandictionary.com>

³² <http://www.thefreedictionary.com>

³³ <http://www.merriam-webster.com>

1 point was given for each expression or word used appropriately in the given context, thus formulaic expressions such as exclamations: *Got it!* or *Ohh man!*, contractions and non-standard use of grammar: *What's up?* *Who's gonna?* *How's it going?* are considered features of spoken language, and therein they have been considered feasible in participants' spoken discourse.

5.6.5 Criteria for Assessing Oral Discourse

As for the features of students' oral discourses, several categories were considered after reviewing the characteristics of spoken informal discourse in the literature. Therefore, the following criteria for each feature of oral discourse was established when participants' oral performances were analyzed. First, students' oral discourse was analyzed in terms of *naturalness* and the ability to sound authentic while performing the task. Participants' oral discourse was considered natural if they showed appropriate use of register and style, in this case informal, and if they tended to use simple syntactic structures, with no complex subordinating syntax, such as 'incomplete sentences', or the use of non-specific words such as *something*, *that*, *the others*, fillers like *hmm*, *ohh*, *well* and adding information at the time and not densely packed in a phrase. These characteristics are typical signs of informal spoken discourse as mentioned by Brown & Yule (1983). Thus, students' oral performances were coded with 1, if they were considered to be natural, and with 0, if they made use of formal features of speech and they were unable to adapt to the register and the style of the conversation.

The second category taken into consideration was how students felt while speaking; in other words if they were *nervous* or not while performing the task. This category was taken into consideration given the pressure an oral task can have upon learners and I wanted to identify if participants felt nervous and unable to follow the conversation, or on the contrary, they felt at ease and free of constraints while involved in the oral interaction with their peers. The same coding system was used for this category, too; 1 corresponding to participants who felt nervous, and therefore unable to

perform the task appropriately, and 0 to the ones who were confident and able to deliver the speech in a natural and collected way.

Spontaneity is another aspect taken into consideration, as it is closely linked to the ability to sound natural when involved in oral interactions. Therefore, learners' speech was considered spontaneous if their speech contained the following properties mentioned by Miller & Weinert (1998): if it was produced in real time and with no opportunity for editing, if it is a face-to-face interaction in a particular context, if the speech is accompanied by gestures, eye-gaze and facial expressions, if there is involved less grammatical subordination than in written texts, and if the syntax is rather fragmented and phrases are less complex (pp.22-23). Other characteristics, such as hesitation phenomena (repeats, false starts, fillers, such as *uh, oh, well*, pauses), interjections and laughter represent sources of spontaneous and coherent discourses in real time for both speaker and listener and signs of fluency and communicative effectiveness (Hadley, 2001, p. 180; O'Connell & Kowal, 2008, p. 219).

Fluency is another factor considered when analyzing learners' oral productions. But how could a 'fluent' speech be defined? Fillmore (1979) cited in Bosker (2014) mentions four dimensions of fluent speech: a) rapid, connected speech; 2) dense, coherent speech; 3) appropriate, relevant speech; and 4) creative, aesthetic speech (p.3). Thus Fillmore (1979) distinguishes not only the form of speech, but also its content, as he mentions coherence and relevance as one of the four characteristics of a fluent speech. Lennon (1990) defines fluency in two senses. In the broad sense fluency is used as synonym for global language ability in instances when we refer to people's ability to speak well a language, e.g. 'He is fluent in three languages' and this may entail error-grammar free speech, use of large vocabulary size or almost native-like pronunciation. In the narrow sense, fluency is a component of speaking proficiency and apart from grammar and vocabulary it refers to the flow and smoothness of the speech.

Fluency is also perceived as an automatic skill of the speaker and the capacity of controlling his L2 knowledge, reflected in the speed and ease with which he accesses L2 information in order to deliver the message in real time (Housen and Kuiken, 2009 in Bosker, 2014, p. 4). Therefore fluency is associated with cognitive speech production

processes, such as linguistic control and access to L2 information. Skehan (2009) defines fluency as the 'capacity to produce speech at normal rate and without interruption' (p.510), hence in this sense fluency is a property of the spoken speech that can be measured as an acoustic phenomenon. Segalowitz (2010), on the other hand, describes three types of fluency in his framework, namely: cognitive fluency 'the efficiency of operation of the underlying processes responsible for the production of utterances'; utterance fluency 'the features of utterances that reflect the speaker's cognitive fluency' and which can be acoustically measured; and perceived fluency 'the inferences listeners make about speakers' cognitive fluency based on their perceptions of utterance fluency' (p.165). The utterance fluency is the most perceptible one, as researchers associate a number of phonetic measurements when assessing it, such as speed rate, mean length of runs, number of corrections or repetitions per minute, number of silent or filled pauses per minute, mean length of pauses (Segalowitz, 2010, p. 6).

The current study does not assess fluency according to speed rate or mean length of runs, or pauses, however it considers the principles of perceived fluency. Thus, perceived fluency is assessed by means of subjective perception, usually involving ratings on Equal Appearing Interval Scales (EAIS; Thurstone, 1928 in Bosker, 2014, p. 7). There is an extensive number of studies that investigated to what extent there is a relationship between the utterance fluency (temporal speech measures) and perceived fluency (subjective judgments). These studies indicate high correlation coefficients between the subjective fluency ratings and the number of syllables per second (Bosker, 2014), hence assessing fluency based on the inferences listeners make in oral interactions is conceivable in the given situation.

Fluency in spontaneously produced speech contains all sorts of 'disfluencies' such as silent pauses, filled pauses (hm, uhm, etc), corrections, repetitions (Bosker, 2014, p. 2), therein the criteria used to decide if learners in the current study were fluent or not (1 was given to the learners considered fluent and 0 to the ones considered non-fluent) was based on features of fluency in spontaneous speech. 'Disfluencies' are common in spontaneous speech and far from being detrimental, it may help the listener

in comprehending the message transmitted. The occurrence of these types of 'disfluencies' may be due to the context, too as there is a higher probability when talking in dialogues to use repetitions, pauses, corrections and filled pauses than in monologues or previously prepared speeches (Bosker, 2014, p. 10). Accordingly, participants were considered fluent while performing the task if their oral speech was intelligible to the listener and did not hinder communication and if they showed ability to adapt to the situational context in terms of vocabulary choice and use of grammatical structures. Therefore, fluency in the current context does not refer to grammatically correct phrases, as it is purely understood in the written discourse, but to structures rather 'ungrammatical' that integrate avoidance of subject pronouns or complex noun phrases. This does not mean less professional or incorrect speech, but rather an adequate use of language for the style and register of the situational context (McCarthy, 1998) and in concordance with the features of a fluent spontaneous speech.

Finally, students' ability to *improvise* accordingly in the provided context was considered a valuable feature of spoken discourse because the written scripts provided by the teacher offered guidelines that were meant to boost students' involvement and ability to build up the oral discourse around it. Thus, learners were considered able to improvise well while performing the oral task if they kept the conversation going and they did not stop speaking abruptly, if they added information and facts to the scripts that were not suggested in the plots, if they used extra vocabulary and informal expressions not stated in the guidelines, and finally if they built up their conversation taking into consideration the guidelines but not following entirely the scrip suggested. Same coding procedure was used for this discourse feature as well, 1 being given to the participants that improvised accordingly, and 0 to the ones that did not reach the abovementioned standards.

5.6.6 Data Analyses and Results

Participants' spoken productions have been analyzed using the statistical program R. The following statistical tests and functions: Welch two-sample t-test, Cohen's *d* effect size, correlation tests and prop. table function have been carried out in order to observe any interconnection between participants' post-test scores from Study 3 and their oral performances in Study 4, by running several correlation tests. The aim of the correlation tests was to establish if there was any strong connection between students' post-test and their oral informal and colloquial language scores. Furthermore, the prop.table function was employed to generate frequency tables in order to look into the quality of learners' spoken discourse in terms of naturalness, spontaneity, fluency, nervousness and improvisation. Additional *t*-tests and effect size (Cohen's *d*) were carried out in order to look at the reliability of group results in relation to their oral production features. As follows, each step in the data analysis will be explained and results will be revealed and subsequently discussed.

First, correlation tests have been performed in order to trace whether any association between participants' post-test scores and their oral performances can be established. Function `cor.test` in program R has been used to perform correlation tests between several variables. First the variable of post-test scores was correlated with the total amount of informal and colloquial expressions used by the participants in their oral interactions. Hence a strong correlation effect ($r = 0.63$) has been found between the two variables and a significant *p*-value ($p = <0.001$) of the corresponding tests supports the validity of results. However, further correlations tests were needed in order to identify any connection between students' post-test scores and each category of the informal language.

Therefore, a correlation test was run between the post-test and each category of informal language, i.e. phrasal verbs, idioms, slang, spoken expressions and informal nouns. The results of the correlation tests can be seen in table 8 below, which shows Pearson's correlation (Cohen et al., 2011, pp. 632–639) coefficients between post-test scores and participant's oral production of informal and colloquial language and their correspondent *p*-values.

Pearson's product coefficient of correlation is a statistical value ranging from -1.0 to +1.0 and expresses the relationship in quantitative form between two variables. If the two variables fluctuate in the same direction, i.e. as one increases or decreases so does the other, there is a positive relationship. The plus sign is used to indicate the positive nature of the relationship. Therefore, +1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation between two factors and -1.0 implies a perfect negative correlation, i.e. changes in the independent item will result in an identical change in the dependent item, but the change will be in the opposite direction. Thus any value between -1.0 to -0.5 or +1.0 to +0.5 corresponds to a strong negative or positive correlation between two factors and therefore, a strong probability of change in the two variables is foreseen. Any value that falls between -0.5 to -0.3 or +0.3 to +0.5 is said to have a moderate positive or negative correlation, and any value between -0.3 to -0.1 or +0.1 to +0.3 is considered to have a weak positive or negative correlation. A low correlation coefficient of 0 or less ± 0.1 corresponds to no effect on the dependent item, and therefore the relationship between the two variables is weak or non-existent (Cohen & Holliday, 1996, 1982; Cohen et al., 2011).

Thus, it can be claimed that the correlation coefficients between post-test results and oral production scores are strong ($r = 0.63$, $r = 0.62$) in the case of total amount of expressions used and phrasal verbs, and moderate ($r = 0.43$, $r = 0.35$, $r = 0.45$) in the case of idioms, spoken expressions and informal nouns, which means that changes in post-test results will trigger changes in participants' oral production scores.

Table 8. Correlation coefficients and p-values between written post-test and oral productions

Variable	Post-test Correlations	P-value
Total no. of informal expressions used	0.63	<0.001***
Phrasal verbs	0.62	<0.001***
Idioms	0.43	0.008**
Slang	0.19	0.273
Spoken expressions	0.35	0.03*
Informal nouns	0.45	0.006**

Therein, an increase or a decrease in students' post-test results will correspond to an increase or a decrease in students' oral discourse use of informal and colloquial language. In the current case, the strong and moderate positive correlation coefficients indicate that an increase in learners' post-test will correspond to an increase in the amount of informal expressions used in the oral tasks. Moreover, the significant p-values advocate the validity of the correlation tests and support the assumption that there is a strong relationship between learners' written informal language acquisition and their oral production.

Nevertheless, a low correlation coefficient ($r = 0.19$) was found only in the case of the use of slangs, which corresponds with the non-significant p-value ($p = >0.05$). The use of slangs has not proved to be significant and representative for the current sample of subjects, as this category of the language was scarcely used by students. A possible explanation of the low correlation between the post-test scores and the use of slangs in oral tasks could be the low frequency of appearance of slang words in the episodes. Therefore, students had access to reduced amounts of slang and this could have led to low usage in their oral interactions and productions. Further investigation into this category of the language is needed, so as to certify the current findings in relation to slang. Slang is a culturally specific part of informal language and it entails a high level degree of proficiency and familiarity with both the cultural and linguistic aspect of the language. Hence, it is a demanding challenge for students to grasp its full meaning and use it appropriately in oral interactions. Therefore, extensive exposure to an enriched slang input could be provided, so as to explore whether similar effects are traceable in students' written and oral performances.

An additional R function `prop.table` was used in order to generate frequency tables so that we establish the amount of participants, in percentages, that belonged to the abovementioned features of spoken discourse. The percentage for each group category of oral discourse feature can be found in table 9 below. Learners' oral performances were analyzed in terms of how natural, spontaneous and fluent their oral discourse was, how nervous they sounded when interacting with their peers and their capacity to improvise in the given context and carry on with the conversation.

As follows, it has been noticed a favourable effect of English subtitled television series upon learners' quality of speech production when interacting with their peers, given the ease at which they were able to improvise and keep on with the conversation. Thus 95% of the participants were reported as having improvised well in the provided context. The degree of spontaneity and naturalness with which they got involved into the conversation was measured, too, and therefore 60% of the participants were reported as spontaneous and 70% as natural, being able to sound as if they were in natural contexts outside the classroom.

Finally, 70% of the participants were reported as being fluent while engaged into the conversation and building up on the situational context provided. Given the division in percentages between participants and their oral performance, several subgroups were formed in order to grasp an insight into the amount of learners that correspond to each feature of spoken discourse. Students were grouped according to the type of feature of oral discourse they belonged to, hence the following group categories were formed: fluent vs. non-fluent, improvised vs. unimprovised, natural vs. unnatural, nervous vs. non-nervous, spontaneous vs. non-spontaneous.

Table 9. Features of students' oral discourse in percentages and mean differences

Group	%	Mean	p-value	r
Fluent	70	17.64		
Non-fluent	30	12.40	<0.001	1.45
Improvised	95	16.30		
Unimprovised	5	13.50	0.26	.83
Natural	70	16.84		
Unnatural	30	14.40	0.08	.62
Nervous	35	13.41		
Non-nervous	65	17.56	0.005	1.05
Spontaneous	60	17.52		
Non-spontaneous	40	14.07	0.02	.82

Additionally, *t*-tests were carried out in order to calculate the means of the features of oral discourse between the groups of participants and the pre-test scores from Study 3. Cohen's *d* was used to calculate the effect size for the current sample too. Cohen's *d* is the difference in the two groups' mean divided by the average of their standard deviation and it is a way of quantifying the difference between two groups, in

other words it is a measure of the effectiveness of the treatment (Coe, 2000).

Cohen's *d* rule of thumb suggests 0.2 or less representing a 'small' effect size, 0.5 a 'medium' effect size and 0.8 a 'large' effect size. This means that if the two groups' means do not differ by 0.2 standard deviations or more, no meaningful difference between them can be noticed, even if it is statistically significant (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 617). Similarly, according to Coe (2000) values between 0-0.20 represent a weak effect size, values between 0.21-0.50 a modest effect, between 0.51-1.00 a moderate effect and >1.00 a strong effect size.

Table 9 above shows participants' oral performances in percentages, showing how many participants were fluent, non-fluent, improvised, did not improvise, sounded natural or unnatural, nervous or non-nervous, and spontaneous or non-spontaneous, and the mean values of the *t*-tests run between the post-test and every oral discourse feature. *P*-values are also disclosed together with Cohen's *d* effect size in order to support the significance of the mean differences between the two groups and suggest how ample was the effect of the condition upon participants' outcomes.

Therefore, in the case of fluency, the group recorded as being fluent has a mean of ($M=17.64$) compared to the mean of the non-fluent group of ($M=12.40$), the test was statistically significant ($p<0.05$) and the effect size value ($d=1.45$) shows a very large effect, which, on average, reveals a consistent difference between the two fluency groups. As for the ability to improvise well, the mean differences between the two groups has not been found statistically significant ($p>0.05$), although the mean of the group that improvised well ($M=16.30$) is higher than the mean of the group that did not improvise well ($M=13.50$) and the effect size value ($d=.83$) indicates a large effect, which suggests a high significance in students' ability to improvise in the given context.

The mean value of the group that sounded natural ($M=16.84$) is higher than the mean of the group that did not have a natural oral discourse ($M=14.40$) and the *p*-value of the *t*-test was found statistically significant ($p<0.05$) as well as a moderate to high effect size ($d=.62$), which reinforces the belief that the significance of the natural group can be considered feasible. As for the results of the participants who felt nervous while performing the oral task, the mean ($M=13.41$) is lower than the mean ($M=17.56$) of the

ones who did not sound nervous, hence the t-test resulted statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and the effect size value ($d = 1.05$) indicates a very strong effect, which emphasizes the fact that the difference between the learners who were nervous and the ones who were not is significant and less participants acted nervous while performing the communicative tasks.

As for the feature of spontaneity, the mean of the learners who acted spontaneously ($M = 17.52$) is higher than the mean ($M = 14.07$) of the ones who were not spontaneous in their oral speech. The p -value is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and the effect size ($d = .82$) points out a large effect, therefore the mean differences between the two groups is considered significant and it can be stated that a high number of students had a spontaneous performance in their oral discourse.

5.6.7 Discussion and Conclusions

The goal of Study 4 was to examine whether students' post-test results from Study 3 corroborate with the spoken productions they performed in communicative role-play tasks. Thus several testing procedures were performed in order to gauge the relationship between students' written and oral production and how features of oral discourse, such as fluency, spontaneity, naturalness and ability to improvise were used meaningfully in peer interactions.

The first research question sought to investigate to what extent learners' written post-test results correlate with their ability to use previously acquired colloquial and informal expressions in oral tasks. Hence inquiries concerning convergent or divergent validity (Cohen et al., 2011) issues were raised in relation to their outcomes. Several correlation tests were run in order to establish if there was any strong connection between students' post-test and their oral informal and colloquial language scores. The findings of the correlation tests between the post-test and the total amount of informal and colloquial expressions used by the participants showed strong correlation coefficients ($r = 0.63$). This indicates that an increase in students' post-test results will

correspond to an increase in the number of informal and colloquial expressions used in students' oral discourse.

Furthermore, the correlations coefficients between the post-test and the following categories of informal language, i.e. phrasal verbs, idioms, spoken expressions and informal nouns were found to be strong and moderate, too ($r = 0.62$, $r = 0.43$, $r = 0.35$, $r = 0.45$). This reinforces the belief that there is a strong relationship between learners' written informal language acquisition and their oral production performances. On the grounds of the aforementioned findings the first hypothesis can be considered feasible and the results demonstrated convergent validity, as students' written post-test correlate with students' ability to use appropriately the colloquial and informal vocabulary in oral productions. Hence students were able to express themselves using the informal and colloquial expressions previously acquired from the viewing sessions.

However, a low correlation coefficient has been found only in the case of the use of slangs, which corresponds with the non-significant p-value ($p = >0.05$). The rationale for the low correlation coefficient in the case of slangs could be that learners in the current sample were not familiar enough with this aspect of the language, as it is scarcely taught in formal teaching contexts and it hardly appeared in the episodes from 'Friends' as well. Therefore students had access to reduced amounts of slang and this could have led to low usage in their oral productions and to difficulty in internalizing this item of informal spoken language.

The overall positive outcome reinforces the belief that the language present in films and TV fiction acts as a rich source of input for both L2 written and oral comprehension and acquisition. As such, not only the quantity of input but also its quality is of vital importance for the development of L2 language skills, since audiovisual input from films and TV fiction offer 'exposure to L2 in the form of sociolinguistically and pragmatically varied interactions' between speaker belonging to different social groups and engaged in a series of social situations (Pavesi, 2012, p. 157).

The second research question aimed to explore the quality of learners' output when performing the role-play tasks and their ability to sound natural, fluent, spontaneous while interacting with their peers. Thus, frequency tables were created in order to analyze the quality of learners' spoken productions in terms of how natural, spontaneous, fluent their oral discourse was, how nervous they sounded when interacting with their peers and their capacity to improvise in the given context and carry on with the conversation. The results showed beneficial effects of English subtitled television series upon learners' quality of speech production, given the high percentages in the current sample. 95% of the participants were found to be able to improvise and keep on with the conversation, 60% delivered spontaneous speech and 70% acted and sounded natural when involved into the conversation with their peers. 70% were considered as fluent while engaged into the dialogue and showed the capacity to build up the oral discourse according to the situational context provided.

The additional *t* and effect size tests showed statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) in most of the categories of oral discourse investigated in relation to learners' written post-test. Similarly, the effect size was reported as moderate to high and large or very large, which supports the claim that the mean differences between the two groups is considered high and it can be stated that a large number of participants had a fluent, spontaneous, natural oral speech and they were able to improvise accordingly in the given context. Therefore, the second hypothesis can be confirmed, as students were found to be able to express themselves naturally, spontaneously, fluently and improvise accordingly, due to the effects brought by extensive access to authentic audiovisual input enhanced with intralingual subtitles.

To conclude, the results show encouraging outcomes when features of oral discourse were taken into account and it can be stated that subjects in the current study improve their oral productions not only in their oral acquisition of informal language, but also in the way they express themselves. Hence, even though there were students struggling to understand the full meaning of the target vocabulary or they were unable to use a high number of informal expressions in oral interactions, they showed ability to sound natural, fluent and spontaneous and to improvise accordingly. Moreover, the

findings in the current study validate the outcomes of Study 3 and widen the assumptions made in the literature in relation to the subtitled audiovisual input and L2 vocabulary acquisition and oral production.

It is worth mentioning at this point that taking the decision of looking further into the quality of oral discourse came as a consequence of teachers' observations when learners were performing the oral tasks. The teacher/researcher noticed an overall improvement in students' ability to make use of efficient features on oral speech when conveying their message across. Nevertheless, the current analysis of the quality of oral discourse is offering only a glimpse into participants' ability to enhance their speaking skills in spontaneous oral interactions and further investigation into the topic is needed. A thorough exploration of learners' speaking characteristics is necessary due to the limitations brought by the scoring scale used to assess their oral performances.

The overall findings of Study 3 and 4 shed light on valuable information in relation to learners' both written and spoken productions of colloquial and informal vocabulary acquisition and add another layer of facts to the existing outcomes in the literature in relation to vocabulary language acquisition and speaking production. The results encourage further investigation into the topic and reassure foreign language instructors and researchers that the use of authentic subtitled videos inside the classroom are profitable didactic tools and resources to enhance foreign learners' oral skills and target language acquisition.

Chapter 6. Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The current chapter attempts to interpret the results and the implications of the four empirical studies upon several theoretical and pedagogical aspects of EFL/ESL and SLA/FLA. First, the general impact of exposure to subtitled and captioned audiovisual materials on long-term acquisition of L2/FL informal and colloquial vocabulary is considered. Then, the type of subtitle condition (either interlingual or intralingual) is discussed, together with their effect on long-term and immediate learning of colloquial and informal vocabulary. The potential role of subtitled/captioned audiovisuals to enhance receptive and productive skills is acknowledged, making reference to learners' listening comprehension skills and the ability to speak spontaneously in oral encounters.

The chapter aims to extract some global trends from the data and a variety of issues are tackled in response to the initial research questions and hypotheses proposed in the introductory chapter. Possible explanations to the key findings will be discussed in order to broaden up the existing perspective on the topic investigated. The following sections will address a thorough discussion concerning the impact of the empirical approach upon the theoretical background provided and the existing studies in the literature. The results and the methods used to develop the four empirical studies will be rendered as significant proofs of the added value to the areas of second/foreign language learning (ESL/EFL or SLA/FLA) and audiovisual translation (AVT).

6.2 The Effect of Subtitled/Captioned Audiovisual Materials on EFL/ESL

The studies described in Chapter 5 investigated to what extent the use of subtitled and captioned audiovisual materials could enhance EFL learners' informal and colloquial vocabulary learning, listening comprehension and speaking skills over a short- and long-term period. As follows, the implications of the key findings will be outlined, making reference to previous investigations and to the core theories that support the methodological approaches developed throughout the doctoral thesis.

The bulk of previous literature in relation to the use of subtitles and captions as language didactic tools (Araújo, 2008; Bird & Williams, 2002; Bravo, 2008, 2010; Caimi, 2006; Danan, 1992, 2004, 2015; Gambier, 2015; Talaván, 2013, 2010, 2012; Vanderplank, 1988, 2010, 2015) shed light on their facilitating effect on both formal and incidental language learning and on a variety of language skills. Although the field has started flourishing back in the 80s, there are still a growing number of scholars who are conducting research projects in this domain, hence bringing out relevant results about the benefits of watching subtitled films, videos and TV programmes and about having direct target-language exposure.

The aim of the first study carried out for this doctoral investigation was to evaluate the effect of subtitled and captioned authentic audiovisual materials on informal and colloquial language acquisition in higher education over a long-term period of seven weeks. The study intended to examine to what extent one of the subtitle condition (either the interlingual or intralingual) was more beneficial than the other one, as concerns incidental informal and colloquial vocabulary learning. The analyses carried out revealed statistically significant effect of the intralingual condition (English sound + English subtitles) over the interlingual one (English sound + Spanish subtitles). The favourable results of captioned audiovisuals to enhance EFL learners' content comprehension and vocabulary recall adds a justified value to the potential of intralingual subtitles in higher education as teaching and learning tools. Hence, the mingling of the three channels (visual, audio and written) allowed students to determine the correct meaning of the informal expressions and words in the provided context.

On the grounds of the findings of the first study, the first hypothesis can be confirmed and the first research question can be answered. Students who were exposed to authentic audiovisual materials for a period of 7 weeks with intralingual (English) subtitles benefited more than those who watched the episodes under the interlingual (Spanish) condition. The current hypothesis contradicts previous research studies which claim that interlingual subtitles are more beneficial for language learning than intralingual subtitles (Bianchi & Ciabattini, 2008; Bravo, 2010; D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999), but supports several investigations that accounted for the benefits of same language subtitles (Araújo, 2008; Bird & Williams, 2002; Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; Caimi, 2006; Chai & Erlam, 2008; Garza, 1991; Vanderplank, 1988). This study also supports other research studies that claim that 'viewers regardless of educational level or language background benefited significantly from captioning, even with only one viewing' (Price, 1983, p. 8).

However, the underlying question is why the current sample of participants reacted more positively to captioning than to subtitling? One explanation could be related to the type of video genre used, i.e. comedy series/sitcom, and because of the target vocabulary investigated, i.e. colloquial and slang speech. As Vanderplank (2015) reports about his numerous projects with captions, learners tend to rely a lot more on captions due to the rapid verbal interactions that takes place in comical videos. As such, students could follow what is being said and could laugh in the right places and for the right reasons, hence increasing their motivation to continue watching (pp.22-23). This could have been the case of the students that took part in this investigation, especially that the inquired vocabulary items (idioms, slang, phrasal verbs and colloquial expressions) were linguistically and culturally bound to the target language. Therein, watching a translated version of the colloquial expressions tested would have involved more challenging cognitive processes and activities to decode their meanings.

Another possible reason for the outcome could be the fact that the majority of participants were born and grew up in a country with a strong dubbing tradition. Therefore, they were not used to watching TV programmes or films with any kind of subtitles, which implies a certain cognitive process in grasping the meaning of the

translated dialogue in the mother-tongue and at the same time the habit of watching and reading the subtitles simultaneously. Moreover, the results are not surprising if we corroborate them with their answers from the pre-treatment questionnaire, which reveal the tendency of watching films and series on the Internet in English with English subtitles. The students also expressed their preference for the captioned version of films with the belief that captioned videos foster content comprehension, vocabulary learning, oral production and pronunciation skills.

The query in relation to students' watching habits in Spain as a traditionally dubbing country has been approached recently in a study carried out by Marzà & Torralba (2015), who aimed to investigate Spanish children's (aged 9 to 12) habits and attitudes towards subtitled cartoons. Although extensive research in children's incidental language learning through subtitled audiovisuals has been conducted before in subtitling countries with promising results (D'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Kuppens, 2010; Van Lommel et al., 2006), there is scarce evidence of studies in dubbing countries. The results of the abovementioned study are encouraging given the negative assumptions of the researchers in relation to students' lack of habit of watching subtitled programmes. Contrary to the belief that this would have triggered a negative acceptance of the subtitled show, 84% of participants enjoyed the subtitled cartoon and were able to decode both aural and visual information, without perceiving subtitles of disturbing nature.

It is true, however that older participants were more familiar with subtitles than younger ones, especially those born into immigrant families (Marzà & Torralba, 2015, pp. 213–216). Although the researchers claim that this sample is not representative for Spanish children's habits and attitudes towards subtitling, it offers some insight into this unexplored area and how learners' watching habits are starting to change in multicultural societies. Despite the age difference between the participants in the aforementioned study and the current one, the results are worthwhile considering, due to the similar tendency among our sample of learners of watching subtitled movies and TV programmes at home, even if they are not released on the national TV channels.

Likewise, the educational context that our participants came from could also explain the results of the study. Students are more likely to be interested in the intralingual subtitles, as their main purpose when studying an English Degree is to maximize their interaction with the foreign language as much as possible. This assumption is in line with Mariotti's (2015) idea that captions are beneficial for motivated learners who want to learn the foreign language, by providing them the possibility to see the written form of the spoken language and reassure themselves that the item they were listening to was the appropriate one. In this way, they could easily identify its meaning by connecting the visual, the oral and the written form, thus 'linking pronunciation to the written form and the mental division of sounds into single words' (Caimi, 2006, p. 87).

The statistically significant differences found in this study between the two groups and the missing effect of the interaction between the two conditions and learners' proficiency level enhance even further the belief that intralingual subtitles are more beneficial than interlingual subtitles for higher education students, independently of their level of mastery of the language at the outset of the intervention. Both groups contained students from A2 to C1, according to CEFR, which is in contrast with previous empirical studies that claim that intralingual subtitles are not profitable for beginner students, but rather for intermediate and advanced learners (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994). Nevertheless, some other researchers sustain that the language of authentic materials is usually beyond most learners' level of proficiency, hence L2 closed captions make the language more accessible (Guillory, 1998, p. 91) and favour easier access to incomprehensible lexical items, even in the case of beginner and elementary FL/SL learners.

Our current sample, however, may have responded differently to the subtitling conditions, given their acquaintance with the system of the second/foreign language while studying a BA in English Studies. Thus, the beneficial effect of the English subtitles upon learners' outcome could also be due to the fact that they have already mastered certain skills and aptitudes in the foreign language, and therefore they are prone to develop their previously acquired knowledge and make use of intralingual subtitles as a support and reinforcing method.

Given the scarce presence of longitudinal studies that investigated the issue of informality and conversational speech in connection to subtitled and captioned audiovisual aids, a second research study was designed in order to meet the gaps in literature concerning EFL learners' progress and immediate recognition and recall of the target vocabulary over a seven-week period. Therefore, students' immediate scores, tested after each session during 7 weeks, reveal that the two subtitle conditions (interlingual and intralingual) are not significant in changing the proficiency acquired in terms of informal and colloquial vocabulary, although individual growth has been observed independently of the type of subtitles students were exposed to.

The current findings contradict previous results of Study 1 carried out with pre-/post-tests over the same period of seven weeks, in which the intralingual condition (English subtitles) turned out to be more profitable for our participants than the interlingual one (Spanish subtitles). It should be noted that the testing procedure for the second study was different, as learners were tested every week immediately after they watched the subtitled or captioned video. Thus, learners were facing an added difficulty when evaluated, mainly because subjects were having contact with most of the idiomatic and colloquial expressions for the first time and they had to answer the tests immediately after watching the episode. Therefore, the time allocated to internalize the vocabulary items and their further recall was shorter and they had to remember the target vocabulary from the episodes in an ad-hoc way. Moreover, the tests were not comparable between themselves, as they contained colloquial and informal expressions related only to the episode in question.

This could constitute the primary difference and explanation between the results of the two studies, as students were already familiar with the target vocabulary when tested after the treatment and they had time to internalize the target language over 7 weeks, whereas in the current experiment they were watching episodes every week and their vocabulary learning and recall was tested immediately after, which did not allow them to base their answers on previously acquired knowledge.

The current longitudinal study refutes previous investigations into the field, which either promote the use of intralingual subtitles to foster vocabulary acquisition and content comprehension (Baltova, 1999; Caimi, 2006; Markham, Peter, & McCarthy, 2001; Markham, 1999; Vanderplank, 1990, 2015) or studies which were in favour of interlingual subtitles, due to additional cognitive processing, such as depth of processing, and because it increases comprehension, bridging the gap between aural and written lexical items (Danan, 2004, 2015; Ghia, 2007, 2011). However, the findings are in the same vein with Bravo's (2008) study, that showed that both conditions (interlingual and intralingual), with no major significant differences, led to better comprehension of dialogue, even in culture specific items, such as idioms.

Likewise, Zarei's (2009) data analyses on the effect of bimodal (English subtitles and English soundtrack), standard (English soundtrack and Persian subtitles) and reversed (Persian soundtrack and English subtitles) subtitles on EFL learners' vocabulary recognition and recall revealed both bimodal and standard subtitle conditions resulted in better vocabulary comprehension than the reversed condition. However, the bimodal condition proved to be the most effective in vocabulary recall, followed by the standard subtitling group, which outperformed the reversed subtitling group (pp.79-80).

Although the results of the latter two studies are similar to the findings of our second study, the procedure and the data analyses are divergent, so the studies cannot be comparable. The novelty of the study consists in the methodology employed in order to trace EFL learners' improvement of colloquial and informal vocabulary recall along a period of 7 weeks, which up to researcher's knowledge it had not been used beforehand in similar research. The pre-test was set as a starting point for growth models building, so as to test EFL students' performance in either of the two subtitle conditions and spot any increase or decrease along the time set period.

Accordingly, the research questions set for this second study can be answered, but the two hypotheses cannot be fully confirmed. The first hypothesis can be partially validated, due to the fact that learners showed significant individual growth in both subtitle conditions (English and Spanish), although the ones under the intralingual

condition (English subtitles) do not make more progress than the ones under the interlingual condition (Spanish subtitles), contrary to our preliminary belief. Nonetheless, the conclusive results uphold the second hypothesis set at the beginning of the study, which implies that high proficient students score higher than low-level students, spotting an increase in their results over time.

To sum, the aforementioned two empirical studies draw evidence on the benefits accounted by the use of both subtitled and captioned audiovisual materials in the EFL classroom in higher education. Both standard (L1 subtitles) and bimodal (L2 subtitles) proved to have a facilitating role in informal and colloquial language learning, thus highlighting the pedagogical role of subtitled audiovisuals in EFL/ESL classroom. If on the one hand, extensive viewing of films with standard subtitles seem to ease incidental learning, on the other hand, being exposed to captioned programmes helps language acquisition, especially in relation to vocabulary and listening comprehension, as learners can visualize and map the words they hear onto the written representations (Danan, 2015, p. 45).

6.3 Impact on Colloquialism and Informal Vocabulary Learning

According to Sornig (1981), slang terms and colloquialism have one thing in common with poetic language: they are very difficult to explain their real and complete meaning to an outsider and thus, any person who has not heard the term being used remains a stranger to its real communicative, sociosemantic or pragmatic force and value. Extrapolating this to EFL environments, L2 learners are complete strangers to the semantic connotations of slang, colloquialism and casual speech if they are not exposed to these lexical terms throughout their learning process. Thus, this section will reveal the implications of the current doctoral investigation upon the process of enhancing and promoting informal and colloquial speech among EFL learners in higher education.

The poor evidence of long-term studies that approached informal and colloquial language acquisition through the use of subtitled audiovisual input, triggered the need to explore the topic. The primary goal was to disclose meaningful means by which EFL learners can build up their knowledge of slang and colloquial speech and at the same time provide fruitful mechanism for language instructors and teachers to promote these lexical items in the EFL classroom.

Despite the considerable body of research studies in relation to the use of captioned and subtitled materials in foreign/second language learning, Bravo (2008) is among the few that approached a specific element of informal language and shed light on the issue of idiomaticity in the FL learning undergoing three experiments. The first two tested the understanding of content through exposure to subtitles: one was short-term and analyzed the impact of intralingual subtitled material (FL audio + FL subtitles) of Portuguese audiovisual materials on foreign students learning Portuguese; the other was over a longer-term and sought to evaluate the benefits of interlingual and intralingual subtitled material on Portuguese teenage students, as learners of English as a foreign language. These students were exposed to English audio materials and subtitles in English or Portuguese. The third experiment was designed to evaluate the written production skills in EFL, via the use of the mother-tongue, of students with prior exposure to subtitled material. This last group of informants also had to produce their own intralingual subtitles, using a non-professional subtitling tool for language-learning purposes. The findings from the 3 experiments indicated that both interlingual or intralingual subtitles enhanced viewers' comprehension of the content, even in culture-specific areas such as idioms.

This abovementioned research project raised interest in further investigating the topic by expanding the lexical items investigated (i.e. idioms) to other types of informal and colloquial expressions (e.g. slang, phrasal verbs, idioms, and spoken nouns and expressions) in connection with the effect of captioned and subtitled audiovisuals in EFL classroom. Thus, the four empirical studies brought out considerable indications for teaching and learning colloquial and conversational speech in the field of SLA/FLA and ESL/EFL.

A controversial point that needs to be considered is FL/L2 learners' level of proficiency, as concerns colloquialism and informal language. The Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001) specifies that FL/L2 learners should possess the ability to understand any spoken discourse and authentic speech and use colloquialism and informal language appropriately only at C1 and C2 level. However, in order to build up learners' proficiency and help them attain C1 and C2 language level, teachers should start teaching colloquial and informal speech at lower proficiency levels. Yet, the underlying question is how learners at lower language levels would deal with informal lexical items and whether high proficient learners actually possess the appropriate amount of colloquial items to be able to use them in spontaneous conversations.

Our participants' proficiency ranges from A2 to C1, which means that we are facing a very heterogeneous group in all four studies carried out. This may not only make difficult the task of introducing informal vocabulary in the classroom through the use of subtitled and captioned audiovisuals, but it could also alter learners' reaction to this method of implementing such a challenging aspect of vocabulary learning. Nonetheless, the data analyses of all four studies reveal positive outcomes concerning students' performance of colloquial and conversational speech.

The data analysis of the first study shows there is no significant interaction effect between participants' post-test scores and the interlingual and intralingual subtitling conditions, which means that the difference in scores between both subtitling conditions is not dependent on students' previous proficiency level. The medium-sized effect ($r=.39$) also reinforces the belief that independently of students' low, intermediate or high proficiency level, they can benefit from exposure to authentic audiovisual materials subtitled in English, and therefore acquire informal vocabulary and colloquial expressions in the provided context.

In this line, one of the research question posed can be answered and its corresponding hypothesis can be contemplated as feasible. Under these circumstances, the intralingual condition (English subtitles) has a greater effect on students' post-test scores than the interlingual condition (Spanish subtitles) after exposure to authentic video materials, regardless of their proficiency level. The noticeable increase in the

amount of informal and colloquial lexical items, even in the case of low-level and intermediate learners, expands the implications of the current investigation towards the use of colloquial and slang speech at lower proficiency levels. Therefore, it is vital to introduce gradually these lexical items to EFL learners at initial learning stages in order to help them attain the highest proficiency levels and at the same time to raise their awareness towards a part of vocabulary that is often neglected in the foreign language classroom (Fein, 2011).

The genuine impact of captioned audiovisuals on students' colloquial language acquisition is reinforced by the conclusive results of the third study carried out over a three-month period. Consequently, students' performance was tested at the beginning and at the end of the experimental condition with a pre- and a post-test in order to gauge any group and individual differences upon students' informal and colloquial vocabulary learning. The findings disclose an increase in students' performances and the significant p -value ($p < 0.001$) supports the group tendency of increasing after the experimental condition had taken place. The mean difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores is 5.65 points on average higher in the post-test, which also shows a sound proof in the group tendency of increasing. Thus, the first hypothesis can be confirmed, as we can observe an increase in students' colloquial and informal lexical items learning after being exposed to English subtitled episodes from *Friends* over a period of 14 weeks.

The findings are in line with previous long-term studies (Araújo, 2008; Bravo, 2008; Ghia, 2007, 2011; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990), which investigated the effects of long-term exposure of both interlingual and intralingual subtitled audiovisual input upon L2 comprehension and learning. The outcome in the current study provides valuable information about the use of intralingual subtitled audiovisual aids in instructional settings as means to develop learners' informal language proficiency. It also broadened the spectrum of informal language learning by integrating phrasal verbs, idioms, slang, spoken expressions and nouns as part of informal language data analysis. It also took a step forward in bringing evidence about the benefits brought by long-term exposure to intralingual subtitled audiovisual materials.

The third study looked also into the relationship between students' individual performances and their score differences at the end of the treatment, after being exposed for an extensive period of time to captioned episodes from *Friends*. Hence, the descriptive plots revealed valuable information about students' individual performance. The results support the group tendency of evolvement after they sat the post-test, however there was a big variance among learners' individual scores, which can be translated into rather spread out scores and a considerable inequality between students' post-test scores at the end of the treatment. In other words, variation between learners' scores was spotted, as not all of them increased in the same way in their post-test results, although the group tendency is of evolvement and the majority increased in their post-test scores of colloquial and informal lexical items.

Given the heterogeneity of the sample, students may have responded differently to the exposure condition, in terms of personal interest and motivation in the target language from the episodes, or simply because of their ability to grasp the meaning of the informal expressions from the visual context. Although, the findings disclosed some insights into learners' means of dealing with informal and colloquial expressions, further research is needed in order to evaluate the individual differences in relation to their language proficiency level. The global results deepen the field of second/foreign language acquisition and audiovisual translation in relation to colloquial and conversational speech learning through the use of captioned audiovisual materials over an extensive period of time, i.e. three and a half months, the longest period of exposure to subtitled materials in an empirical study, up to the researcher's knowledge.

6.4 Implications for Spoken Production and Listening Comprehension

Speaking skills are an essential part of any English language teaching curriculum; hence, assessing learners' conversing abilities entails on the one hand, providing them with meaningful input, and on the other hand, designing tasks that allow candidates to demonstrate their ability to use language in ways in which are characteristics of their interactional competence. Interview in speaking assessment is still a task widely used, but there has been considerable criticism against its use, as it does not closely replicate natural or real-life conversation and it does not provide the opportunity to candidates to show their ability to participate in interactional and communicative talks. Thus, the tendency among researchers and language instructors is to use pair or group tasks in order to assess speaking skills, which from a pragmatic perspective is also more time and cost-efficient, as learners are tested together (Ussama & Sinwongsuwat, 2014, pp. 96–97).

On the account of the above statements, the current section will outline the implications of captioned audiovisual materials upon EFL learners' productive and receptive oral skills (speaking and listening) in communicative and interactional tasks (role-play tasks in pairs), a topic scarcely investigated so far. The poor evidence of empirical studies concerning the effect of subtitled audiovisual materials upon oral production (Araújo, 2008; Borrás & Lafayette, 1994; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990) reinforces the goal of this study. Vanderplank's (1988) study was among the first one that reported the use of speaking activities such as acting out dialogues and scenes from situation comedies as a means to test oral proficiency after exposing learners to intralingual subtitled BBC television programmes. However, no reliable conclusions could be drawn from his study in relation to speaking proficiency, due to a lack of explanations about the scoring method used to assess learners' speaking performances. In his second study, Vanderplank (1990) measured the effect of intralingual subtitles upon learners' ability to reproduce what they had heard and noticed in the BBC television series after being exposed for a three-month period. Although the results showed development of learners' productive abilities in the L2, the tasks

students had to perform were neither natural or communicative and learners' had to rather make use of their memory skills than of their linguistic abilities.

Borras&Lafayette's (1994) study was one of the first one that brought evidence on oral communicative performance of French college students after they watched videos with fully duplicated (literal) intralingual subtitles, also known as closed-captions. Nevertheless, limitations concerning their study should be pointed out, as learners were assessed on their ability to narrate and describe the event they have previously watched, which cannot be considered fully communicative tasks. Another study carried out by Araújo (2008) aimed at developing oral proficiency (listening and speaking skills) in a longitudinal research project. However, several limitations considering her study should be mentioned, too, as speaking ability cannot be measured only in terms of pronunciation and fluency, and moreover the type of task used to evaluate learners' performance does not reflect real-life interactions in communicative contexts.

The shortcomings of the abovementioned studies in relation to the methodologies, testing procedures and type of tasks used to test speaking production reinforced the need to further exploit this language aspect. Hence, the fourth study carried out in this doctoral investigation brings out valuable and novel information as concerns foreign language learners' ability to use informal spoken language in oral interactions. This approach is considered innovative from previous studies due to: first, its focus on informal spoken language, an area scarcely investigated; and second, due to the new methodology and testing procedure used to compile the data, i.e. role-play dialogue scripts designed to replicate spontaneous informal encounters between two people. Accordingly, students had to make use of previously acquired colloquial expressions from the audiovisual input in face-to-face interactions.

The findings of the correlation tests between the post-test scores and the total amount of informal and colloquial expressions used by the participants in the role-plays showed strong correlation coefficients ($r = 0.63$). This indicates that an increase in students' post-test results will correspond to an increase in the number of informal and colloquial expressions used in their oral discourse. Additionally, correlations coefficients between the post-test and the categories of informal language investigated, i.e. phrasal

verbs, idioms, spoken expressions and informal nouns, were found to be strong and moderate, too ($r = 0.62$, $r = 0.43$, $r = 0.35$, $r = 0.45$). This reinforces the belief that there is a strong relationship between learners' written informal language acquisition and their oral production performances.

Therefore, the first hypothesis can be considered feasible, as the results demonstrated convergent validity. Students' post-test scores correlate with their ability to use appropriately the colloquial and informal vocabulary in oral productions. In other words, students were able to express themselves using the informal and colloquial expressions previously acquired from the viewing sessions in face-to-face peer conversations on a given topic. Despite the conclusive and encouraging results, a low correlation coefficient has been found in the case of the use of slang, which corresponds with the non-significant p-value ($p = >0.05$). A possible explanation for the low correlation coefficient in the case of slang use, could be that learners were not familiar enough with this aspect of the language, as it is scarcely taught in formal teaching contexts and it hardly appeared in the episodes from *Friends*, due to broadcasting constraints on public television channels (Quaglio, 2009). Therefore, the access to reduced amounts of slang could have led to low usage in their oral productions and possible struggles to internalize slang lexical items, as part of informal spoken language.

Additionally, the study aimed to explore the quality of learners' output when performing the role-play tasks and their ability to sound natural, fluent and spontaneous while interacting with their peers. Thus, the frequency tables were designed to analyze the quality of learners' spoken productions in terms of how natural, spontaneous, fluent their oral discourse was, how nervous they sounded when interacting with their peers and their capacity to improvise in the given context and carry on with the conversation. The results revealed beneficial effects of English subtitled television series upon learners' quality of speech production, given the high percentages found among the participants. As such, 95% of the participants were found to be able to improvise and keep on with the conversation, 60% delivered spontaneous speech and 70% acted and sounded natural when involved into the conversation with their peers. 70% were

considered fluent while engaged into the dialogue and showed the capacity to build up the oral discourse according to the situational context provided.

Further t-tests and effect size tests indicated statistically significant results ($p < 0.05$) in most of the categories of oral discourse investigated in relation to learners' post-test scores. The effect size turned to be moderate to high and large or very large, which supports the claim that the mean differences between the two groups is considered high and a large number of participants had a fluent, spontaneous, natural oral speech, being able to improvise accordingly in the given context. Therefore, the second hypothesis can be confirmed, as students were found to be able to express themselves naturally, spontaneously, fluently and improvise accordingly, due to the effects brought by extensive access to authentic audiovisual input enhanced with intralingual subtitles.

The valuable outcome of the study upon oral comprehension and production places the language present in films and TV fiction as a resourceful tool of L2 input and for the development of L2 receptive and productive oral skills. The results show promising implications not only upon learners' oral production of informal language, but also upon the way EFL students are able to express themselves in spontaneous oral discourses. Despite not being able to use at times a high number of informal expressions, most of the students were capable to sound natural, fluent, spontaneous and to improvise accordingly. The overall findings of the current study relocate the implication of subtitled audiovisual input in the existing literature in relation to foreign language learning, especially for oral skills enhancement and vocabulary acquisition. Hence, it reestablishes a strong connection between the effect of subtitled films and TV programmes and L2 colloquial and informal vocabulary acquisition and oral production in spontaneous and communicative tasks.

Chapter 7. Final Conclusions and Considerations for Future Research

This final chapter will offer an overview of the four empirical studies present in the doctoral thesis and a synthesis of the main findings. The main contributions to the field of ESL/EFL and AVT will be outlined as a means to place the current investigation as a valuable proof of resources in the already impressive bulk of literature. Furthermore, the limitations of the studies will be stated in order to pave the way for further investigations and research studies into the topic. Future recommendations will be proposed for the upcoming researchers interested to take a step further and enrich the field with other promising empirical examinations into the topic of subtitled audiovisual input and foreign language learning. Pedagogical implications for language teachers and instructors will be highlighted as a practical means to introduce students to the enriching potential of subtitled audiovisuals aids in education and especially in developing foreign language skills.

7.1 Overview and Synthesis of the Key Findings

The global aim of the current doctoral thesis was to add conclusive pieces of information to the constant growing field of AVT and SLA/FLA, as concerns the effect of subtitled audiovisuals upon English oral skills and vocabulary learning. The issue of informality and colloquial language learning is explored in four empirical studies, which seek to connect learners' ability to assimilate the meaning of phrasal verbs, slang, idioms and fixed formulae, with long-term exposure to subtitled audiovisual materials. Similarly, students' capacity to interact in spontaneous peer encounters and make use of previously acquired colloquial lexical items and formulae was closely scrutinized.

The first quasi-experimental study pursued to determine which of the two subtitling conditions (either L1/standard or L2/captions) is more beneficial for informal and colloquial language learning and recall by means of dividing the learners into two subtitle groups (G1-English sound + Spanish subtitles and G2-English sound + English

subtitles). Participants' lexical comprehension and recall was tested before and after they were exposed to subtitled episodes from the TV series *Friends* over a long-term period of 7 weeks. According to the data analyses performed, the intralingual condition (English subtitles) is considered to foster the acquisition of colloquial lexical items more than the interlingual condition (Spanish subtitles) after exposure to authentic episodes from the TV sitcom *Friends*.

Study 2 looked to delve into the long-term perspective of the first study by inquiring learners' short-term and immediate acquisition of colloquial and idiomatic vocabulary. Participants' performance was assessed immediately after they watched each subtitled episode from the sitcom *Friends* along the seven-week period (13 episodes in total) in order to determine if there were any significant differences between the two types of subtitle conditions and students' scores. The findings reveal that students' immediate scores had the tendency of increasing in both the interlingual and intralingual subtitle condition, however there is no prevalence of one subtitle condition over the other. Thus, individual growth has been observed independently of the type of subtitles students were exposed to.

The period of exposure to captioned audiovisual materials is doubled in Study 3 in order to measure students' retention of colloquial and informal language after an extensive period of 14 weeks. Students were exposed to episodes from the American TV series *Friends* only with L2/intralingual subtitles (English sound + English subtitles). The results reveal the group tendency of increasing significantly after being exposed to English subtitled television series over a 14-week period, building on the premise that exposure for a long period of time to captioned audiovisual materials fosters learners' lexical acquisition. Nonetheless, it was spotted a big variance among learners' individual scores, which resulted in significant differences between learners' results at the end of the treatment. Thus, not all the students followed the same pattern in their post-test performance of colloquial and informal lexical items and consequently, the scores among them were varying from students who scored low in the pre-test and scored high in the post-test or from others who scored high in their pre-test and either maintained their results, decreased or scored even higher in their post-test scores.

Study 4 brings into question two aspects of spoken informal vocabulary: on the one hand, participants' oral production of informal and colloquial expressions in role-play activities, by measuring the amount of expressions used appropriately by each participant; and on the other hand, a general analysis of features of oral production in students' speech, such as fluency, spontaneity, ability to improvise well and sound natural. Moreover, students' results from Study 3 are correlated with the spoken productions in communicative role-play tasks from Study 4, so as to determine learners' ability of using the colloquial language structures formerly watched in the subtitled videos in peer oral interactions. The results reveal high correlations between learners' post-test scores and their oral productions, hence students who scored high in their post-test are considered able to express themselves using the colloquial expressions and informal lexical items in the oral tasks.

7.2 Contributions and Limitations

Despite the abovementioned benefits, we should acknowledge the limitations of the four studies investigated. First, the number of participants varied in all four studies, due to either missingness in the pre- or post-test or throughout the development of the course year. Stable group members would have benefited the comparison between the studies and could have strengthened the findings and offer a broader perspective on the topic. Similarly, the profile and the characteristics of the participants (higher education students studying a BA in English Studies in a dubbing country) may have influenced the way they responded to the lexical items investigated and could also explain the tendency towards intralingual (English subtitles). The lack of habit of watching films and TV programmes with L1 subtitles may have inclined them to perceive standard subtitles as distracting from the audio and visual elements of the video, thus learners tended to believe in the reinforcing feature of captions. Moreover, the majority expressed their preference for watching sitcoms and films with English subtitles at home in their spare time.

The beneficial results of the intralingual condition reassures the applicability of the study in the Spanish context, a traditionally dubbing country, where people perceive subtitles of 'bothering nature' (Talaván, 2007, p. 42) and where there is a general belief in the quality of the dubbing industry. The fact that young adults tend to change their watching habits and recur to original version audiovisuals from the Internet is undoubtedly an encouraging and reassuring fact. This gives confidence to the researcher/instructor that the experiment left an effective mark on participants' learning process, motivating them to further expand their watching habits outside the classroom context and make use of the potential power that resides in subtitled television series, films and other audiovisual materials.

Second, the absence of a non subtitle group is another shortcoming of the first study, as due to the limited number of participants and the design of the course it was not possible to form one. Having had a control group (a non subtitle condition) would have brought further relevance to the use of intralingual subtitles as learning tools in the classroom. Nevertheless, previous researchers explored the effects of all three subtitle conditions (intralingual, interlingual and no subtitles) and they reached the conclusion that content comprehension, language learning and listening comprehension was more beneficial under one of the subtitled condition, either inter or intra, while under the no subtitle condition learners showed the poorest results (Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Bravo, 2008, 2010; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Zarei, 2009).

As concerns Study 2, several limitations should be mentioned. No delayed tests have been carried out at the end of the first and second study. This could have reinforced previous findings and revealed further implications for the use of subtitled and captioned audiovisual materials upon informal and colloquial language learning and recall. As Study 2 followed the same pattern as Study 1 (except the testing procedure), no control group was established, which could have strengthened our findings and offer a broader perspective on the topic. Nonetheless, the beneficial results of Study 1 and 2 add relevant and meaningful implications for colloquial and conversational speech enhancement in EFL settings. Moreover, the positive effects of both interlingual and intralingual subtitles upon informal and colloquial language acquisition on both long and

short-term restate the value of these methods and tools inside and outside the classroom. Currently, the easy access to subtitled audiovisual resources lessens the task of the teacher by being able to provide resourceful tools to students, so that they can take advantage of this practice both inside and outside the classroom.

The main shortcomings of Study 3 relate to the lack of a control group, which due to the design of the course was not possible to form. Hence, the basis of the current findings rely on the considerable amount of empirical studies carried out in the field of AVT and SLA/FLA and on previous favourable results found in Study 1 and 2, which stand as an undeniable proof of the impact of subtitled audiovisual input upon foreign language learning. Moreover, the effect of the pre-test is an offset point in analyzing learners' comprehension and retention at the end of the treatment, mainly because of the heterogeneity of the group and of the lack of an official solid test on informal language to offer a more reliable view on learners' L2 previous proficiency level. Another limitation of the study is the missingness of some students throughout the development of the long-term study. An aspect that is problematic to control is that some of the students missed the classes on a regular basis, therefore data from pre-test scores could not be taken into consideration from all the students enrolled in the course.

Furthermore, the outcomes in the Study 3 rely on written evidence of informal and conversational speech lexical items and sought to test language production characteristic to informal spoken interactions. Thus, using written tests to analyze learners' informal vocabulary acquisition can be perceived as one of the major limitations of previous studies, as depending only on learners' written recall to assess vocabulary typically met in oral interactions may deceive and threaten the validity of the results. Firstly, because students' written scores may not reflect entirely their oral acquisition of informal and colloquial expressions and most importantly, their ability to use the words orally in meaningful contexts. Secondly, the visual and written clues from the episodes may have helped students to easily identify the meaning of words and subsequently, their storage in long-term memory. Therefore, the need to exploit students' oral productions in communicative tasks, i.e. communicative role-plays, was of prime interest for further validation of the existing findings. Despite the aforementioned

limitations, the third study brought out valuable data in relation to participants' responses over a long-term exposure to intralingually subtitled videos, which can be further on analyzed and correlated with learners' spontaneous oral performances in communicative role-plays.

The contribution of Study 4 upon spoken production is fundamental in the current research fields of AVT and SLA/FLA, given the sparse exploration of the speaking skill in the literature. The study notifies promising results when features of oral discourse were taken into account, as students managed to improve not only their oral production, concerning the use of informal and conversational speech, but also the way they expressed themselves. In other words, although there were some students who were facing difficulties in using a high number of informal expressions, they were still able to sound natural, fluent, spontaneous and improvise accordingly.

Nonetheless, the analysis of the quality of oral discourse is based on teachers' observations and the criteria previously set in order to analyze the efficiency of learners' oral speech when transmitting the message across. The scoring scale used considered learners' overall achievement and it did not consist of various degrees of performance. Thus, a more thorough investigation of learners' speaking characteristics is needed, due to the limitations brought by the scoring scale used to assess students' oral performances. Moreover, due to the development of the study, no previous oral proficiency tests were carried out, which would have reinforced the post-treatment results and establish a stronger connection between previously acquired vocabulary and EFL learners' ability to use the lexical items in oral speech.

The overall results of Study 3 and 4 encourage further investigation into the topic and reassure foreign language instructors and researchers that the use of authentic subtitled videos inside the classroom are profitable didactic tools to enhance foreign learners' receptive and productive oral skills. Likewise, by exposing EFL students to large amounts of subtitled authentic input, they show the ability to internalize and replicate the natural and spontaneous talks of the actors and apply it in peer oral conversations.

7.3 Considerations for Further Research

On the grounds of the aforementioned limitations and shortcomings, several recommendations for future research are outlined, as follows. In order to validate the results found in the current investigation, replication of the study with different age group of participants and distinctive characteristics (e.g. students that are not following a foreign language learning bachelor degree) or even with younger or adult EFL learners in different educational contexts would broaden up the perspective on the implication of subtitled audiovisual materials upon foreign language learning. Additionally, replication of the study in subtitled countries could lead to divergent results from the ones found, therefore straightforward comparisons between studies in dubbing and subtitled countries could offer a vaster perspective on the topic.

The main focus of this research was the acquisition of informal and colloquial vocabulary (slang, idioms, phrasal verbs, single word informal lexis and colloquial fixed formulae) and enhancement of productive and receptive oral skills. However, given the insignificant results in learners' oral production of slang lexical items, further investigation into this category is needed, so as to accredit the current findings in relation to slangs. Slang is a culturally specific part of informal language and it implies a high level degree of proficiency and familiarity with both the cultural and linguistic aspect of the language (Stenström, 2000). Hence, slang is a troublesome lexical item for students, difficult to grasp its full meaning and use appropriately in oral interactions. The implementation of communicative and task based activities in which extensive exposure to slang input is provided could be a feasible solution to foster the acquisition of this lexical aspect.

Future considerations concerning EFL learners' characteristics, such as motivation and interest in the target language, their learning styles and proficiency level of the target language need closer examination. In order to address issues, such as motivation, students' learning styles and individual differences, Danan (2015) recommends more longitudinal and qualitative studies in order to envision how different learners interact with and benefit from subtitles over time and how to introduce subtitled more productively in the language learning curricula. Therefore, relying on long-term

observations, questionnaires and protocol analyses of students while they engage on their own terms and with their own choice of input and learn to adapt their learning techniques and strategies to the task are some of the proposals of the researcher (p.48). The current study approached the longitudinal aspect with quantitative experiments and some brief qualitative analysis into the quality of learners' spoken production, however, further investigation into the qualitative side of the study would definitely increase its impact in the field.

Given the heterogeneity of the group, the four empirical studies approached the issue of proficiency level in relation to their responses to subtitled and captioned audiovisual aids over a long-term period of time. Individual growth and significant score differences between the learners were detected, which could be translated into a wide range of responses to the pedagogical method used among the participants. Looking into a more personal and individualized effect of the subtitled authentic input upon EFL learners' language learning process could trigger the design of more accurate and profitable resources to cover a variety of needs among EFL students in the classroom. This could have valuable implications for material designers, stakeholders, but also for language instructors and teachers, who could be provided with information about suitable materials for a range of language learners.

Some inquiry into the effect of proficiency was tackled in previous research studies (Winke et al., 2010), however they reported little data on proficiency level apart from the subjects being 2nd and 4th year and non-beginners. What the authors claim is that an important factor is the appropriate selection of captioned material for low level learners, however, as Vanderplank (2015) suggests, further investigation regarding language proficiency should be taken into account.

Another study carried out by Pujolà (2002) focused on the use of *Help* options in language laboratory and multimedia settings in a self-study programme to develop reading and listening skills. He used as source language input TV, radio and newspaper texts and *Help* options included online optional captions, dictionaries, transcripts, replay/rewind, cultural notes, and feedback with explanations. He reported that students at different levels behaved in varied and distinctive ways, as higher level students saw

captions as 'back up', while lower level students perceived them as a necessary tool for understanding the authentic oral input (pp.253-254). Thus, future research should focus also on learners' strategies while making use of captions or subtitles in order to grasp better their needs.

Danan (2015) also highlights some key questions that remained unanswered in previous findings and encourages further exploration of the topic. First, she is wondering when is the best time to introduce some form of subtitling in material presented to learners, if either during the first viewing of an audiovisual aid to beginners or during their second or third viewing to more advanced students. In this case, subtitles would become a source of feedback on comprehension accuracy and a study tool for advanced learners. The researcher also wonders if setting up a multi-step approach and combining same-language, standard, and reversed subtitling with different proficient learners would have an impact on their learning. Therefore, she proposes to start with a top down approach, i.e. reversed subtitles to facilitate comprehension and familiarize learners with the target language vocabulary, then to move on to a captioned version to focus learners' attention on bottom-up features such as aural recognition, pronunciation and grammatical structures, recurring to the help of written text, and finally to end with a last viewing without subtitles (p.46).

The results of the current doctoral research encourage further investigation into the topic and ascertain foreign language instructors and researchers that the use of authentic subtitled videos inside the classroom are profitable didactic tools and resources to enhance foreign learners' oral skills and target language acquisition even for low-level students. However, further investigation should highlight not only the importance of the use of subtitled audiovisual materials in formal teaching, but also in informal contexts, referring to individual language learning for adult learners and autonomous language learners, as advocated by Vanderplank (2015, p. 30). Evidence of adult learning in informal contexts is investigated by D'Ydewalle & Pavakanun (1992, 1996, 1997) and by Van Lommel et al. (2006), who claim that viewers could pick up language, mainly vocabulary items, from watching a foreign language film.

Notwithstanding, current advances of technology compels foreign language teachers and researchers to deal not only with the '*effect of*', but also with the '*effects with*' technology (Vanderplank, 2015, pp. 31–32). In other words, it is not enough to measure what exposure to subtitles or captions does in terms of language learner behaviour, but also what learners and viewers do with captions or subtitles. The effects of captions show increased comprehension, vocabulary acquisition and enhancement of oral skills, speaking and listening, whereas effects with technology refer to how a particular task can be performed better once we become experienced and skilled users of a tool or piece of technology, such as a personal computer, tablet, *smartphone* or DVDs with captions or subtitles.

Nowadays, technological advances and the easy manipulation of gadgets among their users could change the whole perspective of captions/subtitles handling. Thus, viewers are given the possibility to freeze-frame the subtitle text, to locate the key spoken sentences, to eliminate the need for a transcript, to identify unknown and familiar words, to pay closer attention to difficult speech and accents, in short, to be in control of their own learning and choice of strategy to use. This would trigger learners to become more self-aware of their own needs, to develop their own conscious and critical faculties, and to draw language from programmes to further build it into their own competences (Vanderplank, 2015, p. 32); in other words, to become autonomous learners.

On the other hand, Danan (2015) stresses the importance of teaching learners metacognitive language learning strategies, so that we help them to reflect on and use the learning approaches that work most effectively for them. The underlying question is to what extent making learners aware of the metacognitive strategies in relation to the processing of subtitles should be taught, so that learners can learn techniques to make better use of subtitles. The techniques could refer to a quick reading of subtitles before listening, confirmation of word recognition or meaning after listening or focusing on form for spelling or grammatical accuracy (p.47). These strategies could be convenient for learners who have limited previous language learning experience and little exposure to

subtitles, thus further investigation into these aspects would benefit the current literature field.

Moreover, she highlights the great asset of today's 'multitasking' and 'touch-screen generation' of users who can conduct various tasks with mobile devices such as iPads or SmartPhones. Subtitling, when treated as an interactive tool, is a 'viable competitor with other forms of fluid textual and multimodal computer-generated support' (Danan, 2015, p. 49), which provide autonomous learners with immediate and customized access to resource materials. Hence, apart from giving learners the opportunity to choose the language preferred for subtitles (L2 captions or L2 subtitles) in an audiovisual material, learners can also modify the delivery of the subtitled material, by deciding to either bring the full transcripts in a separate window to supplement the subtitles or to highlight the keywords in the subtitles and display them separately. Glossaries and hyperlinks can also be embedded in the subtitles, offering the viewer the choice of clicking for additional verbal, auditory or even pictorial annotations. The instant access to a definition of a word or phrase, contextual information or even visual aids ease the task of the learner to comprehend the authentic input and make it more accessible for his/her own needs.

To sum, there are still a number of areas in the field of AVT and SLA that are waiting to be investigated and explored in the future. This fact is an indubitable proof of the potential that resides in the use of subtitled and captioned audiovisuals in relation to foreign language learning. Taking advantage of the progress of technology and the easy spread of the information and material over the Internet, the new 'digitalized' and 'virtualized' generation of users encounter no challenges in profiting from the benefits of both 'effects of' and 'effect with' subtitled and captioned videos and TV programmes. Moreover, the easy access to audiovisual aids through the use of lighter and smaller devices, such as tablet, iPhones, iPads, and Smartphones makes the task of the teacher and of the learner a lot less complicated than in the past. The manipulation of these devices from any part of the world and at any time gives students essential autonomy to be in control of their own learning process and choose the method that suits them best, as such the learners-viewers become 'language users' and 'social

actors' (Vanderplank, 2015, p. 33) in an informal leisure-activity which can help them to build up their linguistic competences.

References

- Adams, T. W. (1995). *What Makes Materials Authentic*. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED391389>
- Allan, M. (1985). *Teaching English with video*. London: Longman.
- Almeida, P. A., & Costa, P. D. (2014). Foreign language acquisition: the role of subtitling. *Procedia -Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 141, 1234–1238. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.05.212
- Anderman, G., & Díaz-Cintas, J. (Eds.). (2009). *Audiovisual Translation: Language Transfer on Screen*. England: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Anderson, J. R. (2000). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. New York: Worth Publishers.
- Aponte-de-Hanna, C. (2012). Listening strategies in the L2 classroom. *College Quarterly*, 15(1), 1–9.
- Araújo, L., & Costa, P. D. (2013). *The European Survey on Language Competences: School-internal and External Factors in Language Learning*. Retrieved from http://edudoc.ch/record/110864/files/LBNA26078ENN_002.pdf
- Araújo, V. (2008). The educational use of subtitled films in EFL teaching. In J. Díaz Cintas (Ed.), *The Didactics of Audiovisual Translation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Ayto, J., & Simpson, J. (2010). *Oxford Dictionary of Modern Slang*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. (1991). What does language testing have to offer? *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(4), 671–704. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3587082>
- Backlund, P. M. (1982). Recommendations for Assessing Speaking and Listening Skills. *Communication Education*, 31 (1), 9–17.
- Baddeley, A. D. (1992). Working memory. *Science*, 255(5044), 556–559. doi:10.1126/science.1736359
- Baddeley, A. D. (2007). *Working memory, thought, and action*. New York: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from http://cataleg.urv.cat/record=b1396868~S13*cat
- Bahrani, T., Sim, T. S., & Nekoueizadeh, M. (2014). Second Language Acquisition in Informal Setting. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(8), 1714–1723. doi:10.4304/tpls.4.8.1714-1723
- Baltova, I. (1999). Multisensory Language Teaching in a Multidimensional Curriculum: The Use of Authentic Bimodal Video in Core French. *Canadian Modern Language Review/ La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, 56(1), 31–48. doi:10.3138/cmlr.56.1.31
- Baños, R., & Sokoli, S. (2015). Learning foreign languages with ClipFlair: Using

- captioning and revoicing activities to increase students' motivation and engagement. In K. Borthwick, E. Corradini, & A. Dickens (Eds.), *10 years of the LLAS elearning symposium: Case studies in good practice* (pp. 203–213). Dublin: Research-publishing.net. doi:10.14705/rpnet.2015.000280
- Bianchi, F., & Ciabattoni, T. (2008). Captions and Subtitles in EFL Learning: an investigative study in a comprehensive computer environment. In A. Baldry, M. Pavesi, C. Taylor Torsello, & C. Taylor (Eds.), *From Didactas to Ecolingua* (pp. 69–90). EUT - Edizioni Università di Trieste.
- Biber, D. (1988). *Variation across speech and writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., & Conrad, S. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow: Longman. Retrieved from http://203.72.145.166/TESOL/TQD_2008/VOL_34_4.PDF#page=138
- Bird, S. A., & Williams, J. N. (2002). The effect of bimodal input on implicit and explicit memory: An investigation into the benefits of within-language subtitling. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 23(4), 509–533. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/200949866/abstract?accountid=14733>
- Bisson, M., Van Heuven, W., Conklin, K., & Tunney, R. (2014). Processing of native and foreign language subtitles in films: An eye tracking study. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 35(2), 399–418. doi:10.1017/S0142716412000434
- Boers, F., & Lindstromberg, S. (2008a). *Cognitive linguistic approaches to teaching vocabulary and phraseology* (Illustrate). Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.
- Boers, F., & Lindstromberg, S. (2008b). How cognitive linguistics can foster effective vocabulary teaching. In F. Boers & S. Lindstromberg (Eds.), *Cognitive linguistic approaches to teaching vocabulary and phraseology*. Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.
- Bolinger, D. (1971). *The Phrasal verb in English*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Borell, J. (2000). *Subtitling or Dubbing? An investigation of the effects from reading subtitles on understanding audiovisual material*. Cognitive Science. Lund.
- Borrás, I., & Lafayette, R. C. (1994). Effects of Multimedia Courseware Subtitling on the Speaking Performance of College Students of French. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(1), 61–75. doi:10.2307/329253
- Bosker, H. R. (2014). *The processing and evaluation of fluency in native and non-native speech*. Utrecht Institute of Linguistics OTS.
- Bradford, P. B. (2010). *The acquisition of colloquial speech and slang in second language learners of English in El Paso, Texas*. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. The University of Texas at El Paso, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/847014656?accountid=14733>
- Bravo, C. (2008). *Putting the reader in the picture. Screen translation and foreign-language learning*. Rovira i Virgili University. Retrieved from

<http://tdx.cat/bitstream/handle/10803/8771/Condhino.pdf?sequence=1>

- Bravo, C. (2010). Text on screen and text on air: a useful tool for foreign language teachers and learners. In J. Díaz-Cintas, A. Matamala, & J. Neves (Eds.), *New insights into audiovisual translation and media* (pp. 269–283). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Breen, M. P. (1985). Authenticity in the language classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), 60–70.
- Brett, P. (1997). A comparative study of the effects of the use of multimedia on listening comprehension. *System*, 25(1), 39 – 53.
- Brindley, G. (1998). Assessing listening abilities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 171–191. Retrieved from http://journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0267190500003536
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language: an approach based on the analysis of conversational English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brunken, R., Plass, J., & Leutner, D. (2003). Direct measurement of cognitive load in multimedia learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 38(1), 53–61. doi:10.1207/S15326985EP3801_7
- Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Buck, G., & Tatsuoka, K. (1998). Application of the rule-space procedure to language testing: examining attributes of a free response listening test. *Language Testing*, 15(2), 119–157. doi:10.1191/026553298667688289
- Buendgens-Kosten, J. (2014). Authenticity. *ELT Journal*, 68(4), 457–459. doi:10.1093/elt/ccu034
- Burkart, G. S. (1998). *Spoken Language: What It Is and How To Teach It*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED433722#?>
- Byram, M. (2008). Communicative language teaching. In *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 124–129). London:Routledge.
- Cacciari, C. (1993). The place of idioms in a literal and metaphorical world. In C. Cacciari & P. Tabossi (Eds.), *Idioms: processing, structure, and interpretation* (pp. 27–56). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cacciari, C., & Tabossi, P. (1993). *Idioms: processing, structure, and interpretation*. (C. Cacciari & P. Tabossi, Eds.). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Caimi, A. (2006). Audiovisual Translation and Language Learning: The Promotion of Intralingual Subtitles. *The Journal of Specialised Translation*, (6), 85–98.
- Caimi, A. (2013). Subtitles and language learning. *Handbook of Translation Studies*, 4, 167–173. doi:10.1075/hts.4.sub2
- Caimi, A. (2015). Introduction. In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 9–18). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.

- Canale, M. (1983a). From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.
- Canale, M. (1983b). On Some Dimensions of Language Proficiency. In J. W. Oller (Ed.), *Issues in Language Testing Research*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1–47.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1994). Grammar and the Spoken Language. In *Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp. 1–35). Baltimore. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED373539#?>
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1997). *Exploring Spoken English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Caruana, S. (2006). Trilingualism in Malta: Maltese, English and “Italiano Televisivo.” *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 3(3), 159–72. doi:10.2167/ijm024.0
- Chai, J., & Erlam, R. (2008). The Effect and the Influence of the Use of Video and Captions on Second Language Learning. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 25–44.
- Chamot, A. U. (1995). Learning strategies and listening comprehension. In D. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A Guide for the Teaching of Second Language Listening* (pp. 13 – 30). San Diego, California: Dominic Press.
- Chandler, P., & Sweller, J. (1991). Cognitive load theory and the format of instruction. *Cognition And Instruction*, 8(4), 293–332.
- Chaume, F. (2001). La pretendida oralidad de los textos audiovisuales y sus implicaciones en traducción. In R. Agost & F. Chaume (Eds.), *La traducción en los medios audiovisuales* (pp. 77–88). Castellón de la Plana: Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I.
- Coe, R. (2000). What is an “Effect Size”? Retrieved May 13, 2015, from <http://www.cem.org/effect-size-resources>
- Cohen, L., & Holliday, M. (1996). *Practical Statistics for Students: An Introductory Text*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Cohen, L., & Holliday, M. G. (1982). *Statistics for Social Scientists: An Introductory Text with Computer Programs in Basic*. London: Harper & Row.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education* (7th ed.). New York: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Cokely, M., & Muñoz, C. (2015). *Acquisition through captioned videos and visual prompts. International Conference using Film and Media in Language Classroom: Research-Led Teaching*. Manchester: Manchester Metropolitan University.
- Communicative Competence – Supporting English Language Learners. (n.d.).

- Retrieved April 1, 2015, from
http://www.learnalberta.ca/content/eslapb/about_communicative_competence.html
- Cook, G. (1997). Language play, language learning. *ELT Journal*, 51(July), 224–231.
- Cook, L. K., & Mayer, R. E. (1988). Teaching readers about the structure of scientific text. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(4), 448–456. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.80.4.448
- Cook, V. J. (1985). Language functions, social factors, and second language learning and teaching. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 23(1-4), 177–198. doi:10.1515/iral.1985.23.1-4.177
- Cook, V. J. (1996). *Second language learning and language teaching* (2nd ed.). London: Arnold.
- Cook, V. J. (2002). *Portraits of the L2 user*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge: CUP. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Council of Europe. (2013). *Introductory Guide to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for English Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from
<http://www.englishprofile.org/images/pdf/GuideToCEFR.pdf>
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. *Language library* (6th ed., Vol. 4th). Malden, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing. doi:10.1002/9781444302776
- Cutler, A. (2012). *Native listening: language experience and the recognition of spoken words*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Gielen, I. (1992). Attention Allocation with Overlapping Sound, Image, and Text. In K. Rayner (Ed.), *Eye Movements and Visual Cognition* (pp. 415–427). New York: Springer New York. doi:10.1007/978-1-4612-2852-3
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Pavakanun, U. (1989). Acquisition of a second/foreign language by viewing a TV program. *Leuven, KUL, Laboratory of Experimental Psychology: Report 95*.
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Pavakanun, U. (1992). Watching foreign television programs and language learning. In F. L. D. Engel, G. Bouwhuis, T. Bosser, & D. G. (Eds.), *Cognitive modelling and interactive environments in language learning* (pp. 193–198). Berlin: Springer.
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Pavakanun, U. (1996). Le sous-titrage à la télévision facilite-t-il l'apprentissage des langues. In *Les transferts linguistiques dans les médias audiovisuels*. Paris: Presses universitaires du Septentrion (pp. 217–223).
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Pavakanun, U. (1997). Could Enjoying a Movie Lead to Language Acquisition? In P. Winterhoff-Spurk & T. H. A. van der Voort (Eds.), *New Horizons in Media Psychology: Research Cooperation and Projects in Europe* (pp. 145–155).

Opladen: Westdeutscher Verlag.

- D'Ydewalle, G., Praet, C., Verfaillie, K., & Rensbergen, V. J. (1991). Watching Subtitled Television: Automatic Reading Behavior. *Communication Research*, 18(5), 650–666. doi:10.1177/009365091018005005
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Rensbergen, J. Van. (1989). Developmental studies of text-picture interactions in the perception of animated cartoons with text. In M. Heinz & J. R. Levin (Eds.), *Knowledge acquisition from Text and Pictures*. Amsterdam and New York: Elsevier Science Publisher. Retrieved from <http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1989-97813-013>
- D'Ydewalle, G., & Van de Poel, M. (1999). Incidental foreign-language acquisition by children watching subtitled television programs. *Journal Of Psycholinguistic Research*, 28(3), 227–244.
- Dainty, P. (1991). *Phrasal verbs in context*. London: MacMillan.
- Danan, M. (1991). Dubbing as an Expression of Nationalism. *Meta: Journal Des Traducteurs*, 36(4), 606. doi:10.7202/002446ar
- Danan, M. (1992). Reversed Subtitling and Dual Coding Theory: New Directions for Foreign Language Instruction. *Language Learning*, 42(4), 497–527. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1992.tb01042.x
- Danan, M. (2004). Captioning and subtitling: Undervalued language learning strategies. *Meta*, 49(1), 67–77.
- Danan, M. (2015). Subtitling as a language learning tool: past findings, current applications, and future paths. In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 41–61). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.
- De Bot, K., Jagt, J., Janssen, H., Kessels, E., & Schils, E. (1986). Foreign television and language maintenance. *Second Language Research*, 2(1), 72–82. doi:10.1177/026765838600200105
- Díaz Cintas, J. (2001). *La Traducción audiovisual : el subtitulado*. Salamanca: Almar.
- Díaz Cintas, J. (2003). *Teoría y práctica de la subtitulación*. Barcelona: Ariel Ciine.
- Diaz-Cintas, J., & Fernández Cruz, M. (2008). Using subtitled video materials for foreign language instruction. Retrieved from <http://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/1451732/>
- Dumas, B., & Lighter, J. (1978). Is slang a word for linguists? *American Speech*, 53(1), 5–17. doi:10.2307/455336
- Duran, R. ., Canale, M., Penfield, J., Stansfield, C. W., & Liskin-Gasparro, J. E. (1987). TOEFL from a communicative viewpoint on language proficiency: a working paper. In R. Freedle & R. Duran (Eds.), *Cognitive and Linguistic Analysis of Test Performance*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Eble, C. (1996). *Slang & sociability: In-group language among college students*. London: University of North Carolina Press.

- Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom Second Language Development: A Study of Classroom Interaction and Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford [etc.]: University Press. Retrieved from http://cataleg.urv.cat/record=b1109248~S13*cat
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Enever, J. (2011). *ELLiE: Early Language Learning in Europe*. (J. Enever, Ed.). London:UK: British Council.
- Engkent, L. P. (1986). Real People Don ' t Talk Like Books: Teaching Colloquial English. *Tesl Canada Journal*, 1(Special Issue), 225–234.
- European Commission. (2005). *A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism* (Vol. 2211). Brussels.
- European Commission. (2006). *Europeans and their Languages. Special Eurobarometer*. Retrieved from http://pol.gu.se/digitalAssets/759/759844_Europeans_and_their_Languages_-_EC_2006.pdf
- European Commission. (2011). *Study on the use of Subtitling. The potential of subtitling to encourage foreign language learning and improve the mastery of foreign languages*. Retrieved from http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/lp/studies/study_on_the_use_of_subtitling_en.php
- European Commission. (2012a). *Europeans and their Languages. Special Eurobarometer 386*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_386_en.pdf
- European Commission. (2012b). *First European survey on language competences*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/languages/policy/strategic-framework/documents/language-survey-final-report_en.pdf
- European Parliament. (2001). Directive 2001/29/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council. Retrieved August 11, 2015, from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=celex:32001L0029>
- Eysenck, M., Santos, R., Derekschan N., & Calvo, M. (2007). Anxiety and cognitive performance: Attention and control theory. *Emotion*, 7, 336–353. doi:10.1037/1528-3542.7.2.336
- Fein, D. A. (2011). Promoting Vulgarity by Teaching Slang in the Classroom. *Rocky Mountain Review*, 65(1), 97–101. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41289365>

- Fernández-Guerra, A. B. (2013). Using TV series as input source of refusals in the classroom. *Utrecht Studies in Language & Communication*, 25, 5–22.
- Field, A. P., Miles, J., & Field, Z. (2012). *Discovering statistics using R*. London: Sage.
- Fishman, J. A. (1979). *Sociología del lenguaje*. Madrid: Cátedra. Retrieved from http://cataleg.urv.cat/record=b1002808~S13*cat
- Flores d'Arcais, G. B. (1993). The comprehension and semantic interpretation of idioms. In C. Cacciari & P. Tabossi (Eds.), *Idioms: processing, structure, and interpretation* (pp. 79–98). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Flórez, M. (2004). Estrategias para desarrollar diferentes tipos de textos a través de las películas. *redELE: Revista Electrónica de Didáctica ELE*. Red ELE. Retrieved from <http://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=925292&info=resumen&idioma=SPA>
- Forchini, P. (2009). Spontaneity reloaded: American face-to-face and movie conversation compared. In C. Mahlberg, C. González-Díaz, & C. Smith (Eds.), *Corpus Linguistics 2009 Proceedings* (pp. 1–27). Liverpool: University of Liverpool. Retrieved from <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/publications/cl2009/>
- Forchini, P. (2012). *Movie language revisited: evidence from multi-dimensional analysis and corpora*. New York: Peter Lang. Retrieved from http://cataleg.urv.cat/record=b1452613~S13*cat
- Gambier, Y. (2006). Multimodality and Audiovisual Translation. In *MuTra 2006 – Audiovisual Translation Scenarios: Conference Proceedings* (pp. 1–8). MuTra. Retrieved from http://euroconferences.info/proceedings/2006_Proceedings/2006_Gambier_Yves.pdf
- Gambier, Y. (2015). Subtitles and Language Learning (SLL): Theoretical background. In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences*. Bern, New York: Peter Lang.
- Gardner, D., & Davies, M. (2007). Pointing Out Frequent Phrasal Verbs: A Corpus-Based Analysis. *Tesol Quarterly*, 41(2), 339–359. Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00062.x/abstract>
- Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed: multiple intelligences for the 21st century*. New York: Basic Books.
- Garza, T. J. (1991). Evaluating the Use of Captioned Video Materials in Advanced Foreign Language Learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 24(3), 239–58.
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction and the second language learner*. Mahwah (N.J.): Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S. M. (1999). Discussion: Incidental vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), 319–333. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263199002090>

- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (1994). *Second language acquisition: an introductory course*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: an introductory course* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Ghia, E. (2007). A case study on the role of interlingual subtitles on the acquisition of L2 syntax-Initial results. . *Voices on Translation, linguistic, Multimedia, and Cognitive Perspectives, RILA* , 39(special issue), 167–77.
- Ghia, E. (2011). The Acquisition of L2 Syntax through Audiovisual Translation. In A. Şerban, A. Matamala, & J.-M. Lavour (Eds.), *Audiovisual translation in close-up: practical and theoretical approaches* (pp. 95–112). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Ghia, E. (2012). *Subtitling matters: new perspectives on subtitling and foreign language learning*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Gijbels, D., Donche, V., Richardson, J., & Vermunt, J. (2014). *Learning patterns in higher education*. Abingdon Oxon: Routledge.
- Gilmore, A. (2004). A comparison of textbook and authentic interactions. *ELT Journal*, 58(4), 363–374. doi:10.1093/elt/58.4.363
- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 40(02), 97. doi:10.1017/S0261444807004144
- Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System*, 28(1), 55 – 75.
- Guillory, H. G. (1998). The Effects of Keyword Captions to Authentic French Video on Learner Comprehension. *CALICO Journal*, 15(1-3), 89 – 108.
- Hadley, A. O. (2001). *Teaching language in context* (3 ed.). Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle.
- Hayati, A., & Mohmedi, F. (2011). The effect of films with and without subtitles on listening comprehension of EFL learners. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 42(1), 181–192. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8535.2009.01004.x
- Hefer, E. (2013). Television subtitles and literacy: where do we go from here? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 34(7), 636–652. doi:10.1080/01434632.2013.797986
- Herron, C. (1994). Investigation of the Effectiveness of Using an Advance Organizer to Introduce Video in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(2), 190–198. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/329009>
- Huang, H.-C., & Eskey, D. E. (1999). The Effects of Closed-Captioned Television on the Listening Comprehension of Intermediate English as a Second Language (ESL) Students. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 28(1), 75–96. doi:10.2190/RG06-LYWB-216Y-R27G
- Hughes, A. (1989). *Testing for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Huizenga, J., & Thomas-Ruzic, M. (1994). *Reading Workout*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Incalcaterra, L. M. (2009). Inter-semiotic translation in foreign language acquisition: The case of subtitles. In A. Witte, T. Harden, & A. R. de O. Harden (Eds.), *Translation in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 227–244). Oxford: Peter Lang.
- Incalcaterra, L. M., Biscio, M., & Ní Mhainnín, M. Á. (Eds.). (2011). *Audiovisual Translation: Subtitles and Subtitling. Theory and Practice. New trends in translation studies*. Bern: Peter Lang.
- Incalcaterra, L. M., & Lertola, J. (2011). Learn through subtitling: subtitling as an aid to language learning. In L. M. Incalcaterra, M. Biscio, & M. Á. Ní Mhainnín (Eds.), *Audiovisual translation: subtitles and subtitling: theory and practice* (pp. 243–264). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Incalcaterra, L. M., & Lertola, J. (2014). Audiovisual translation in second language acquisition. Integrating subtitling in the foreign-language curriculum. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 70–83. doi:10.1080/1750399X.2014.908558
- Jensen, E. D., & Vinther, T. (1983). The authentic versus easy conflict in foreign language material—A report on experiences with production and exploitation of video in FLT. *System*, 11(2), 129–141. doi:10.1016/0346-251X(83)90023-4
- Kabacoff, R. I. (2014). Quick-R: Scatterplots. Retrieved May 7, 2015, from <http://www.statmethods.net/graphs/scatterplot.html>
- King, J. (2002). Using DVD Feature Films in the EFL Classroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 15(5), 509–523. doi:10.1076/call.15.5.509.13468
- Koolstra, C. M., & Beentjes, J. (1999). Children's vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language through watching subtitled television programs at home. *Etr&D-Educational Technology Research And Development*, 47(1), 51–60.
- Koolstra, C. M., Peeters, a. L., & Spinhof, H. (2002). The Pros and Cons of Dubbing and Subtitling. *European Journal of Communication*, 17(3), 325–354. doi:10.1177/0267323102017003694
- Kothari, B. (2008). Let a Billion Readers Bloom: Same Language Subtitling (SLS) on Television for Mass Literacy. *International Review of Education*, 54(5-6), 773–780. doi:10.1007/s11159-008-9110-3
- Kothari, B., Takeda, J., Joshi, A., & Pandey, A. (2002). Same language subtitling: a butterfly for literacy? *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 21(1), 55–66. doi:10.1080/02601370110099515
- Kramsch, C., & Sullivan, P. (1996). Appropriate pedagogy. *ELT Journal*, 50(3), 199–212. doi:10.1093/elt/50.3.199
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The Input hypothesis: issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- Kuppens, A. H. (2010). Incidental foreign language acquisition from media exposure.

- Learning, Media and Technology*, 35(1), 65–85. doi:10.1080/17439880903561876
- LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. J. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology*, 6(2), 293–323. doi:10.1016/0010-0285(74)90015-2
- Lambert, W., Boehler, I., & Sidoti, N. (1981). Choosing the languages of subtitles and spoken dialogues for media presentations: Implications for second language education. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 2(2), 133–148. Retrieved from http://journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0142716400000904
- Lambert, W. E., & Holobow, N. E. (1984). Combinations of printed script and spoken dialogue that show promise for students of a foreign language. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 16(1), 1–11. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0080775>
- Lang, A. (1995). Defining audio/video redundancy from a limited-capacity information processing perspective. *Communication Research*, 22(2), 86–115. doi:10.1177/009365095022001004
- Lang, A. (2000). The limited capacity model of mediated message processing. *Journal of Communication*, 50(1), 46–70. doi:10.1111/j.1460-2466.2000.tb02833.x
- Lang, A., Potter, R., & Bolls, P. (1999). Something for Nothing: Is Visual Encoding Automatic? *Media Psychology*, 1(2), 145 – 163.
- Lantolf, J. P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of L2 development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Laufer, B., & Paribakht, T. S. (1998). The Relationship Between Passive and Active Vocabularies: Effects of Language Learning Context. *Language Learning*, 48(3), 365–391. doi:10.1111/0023-8333.00046
- Lavour, J.-M., & Bairstow, D. (2011). Languages on the screen: Is film comprehension related to the viewers' fluency level and to the language in the subtitles? *International Journal of Psychology*, 46(6), 455–462. doi:10.1080/00207594.2011.565343
- Lavour, J.-M., & Nava, S. (2008). Interférences liées au sous-titrage intralangue sur le traitement des images d'une séquence filmée [Interferences of intralingual subtitling on image processing in a filmed sequence]. In *Proceedings of the French Society of Psychology Congress* (pp. 59–64). Nantes.
- Lennon, P. (1990). Investigating fluency in EFL: A quantitative approach. *Language Learning*, 40(3), 387–417.
- Lertola, J. (2012). The effect of the subtitling task on vocabulary learning. In A. Pym & D. Orrego-Carmona (Eds.), *Translation research projects 4* (Vol. 4, pp. 61–70). Tarragona: Intercultural Studies Group.
- Lertola, J. (2015). Subtitling in language teaching: Suggestions for language teachers.

- In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 245–267). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.
- Liontas, J. I. (2002). Exploring second language learners' notions of idiomaticity. *System*, 30(3), 289–313. doi:10.1016/S0346-251X(02)00016-7
- Logan, G. D. (1997). Automaticity and Reading: Perspectives from the Instance Theory of Automatization. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 13(2), 123 – 146.
- Lonergan, J. (1984). *Video in language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in the second language classroom. In M. A. Clarke & J. Handscombe (Eds.), *On TESOL '82. Pacific Perspectives on Language Learning and Teaching* (Vol. 82, pp. 207–225). Washington, DC. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED228890.pdf#page=206>
- Long, M. H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 377–393). Rowley, MA.: Newbury House.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing Speaking Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- MacDonald, M., Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). The real thing?: authenticity and academic listening. *English for Specific Purposes*, 19(3), 253–267. doi:10.1016/S0889-4906(98)00028-3
- Mariotti, C. (2015). A Survey on Stakeholders' Perceptions of Subtitles as a Means to Promote Foreign Language Learning. In *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 83–104). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.
- Markham, P. L. (1989). The Effects of Captioned Television Videotapes on the Listening Comprehension of Beginning, Intermediate, and Advanced ESL Students. *Educational Technology*, 29(10), 38–41. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ402770>
- Markham, P. L. (1999). Captioned videotapes and second-language listening word recognition. *Foreign Language Annals*, 32(3), 321–328. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1999.tb01344.x
- Markham, P. L., Peter, L. a, & McCarthy, T. J. (2001). The Effects of Native Language vs. Target Language Captions on Foreign Language Students' DVD Video Comprehension. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34(5), 439–445. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2001.tb02083.x
- Marzà, A., & Torralba, G. (2015). Incidental language learning through subtitled cartoons: Is it possible in a dubbing country? In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 199–219). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.

- Mayer, R. E. (1996). Learners as information processors: Legacies and limitations of educational psychology's second metaphor. *Educational Psychologist*, 31(3-4), 151–161. doi:10.1080/00461520.1996.9653263
- Mayer, R. E. (2003). Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning. *Learning and Instruction*, 13, 125–139. doi:10.1016/S0959-47520200016-6
- Mayer, R. E. (2009). *Multimedia learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, R. E. (2011). *Applying the science of learning*. Boston, MA: Pearson/Allyn&Bacon.
- Mayer, R. E. (2014). Incorporating motivation into multimedia learning. *Learning and Instruction*, 29, 171–173. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2013.04.003
- Mayer, R. E., Lee, H., & Peebles, A. (2014). Multimedia Learning in a Second Language: A Cognitive Load Perspective. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 28(5), 653–660. doi:10.1002/acp.3050
- Mayor, M. (2009). *Longman dictionary of contemporary English* (6th ed.). London: Pearson Education ESL.
- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M. (1998). *Spoken language and applied linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (1994). *Language as discourse*. Harlow: Longman.
- McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2004). *English phrasal verbs in use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2007). *English phrasal verbs in use, advanced*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Media Consulting Group. (2011). *Study on the use of subtitling. The potential of subtitling to encourage foreign language learning and improve the mastery of foreign languages*. Final Report EACEA/2009/01.
- Mejia, E. A., & O'Connor, F. H. (1994). *Five star films: An intermediate listening/speaking text*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Mendelsohn, D. (1994). *Learning to listen: a strategy-based approach for the second-language learner*. San Diego CA: Dominie Press.
- Mendelsohn, D. (1997). A Guide for the Teaching of Second Language Listening. *Communication Education.*, 46(3).
- Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). Retrieved April 9, 2015, from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/parataxis>
- Miller, J., & Weinert, R. (1998). *Spontaneous spoken language: syntax and discourse*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Montero Perez, M., Van Den Noortgate, W., & Desmet, P. (2013). Captioned video for L2 listening and vocabulary learning: A meta-analysis. *System*, 41, 720–739. doi:10.1016/j.system.2013.07.013
- Moore, D. M., Burton, J. K., & Myers, R. J. (2001). Multiple-Channel Communications: The Theoretical and Research Foundations of Multimedia. In *The Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 851–875). Bloomington: The Association for Educational Communications and Technology.
- Moreno, R. (2005). Instructional technology: Promise and pitfalls. In L. PytlikZillig, M. Bodvarsson, & R. Bruning (Eds.), *Technology-based education: Bringing researchers and practitioners together* (pp. 1–19). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Moreno, R., & Mayer, R. (2007). Interactive Multimodal Learning Environments. *Educational Psychology Review*, 19(3), 309–326. doi:10.1007/s10648-007-9047-2
- Morrow, K. (1981). Principles of communicative methodology. In K. Johnson & K. Morrow (Eds.), *Communication in the classroom* (pp. 59–69). Harlow: Longman.
- Neuman, S. B., & Koskinen, P. (1992). Captioned Television as “Comprehensible Input”: Effects of Incidental Word Learning from Context for Effects of Incidental Word Learning from Context for Language Minority Students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27(1), 95–106. doi:10.2307.747835
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology: a textbook for teachers*. London : Prentice Hall.
- O’Connell, D. C., & Kowal, S. (2008). *Communicating with One Another: Toward a Psychology of Spontaneous Spoken Discourse*. New York: Springer.
- Oxford, R. (1993). Research update on teaching L2 listening. *System*, 21(2), 205 – 211.
- Paivio, A. (1971). *Imagery and verbal processes*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Paivio, A. (1978). The relationship between verbal and perceptual codes. In E. C. Carterette & M. P. Friedman (Eds.), *Handbook of perception. Vol. IX: Perceptual processing* (pp. 113–131). New York: Academic Press.
- Paivio, A. (1986). *Mental representations: A dual coding approach* (Vol. 9). New York: Oxford Psychology Series No 9.
- Paivio, A. (2007). *Mind and its evolution : a dual coding theoretical approach*. Mahwah: Erlbaum.
- Paivio, A. (2010). Dual coding theory and the mental lexicon. *The Mental Lexicon*, 5(2), 205–230. doi:10.1075/ml.5.2.04pai
- Paivio, A. (2014). Intelligence, dual coding theory, and the brain. *Intelligence*, 47, 141–158. doi:10.1016/j.intell.2014.09.002
- Paivio, A., & Sadoski, M. (2011). Lexicons, contexts, events, and images: commentary on Elman (2009) from the perspective of dual coding theory. *Cognitive Science*,

35(1), 198–209. doi:10.1111/j.1551-6709.2010.01146.x

- Pavesi, M. (2002). Sottotitoli: dalla semplificazione nella traduzione all'apprendimento linguistico. *Rassegna Italiana Di Linguistica Applicata*, 35(1-2), 127–142. Retrieved from <http://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/articulo?codigo=2436703>
- Pavesi, M. (2012). The Potentials of Audiovisual Dialogue for Second Language Acquisition. In P. Alderete-Díez, L. Incalcaterra McLoughlin, L. Ní Dhonnchadha, & D. Ní Uigín (Eds.), *Translation, Technology and Autonomy in Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 155–174). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Pavesi, M., & Perego, E. (2008). Tailor-made interlingual subtitling as a means to enhance second language acquisition. In J. Díaz Cintas (Ed.), *The Didactics of Audiovisual Translation*. Amsterdam: Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Pemberton, L., Fallahkhair, S., & Masthoff, J. (2004). Towards a theoretical framework for informal language learning via interactive television. In *IADIS International Conference Cognition and Exploratory Learning in Digital Age* (pp. 27–34). CELDA.
- Perego, E., Del Missier, F., Porta, M., & Mosconi, M. (2010). The Cognitive Effectiveness of Subtitle Processing. *Media Psychology*, 13(3), 243–272. doi:10.1080/15213269.2010.502873
- Perez, M. M., & Desmet, P. (2012). The effect of input enhancement in L2 listening on incidental vocabulary learning: A review. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.02.031
- Pillar, G. W. (2011). A Framework for Testing Communicative Competence. *Partium Journal of English Studies*, 2(Fall), 24–37. Retrieved from [http://www.researchgate.net/publications.PublicPostFileLoader.html](http://www.researchgate.net/publications/PublicPostFileLoader.html)
- Porter, D., & Roberts, J. (1981). Authentic listening activities1. *ELT Journal*, 36(1), 37–47. doi:10.1093/elt/36.1.37
- Powell, M. J. (1992). Semantic/pragmatic regularities in informal lexis: British speakers in spontaneous conversational settings. *Text-Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 12(1), 19–58. Retrieved from <http://www.degruyter.com/view/j/text.1.1992.12.issue-1/text.1.1992.12.1.19/text.1.1992.12.1.19.xml>
- Price, K. (1983). Closed-Captioned TV: An Untapped Resource. *Newsletter - Massachusetts Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, 12(2), 1–8.
- Pujolà, J. (2002). CALLing for help: Researching language learning strategies using help facilities in a web-based multimedia program. *ReCALL*, 14(2), 235–262. Retrieved from http://journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0958344002000423
- Quaglio, P. (2009). *Television Dialogue. The sitcom Friends vs. natural conversation*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Rahman, R. (2014). A Case for Authentic Materials in Language Teaching. *Dialogue*, 9(2), 206–215.

- Rai, M., Loschky, L., Harris, R., Peck, N., & Cook, L. (2010). Effects of stress and working memory capacity on readers' inferential processing during comprehension. *Language Learning*, 61, 187–218. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00592
- Restrepo Ramos, F. D. (2015). Incidental Vocabulary Learning in Second Language Acquisition: A Literature Review. *PROFILE Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 17(1), 1657–790. doi:10.15446/profile.v17n1.43957
- Robin, R. (2007). Commentary: Learner-based listening and technological authenticity. *Language Learning & Technology*, 11(1), 109–115. Retrieved from <http://llt.msu.edu/vol11num1/robin>
- Rodríguez Martín, M. . (2010). Comparing conversational processes in the BNC and a micro-corpus of movies: Is film language the “real thing”? *Language Forum*, 36(1), 1–15.
- Rodríguez Martín, M. ., & Jaén, M. . (2009). Teaching conversation through films: A comparison of conversational features and collocations in the BNC and a micro-corpus of movies. *International Journal of Learning*, 16(7), 445–458. Retrieved from <http://ijh.cgpublisher.com/product/pub.30/prod.2296>
- Rose, K. R. (2001). Compliments and compliment responses in film: Implications for pragmatics research and language teaching, . *IRAL*, 39, 309–326.
- Rost, M. (1990). *Listening in language learning* . London and New York: Longman.
- Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and researching listening*. London: Longman.
- Rost, M. (2014). Listening in a Multilingual World: The Challenges of Second Language (L2) Listening. *The Intl. Journal of Listening*, 28(3), 131–148. doi:10.1080/10904018.2014.937895
- Royall, R. M. (1986). The Effect of Sample Size on the Meaning of Significance Tests. *The American Statistician*, 40(4), 313–315. doi:10.2307/2684616
- Ruipérez, G. (2003). Educación virtual y eLearning. Madrid: Fundación Anna.
- Sanderson, J. D. (2015). Caught red-handed?: Teaching foreign idioms with a “visual head” in subtitled cartoons. In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtiles and Language Learning.Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 323–344). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.
- Savignon, S. J. (1972). *Communicative competence: an experiment in foreign-language teaching*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.
- Schunk, D. H. (2000). *Learning theories: an educational perspective* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Segalowitz, N. (2010). *Cognitive Bases of Second Language Fluency*. New York: Routledge.
- Simpson, J., & Weiner, E. (1989). *The Oxford English dictionary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Singer, J. D., & Willett, J. B. (2003). *Applied Longitudinal Data analysis: Modelling Change and Event Occurrence*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Skehan, P. (2009). Modelling second language performance: Integrating complexity, accuracy, fluency, and lexis. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(4), 510–532.
- Sokoli, S. (2006). Learning via subtitling (LvS). A tool for the creation of foreign language learning activities based on film subtitling. In *Proceedings MuTra2006: Audiovisual Translation Scenarios* (pp. 66–73). Copenhagen: Copenhagen. Retrieved from http://www.euroconferences.info/proceedings/2006_Proceedings/2006_Sokoli_Stra voula.pdf
- Sokoli, S., Zabalbeascoa, P., & Fountana, M. (2011). Subtitling activities for foreign language learning: what learners and teachers think. In L. M. Incalcaterra, M. Biscio, & M. Á. Ní Mhainnín (Eds.), *Audiovisual Translation Subtitles and Subtitling* (pp. 219–242). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Solzhenitsyn, A. (n.d.). BrainyQuote.com. Retrieved September 18, 2015, from <http://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/quotes/a/aleksandrs405740.html>
- Sorden, S. D. (2012). The cognitive theory of multimedia learning. In *Handbook of Educational Theories* (pp. 1–31). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing. Retrieved from http://sorden.com/portfolio/sorden_draft_multimedia2012.pdf
- Sornig, K. (1981). *Lexical innovation: a study of slang, colloquialisms, and casual speech*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Spinhof, H., & Peeters, A. L. (1999). *Opinions about dubbing and subtitling*. Report No. P99-160.
- Steel, B. (1985). *A textbook of colloquial Spanish*. Madrid: Sociedad General Española de Librería. Retrieved from <http://briansteel.net/articsylibros/collspanishsample.pdf>
- Stempleski, S. (1991). Teaching communication skills with authentic video. In S. Stempleski & P. Arcario (Eds.), *Video in second language teaching: using, selecting, and producing video for the classroom* (pp. 7–24). Washington, DC: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
- Stempleski, S., & Tomalin, B. (1990). *Video in action: recipes for using video in language teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Stenström, A. B. (1994). *An Introduction to Spoken Interaction*. London : Longman.
- Stenström, A. B. (2000). From slang to slanguage: a description based on teenage talk. *Mi a Szleng*, 89–109. Retrieved from http://mnytud.arts.unideb.hu/szleng/szl_kut/03miaszl/stenst_a.doc
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235–253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

- Sweller, J. (1994). Cognitive load theory, learning difficulty, and instructional design. *Learning and Instruction*, 4, 295–312. doi:10.1016/0959-4752(94)90003-5
- Sweller, J. (2005). Implications of Cognitive Load Theory for Multimedia Learning. In R. E. Mayer (Ed.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Multimedia Learning* (pp. 19–30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sweller, J., Van Merriënboer, J. J. G., & Paas, F. G. (1998). Cognitive architecture and instructional design. *Educational Psychology Review*, 10(3), 251–296. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1023/A:1022193728205>
- Swender, E. (ed). (1999). *ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview Tester Training Material*. Yonkers, NY: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.
- Swinscoe, T. (1992). *Reading for real: An intermediate reading text*. Boston, MA: Heinle&Heinle.
- Szarkowska, A. (2005). The power of film translation. *Translation Journal*, 9(2). Retrieved from <http://translationjournal.net/journal/32film.htm>
- Talaván, N. Z. (2007). Learning Vocabulary through Authentic Video and Subtitles. *TESOL-SPAIN Newsletter*, 31, 5–8.
- Talaván, N. Z. (2010). Subtitling as a task and subtitles as support: pedagogical applications. In J. Díaz-Cintas, A. Matamala, & J. Neves (Eds.), *New insights into audiovisual translation and media* (pp. 285–299). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Talaván, N. Z. (2011). A quasi-experimental research project on subtitling and foreign language acquisition. In L. Incalcaterra, M. Biscio, & M. A. Ní Mhainnín (Eds.), *Audiovisual translation: subtitles and subtitling: theory and practice* (pp. 197–218). Oxford: Peter Lang.
- Talaván, N. Z. (2012). Justificación teórico-práctica del uso de los subtítulos en la enseñanza-aprendizaje de idiomas. *Trans. Revista de Traductología*, 16, 23–37.
- Talaván, N. Z. (2013). *La Subtitulación En El Aprendizaje De Lenguas Extranjeras* (Edición: 1). Barcelona: Octaedro.
- Talaván, N. Z., & Ávila-Cabrera, J. J. (2015). First Insights into the Combination of Dubbing and Subtitling as L2 Didactic Tools Abstract. In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning. Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 149–172). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Talaván, N. Z., Lertola, J., & Sokoli, S. (2015). *iDub-Intraligual Dubbing in Foreign Language Learning to Enhance Speaking Skills and Vocabulary Acquisition with Clipflair. International Conference using Film and Media in Language Classroom: Research-Led Teaching*. Manchester: Manchester Metropolitan University.
- Talaván, N. Z., & Rodríguez-Arancón, P. (2014). The use of reverse subtitling as an online collaborative language learning tool. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 84–101. doi:10.1080/1750399X.2014.908559

- Tatsuki, D. (2006). What is Authenticity?, Authentic Communication. In *Proceedings of the 5th Annual JALT Pan-SIG Conference* (pp. 1–12). Shizuoka, Japan: Tokai University College of Marine Science.
- Taylor, D. (1994). Inauthentic Authenticity or Authentic Inauthenticity?--The Pseudo-problem of Authenticity in the Language Classroom. *TESL-EJ*, 1(2), 1–11.
- The American heritage dictionary of phrasal verbs*. (2005). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Tomalin, B. (1986). *Video, TV and radio in the english class : an introductory guide*. London: Macmillan.
- Trebits, A. (2009). The most frequent phrasal verbs in English language EU documents - A corpus-based analysis and its implications. *System*, 37(3), 470–481. doi:10.1016/j.system.2009.02.012
- Tschirner, E. (2001). Language acquisition in the classroom: The role of digital video. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 14(3-4), 305–319. doi:10.1076/call.14.3.305.5796
- Tukey, J. W. (1977). *Exploratory data analysis*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley .
- Ülper, H. (2009). The effect of visual strategies on textual structures in listening process to comprehension level of the listeners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1, 568–574. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.103
- Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching listening comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ussama, R., & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2014). Conversation proficiency assessment: A comparative study of two-party peer interaction and interview interaction implemented with Thai EFL learners. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 8(4), 95–106.
- Van de Poel, M., & D'Ydewalle, G. (2001). Incidental foreign-language acquisition by children watching subtitled television programs. In *(Multi)media Translation: Concepts, Practices and Research* (pp. 259–274). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum : awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. New York : Longman. Retrieved from http://cataleg.urv.cat/record=b1091720~S13*cat
- Van Lommel, S., Laenen, A., & d'Ydewalle, G. (2006). Foreign-grammar acquisition while watching subtitled television programmes. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(Pt 2), 243–58. doi:10.1348/000709905X38946
- Van Merriënboer, J. J. G., & Ayres, P. (2005). Research on Cognitive Load Theory and Its Design Implications for E-Learning. *Etr&D*, 53(3), 5–13. doi:10.1007/BF02504793
- Vanderplank, R. (1988). The value of teletext sub-titles in language learning. *ELT Journal*, 42(2), 272–281. doi:10.1093/elt/42.4.272

- Vanderplank, R. (1990). Paying attention to the words: Practical and theoretical problems in watching television programmes with uni-lingual (CEEFAQ) sub-titles. *System*, 18(2), 221–234. doi:10.1016/0346-251X(90)90056-B
- Vanderplank, R. (2010). Déjà vu? A decade of research on language laboratories, television and video in language learning. *Language Teaching*, 43(1), 1–37. doi:10.1017/S0261444809990267
- Vanderplank, R. (2015). Thirty years of research into captions/same language subtitles and second/foreign language learning: distinguishing between “Effects of” subtitles and “Effects with” subtitles for future research. In Y. Gambier, A. Caimi, & C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning: Principles, strategies and practical experiences* (pp. 19–40). Bern, New York: Peter Lang.
- Venuti, L. (1995). *The Translator’s invisibility: a history of translation*. London: Routledge.
- Vitthal, G. (2010). Techniques for Developing Speaking Skills and Fluency. *IUP Journal of Soft Skills*, 4(1&2), 1–17.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher mental process*. (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Soubberman, Eds.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and language*. (A. Kozulin, Ed.). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Wang, Y., & Shen, C. (2007). Tentative model of integrating authentic captioned video to facilitate ESL learning. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 4(9), 1–13. Retrieved from <http://www.airitilibrary.com/Publication/alDetailedMesh?docid=15398072-200709-4-9-1-13-a>
- Weir, C. J. (1993). *Understanding and designing language tests*. London: Longman.
- White, B. J. (2012). A Conceptual Approach to the Instruction of Phrasal Verbs. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96(3), 419–438. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01365.x
- Widdowson, H. G. (1979). *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: University Press. Retrieved from http://cataleg.urv.cat/record=b1035184~S13*cat
- Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *Notional syllabuses: a taxonomy and its relevance to foreign language curriculum development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Williams, H., & Thorne, D. (2000). The value of teletext subtitling as a medium for language learning. *System*, 28(2), 217–228. doi:10.1016/S0346-251X(00)00008-7
- Willis, D. (1990). *The Lexical Syllabus*. London: Collins Cobuild. Retrieved from <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/documents/college-artslaw/cels/lexicalsyllabus/intro.pdf>
- Winke, P., Gass, S. M., & Sydorenko, T. (2010). The Effects of Captioning Videos Used for Foreign Language Listening Activities. *Language Learning & Technology*, 14(1), 65–86. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ882178>

- Winke, P., Gass, S. M., & Sydorenko, T. (2013). Factors Influencing the Use of Captions by Foreign Language Learners: An Eye-Tracking Study. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(1), 254–275. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.01432.x
- Wray, A. (2000). Formulaic sequences in second language teaching: principle and practice. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4), 463–489. doi:10.1093/applin/21.4.463
- Xu, H., & McAlpine, J. (2008). Anglophone, Peewee, Two-four... Are Canadianisms Acquired by ESL Learners in Canada? *TESL Canada Journal*, 26(1), 11–30. Retrieved from <http://www.teslcanadajournal.ca/index.php/tesl/article/view/388>
- Zarei, A. A. (2009). The Effect of Bimodal, Standard, and Reversed Subtitling on L2 Vocabulary Recognition and Recall. *Pazhuhesh-E Zabanha-Ye Khareji*, 49(Special Issue), 65–85.
- Zhou, S. (2004). Effects of Visual Intensity and Audiovisual Redundancy in Bad News. *Media Psychology*, 6(3), 237 – 256.

Cover

For the creation of the word cloud the following website has been used www.wordle.net
The television series icon has been taken from www.iconseeker.com and the *Friends* logo from www.commonswikipedia.org.

Filmography

The audiovisual material used for the viewing activities is the American sitcom:

Friends, 1994. National Broadcasting Company. 13 episodes from Season 1 and 28 episodes from Season 2 and 3. Created by David Crane, Marta Kauffman and aired on NBC from 1994 to 2004. Warner Bros, Spain on DVD.

The project includes the use of copyrighted materials, i.e. episodes from the official DVD Friends, Season 1, 2 and 3. For the viewing activities, only the corresponding subtitles in Spanish or captions in English from the official DVD were used. The use of copyrighted material for educational and research purposes is allowed by the Spanish intellectual property law, Legislative Decree 1/1996, amended by Law 23/2006 and Law 21/2014, as long as the inclusion of the material is justified and the source of the content is properly mentioned. For this project, the material is used for analysis purposes only. The video material used for the analysis is not published here or distributed by itself nor in its entirety, and it was used solely by the researcher to prepare the testing procedures and the in-class activities.

Appendices

9.1 Appendix 1. The Questionnaire

1.- Datos Personales

Con el fin de llevar a cabo un estudio sobre programas/películas subtituladas, agradeceríamos tus respuestas a las siguientes preguntas. Por favor, responder de la manera más sinceramente posible. La información personal proporcionada y tu identidad se atenderán con total confidencialidad.

*1. Nombre y apellido(s)

*2. Sexo

- Masculino
 Femenino

*3. Nacionalidad

- Española
 Inglesa
 Americana
 Otro (Por favor especifique)

4. Año de nacimiento

*5. ¿Cuál es tu lengua materna?

- Español
 Catalán
 Español/Catalán
 Inglés
 Otro (Por favor especifique)

*6. ¿Has nacido en España/Cataluña?

- Sí
 No

***7. ¿Has vivido en España/ Cataluña desde que has nacido?
Si no, en qué país/sitio has vivido?**

- Sí
 No
 Otro (Por favor especifique)

2.- Historial (Background)

***8. ¿Qué nacionalidad tienen tus padres? Especifica si sólo uno de ellos tiene una nacionalidad diferente a la española.**

- Española
 Inglesa
 Americana
 Canadiense
 Otro (Por favor especifique)

***9. ¿En qué idioma se comunicaban tus padres contigo? Especifica si uno de ellos usaba otro idioma.**

- Español
 Catalán
 Español/Catalán
 Inglés
 Otro (Por favor especifique)

***10. ¿Tienes abuelos u otros familiares cercanos de otra nacionalidad? Especifica quién y qué nacionalidad tienen.**

- Sí
 No
 Otro (Por favor especifique)

11. ¿Si tienes abuelos o familiares de otra nacionalidad que no sea española/catalana, especifica en qué idioma se comunican contigo?

***12. ¿Tienes familiares en países de habla inglesa? Especifica quién y el país.**

- No
- Sí
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

13. ¿Si tienes familiares en países de habla inglesa, en qué idioma te comunicas con ellos?

Idioma

***14. ¿Has tenido niñeras de otra nacionalidad que no sea española? Especifica la nacionalidad.**

- No
- Sí
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

15. Si has contestado afirmativo en la pregunta anterior, especifica el idioma de comunicación con la niñera, la edad cuando empezaste a hablar con esa persona y el tiempo empleado con esa persona.

Idioma

Edad

Tiempo

***16. ¿Has tenido algún otro tipo de contacto con nativos de un país de habla inglesa? Especifica quién y de qué país son.**

- No
- Sí (amigo/a, novio/a, amigo por correspondencia, etc)
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

17. Si has contestado afirmativo en la pregunta anterior, explica con detalles el idioma de comunicación con esa persona, la edad cuando empezaste a comunicarte con ella, el tiempo empleado en comunicarte con ella y la manera de comunicación.

Idioma

Edad

Tiempo (aprox. cada semana, cada día, una vez al año, mes, etc)

Manera (email, cartas, teléfono, skype, etc)

3.- Contacto con el Idioma

18. ¿Qué otras lenguas extranjeras hablas?

- Inglés
- Alemán
- Francés
- Italiano
- Chino
- Ruso
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

*19. ¿Desde cuándo has empezado a estudiar inglés?

- Desde los primeros años de mi vida
- Desde la guardería
- Desde primaria
- Desde secundaria
- Desde el instituto
- Desde la universidad
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

*20. ¿Has estudiado inglés fuera de la escuela? Especifica dónde.

- Academia
- Clases particulares
- Cursos fuera del país de origen
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

*21. ¿Qué nivel de inglés oral y comprensivo (listening) consideras que tienes?

- Muy bueno (Proficient)
- Bueno (Advanced)
- Intermedio (Intermediate)
- Basico (Elementary)
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

***22. ¿Has vivido en un país donde el inglés es lengua nativa o se habla habitualmente como segunda lengua? Especifica dónde y por cuánto tiempo.**

- No
- Sí
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

***23. ¿Has viajado con regularidad a un país de habla inglesa? Especifica dónde y la frecuencia con la que has ido?**

- No
- Sí
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

***24. ¿Has ido alguna vez a un país extranjero con un programa de intercambio tipo Erasmus, dónde has utilizado el inglés como idioma nativo para comunicarte con los demás? Especifica con que tipo de programa has ido, dónde y por cuánto tiempo has estado allí.**

- No
- Sí
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

4.- Hábitos Visuales (Watching Habits)

***25. ¿En qué idioma miras las series/películas o programas de televisión?**

- Español
- Catalán
- Inglés
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

***26. ¿Has mirado alguna vez series/películas o programas de televisión en versión original y con subtítulos?**

- Siempre
- Alguna vez
- Raras veces
- Nunca
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

27. Especifica qué tipo de programas miras a menudo o algunas veces en versión original y con subtítulos.

28. ¿Si has contestado afirmativo en la pregunta anterior, qué tipo de subtítulos usas?

- En español
- En catalán
- En inglés
- Sin subtítulo
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

***29. En tu opinión, los subtítulos:**

- Distraen la atención sobre el contenido
- Ayudan a entender mejor el contenido
- Molestan e impiden a seguir la película/serie
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

30. ¿Prefieres subtítulos solamente en algunos tipos de programas? Si es así, especifica cuáles son.

- Películas/Series
- Documentales
- Dibujos animados
- Deportes
- Humor
- Ninguno

- No lo se
- Otro (Por favor especifique)

***31. ¿Piensas que mirar películas/series/ programas en inglés y con subtítulos ayudaría adquirir más vocabulario?**

- No
- Sí
- Quizás
- No lo se

***32. ¿Cuál de las siguientes opciones de subtítulos piensas que ayudarían adquirir más vocabulario y mejorar la comprensión oral?**

- Subtítulos en inglés
- Subtítulos en español/catalán
- Sin Subtítulos
- No lo se

***33. ¿Piensas que los subtítulos ayudan a mejorar la pronunciación de la lengua extranjera?**

- No
- Sí
- Quizás
- No lo se

***34. ¿Piensas que ver las palabras escritas en la pantalla ayuda a entender el texto hablado?**

- No
- Sí
- Quizás
- No lo se

***35. ¿Piensas que el doblaje de las películas/series en España influye negativamente el aprendizaje de las lenguas extranjeras?**

- No
- Sí
- Quizás

No lo se

***36. ¿Piensas que mirar películas/series en versión original y con subtítulos podría mejorar el nivel de las lenguas extranjeras a largo plazo?**

No

Sí

Quizás

No lo se

9.2 Appendix 2. Pre-/post-test used for Study 1

Name: _____

Please answer the following questions or choose the correct option. If you don't know the answer, don't write anything or don't choose any options.

1. What does 'to catch up with someone' mean?

2. The expression '**to give ammunition**' means: a. give bullets to someone; b. give information to criticize someone; c. give resources to someone

3. What does the phrasal verb '**latch on**' mean?

4. The expression '**cushion the blow**' means: a. reduce the bad effects of something; b. use cushions when it's cold; c. stop the complaints of someone

5. Explain the meaning of '**crook**' in this context 'He's got a crooked smile':

6. Explain the meaning of '**even**' in this statement 'I think we're even now':

7. The phrasal verb '**nod off**' means: a. wake up; b. move your head; c. go to sleep

8. What does the expression 'to bring someone down mean'?

9. The expression '**slumber party**' means: a. a pyjama party; b. a party with friends that sleep over one's house; c. a party with lots of friends

10. The expression to '**gang up on someone**' means: a. annoy someone; b. fight against someone; c. unite against someone

11. The phrasal verb '**burn up**' has several meaning. Explain at least 2 meanings of it:

12. The expression '**to have suds**' means: a. have bubbles and foam; b. to sweat; c. feel hot

13. Explain the meaning of the lexical phrase '**be out of someone's league**':

14. The idiom **'take a load off'** means: a. take a loaf of bread; b. sit down; c. remove a weight

15. The phrasal verb **'black out'** has several meanings. Explain at least 2 meanings of it:

16. The expression **'to get trampled'** means: a. get injured; b. get scared; c. get lost

17. Explain the meaning **'pick on'** in this context ' You're picking on every detail':

18. The expression **'to chip in'** means: a. help someone to raise money for something; b. convince someone to give you money; c. collaborate with money to help pay for something

19. Explain the meaning of the expression **'shut someone out'**:

20. The expression **'to have a blast'** means: a. be busy; b. have a great time; c. have memories about someone

21. What does the lexical phrase **'needless to say'** mean?

22. The phrasal verb **'kill off'** has several meanings. Explain at least 2 meanings of it:

23. The expression **'give something a shot'** means: a. try to do something; b. drink alcohol; c. shoot someone

24. What does 'scrape' mean in the following context **'Scrape the meat'**: a. eat; b. remove; c. cook

25. Explain the meaning of the lexical phrase in the following statement **'She's out of sorts'**:

26. The phrasal verb **'barge in'** means: a. enter somewhere unexpectedly; b. enter somewhere without knocking; c. talk loudly

27. Explain the meaning of the idiom **'to come clean'**:

28. The expression **'to bail on someone'** means: a. not to help someone; b. to stop fighting for someone; c. abandon someone

29. Explain the meaning of **'on'** in the following statement ' This time is on me':

30. The interjection **'Shoot!'** means: a. point a gun at someone; b. disappointment; c. amazement

9.3 Appendix 3. A sample of a 20-item immediate test used for Study 2

Name: _____

Friends Season 1-10th viewing session

Please answer the following questions. If you don't know the answer, don't write anything and don't choose any option.

1. Explain the meaning of the informal phrasal verb **'to want someone out'** in this episode:

2. What is the meaning of the colloquial expression **'something is jaunty'** in this episode? a. lively and confident; b. stylish; c. old-fashioned

3. Explain the meaning of the informal expression **'to have cachet'** in this episode:

4. What is the meaning of the informal word **'lightning-bearer'** in this episode? a. someone who prevents you from expressing yourself; b. someone who steals your light; c. someone who is very pessimistic about life

5. What is the meaning of the expression **'to take a sip'** in this episode? a. to drink slowly taking small amounts at a time; b. to breathe deeply; c. to feel relieved something dangerous has not happened

6. Explain the meaning of the colloquial expression **'to roll with things'** in this episode:

7. Explain the meaning of the phrasal verb **'to pull something off'** in this episode:

8. What is the meaning of the informal phrasal verb **'to suck something up'** in this episode? a. to defend someone; b. to pay a huge amount of money to the bank; c. to feel forced to accept a difficult or unpleasant situation

9. Explain the meaning of the interjection **'Man alive!'** in this episode:

10. What is the meaning of the adjective **'feisty'** in the following context 'This fish is feistier'? a. alive; b. full of energy and lively; c. healthy and happy

11. Explain the meaning of the idiomatic expression '**something is out of the blue**' in this episode:

12. What is the meaning of the colloquial expression '**something is smack-dab**' in this episode? a. something happens exactly in a place or at a time; b. something is strange and weird; c. something is unexpected

13. Explain the meaning of the slang expression '**to clean up**' in this episode:

14. What is the meaning of the adjective '**smudgy**' in the following context 'This page is smudgy'? a. the writing on the page is unclear; b. there is a mark of ink on the page ; c. the writing is too small on the page

15. Explain the meaning of the colloquial expression '**to be better off**' in this episode:

16. Explain the meaning of the expression '**not to my recollection**' in this episode:

17. What is the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to be hang up on something**' in this episode? a. to be focused on your own problems; b. to be anxious about your own things; c. to wait for something different to happen

18. What is the meaning of the expression '**to hold out for something bigger**' in this episode? a. to do something more important than you already did; b. to wait for something more important to happen; c. to continue to demand something, although you cannot have it

19. Explain the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to tear something off**' in this episode:

20. What is the meaning of the informal phrasal verb '**to crap out**' in this episode? a. to lose money; b. to be unable to do something; c. to talk nonsense

9.4 Appendix 4. Pre-/post-test used for Study 3

Name: _____

Please answer the following questions or choose the correct option. If you don't know the answer, don't write anything or don't choose any options.

1. Explain the meaning of '**slowpokes**' in the following context: 'You, slowpokes!':

2. What is the meaning of the expression '**the silver lining**'? a. to see the positive aspect of a bad situation; b. to see a bright line; c. to see the negative side of things

3. What is the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to grow out of**' in the following context 'He'll grow out of these shoes'? a. to grow bigger in order to wear the shoes; b. to grow bigger and the shoes become too small; c. to shoes are for grown ups

4. Explain the meaning of the idiomatic expression '**Go ahead and scoff**':

5. Explain the meaning of the colloquial expression '**to be a nut case**' in the following context 'Hey, you're such a nut case':

6. What is the meaning of the expression '**to be flossing**' in the following context 'Look at her, she's flossing'? a. to be blushing; b. to be rushing somewhere; c. to dress stylishly

7. Explain the meaning of '**call**' in this informal context 'It's your call':

8. What is the meaning of the idiomatic expression '**to cross the line**'? a. to do something different from what you were supposed to do; b. to push someone to do something; c. to walk on the other side of the street

9. Explain the meaning of the idiomatic expression '**to leave someone high or dry**':

10. What's the meaning of the expression '**to get bent out of shape**'? a. not to be fit anymore; b. to feel tired and exhausted; c. to become angry or upset

11. Explain the meaning of '**doofus**' in the following context 'You're such a doofus':

12. What is the meaning of the idiom '**to sow one's wild oats**'? a. to have bad experiences with girls; b. to have youthful flings with girls; c. to have several relationships at the same time with different girls

13. Explain the meaning of the idiomatic expression '**to have a romp in the sack**':

14. What is the meaning of the informal expression '**to be jaunty**'? a. to be lively and confident; b. to be a jerk; c. to be nervous

15. Explain the meaning of the informal expression '**to ditch someone**' in the following context 'She ditched him for a younger man':

16. What is the meaning of the idiom '**once in a blue moon**'? a. very rarely; b. very often; c. very lonely

17. Explain the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to pop out**' in the following context 'Look, she popped out from there!':

18. What is the meaning of the informal expression '**to be a phony**'? a. to be a cunning person; b. to be smart person; c. to be a false, deceitful person

19. Explain the meaning of the informal expression '**something is quippy**' in the following context 'You're always making quippy remarks!':

20. What is the meaning of the informal word '**yank**' in this context 'Quit yanking me'? a. to joke around; b. to punish someone; c. to lie someone

21. Explain the meaning of '**breezy**' in the following context 'His message was breezy':

22. What is the meaning of the slang word '**dingus**' in the following context 'You're not a dingus': a. a shy person; b. a stupid person; c. a foolish person

23. Explain the meaning of the expression '**to patch someone through**':

24. What is the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to tick off**' in the following context 'Did he tick you off when he said that'? a. to talk badly about someone; b. to mock someone ; c. to annoy someone

25. Explain the meaning of the slang '**snug**' in the following context 'Those jeans are snug on you':

26. What is the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to hit off**' in the following context 'They really hit it off when they met'? a. to like each other instantly; b. to spend a good time together; c. to hit each other

27. Explain the meaning of the colloquial expression '**to have a gig**':

28. What is the meaning of the expression '**to be on the lookout for something**'? a. look at something; b. to look for something; c. to be watching carefully to avoid something

29. Explain the meaning of the phrasal verb '**to take someone's mind off someone or something**':

30. What is the meaning of the expression '**to do something at the press of a button**'? a. to dial a number; b. to do something immediately and very quickly; c. to call someone urgently

9.5 Appendix 5. The dialogue scripts used for Study 4

Option1

Student's copy

Student A

You're having an informal conversation with your friend about your ex-girlfriend.

- You're telling your friend that you're feeling depressed after separating yourself from your girlfriend.
- You also tell him that you hate her very much and that you're planning to stop seeing other girls for a period of time.
- You tell him that maybe he's right, but that right now you feel the most unhappy you've ever been in your life and that you should spend more time with friends in order to forget her.

Student B

You're having an informal conversation with your friend about his ex-girlfriend.

- You tell your friend you feels depressed after his break up that the positive aspect is that he is single again and that he needs to continue with his life.
- You also tell him he needs to fall in love with someone as soon as possible and to stop being afraid that every girl he meets is going to hurt him.
- You tell him you understand he feels unhappy and you invite him to have a coffee to make him feel better.

Option 2

Student's copy

Student A

You're talking to your girlfriend over the phone.

- You say Hi! to your girlfriend in a romantic way, ask her how she is and invite her to dinner. You remind her you reserved a table in a restaurant and you want to talk to her about something important.
- Your girlfriend tells you that she has plans with her parents and you tell her that she could invite you as well in order to meet them, this way she could make you feel better and compensate for the romantic dinner.
- You keep insisting that you'd like to meet her parents and tell her it's going to be great and that mums instantly like you and you always make them laugh a lot with your jokes.

Student B

You're talking to your boyfriend over the phone.

- You say Hi! to him and tell him you had an awful day at work. He reminds you about the invitation to dinner, but you tell him that you have a family dinner at your parents' house and you don't like to cancel them.
- You are surprised by your boyfriend proposal of meeting your parents and as you don't know what to say, you tell him he is talking about things that he shouldn't and deviates from the subject.
- You tell your boyfriend you're afraid he's going to start laughing about things he considers stupid, as your parents are difficult to please, especially your dad, who is a bit crazy

Option 3

Student's copy

Student A

You're three male friends who decided to go out on a Saturday night. You are all single and trying to find some dates to go out at night.

- You tell your friends that you're going to call a few old friends to see if you can find three girls to go out with them. You tell them that you'd like a beautiful girl and a good dancer, because you're not too bad yourself.
- You tell you shy friend he need to do things he didn't do in the past and to be relaxed that everything is going to be fine. You also tell them you found a very attractive girl for him and that she's coming to meet him tonight.

Student B

You're three male friends who decided to go out on a Saturday night. You are all single and trying to find some dates to go out at night.

- You tell your friend he is too proud about it and that he shouldn't be so sure about that. You also tell him you really like the girl you met last week at the cinema and you'd like to invite her.
- You tell your friends that you have basic rules for dating and that you don't like people to arrange your dates and that you prefer to know the girl before going out with her.

Student C

You're three male friends who decided to go out on a Saturday night. You are all single and trying to find some dates to go out at night.

- You are the shyest friend out of the three and you feel quite nervous about going out with an unknown girl. It's been year since you haven't been out with a girl, but it's time to go back from where you started years ago.
- You tell your friend B that you don't believe a word of what he's saying and that he should be more open to new possibilities of meeting new girls, otherwise he's going to die alone.

Option 4

Student's copy

Student A

You are two male friends and you are at another friend's birthday party.

- You enter the room, say hi to everybody and you go straight to the fridge to take something to drink. You look inside the fridge and you tell your friend (the one who organized the party) that there is no beer left.
- You go to your friend and ask him if he wants to put some more drink in to his glass and that he should go and talk to the girl he is insistently looking at.

Student B

You are two male friends and you are at another friend's birthday party

- You enter the room with your friend, say hi to everybody and you congratulate your friend for his birthday. You look carefully around the room and you see a nice girl. You ask your friend who the girl is.
- You tell your friend that the girl is too beautiful for him and that he wouldn't have a chance with her.

Student C

You're having a birthday party and you have invited your best two friends, too.

- Your friend asks you about one girl in the room and it happens to be your workmate. You make fun of him telling him that he should try and not spoil the situation the way he did when they went out last time.
- You tell your friend B that he looks so in love with that girl and that he should go to her and get to the point and ask her out.

Option 5

Student's copy

Student A

You are two girlfriends that decided to go shopping.

- You meet your friend, who seems a bit sad and you propose her to go shopping. You tell her that you've heard on the radio that this afternoon there is a reduction in prices in one of the biggest malls in town.
- You tell your friend that she needs to forget him and enjoy herself doing other things. You also tell her to stop eating so much ice-cream if she doesn't want to get fat.
- You are at the supermarket with your friend and you see an amazing dress in one of the clothes shop. You want to try it out and you feel some little bumps on the cloth , but you still ask your friend for her opinion. You warn her to be honest and not praise her too much . You see another nice dress and you don't know which one to choose.

Student B

You are two girlfriends that decided to go shopping.

- You friends invites you to go shopping, but you tell her that you're still upset about separating yourself from your boyfriend. You accept her invitation anyway thinking that you might feel better afterwards.
- You shout that you understood what she said! and that you feel a bit dizzy and you'll need a drink first.
- You see your friend trying out a beautiful dress in a clothes shop and you tell her she looks amazing and it's her style because she likes to dress stylishly. You tell your friend to select the most likely to wear more often.

Option 6

Student's copy

Student A

You are having an informal conversation with your daughter about your recent divorce from your second husband. You are very good friends and you feel confident to share your problems with her.

- You tell your daughter that the whole situation got affected you emotionally, but you don't want her to suffer because of you and hurt her feelings.
- You tell her she's very nice to say this, but that your ex-husband put in such a difficult situation that you don't know what to do now. You ask your daughter to serve you with a cold drink, because you're very thirsty.

- You start sharing her the main reason of the divorce, that is your ex-husband is having youthful flings with a young attractive girl in the city and that hurt you a lot. You even consider moving from your current town to be closer to your daughter.

Student B

You are having an informal conversation with your mum about her recent divorce from her second husband. You are very good friends and you feel confident to listen to her problems.

- You feel sorry for your mum's divorce and you tell her that you always thought they would be partners for life, but that she doesn't have to stop dreaming about finding one day the perfect partner.
- You serve her a glass of lemonade and tell your mum she needs to be strong and defend her beliefs and she should do all the things she couldn't do when she was married, e.g. to travel, to meet old friends, etc. You ask her if she wants to pour some more lemonade into her glass, as she drank it all very quickly.
- You seem really annoyed when you hear the news and tell her she needs to forget that jerk because he doesn't deserve her. You tell her that the idea of moving closer to you seems fantastic and courageous and you'd love it.

Option 7

Student A

You are walking in the park with your friend.

- You tell your friend that your boss who you normally have a good relationship with has asked you to either move to another office abroad or leave the company. And that this was a complete shock to you.
- You thank your friend and say that if the branch had hit you, it would have been a significant problem. As a way of thanking your friend you say you are having your meal at home tonight and invite your friend to dinner.
- You tell yourself not to worry and overcome this bad event and carry on with life

Student B

You are walking in the park with your friend.

- You are walking in the park with your friend. You listen to your friend tell you that his boss has offered him a job abroad as there's no work for him here anymore.
- You tell him he should see that there is a positive side to this because your friend has said that he's very tired of his work recently and perhaps this change would be good for him.

- You tell your friend to be careful to avoid the falling branch of a tree above you.
You accept the invitation from your friend and say this will make you feel happier as you really like someone at work who doesn't feel the same way about you.

An example of how teacher's copy dialogue scripts look like:

Option1

Teacher's copy

Student A

You're having an informal conversation with your friend about your ex-girlfriend.

- You're telling your friend that you're **feeling depressed** (to feel down) after **separating yourself** (break up/split up) from your girlfriend.
- You also tell him that you **hate her very much** (to hate someone's guts) and that you're planning **to stop seeing other girls** (to get out of the game) for a period of time.
- You tell him that maybe he's right, but that right now you **feel the most unhappy you've ever been in your life** (to hit the rock bottom) and that you should **spend more time with friends** (hang out) in order **to forget her**. (to get over someone)

Student B

You're having an informal conversation with your friend about his ex-girlfriend.

- You tell your friend you feels depressed after his break up that **the positive aspect** (the silver lining) is that he is single again and that he needs **to continue with his life**. (move on with his life)
- You also tell him he needs **to fall in love with someone** (to fall for someone) as soon as possible and **to stop being afraid that every girl he meets is going to hurt him**. (to stop being paranoid/to freak out)
- You tell him you understand he feels unhappy and you invite him **to have a coffee** (to grab a cup of coffee) to **make him feel better**. (to cheer him up) and you tell him you're sure he's going **to ask someone on a date** (to ask someone out) sooner than he thinks.

9.6 Appendix 6. Classification of the informal and colloquial terms used by the participants

Phrasal verbs	Idioms	Slang	Spoken/Informal expressions	Spoken/Informal nouns
go out	sow one's wild oats	jerk	Come on!	neat whisky
suck up	once in a blue moon	yankee	Go on with your	mate for life
get over	change one's mind	bimbo	life!	sweetie
someone	see the silver lining	crap	Go for it!	(have a) crush
split up	there are plenty of fish in	damn	Watch out!	buddy
to come round	the sea		Big deal!	honey
run into	be out of one's mind		Get out!	(not the) case
someone	have a thing for someone		It's gross!	bright side
move on	to get to change one's		not good enough	nutcase
be fed up	mind give		for someone	crack the code
feel down	something/someone a		hate someone's	sweetheart
brake up	shot		guts feel clobbered	darling
cheat on	drive someone crazy		feel/be blue	(have a) point
someone	hurt someone's feelings		dump someone	
go on	take one's mind off		What about you?	
move out	something		Forget about it!	
move on	do the best you can		Why don't you..?	
take someone	drive someone mad		What about..?	
out	have a fling		Don't you think?	
get through	out of the blue		It's been ages	
something			since..	
call something			My God!	
off			I'd love it!	
let someone			wanna to...	
down			gonna talk	
pick up			What's up?	
fool around			Who's gonna..?	
cheep up			it seems fair	
get over			to dump someone	

<p> someone fall for someone call back try on get out move in freak out look back count on someone split up carry on go away come over hang around hang out help out go ahead get along come around get away with something ripped apart cope with something hit it off scoff at something </p>			<p> be down Let it go! be nuts need a refill give someone a call How's it going? quit doing something My Lord! Get you! Can't believe it! Don't you remember? What's up? Don't mind... Are you kidding? on sales No way! How ya doing? I bet it! rip someone's heart be a lot to take I don't buy it! fancy someone be the one for someone give something a try be on someone Leave it! hopping mad something about it be smoking </p>	
---	--	--	---	--

			<p>feel like (doing) something Hey/Ohh man! Cheers, mate! Chop-chop! I've had it! be into pieces feel clobbered grab a coffee See ya! need a refill</p>	
--	--	--	---	--