

**DEVELOPING VOCABULARY CLASSES BASED ON EXPLICIT-  
IMPLICIT VOCABULARY LEARNING TO PROMOTE  
VOCABULARY MASTERY OF STUDENTS OF  
MTS DARUL A'MAL**

A Thesis

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## ABSTRACT

### DEVELOPING VOCABULARY CLASSES BASED ON EXPLICIT- IMPLICIT VOCABULARY LEARNING TO PROMOTE VOCABULARY MASTERY OF STUDENTS OF MTS DARUL A'MAL

By: Muhammad Iqbal Arramany

This quasi-experimental study aims to investigate the effectiveness of explicit and implicit vocabulary learning using video with L1 or L2 subtitle on students' vocabulary mastery of 30 target words. One hundred and twenty (120) female students of MTs. Darul A'mal participated in this research by watching three videos within three meetings with approximately three minutes long with either L1 or L2 subtitle. Thirty (30) students in each classroom were assigned to one of this four conditions; explicit-L1 subtitle, explicit-L2 subtitle; implicit-L1 subtitle, and implicit-L2 subtitle. The students' vocabulary mastery of the target words was measured by English-to-Indonesian translation test. The results of each test are analyzed and described separately.

Two-way factorial ANOVA reveals that there is a statistically significant interaction between types of vocabulary learning (explicit and implicit) and types of subtitled video (L1 and L2 subtitle) on the students' immediate post-test results ( $p = 0.004 < \alpha = 0.05$ ). In the immediate post-test, the students in explicit vocabulary learning with L1 subtitle outperformed students in other condition. A similar result can also be found in the delayed post-test where the students in explicit learning with L1 subtitle outperformed the students in other condition. Explicit vocabulary learning is constantly showing its superiority over implicit vocabulary learning throughout this research. However, the result of current research also indicates that in 2 weeks delayed post-test, the effect of L1 or L2 subtitle is moderated by the type of vocabulary learning (explicit or implicit). In explicit learning, the type of subtitle (L1 or L2) significantly affected the result of the delayed posttest ( $p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$ ); while in implicit learning, the difference between the mean score of students in L1 and L2 subtitle condition is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.186 > \alpha = 0.05$ ); it means that types of subtitle do not play important role in affecting students' scores in the delayed posttest in implicit learning.

There are several limitations of current research. First, the use of the translation test to measure students' vocabulary mastery is not sensitive enough to detect gains in degrees of students' word knowledge. Second, the writer suspects that the unsatisfying performance of the students in implicit learning might due to the fact that the video used in this research is too complex or difficult for the students in implicit learning to get a comprehensible input. Third, this research only pictures the students' retention after two weeks from each respective treatment. It means that different interval on the delayed post-test may produce a different result. Fourth, the participants in this research do not use a proper hearing-aid while watching the video, this may also affect students' overall performance; further research in the future is expected to able to address these limitations.

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VOCABULARY MASTERY OF STUDENTS OF  
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**By:  
MUHAMMAD IQBAL ARRAMANY**

A Thesis  
Submitted in a partial fulfillment of  
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**MASTER IN ENGLISH EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM  
LANGUAGE AND ARTS EDUCATION DEPARTMENT  
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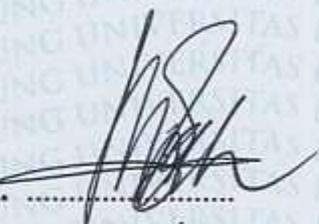
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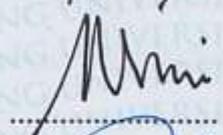
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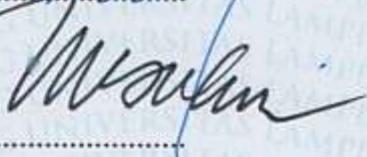
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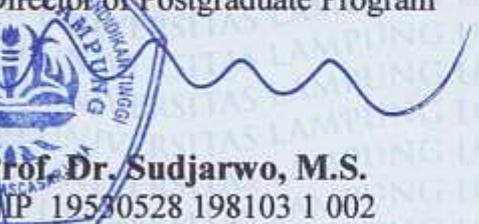
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## LEMBAR PERNYATAAN

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Bandar Lampung, 24 Agustus 2017  
Yang membuat pernyataan,



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## **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Muhammad Iqbal Arramany is the first child of Bapak Wahadi Ghuna and Ibu Dyah Sri Mulyati. He was born on February 25, 1990. He has one younger sister and two younger brothers. He is a husband of Nova Bela Yasinta Amd. Keb and a father of Muhammad Fawwaz Atssaqif.

When he was 6 years old, he started his formal education by entering SDN 3 Metro Barat and graduate in 2002. Then he continued his study in MTs. Darul A'mal and graduated in 2005. After that, he continued his study in SMA Negeri 3 Kota Metro and graduated in 2008. Because of his interest in teaching and learning English, he then took his undergraduate degree in English Language Teaching Study Program of STAI Ma'arif Metro Lampung (Institut Agama Islam Ma'arif NU Lampung in the present day) and graduated in 2012. In 2014, he decided to take a Master degree in English Education Study Program of Lampung University.

He started his English teaching career as an English teacher in his junior high school alma-mater, MTs. Darul A'mal Kota Metro, in 2011; even before graduating from his S-1 degree. Apart from that, he also works in a non-teaching area in a government institution as a social worker under the Ministry of Social of Indonesian Republic.

## **DEDICATION**

This humble piece of writing is dedicated to:

1. My beloved life's partner, Nova Bela Yasinta, A.Md Keb. and my newly-born son, Muhammad Fawwaz Atssaqif.
2. My beloved parents, Ibu Dyah Sri Mulyati and Bapak Wahadi Ghuna, M.H.I.
3. My beloved sister and brothers, Annur Mu'minatul Luthfiah, Afghonie Irfan Fadholie and Abshor Achda Mustofa.
4. My workplace, MTs. Darul A'mal
5. All my friends in 2<sup>nd</sup> batch MPBI UNILA
6. My alma mater, Lampung University.

**MOTTO**

*Direction is more important than speed.  
Look at the milestone, not just the speedometer  
~Anonymous~*

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Bandar Lampung, Augustus 2017  
The Writer,

**Muhammad Iqbal Arramany**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	i
<b>CURRICULUM VITAE</b> .....	ii
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	iii
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	iv
<b>MOTTO</b> .....	v
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....	vi
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	vii
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	viii
<b>LIST OF APPENDICES</b> .....	ix
<b>I. INTRODUCTION</b> .....	1
1.1 Background of the Study .....	1
1.2 Research Questions .....	12
1.3 Research Objectives .....	12
1.4 Uses of the Research .....	13
1.5 Scope of the Research .....	14
1.6 Definition of Terms .....	14
<b>II. FRAME OF THEORIES</b> .....	17
2.1 Concept of Vocabulary .....	17
2.1.1 Definition of Vocabulary .....	17
2.1.2 Concept of Vocabulary Knowledge .....	18
2.2 Concept of Vocabulary Learning .....	20
2.2.1 Learning Vocabulary through Audio-Assisted Reading .....	21
2.2.2 Learning Vocabulary through Video .....	22
2.2.3 Learning Vocabulary through Subtitled-Video .....	24
2.3 Explicit-Implicit Vocabulary Learning .....	33
2.4 Explicit-Implicit Vocabulary Learning through Subtitled Video for Junior High School Students .....	36
2.5 Vocabulary Mastery .....	42
2.6 Vocabulary Retention .....	42
2.7 Theoretical Assumptions .....	43
2.8 Hypotheses .....	43
<b>III. RESEARCH METHOD</b> .....	45
3.1 Research Design .....	45
3.2 Population and Sample .....	46
3.3 Research Variables .....	47
3.4 Data Collecting Technique .....	48
3.5 Target Words .....	48
3.6 Video Material .....	49
3.7 Research Instruments .....	50
3.8 Scoring Scheme .....	51
	53

3.9 Validity and Reliability .....	53
3.9.1 Validity .....	56
3.9.2 Reliability .....	57
3.10 Research Procedure .....	60
3.11 Data Analysis .....	60
3.11.1 Normality Testing .....	61
3.11.2 Homogeneity Testing .....	62
3.12 Hypothesis Testing .....	
<b>IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION .....</b>	<b>64</b>
4.1 Results .....	64
4.1.1 Results of Pre-Test .....	64
4.1.2 Results of Immediate Post-Test .....	65
4.1.3 Results of Delayed Post-Test .....	68
4.2 Hypothesis Testing .....	70
4.2.1 Testing Hypothesis Number 1 .....	72
4.2.2 Testing Hypothesis Number 2 .....	74
4.2.3 Testing Hypothesis Number 3 .....	79
4.3 Discussion .....	82
4.3.1 The students' Retention of the Target Words .....	82
4.3.2 The Interaction Effect of Two-Way ANOVA .....	87
4.3.3 The difference in Students' Immediate Post-Test Score in Explicit and Implicit Vocabulary Learning .....	88
4.3.4 The difference in Students' Immediate Post-Test Score in L1 and L2 subtitled-video .....	98
4.4 Limitations of the Research .....	104
<b>V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS</b>	
5.1 Conclusions .....	107
5.2 Suggestions .....	109
5.2.1 Suggestions for English Teacher .....	109
5.2.2 Suggestions for Further Research .....	112
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>115</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>123</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table</b>	<b>Pages</b>
2.1	What is involved in Knowing a Word? ..... 19
3.1	2x2 Factorial Design ..... 45
3.2	Research Timeline ..... 46
3.3	Number of Students in Each Classroom ..... 47
3.4	Modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale ..... 51
3.5	Indonesian-Translated Modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale ..... 51
3.6	Target Words and their Accepted Indonesian Meaning(s) ..... 52
3.7	Table Specifications of Construct Validity ..... 55
3.8	Cohen's kappa ( $\kappa$ ) output from SPSS 23 ..... 56
4.1	Lists of Target Words ..... 65
4.2	Descriptive Statistics of Immediate Post-Test Scores ..... 67
4.3	Descriptive Statistics of Delayed Post-Test Scores ..... 68
4.4	Means Comparison of Immediate Post-Test and Delayed Post-Test ..... 68
4.5	One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test ..... 70
4.6	Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances of two-way ANOVA ..... 71
4.7	Descriptive Statistics of two-way ANOVA ..... 72
4.8	Tests of Between-Subjects two-way ANOVA ..... 73
4.9	Descriptive statistics of the First Simple Effect Analysis ..... 76
4.10	Contrast Coefficients of the First Simple Effect Analysis ..... 76
4.11	Test of Homogeneity of Variances of the First Simple Effect Analysis ..... 77
4.12	one-way ANOVA of the First Simple Effect Analysis ..... 77
4.13	Contrast Tests of the First Simple Effect Analysis ..... 78
4.14	Descriptive of the Second Simple Effect Analysis ..... 79
4.15	Contrast Coefficients of the Second Simple Effect Analysis ..... 79
4.16	Variances Homogeneity Test of the Second Simple Effect Analysis ..... 80
4.17	one-way ANOVA for the Second Simple Effect Analysis ..... 80
4.18	Contrast Tests for the Second Simple Effect Analysis ..... 81
4.19	Ratio of Decrease and Retention Rate in Delayed Post-Test ..... 83
4.20	one-way ANOVA of L1 and L2 subtitle in Explicit Learning in Delayed Posttest ..... 86
4.21	one-way ANOVA of L1 and L2 subtitle in Implicit Learning in Delayed Posttest ..... 86

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure</b>		<b>Pages</b>
4.1	Charts for Data from Immediate and Delayed Post-Test .....	69
4.2	Profile Plots .....	73
4.3	Steps in analyzing a two-way factorial ANOVA .....	75

## LIST OF APPENDICES

	<b>Pages</b>
Appendix 1	Lesson Plan 1 (Explicit, L1 subtitle) ..... 123
Appendix 2	Lesson Plan 2 (Explicit, L2 subtitle) ..... 126
Appendix 3	Lesson Plan 3 (Implicit, L1 subtitle) ..... 129
Appendix 4	Lesson Plan 4 (Implicit, L2 subtitle) ..... 132
Appendix 5	Pretest Word-List ..... 135
Appendix 6	Post-Test for Meeting 1 ..... 138
Appendix 7	Post-Test for Meeting 2 ..... 140
Appendix 8	Post-Test for Meeting 3 ..... 142
Appendix 9	Script of L1 subtitle for Meeting 1 ..... 144
Appendix 10	Script of L1 subtitle for Meeting 2 ..... 145
Appendix 11	Script of L1 subtitle for Meeting 3 ..... 146
Appendix 12	Script of L2 subtitle for Meeting 1 ..... 147
Appendix 13	Script of L2 subtitle for Meeting 2 ..... 148
Appendix 14	Script of L2 subtitle for Meeting 3 ..... 149
Appendix 15	Immediate Post-Test Score class IXA (A1B1) ..... 150
Appendix 16	Immediate Post-Test Score class IXB (A1B2) ..... 151
Appendix 17	Immediate Post-Test Score class IXC (A2B1) ..... 152
Appendix 18	Immediate Post-Test Score class IXD (A2B2) ..... 153
Appendix 19	Delayed Post-Test Score class IXA (A1B1) ..... 154
Appendix 20	Delayed Post-Test Score class IXB (A1B2) ..... 155
Appendix 21	Delayed Post-Test Score class IXC (A2B1) ..... 156
Appendix 22	Delayed Post-Test Score class IXD (A2B2) ..... 157

## I. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the writer discusses the background of the research, research questions, objectives of the research, uses of the research, scope of the research and definition of terms.

### 1.1 Background of the Study

In his book, *Linguistics in Language Teaching*, Wilkins, as cited in Folse (2011) stated that without grammar very little could be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing could be conveyed. This statement emphasizes the significance of vocabulary knowledge in language learning and teaching. Based on Wilkins's statement above, we can see that vocabulary learning and teaching is the center of any foreign language teaching and learning.

McCarthy (1990) begins his vocabulary book by stating "it is the experience of most language teachers that the single biggest component of any language course is vocabulary". Vocabulary is needed for expressing meaning and in using the receptive (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing) skills. Furthermore, McCarthy (1990) argues that no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way.

Vocabulary or word knowledge is a strategic component as it facilitates learner to respond to the four language skills effectively. With adequate lexical knowledge, a learner has sufficient input to partake in productive skills, such as daily oral communication and written work. Schmitt, as cited in Kaur (2013), claimed that about 3,000 spoken word families are required to cover about 96% of one's daily communication lexicon use or about 2,000 words to maintain conversations. Lexical competence also ensures the ability to cope with various types of reading (Nation as cited in Kaur, 2013). Possessing good knowledge of vocabulary may not necessarily enable one to communicate, but it is usually possible to communicate if one has the vocabulary. Vocabulary is perceived to occupy a strategic role in second language learning.

Learning and maintaining a large store of vocabulary is a crucial and demanding job, and L2 teachers always question which strategies and tasks are more effective in helping students learn as many words as they can in the most effective and efficient way. Khoii (2013) stated that there are two approaches in relation to the processing of new vocabulary; implicit vocabulary learning and explicit vocabulary learning. In implicit vocabulary learning, new vocabulary is acquired without the language learners being aware of it, especially when reading or during spoken interaction. This is an unconscious process, the main feature of which is a lack of intentionality. Explicit vocabulary learning, however, would support the relevance of explicit attention to new words aided by a number of conscious and planned strategies. In explicit vocabulary learning, the learner notices novel

vocabulary, selectively attends to it, and uses a variety of strategies to try to infer its meaning from the context (Khoii, 2013).

Laufer (2005) specifically stated that intentional vocabulary learning (Focus on Forms) is more superior to incidental, meaning-focused word learning (Focus on Form). Laufer (2005) even stated that treating words as an object of study rather than as tools for communication is quite effective as a teaching method. In incidental vocabulary learning, learners acquire new words from context without having the intention of doing so, such as when picking up new words during free reading. Intentional vocabulary learning refers to learning new words while intending to do so, such as when a learner studies a list of target words or completes activities in a workbook while working to learn a set of new target words.

Particular vocabulary learning may be neither purely incidental nor purely intentional. Coady, as cited in Barcroft (2009) stated that different types of vocabulary learning can be viewed as points on a continuum between incidental and intentional because attention is not a dichotomous entity (Gass, 1999). Vocabulary instruction methods also range from being highly indirect to highly direct (Haynes cited in Wesche & Paribakht, 1999). Reading for meaning while paying some attention to new words in the text can be viewed as neither completely indirect (incidental learning or implicit teaching) nor completely direct (intentional learning or explicit teaching). Reading a list of new words within a

communicative context also may fall somewhere between the two-ends of the continuum (Barcroft, 2009).

Sonbul and Schmitt (2010) stated that, in practice, teachers of English in many foreign language contexts combine explicit and implicit approaches because many studies have shown that this combination is effective. For example, Hill and Laufer (2003) found that post-reading tasks explicitly focusing on target words led to a better vocabulary learning than comprehension questions which required knowledge of the target words' meaning. Mondria (2003) found that learning words through the meaning-inferred method (implicit learning) leads to a similar level of retention as learning words through the meaning-given (explicit learning) method (47% and 50% retention, respectively). Mondria (2003) also stated that the meaning-inferred method is considerably more time consuming and therefore less efficient.

Paribakht and Wesche, as cited in Sonbul and Schmitt (2010), compared vocabulary learning in a reading-only condition to learning that occurs through reading plus various types of vocabulary exercises. Both treatments led to vocabulary gains, but the latter treatment (reading + exercises) resulted in a larger quantity and deeper quality of vocabulary knowledge. In a study set in California (also with mixed-L1 participants), Zimmerman (1997) found that a group which completed interactive vocabulary exercises after reading improved more than a reading-only group. Based on those studies, it might be concluded that explicit vocabulary instruction is a useful follow-up to incidental learning

As it has been previously explored, the vast majority of incidental vocabulary research has been carried out in the area of reading (e.g. Hulstijn, 1992; Pitts et al., 1989; Eckerth & Tavakoli, 2012). Although results vary, the learning improvements found are mostly small. L2 listening has received relatively little research attention (Vandergrift, 2007), and this is also the case in the area of incidental vocabulary acquisition. Considerably fewer studies have been carried out in the context of listening than reading. This is surprising, as spoken language is the primary medium of learning in many language classrooms, especially in the communicative language teaching context. Some early vocabulary studies have included listening, but they explored how auditory stimuli can reinforce acquisition from reading (e.g. Kelly, 1992), rather than acquisition from listening only. More recently, a few vocabulary studies have measured learning from listening directly. Their findings suggest that listening leads to even smaller gains than reading does (Brown et al., 2008; Vidal, 2011).

Regarding those issues, some researchers have tried to compare the effect of combining reading and listening with reading or listening alone to students' vocabulary learning. The use of simultaneous listening and reading has had a long history in the development of first language literacy, and also as a remedial approach for children who have reading difficulties (Carbo, 1978).

Two recent studies examined the practice of L2 reading while simultaneously listening to an aural version of the text. Brown et al., (2008) looked at three modes of input: reading only, reading while listening, and listening only, on vocabulary

learning with 35 Japanese learners studying three graded readers. The results showed that the participants learned the most words in the reading while listening mode, followed by reading only and then listening only. Webb and Chang (2012) also found evidence supporting the value of audio-assisted reading with 82 Taiwanese students. Similar to the results of Brown et al., (2008) the participants who received audio-assisted repeated reading gained greater vocabulary knowledge than those who were involved in unassisted repeated reading.

Webb & Chang (2012) stated that there are some reasons why audio-assisted reading is valuable language learning activities; the first reason is that reading while listening contributes to superior comprehension than reading alone. Superior comprehension may allow readers to pay greater attention to unknown words. A second reason is that the audio support helps learners segment the texts into larger chunks, allowing learners to have greater working memory to comprehend the texts and increase the potential to infer unfamiliar words (Brown et al., 2008). A third reason is that the audio versions of the texts may help them to link knowledge of the spoken form to the written form of lexical items contributing to greater learning; such association may also create greater memory links, perhaps leading to higher levels of retention of the target vocabulary.

Another well-known L2 vocabulary instruction method involves the use of pictures. Up to present, several studies on memory have pointed out to the importance of pictures in enhancing memory performance e.g., Nelson, 1976 and

Paivio, 1976. These two studies demonstrate that items presented in the form of pictures are recalled with more ease than those items presented in verbal form.

Mayer, as cited in Washang (2014), stated that people learn more deeply from words and pictures than from words alone. Washang (2014) adds that authentic videos put language into an extremely authentic context, especially when backed-up by proper follow-up activities. Watching videos, language learners witness language in action. It is especially useful in EFL situations where learners rarely have the opportunity to use their L2 for real purposes. Videos are also a great source to boost learners' pronunciation, stress and intonation patterns, all of which can help the learner to learn the words better. Enriched with contextual clues, videos are able to easily trigger the background knowledge of the learners, which in turn, puts learners in a much stronger position to analyze the situation. Now that the relevant script and schema are functioning, learners may be better listeners, participants and intelligent guessers of the missed words. The other indisputable advantage of videos is that they build up motivation in the learners especially when selected properly in accordance with the age and interest of the learners (Washang, 2014).

Mayer, still as cited in Washang (2014), mentioned that words and pictures which presented to the learner through a multimedia presentation are processed along two separate, non-conflicting channels. They enter the sensory memory through the ears and eyes. Words and images are actively selected by the learner from the sensory memory and enter the working memory where they are organized into a

verbal model and a pictorial model. Each channel can process only a few “chunks” of information at a given time in working memory. The two models are then integrated with prior knowledge retrieved from long-term memory. This integration occurs within the working memory following each segmented portion of instruction offered to the learner in the multimedia presentation.

Zhu (2012) claimed that teaching using multimedia tools (such as video) is superior to the traditional teaching in sound, image, color, and shape. Ilin, et al. (2013) in his study suggests that using videos to teach grammar to ESP students motivated the students to take part in the lessons and that it had a more permanent effect on their learning. Rusanganwa (2013) studied a group of physics undergraduates in Rwanda to see the effect of multimedia on the teaching of technical vocabulary. He formed two groups of experimental and control. The control was taught using the traditional method of using blackboard and the experimental group was taught using computer-mediated multimedia to present technical vocabulary on-screen. The results showed that the effect of multimedia on the recall of the concepts taught was large.

The other type of vocabulary learning is through watching video with subtitles. Subtitling is most known for its purpose of translating the oral dialogue from films or television programs into text. This often involves viewers who have an L1 that is not the same as the language in the spoken dialogue and are given subtitles so that they can understand the action on the screen. This type of L2 subtitling (from the perspective of the language/soundtrack in the video) is what

we normally find in English speaking movies on Indonesian television or cinemas, where Indonesian subtitles are provided for the viewer.

Chiquito (1995) stated that closed captioning technology was originally devised for hearing impaired persons to aid their understanding when listening was not an option. Today, it is also used by people who prefer English subtitles in addition to spoken English dialogue, instead of subtitles in their non-English mother tongue. In an instructional context, it is used by teachers who want to take a step away from native language subtitles to challenge students as they become more proficient. It can also be the topic of research, as in this study, where people want to learn more about language learning and methods. Danan (2004) implies that subtitles can be a tool for teachers and an aid for students to visualize what they hear, especially if the input is not too far beyond their linguistic ability. Subtitling can also increase language comprehension and leads to additional cognitive benefits, such as greater depth of processing.

Vanderplank (1988) was early in looking at the use of subtitling in language learning. In his study, Vanderplank (1988) wanted to know if there were any benefits for language learning in watching programs with subtitles. Fifteen learners of English, between high-intermediate and post-proficiency level, watched BBC programs with Teletext subtitles and gave feedback on their experience with the experiment. The participants reported that the subtitles were beneficial to their language development and that they were able to develop strategies and techniques for using subtitles flexibly and according to need.

Vanderplank (1988) suggests that subtitles are of more value to post-intermediate-level learners, providing comprehensible input, than for low-level learners. The results also indicated that subtitles promote a low affective filter, encourage conscious language learning in “literate” learners, and, paradoxically, release spare language-processing capacity. That subtitles release capacity for processing and consequently learning in this way is an interesting point, as it implies a facilitation of acquisition.

In a later study, Vanderplank (1990) again explores the benefits and limitations of subtitles as a tool in language learning. Vanderplank (1990) writes that what he found in his own study (from 1988, as presented above), and what others have found, suggests that the use of subtitles is not a distraction; the double modal input appears to enhance comprehension better than simple script or sound. In his follow-up study, Vanderplank (1990) reports that participants who paid attention to what they watched and used note-taking or other aids to retention were helped by this and produced English of a higher level and improved their command of the language in social interaction. For other participants who watched the programs more passively, their recollection of terminology and details were limited and reproduction was not as good (Vanderplank, 1990). In regards to Vanderplank’s research reports that use note-taking as an aid to promote retention, the present study is going to implement direct vocabulary teaching as a variable to affect vocabulary learning and retention gained from the previous activity.

Based on the theoretical explanation above, the researcher sees a gap on the theoretical basis that needs to be fulfilled. In this study, the researcher is trying to combine the use of listening activity and reading activity with the additional visual context using videos in learning new vocabularies. The audiovisual material in this research will be given two different subtitles; English subtitle (L2) and Indonesian subtitle (L1). In short, this current study is trying to implement L1 and L2 video-subtitling in incidental (implicit) and intentional (explicit) vocabulary learning to promote vocabulary learning and retention on 2 weeks delayed post-test. Previous research on vocabulary retention used different length of delay on the retention test, ranging from one week (Sonbul, 2010) to three months (Washang, 2014). This research, however, conducted the retention test two weeks after each respective treatment because it seems as a reasonable delay for this research considering the level of the participants of this research, academic calendar and also for a practical reason. The present of direct vocabulary teaching in explicit vocabulary learning is one of the several differential aspects of explicit-implicit learning in this research. In this manner, this current study is different from those previous studies.

The aims of this research are: first, to know how many of the target words students in each group can retain after 2 weeks in delayed post-test; second, to know the interaction between explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video and types of subtitle (L1 and L2) to students' vocabulary mastery; third, to know the difference in students' vocabulary mastery between those who are treated with explicit and implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video;

and fourth, to know the difference in students' vocabulary mastery between those who are treated with L1 and L2 subtitled-video in explicit and implicit learning.

### **1.2 Research Questions**

The current study seeks the answers to the following research questions:

1. How many target words students in each group can retain after 2 weeks in delayed post-test?
2. Is there an interaction between explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video and types of subtitle (L1 and L2) to students' vocabulary mastery?
3. Is there a difference in vocabulary mastery of students in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning using L1 and L2 subtitled-video?
4. Is there a difference in vocabulary mastery of students with L1 (Indonesian) and L2 (English) subtitled-video in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning?

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

The objectives of this study are:

1. To know how many of the target words students in each group can retain after 2 weeks in delayed post-test.
2. To know the interaction between explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video and types of subtitle (L1 and L2) to students' vocabulary mastery;
3. To know the difference in vocabulary mastery of students in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning using L1 and L2 subtitled-video;

4. To know the difference in vocabulary mastery of students with L1 (Indonesian) and L2 (English) subtitled-video in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning.

#### **1.4 Uses of the Research**

There are two fundamental uses of this study:

1. Theoretical uses

This research is expected to clarify or support previous research findings in the implementation of explicit-implicit vocabulary teaching and learning using L1 and L2 subtitled-video and its effect on students' vocabulary mastery and retention.

2. Practical Uses

Practically, this research is expected to provide some ideas for ESL teachers in implementing vocabulary teaching in their classroom by using subtitled-video and its variation of condition (using L1 or L2 subtitle, explicit or implicit learning) that is suitable for their classroom situation.

#### **1.5 Scope of the Research**

The focus of this research is on the implementation of explicit-implicit vocabulary teaching and learning using L1 and L2 subtitled-video and its effect on students' vocabulary mastery and retention of students of MTs Darul A'mal in grade 9. The subtitle used in the video in this research will be two kinds; L1 subtitle (Indonesian) and L2 subtitle (English). The distinction between explicit and

implicit vocabulary learning has been elaborated in the background of this research. The emphasis of explicit vocabulary learning in this research is on the implementation of direct vocabulary teaching in its process and the presence of test announcement; where these two aspects do not exist in implicit vocabulary learning. As Hulstijn (1992) noted, when individuals know in advance that they will be tested on words, they may invoke all kinds of rehearsal and memorization techniques. Furthermore, Hulstijn (2001) argued that pre-learning instructions, that is the presence or absence of a vocabulary test announcement, can induce conditions for incidental or intentional vocabulary learning. The researcher suspects that these two aspects will affect the result of students' vocabulary learning and retention of the target words.

### **1.6 Definition of Terms**

There are several terms in this research that need to define operationally to avoid misunderstanding, they are:

#### **1. Explicit-Implicit Vocabulary Learning**

*Explicit vocabulary learning or instruction* refers to the vocabulary learning activity where the learners are *consciously* and *intentionally* learn the target vocabulary, such as when a learner studies a list of target words or completes activities in a workbook while working to learn a set of new target words. In explicit vocabulary learning, the learner notices novel vocabulary, selectively attends to it, and uses a variety of strategies to try to infer its meaning from the

context. This type of vocabulary learning is also called *intentional vocabulary learning*; these terms are interchangeable in this study.

*Implicit vocabulary learning or instruction* refers to vocabulary learning activity where the new vocabulary is acquired without the learners being aware of it, especially when reading or during spoken interaction. This is an unconscious process, the main feature of which is a lack of intentionality.

*Incidental vocabulary learning* is another term for implicit vocabulary learning; these terms are interchangeable in this study. In *incidental vocabulary learning*, learners acquire new words from context without having the intention of doing so, such as when picking up new words during free reading or watching a movie.

## 2. Subtitle

Online Oxford Dictionary defines subtitles as captions displayed at the bottom of a cinema or television screen, and translate or transcribe the dialogue or narrative. Richards & Schmidt (2002) stated that subtitle, also known as captioning, is the practice of superimposing written text on film or video. From the perspective of a language learner, subtitled film or video may have the audio portion in the target language and the text in the native language (**standard subtitles**), the audio portion in the native language and the text in the foreign language (**reversed subtitles**), or both the audio and the video in the target language (**closed-captions**) or commonly called captions. Some previous research used the term subtitle when the text is in a different language than the soundtrack; when the text is in the same language with the soundtrack, they

called it a caption. However, in this research, to avoid confusion of these two terms, **L1 subtitle** and **L2 subtitle** are used instead of simply subtitles or captions. L1 subtitle is when the text is in Indonesian, L2 subtitle is when the text is in English.

## **II. FRAME OF THEORIES**

This chapter discusses the concept of vocabulary, vocabulary learning, explicit and implicit vocabulary learning, vocabulary mastery, vocabulary retention, theoretical assumption, and hypotheses.

### **2.1 Concept of Vocabulary**

This sub-chapter discusses the definition of vocabulary and concept of vocabulary knowledge.

#### **2.1.1 Definition of Vocabulary**

Richards and Schmidt (2002) stated that vocabulary is a set of lexemes, including single words, compound words, and idioms. Additionally, according to Richard and Renandya (2002), vocabulary is the core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write. Linse & Nunan (2005) stated that language consists of words; while vocabulary is the collection of words that an individual knows. Furthermore, Brown (2001) stated that words are basic building blocks of language. By those definitions, we can conclude that vocabulary is the basic component of language that every language learner should know first as it will give them a basis to improve their language skills; speaking, listening, reading and writing.

### 2.1.2 Concept of Vocabulary Knowledge

At the most basic level, Thornburry (2002) states that knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning. Nation, as cited in Laufer & Goldstein (2004), distinguishes vocabulary knowledge as *receptive* and *productive*. Receptive knowledge means that the user can identify a word when he or she hears it and also sees it in its written form. Productive knowledge, on the other hand, means that beyond the points mentioned above the user can also write the word with the correct spelling and pronounce it correctly in its spoken form. A final point is that learner can produce synonyms and opposites. Milton (2009) states that receptive knowledge deals with the words that are recognized when heard or read, while productive knowledge deals with the words that can be called to mind and used in speech or writing.

Moreover, Schmitt (2000) has simplified the conditions for these two types of knowledge. He states that receptive knowledge is when you understand a word in both listening and reading. Productive knowledge is when you can produce and use the word when speaking and/or writing.

However, the knowledge of word is really vast and complex. The simplified divisions like receptive and productive, or breadth and depth do not really do justice to the complexity of word knowledge. In Table 2.1, Nation as cited in Milton (2009) attempts a more complete and systematic summary of what various types of word knowledge are.

**Table 2.1** What is involved in Knowing a Word?

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express meaning?
Meaning	Form and Meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and References	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this word make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R	What words or types of word occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use	R	Where, when and how often would we meet this word?
		P	Where, when and how often can we use this word?

*Note.* R = receptive, P = productive

From the table above Nation offers more comprehensive and systematic summary of what various types of word knowledge are. However, because of some limitations, this research dealt only with the partial word knowledge on written form and meaning.

The knowledge of word is so vast and complex that the teaching of word knowledge cannot be done in a short time. Students would need more repetition and recycling of the target words and much longer time to be able to understand a word thoroughly like in the table above 2.1 above.

Even when this research only covered partial knowledge of word form and meaning, this is still important to do because no matter what, every student has to

go through that very basic step of knowing a word (form and meaning) before they can proceed to the next level of knowing a word. It is impossible for language learners to understand the grammatical function or the collocation or the constraints on using a particular word if they don't, firstly, understand its form and meaning. This research was expected to give students a foundation to their vocabulary development in the future.

## **2.2 Concept of Vocabulary Learning**

Schmitt (2008) stated that, in terms of learning vocabulary, students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers can all agree that it is an essential part of mastering a second language. The popular proposition in language teaching and learning nowadays is that reading is the best way to learn new vocabulary. Grabe & Stoller, (2011) claimed that students can learn a large amount of new vocabulary from extensive reading practice. Nation and Nation & Webb, as cited in Webb & Chang (2014), stated that extensive reading also provides learners with opportunities to consolidate knowledge of partially known words each time they are encountered in different contexts. In first language (L1) learning, it is generally agreed that vocabulary knowledge can be acquired incidentally through reading abundantly. The more texts that are read, the more opportunities there are to repeatedly encounter the same patterns of letters, words, and collocations (Webb & Chang, 2014). However, traditional reading is only one of several ways of teaching and learning vocabulary. There are several other ways to teach vocabulary items such as through audio assisted reading (Webb & Chang, 2014; Webb & Chang, 2012; Brown et. al., 2008), through video exposure

(Bal-Gezegin, 2014), and through subtitled video (Danan, 2004). There is also another aspect of vocabulary learning that does not address in previous research using subtitled video; that is explicit-implicit vocabulary teaching and learning approach. Present research is trying to fulfill this gap in the theoretical realm by conducting research on explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled video.

Learning vocabulary is a gradual process that moves the knowledge of words from one point to another point in a word knowledge continuum; moving from not knowing the word at all, and then knowing what does the word sounds like, to finally be able to know where, when, and how often can he/she use this particular word. The use of explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video is expected to able to move students' knowledge of the target words from not knowing the words at all to some point further.

In sum, I would like to quote Schmitt (2008) statement about vocabulary learning. He said that it is important to acknowledge the incremental nature of vocabulary learning and to understand that an effective vocabulary learning program needs to be principled, long-term, and one which recognizes the richness and scope of lexical knowledge.

### **2.2.1 Vocabulary Learning through Audio-Assisted Reading**

The practice of assisted reading using oral rendition of the texts (simultaneous listening and reading) has had a long history in the development of first language literacy, and also as a remedial approach for children who have reading difficulties (Carbo, 1978). Brown et al., (2008) looked at three modes of input:

reading only, reading while listening, and listening only, on vocabulary learning with 35 Japanese learners studying three graded readers. The results showed that the participants learned the most words in the reading while listening mode, followed by reading only and then listening only.

Webb and Chang (2012a) also found evidence supporting the value of audio-assisted reading with 82 Taiwanese students. Similar to the results of Brown et al., the participants who received audio-assisted repeated reading gained greater vocabulary knowledge than those who were involved in unassisted repeated reading.

Webb & Chang (2014) broaden their investigation on the application of extensive reading with audio support by considering the frequency and distribution of occurrence of the target words. This study investigated (1) the extent of vocabulary learning through reading and listening to 10 graded readers, and (2) the relationship between vocabulary gain and the frequency and distribution of occurrence of 100 target words in the graded readers. The experimental design expanded on earlier studies that have typically examined incidental vocabulary learning from individual texts. Sixty-one Taiwanese participants studied English as a foreign language (EFL) in an extensive reading program or in a more traditional approach structured around a global English course book. A pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were administered to all participants. The results indicated that vocabulary gains through reading and listening to multiple texts were high. Relative gains were 44.06% after reading the 10 graded readers and 36.66% three months later. They also come to the conclusion that the relationships

between vocabulary learning and frequency and distribution of occurrence were found to be non-significant, indicating that frequency was perhaps one of many factors that affected learning.

In sum, the process of learning vocabulary through audio assisted reading is done by giving the students bi-modal input in the form of audio and text which in the same mode. The audio and text will support each other to promote better vocabulary learning.

### **2.2.2 Vocabulary Learning through Video**

Another way of facilitating meaning acquisition of new foreign language words is to expose learners to foreign language input in combination with pictorial information. One advantage of using pictorial information is that even complete beginners can access word meaning, as they can derive the meaning of foreign language words from the pictorial information. Furthermore, in the field of memory research, Paivio & Csapo (1973) have demonstrated a *picture superiority effect* where information learned through pictures results in better recall or recognition than learning without pictures. Paivio and Csapo (1973) believed that superiority of pictures in free recall is best explained by dual encoding, or a combination of image superiority and dual coding, both of which are ordinarily favored when items are presented as pictures.

This section reviews studies of foreign language acquisition through exposure to both verbal (written and/or spoken modality), and pictorial information; or popularly called video.

Definition of video may vary from context to context; however, a basic feature which can help to describe video can be its conveying messages in an audio-visual environment (Bal-Gezegin, 2014). Like its definition, the way how it is applied in classrooms are also varied. While it can be used as an aid for teaching a particular linguistic structure such as presenting a conversation from a movie scene in order to practice particular vocabulary items, it can also be the sole material on which the whole course is maintained as in the case of asking the students to do recordings of themselves, to prepare further activities on the videos and to provide feedback for these videos etc. Of course not limited with these samples mentioned, how video can be used as a tool depends on the creativity of the teacher who is expected to integrate it properly with the right objectives and goals at the right time.

The significance of video particularly in language teaching has been underscored with the increase in communicative language teaching theories around the world. The use of video as a source representing the target language and its culture has been found an effective teaching tool. Geddes and White, as cited in Coniam (2001), stated that videos represent context and discourse. Besides that, a recent study by Canning-Wilson, as cited in Bal-Gezegin (2014), concludes that language students like learning language through the use of video, which makes language teachers see them as a tool that can motivate learners. Another advantage of videos in classrooms is related with its authenticity. For the past two decades, language teachers are trying to find new ways to make language learning real-like. Video has been seen as a remedy especially in EFL environments where

students have limited access to authentic materials and use of the target language. Videos are considered as a shelter, and are believed to provide the learners with appropriate visual and audio input which help them acquire new knowledge. Katchen, as cited in Bal-Gezegin (2014), expresses similar ideas by saying that video provides authentic language input in language classrooms.

### **2.2.3 Vocabulary Learning through Subtitled-Video**

Before we go any further discussing vocabulary learning through subtitled video, we need to know the concept of subtitle first. Richards & Schmidt (2002) stated that subtitle, also known as captioning, is the practice of superimposing written text on film or video. From the perspective of a language learner, subtitled film or video may have the audio portion in the target language and the text in the native language (**standard subtitles**), the audio portion in the native language and the text in the foreign language (**reversed subtitles**), or both the audio and the video in the target language (**closed-captions**). Closed-captioning, also known as **bimodal input**, was originally developed for the hearing impaired and required special equipment but is now a standard function on most televisions and video cassette recorders (VCRs). Digital video disks often provide all three options. There is some research evidence that all three types of captioning can be useful aids to language learning.

The standard subtitle is also known as Interlingual subtitles or L1 subtitles; the audio track is in the target language, or the original language of the film or video, and the accompanying textual display is a translation into the viewer's native

language. Closed-caption subtitled is also known as Intralingual subtitles or bimodal subtitles or L2 subtitles; the audio is in the target language, and the accompanying textual display is also in the target language.

Subtitling is most known for its purpose of translating the oral dialogue from films or television programs into text. This often involves viewers who have an L1 that is not the same as the language in the spoken dialogue and are given subtitles so that they can understand the action on the screen. This type of L1 subtitling is what we normally find in English speaking movies in Indonesian television or cinemas, where Indonesian subtitles are provided for the viewer.

Initially, L2 subtitles or closed-captioning technology was devised for hearing impaired persons to aid their understanding when listening was not an option (Chiquito, 1995). Today, it is also used by people who prefer English subtitles in addition to spoken English dialogue, instead of subtitles in their non-English mother tongue. In an instructional context, it is used by teachers who want to take a step away from native language subtitles to challenge students as they become more proficient. It can also be the topic of research, as in this study, where people want to learn more about language learning and methods. Danan (2004) implies that subtitles can be a tool for teachers and an aid for students to visualize what they hear, especially if the input is not too far beyond their linguistic ability. Subtitling can also increase language comprehension and leads to additional cognitive benefits, such as greater depth of processing.

Bird and Williams (2002) study consisted of two experiments that examined the effect of single modality (sound or text) and bimodal (sound and text) presentation on word learning. Their study found that simultaneous text presentation can aid novel word learning under a certain condition, both as assessed by explicit and implicit memory tests. The tests in this study do not only look at novel words, but we can be quite certain that not all of the target words or phrases were in the participants' vocabulary already. According to Bird and Williams (2002), other research has suggested that students who have seen the written version of a spoken word will be able to hear it better when presented with this word. The results from their study said that bimodal presentation was beneficial for implicit memory when new phonological forms needed to be encoded; Bird and Williams (2002) write that this suggested that the effect of text is limited to cases where the phonological form of the input cannot be reliably established on the basis of sound alone. They also stated that in dealing with familiar words, textual support was not needed as the low error rates showed that sound input alone was sufficient. The study does not make it clear if there were any interaction and influence between the two modalities in the processing of the words, but Bird and Williams (2002) expected that the modalities would compensate for any deficiencies in the other modality. In the case of explicit memory Bird and Williams (2002) found that bimodal input aided the performance of explicit memory in a recognition task.

In recent years, foreign language films with subtitles have become increasingly popular and are easily accessible on the Internet. Language researchers quickly

became interested in this multi-modal situation as a potential source of incidental vocabulary acquisition, since a combination of foreign language and native language can be used in conjunction with pictorial information thereby providing an information-rich situation. Depending on the type of subtitles, it is possible to have the foreign language in the soundtrack and native language in the subtitles (standard subtitling), foreign language in the subtitles and native language in the soundtrack (reversed subtitles, though we do not do this reverse subtitle in this research) or foreign language in both (intralingual subtitles).

Research also indicates that viewers can incidentally learn L1 and L2 vocabulary through watching television and short movies. Rice and Woodsmall (1988) compared scores for children who watched a 12-minute cartoon with a narration which included 20 unknown L1 target words and for children who watched the cartoon with a narration which did not include the target words. All of the target items were encountered at least five times in the video. The results showed that the children who encountered the target words while watching the cartoon had higher scores on a picture recognition task and that five-year olds learned more words than three-year olds. The findings indicated that children do incidentally learn L1 vocabulary through watching television and that accumulated linguistic knowledge and experience watching television and videos may improve the potential for vocabulary learning.

Oetting et al. (1995) in their study examined Quick Incidental Learning (QUIL) of novel vocabulary by two groups of school-age children; normally developed and specific language impaired 6–8-year olds. For the normally developed children,

the results documented a robust ability to learn words in the early school years. Comprehension gains were observed for all four word types, with the greatest gain made on the object labels. The children with SLI also demonstrated some word-learning ability, but their gain was significantly less than that of their normally developing peers. Although the general pattern of word effects was similar across the two groups, the children with SLI demonstrated a particularly low gain on words from the action class

Early work on the effectiveness of using films with subtitles to promote incidental foreign language vocabulary acquisition was conducted by d'Ydewalle and Pavakanun (1995). In two experiments, participants (adults in experiment 1 and children in experiment 2) watched a 12 minutes cartoon following which they completed a 5 AFC meaning recognition vocabulary test. Both experiments used a between-subject design and included all possible combinations of foreign language and/or native language soundtrack and subtitles (9 groups of participants in each study). The authors concluded that the adult data showed evidence of vocabulary acquisition, with the groups of participants with standard and reversed subtitles performing best. Finally, in their second experiment with children in Test 1, they found no significant differences between the groups on the vocabulary test scores.

In a similar further study, d'Ydewalle and Pavakanun (1997) concluded once more that considerable vocabulary acquisition occurred from watching a short subtitled video, and that reversed subtitles enhanced vocabulary acquisition more

than standard subtitles. Unfortunately, no statistical analyses were provided to support their conclusions.

In another study, d'Ydewalle and Van de Poel (1999) focused on standard and reversed subtitles only. They used a 10-minute still motion movie with Danish or French as a foreign language, following which participants completed a 10-item auditory and a 10-item 3 AFC meaning recognition test. They conclude that when there is a significant difference between the experimental conditions, it is always to the advantage of the condition with the foreign language in the sound track (i. e., the normal subtitling mode). In the auditory Danish vocabulary test, children perform better with Danish on the sound track; at grade 6 in the auditory French vocabulary test, again a better performance is obtained when French is on the sound track; and finally, the auditory morphology test shows superior performance for children hearing French in the sound track. In general, younger children perform better in the auditory presentation mode, whereas adults seem to perform better with the visual presentation of the foreign language.

Neuman and Koskinen (1992) analyzed whether comprehensible input via captioned television influenced acquisition of science and vocabulary concept. The 129 bilingual seventh and eighth graders were assigned to four groups: (a) captioned TV, (b) TV, (c) reading along and listening to text, or (d) textbook only (control). Treatment group either viewed or read three units of science segments from the 3-2-1 Contact science series twice a week for 12 weeks. Pretests evaluated vocabulary and prior knowledge; posttests analyzed knowledge of 90 target words and a written retelling. Subjects in the closed-captioning group

outscored others in word knowledge and recall of information. An analysis of factors suggested that context providing explicit information yielded higher vocabulary gains. Subjects more proficient in English learned more words from context than others. These results suggest that comprehensible input may be the key ingredient in language and reading development.

Koolstra and Beentjes (1999) investigated whether children in Grades 4 and 6 (N=246) learn English words through watching a television program with an English soundtrack and Dutch subtitles. Children were randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions: (a) watching an English television program with Dutch subtitles, (b) watching the same English program without subtitles, and (c) watching a Dutch television program (control). The study was carried out using a 15 minutes documentary about grizzly bears. Vocabulary acquisition and recognition of English words were highest in the subtitled condition, indicating that Dutch elementary school children can incidentally acquire vocabulary in a foreign language through watching subtitled television programs.

Taken together, the research indicates that materials which provide visual and aural input such as movies may be conducive to incidental vocabulary learning. The research also indicated that watching movies may be as effective in contributing to incidental vocabulary learning as reading. This suggests that movies may be a very useful resource for language learning (Webb & Rodgers, 2009). However, it is important to note that in most of the research, the viewed content was designed for children and represented conditions which were highly conducive to incidental vocabulary learning. Contexts were clear and rich with

multiple encounters with target words. Research, such as Jenkins et al. (1984); Rott (1999); Waring and Takaki (2003); Webb (2007), has shown that the more words are encountered in context, the more likely they will be learned. The research also showed that older children learned more words than younger children (Rice and Woodsmall 1988). This could be because older children may have a larger vocabulary and therefore higher coverage of the viewed programs.

Nation and Webb (2011) list five conditions for vocabulary learning. The first is motivation, which is considered an essential component for all types of learning. In relation to learning vocabulary using video, watching a film or video can be a motivational activity for students because it will act as a variation to their ordinary school days of reading and listening to the teacher. Some students may feel discouraged when they hear there is learning involved in such a setting because they think that means more work, but a combination of learning and pleasure can be a motivation for some.

Repetition is the second condition, and this implies several meetings with new words, perhaps also in different circumstances. If a film clip is on a specific topic, then some words can be mentioned several times and help learning because of this frequency. Although Webb & Chang (2014) found no significant relationships between vocabulary learning and frequency and distribution of occurrence, it seems that watching video is a rather different process than audio assisted reading; therefore, the effect of repetition in watching video might also differ.

Nation and Webb's third condition is what they call the four strands; four important concepts of acquisition. Here input and output, and learning and development are central in interaction with each other. Schmitt (2008) stated that the four learning strands (meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language focused learning, and fluency development) suggested by Nation provide a structure by which to integrate intentional and incidental vocabulary learning.

Thoughtful processing is the fourth condition and reminds us that the learner should be aware of the learning process and consciously use strategies to pick up, learn and use new vocabulary. In learning vocabulary using subtitled video, especially in the explicit learning group, the students' awareness of learning is triggered by informing them that they are going to learn some words from the video, and then there will be a test after that. The students are also informed about the target words and even discussed the target words with the teacher. This makes explicit vocabulary learning using subtitled video fulfill the fourth condition.

The fifth and last condition is called meaningful relationship, indicating the importance of creating relationships between words. To relate words to each other could facilitate the process of using them and understanding their meaning in different contexts. Authentic video such as movie provides an example of the usage of the words in a meaningful relationship and natural context; this rich information may help learner grasp the idea of how particular words used on a daily basis.

To sum up this section, I want to cite Bird and Williams (2002) who found in their study that bimodal input (of sound and text) can be attended to and used to bolster both the implicit and explicit aspects of vocabulary learning.

### **2.3 Explicit-Implicit Vocabulary Learning**

The basic assumption about Explicit-Implicit in this study is that Explicit learning is the same with intentional learning, and Implicit learning is the same as incidental learning. In *incidental vocabulary learning*, learners acquire new words from context without having the intention of doing so, such as when picking up new words with no intention of doing so during free reading. *Intentional vocabulary learning* refers to learning new words while intending to do so, such as when a learner studies a list of target words or completes activities in a workbook while working to learn a set of new target words.

Ellis, N., in 1994 with his incidental vocabulary learning hypothesis, as stated in Ender (2014), essentially stated that learners can and do acquire new lexical items without intending to do so. That is, the learner focuses on understanding the passage as a whole, and memory for the new word comes as a natural result of this process, a conscious effort to learn become unnecessary. Based on this theory, in this study, the application of implicit vocabulary learning involves the students to comprehend the video as a whole; students in implicit vocabulary learning do not being asked to pay attention to particular language feature or lexical item in the video. Their main focus is to comprehend the video as a whole.

A great deal of vocabulary learning may be neither purely incidental nor purely intentional, however. Coady in 1997, as cited in Barcroft (2009), stated that different types of vocabulary learning can be viewed as points on a continuum between incidental and intentional because attention is not a dichotomous entity (Gass, 1999).

Vocabulary instruction methods also range from being highly indirect to highly direct (Haynes in 1998 as cited in Wesche & Paribakht, 1999). Reading for meaning while paying some attention to new words in the text can be viewed as neither completely indirect (incidental learning) nor completely direct (intentional learning). Reading a list of new words within a communicative context also may fall somewhere between the two end of the continuum (Barcroft, 2009). Learning new words in a more intentional manner can give rise to a series of immediate consequences that do not arise when learning new words in a more incidental manner. During intentional vocabulary learning, the learner may invoke different types of learning techniques as compared with incidental vocabulary learning. As Hulstijn (1992) noted, when individuals know in advance that they will be tested on words, they may invoke all kinds of rehearsal and memorization techniques. These techniques may help improve vocabulary learning performance relative to more incidentally oriented learning conditions.

Studies on incidental and intentional vocabulary learning have demonstrated benefits for intentional orientation and direct vocabulary learning activities. Hulstijn (1992), in his Experiment V, compared incidental and intentional orientations. Nonnative learners of Dutch took two tests on how well they learned

word meanings during reading. The first test was administered after the participants read a text but had not been told that they would be tested on target word meanings. The second test was administered after the participants had been informed that they would be tested on target word meanings after reading and were allowed to read the text again. Retention scores on word meanings were much higher on the second test associated with the intentional-learning orientation.

Paribakht & Wesche in 1997, as cited in Barcroft (2009), compared the effects on L2 vocabulary learning of reading for meaning only versus reading for meaning plus the use of direct vocabulary learning activities. Although both conditions led to new L2 vocabulary learning, the reading plus direct vocabulary learning condition resulted in greater vocabulary-learning performance. The findings of these studies demonstrate that vocabulary learning is typically greater in more intentionally oriented vocabulary-learning contexts. This principle is also implemented in this research in explicit vocabulary learning by applying direct vocabulary learning activities in its process.

As a methodological distinction, incidental and intentional learning are still considered research tools (Peters, as cited in Perez, 2015). Hulstijn (2001) also stated that, methodologically, the distinction (between incidental and intentional) is essential for any researcher intending to design a vocabulary learning experiment.

#### **2.4 Explicit Vocabulary learning through Subtitled-Video for Junior High School Students**

Based on previous researches findings, we can conclude that most of those researches are done under the roof of incidental vocabulary learning; only few research concerns with the explicit vocabulary learning using subtitled video; and even fewer which concerns with implementing direct vocabulary teaching.

Perez et al. (2015) researched the effect of type of captioning (full or keyword captioning) and test announcement (as a parameter to distinguish between intentional and incidental learning) on students' vocabulary mastery of the target words. This study adopted a between subjects design with two independent variables (Type of Captioning and Test Announcement) resulting in four experimental groups: full captioning, incidental; full captioning, intentional; keyword captioning, incidental; keyword captioning, intentional. Results indicated that learners in the keyword groups outperformed the other groups on the form recognition test. However, in this research, there was no direct vocabulary teaching and learning beforehand or afterward; and also, the type of subtitle used in this research only L2 subtitle (English subtitle, closed-captions). The only variable to distinguish incidental and intentional learning is the test announcement.

Peters et al. (2016) investigated the differential effect of L1 subtitles and captions (L2 subtitle). They report on two exploratory studies investigating the effect of L1 subtitles and captions on different aspects of word knowledge among English-as-a-foreign language (EFL) learners in Flanders (Belgium). Data were collected in

two different educational settings: intermediate EFL learners from a general school and low-proficiency EFL learners from a vocational school. Although learning gains were generally low, results indicated that captions (L2 subtitle) have the potential to increase form learning. However, learners who were exposed to the audiovisual input with L1 subtitles did not perform better than the captions (L2 subtitle) group in the tests focusing on the meaning of the target items. However, again, this research did not implement direct vocabulary teaching activities before or after the video treatment. In fact, their main focus on this research was to find out the differential of L1 subtitle and captions (L2 subtitle) without any intervening additional treatment; such as direct vocabulary teaching. The test on Peters et al. (2016) was in aural form, and there was no delayed posttest to measure students' vocabulary retention of the target words. The type of video used in Peters et al. (2016) was animated video and documentary video, which is not the case in our current research.

On the other hand, this current study is trying to implement L1 and L2 video-subtitling both in incidental (implicit) and intentional (explicit) vocabulary learning at the same time; and also adds direct vocabulary teaching to strengthen the effect of explicit learning. In that sense, this current study is different from those previous studies.

The steps of teaching in incidental vocabulary learning in this research are, more or less, similar to those previous researches. Ellis, as cited in Ender (2014), stated that (on implicit learning) the learner focuses is on understanding the passage as a

whole, and memory for the new word comes as a natural result of this process, a conscious effort to learn become unnecessary.

Following Ellis's statement above, the students in the implicit group were simply asked to watch the videos without any direct vocabulary teaching before and afterward. They also did not being directed to pay attention to a particular target word since they did not know there were any target words to learn from the video. Their only job in this treatment was to comprehend the general storyline or message of the video. The teacher helped the students to comprehend the content and context of the videos by giving contextual clues of the situation but only in a very general and limited manner; teacher did not specifically address a target word or the meaning of a particular target word. Then, the students were asked to write a summary of the video in Bahasa Indonesia and submit it to the teacher. The videos were played 5 times as well, with 5 minutes pause break in each turn (this was where the teacher helped the students to comprehend the content and context of the videos). Students in implicit vocabulary learning were not informed about the upcoming immediate and also delayed post-test. At the end of video-watching activity in each meeting, students in implicit learning also had an unannounced immediate-posttest to measure their vocabulary learning of those target words. This immediate post-test took about 20 minutes.

In explicit teaching, however, the teacher informed the students about the upcoming immediate posttest and explicitly taught the students the target words. Previous research that also implements direct vocabulary teaching is the one conducted by Washang (2014). She conducted a research on this topic to

university students in ESP management program; she compared the traditional vocabulary teaching method to traditional method plus video-captioned method. However, there are several drawbacks and limitation of this research. The steps of teaching using captioned video were not clearly described; how many times she played the videos, in which session would she play the captioned video, and time allocation for each session were not clearly described.

The steps of teaching using captioned video in Washang (2014) are designed for university students which are not suitable for students in junior high school with relatively low proficiency in general term. Students in junior high school with relatively low proficiency need more elaborate steps of teaching and more repetition that can help them understand the video and finally learn some words from it.

Additionally, it is difficult to fully appreciate her findings, as no descriptive statistics were provided and lacks crucial information that makes them unclear. This current research, however, provides more comprehensive statistical data and more elaborate steps of teaching to understand more profoundly the relationship between the type of subtitles (L1 and L2) and types of vocabulary teaching (explicit-implicit) to students' vocabulary mastery; and finally, make the findings can be interpreted more accurately.

The steps of teaching on explicit vocabulary learning through subtitled video with direct vocabulary teaching to junior high school students are specifically developed in this research. The steps are as follows:

1. The teacher informs the students that they are going to watch a movie and learn some vocabulary from the movie. The teacher explicitly asks the students to really pay attention and try to memorize the words that they are going to learn. Some researchers suggested that memorization technique is not entirely bad. Laufer (2010) stated that “when facing a memorization task for an upcoming test, learners may try their best and employ a variety of mnemonic techniques to reinforce word in memory”. To strengthen the effect of intentional learning, the teacher also informs the students that they are going to be tested at the end of this treatment; but the teacher does not inform about the upcoming delayed post-test in the next 2 weeks. By announcing the upcoming immediate posttest, it might lead learners to allocate intentional resources to unknown words in the subtitle line, which, in turn, could enhance their processing and noticing of those words, thus promoting vocabulary learning. Hulstijn (2001) argued that pre-learning instructions, that is, the presence or absence of a vocabulary test announcement, can induce conditions for incidental or intentional vocabulary learning.
2. Before watching the video, the teacher teaches the students the orthographical form and the proper pronunciation of the target words; then the teacher asks the students to repeat the pronunciation several times. This process is important to help students identify the target words in the spoken and written form in the video. Form of the words is difficult to notice when a word is encountered in a sentence. Students need to hear a new word in isolation as well as in a discourse context so that they can notice the sound at the

beginning and end, the stress pattern of the word, the syllables that make up the word. They need to hear the word spoken in isolation several times to catch all this information (Cameron, 2005). If, for example, the teacher is going to teach the word *ambulance*, the talks will be more or less like this:

*An ambulance takes sick people to hospital*

*Ambulance*

*Am-bu-lance*

*Ambulance* (Cameron, 2005)

3. Teacher, then, plays the video with subtitle (L1 or L2, depends on which class is the teacher dealing with) and then explicitly asks the students to try to recognize the target words in the video. The teacher also suggests the students take notes if they are willing to do so, as they watch the video.
4. After 5 minutes watching the video, the teacher and the students discuss the target words in terms of the context of appearance in the videos (sentences on the video), the written form, the meaning, and the pronunciation; this discussion takes about 5 minutes. After that, the students watch the video again for the second time and repeat these processes up to the fifth time of watching the video. More repetition guarantees multiple encounters of target words. Research, such as Jenkins et al. (1984); Rott (1999); Waring and Takaki (2003); Webb (2007), has shown that the more words are encountered in context, the more likely they will be learned.
5. After that, students undertake an immediate-posttest to measure their vocabulary mastery of those target words; as they have been informed beforehand. The test took about 20 minutes.

## **2.5 Vocabulary Mastery**

Mastering a word means mastering the aspects of word knowledge. Thornbury (2002) stated that, at the most basic level, knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning. In Table 2.1, Nation as cited in Milton (2009) attempts a more complete and systematic summary of what various types of word knowledge are. In short, it can be concluded that vocabulary mastery is students' ability to master new vocabulary at a particular level of word knowledge. In the case of this research, because of some limitation that is explained later in chapter IV, the term vocabulary mastery is used to represent only for the knowledge of words on the level of meaning recall in translation test.

## **2.6 Vocabulary Retention**

Richards & Schmidt (2002) state that retention is the ability to recall or remember things after an interval of time. In language teaching, retention of what has been taught (e.g. grammar rules, vocabulary) may depend on the quality of teaching, the interest of the learners, or the meaningfulness of the materials. From the statement above, it can be concluded that vocabulary retention is students' ability to recall or remember new recently learned vocabulary after an interval of time.

## **2.7 Theoretical Assumptions**

The success of learning new vocabularies depends on various vocabulary teaching and learning techniques. Referring to the body of theories above, it is assumed that learners' vocabulary can be improved by watching videos with subtitle both with explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction. The direct teaching of target

words in explicit learning will make the students learn and retain the target words better than those in implicit learning. The type of subtitle (L1 or L2) used in the video will also affect students' performance in learning the target words. L2 Subtitle will help students to decipher the soundtrack of the video, while L1 subtitle will help students to match what is being spoken in the video to its related meaning or L1 equivalent. In case of this research, as the participants of this research are low-level learner, L1 subtitle (Indonesian) is assumed to be better in promoting the learning and the retention of the target words, as it helps the learner to associate the meaning of the spoken words in the video more easily, than L2 subtitle (English) both in immediate and delayed post-test.

## **2.8 Hypotheses**

There are only three out of four research questions that are answered using statistical analysis; they are research questions number 2, 3 and 4. Research questions number 1 will be answered using descriptive qualitative analysis. In this manner, there are only 3 alternative hypotheses that can be proposed in this research; they are:

1. There is an interaction between explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video and types of subtitle (L1 and L2) to students' vocabulary learning.
2. There is a difference in vocabulary learning of students in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning using L1 and L2 subtitled-video.
3. There is a difference in vocabulary mastery of students with L1 (Indonesian) and L2 (English) subtitled-video in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning.

### III. RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter discusses research design, population and sample, research variables, data collecting technique, target words, research instrument, scoring scheme, validity and reliability, research procedures, data analysis, and hypotheses testing.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The design of this research is quasi-experimental with 2x2 factorial design. The overall design can be seen as follows:

**Table 3.1** 2x2 Factorial Design

Type of Subtitle	Type of Vocabulary Learning	
	Explicit (A1)	Implicit (A2)
L1 Subtitle (B1)	A1.B1	A2.B1
L2 Subtitle (B2)	A1.B2	A2.B2

From the table above, we can see that there are four groups of students in this research, they are:

A1.B1 This group was treated with explicit vocabulary learning and watched the video with L1 (Indonesian) subtitle.

A1.B2 This group was treated with explicit vocabulary learning and watched the video with L2 (English) subtitle.

A2.B1 This group was treated with implicit vocabulary learning and watched the video with L1 (Indonesian) subtitle.

A2.B2 This group was treated with implicit vocabulary learning and watched the video with L2 (English) subtitle.

This research was conducted within six weeks meetings with the detailed activities for each meeting can be seen in the table below:

**Table 3.2** Research Timeline

Week	Description
1 <sup>st</sup>	Performed a pre-test on the words picked up from the video; analyzing the result and chose 30 target words for 3 meeting; 10 words for each meeting.
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Performed the first treatment in all four groups; followed by first immediate post-test
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Performed the second treatment in all four groups; followed by second immediate post-test
4 <sup>th</sup>	Performed the third treatment in all four groups; followed by third Immediate Post-Test; and also Performed the first delayed post-test to all four groups. The delayed post-test was done first before the treatment in this particular week; the delayed post-test took about 15 minutes.
5 <sup>th</sup>	Performed the second delayed post-test to all four groups.
6 <sup>th</sup>	Performed the third delayed post-test to all four groups.

### 3.2 Population and Sample

The population of this study is students in Grade Nine of MTs Darul A'mal Kota Metro. There are 8 classes of students in Grade Nine, in this study, the researcher purposively selected 4 class as samples in this study; class 9a, 9b, 9c, and 9d. The number of students in each classroom was varied, ranging from 30 to 38. But because of some attendance problems, the researcher decided to only take the data from those who were completed the treatment to the last one; which concludes the number of students in each class is 30. With 4 classes planned, the total numbers of participants of this research are 120 students.

**Table 3.3** Number of Students in Each Classroom

No	Classroom	Number of Students
1	9a	30
2	9b	30
3	9c	30
4	9d	30
Total		120

The students of class 9a to 9d were all female; this was actually good to avoid bias caused by gender differences. Each class got different treatment; class 9a got treatment A1.B1, class 9b got treatment A1.B2, class 9c got treatment A2.B1, and class 9d got treatment A2.B2.

### 3.3 Research Variables

There were several variables in this research that researcher could identify:

#### 1. Dependent Variables

The dependent variable is the major variable that will be measured in the research (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). Referring to that theory, the dependent variables of this research was students' vocabulary mastery of 30 target words both in immediate post-test and delayed post-test measured by translation test. Immediate and delayed post-test score were analyzed separately.

#### 2. Independent Variables

An independent variable is a variable that the researcher suspects may relate to or influence the dependent variable (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). If we refer to that statement, then there were two variables that the researcher believes may influence the dependent variable, they were:

- a. Types of Vocabulary learning (explicit and implicit vocabulary learning)
- b. Types of subtitled video (L1 (Indonesian) and L2 (English) subtitle).

### 3.4 Data Collecting Technique

The data collecting technique in this research was done in several steps as follows:

1. A pretest to test 216 content words from the video extract was carried out to identify 30 target words used in treatments and tested in the post-test. This activity was done to make sure that the target words in this experiment were unknown for all students.
2. One week after the pretest, the researcher began the treatment. Each group had approximately 80 minutes treatment. The detailed steps of treatment in the explicit and implicit group were explained later within this chapter.
3. After that, immediate Post-Test on those 30 target words, 10 target words in each meeting, using translation test was conducted to measure students' immediate vocabulary mastery.
4. A delayed Post-Test using translation after 2 weeks from each respective treatment was carried out to measure students' vocabulary retention.
5. All collected data were then statistically analyzed using SPSS (Two-Way ANOVA and one-way ANOVA with follow-up contrast test).

### 3.5 Target Words

30 content words as target words had been picked-up out of 216 running words from approximately 9 minutes video extract that had been pre-tested before. These 30 words were unfamiliar to all the learners since no learner could supply the L1 meaning or the definition of these words in the pretest. Our choice was based on the criteria adapted from Laufer (2014) as follows:

1. The target words belonged to one of the major parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs.
2. They varied in terms of word length (1-5 syllables).

### **3.6 Video Material**

The video extract was taken from the movie *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* released in 2005. There were 3 videos extract in this research. The total length of the video in this research was approximately 9 minutes 14 seconds. The video was divided into 3 parts, with each part had approximately 3 minutes long. The target words for each meeting were 10; with 3 meetings had planned the total target words were 30. Each video extract contained vocabulary items with no less than 61 running words in 3 minutes with some words repeated more than once. To be precise, the first video extract contained 78 running words, the second video extract contained 61 running words, and the third video extract contained 77 running words. Therefore, 3 minutes duration for each meeting was seen as a sensible choice for the students in this research considering their proficiency level was low.

The researcher suspected that using authentic video in this research could increase learners' interest, motivation and therefore may allow greater engagement with the input because of its original purposes is to entertain. Schmitt (2008) claimed, in relation to vocabulary learning, "students' motivation and attitudes also matter, as even the best materials are little good if students do not engage with them".

### **3.7 Research Instrument**

There was only one instrument to get the data in this research; a Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) test. In measuring students' vocabulary mastery and retention of the target words, Paribakht and Wesche's (1993) original Vocabulary Knowledge Scale was modified for the sake of this research. This modified version of the VKS (see table 3.5 below) includes two levels of word knowledge that could detect gains in degrees of knowledge. This was the main instrument in this research which was expected to get the main data on students' vocabulary mastery and retention. The VKS, which combines self-report and performance items to elicit learners' self-perceived and demonstrated knowledge of a specific word, reflects changes in vocabulary knowledge during relatively limited instructional periods.

Initially, 2 level Modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) will be used in measuring students' progress in learning the target words; however, because most of the students in this research could not provide the answer to VKS level 2 (providing a good example sentence using target words) the researcher decided to only score the level 1 of VKS in this research, that is, providing an L1 translation or L1 definition of the target words both in Explicit and Implicit group and also in delayed posttest. Therefore, the VKS test will later be called Translation Test throughout this thesis.

**Table 3.4** Modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale

Level 1	This word means _____. (provide an English synonym or a translation in your native language)
Level 2	I can use this word in a good example sentence. Write your sentence here: _____ (If you do #3, you must do #2 also.)

The Indonesian-translated version of this VKS was the one that was used in the real test; which was looked like this:

**Table 3.5** Indonesian-Translated Modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale

*(One target word was written up here)*

1	Kata ini berarti _____. (tuliskan persamaan kata atau makna dari kata ini)
2	Saya dapat menggunakan kata ini di dalam sebuah contoh kalimat yang baik. Tuliskan kalimat anda dibawah ini: _____ (jika anda mengerjakan nomor 2, anda juga harus mengerjakan item nomor 1)

The modified vocabulary knowledge scale used in this research was adapted from Folse (2006). Similar type of VKS was also used in Paribakht & Wesche (1999), Rott et al. (2002), Vidal (2003), Hashemi & Gowdasiaei (2005), de la Fuente (2006), Min (2008), File & Adams (2010), Kim (2011), Vidal (2011), Webb (2012), Bao (2015), and Sun (2016).

### 3.8 Scoring Scheme

Scoring on this modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale, or later will simply be called a translation test, was awarded one (1) point if a correct meaning was demonstrated (as evidenced by an acceptable L1 translation or L1 definition) and one (1) additional point if a correct example sentence with the word was provided.

If there was any spelling or grammatical error in the sentences, half a mark (0.5) was awarded. Consequently, each word could receive a score of 0, 1, 1.5, or 2. However, because the level 2 of the VKS was not scored in this research, the scoring scheme only scored the level 1 of the VKS, that is, giving an L1 translation or L1 definition of the target words both in the Explicit and Implicit group.

In scoring students' translation test, only the specific meaning of a word as used in the video context was accepted as a correct answer; since the translation test in this research aimed to measure the effect of the video treatments on students' learning of these specific meanings, rather than their knowledge of other meanings of the words. The accepted translation equivalents for these words are shown in the table below:

**Table 3.6** Target Words and their Accepted Indonesian Meaning(s)

No	Target Words	Accepted Meaning(s)
1	absolutely	secara absolut, mutlak, sangat
2	button	tombol
3	delighted	gembira, senang
4	elevator	lift, elevator tangga berjalan
5	enormous	sangat besar
6	happen	terjadi
7	hold	memegang, pegangan,
8	piece	bagian, potongan, kepingan
9	speed	kecepatan, mempercepat
10	taste	terasa, berasa, rasa
11	beloved	yang tercinta, yang tersayang
12	factory	pabrik
13	find	menemukan
14	heir	pewaris, ahli waris
15	joking	bercanda, bergurau
16	realize	menyadari, sadar
17	reflect	mencerminkan,
18	revelation	wahyu, pencerahan, pemahaman
19	Semi-annual	setengah tahun, tengah-tahunan
20	Strange	aneh, ganjil
21	consider	menganggap, anggap, memikirkan
22	hole	lubang

23	mind	benak, pikiran
24	repair	memperbaiki, membetulkan
25	replace	menggantikan
26	roof	atap
27	same	sama
28	terrible	mengerikan, buruk sekali
29	unexpected	tidak terduga
30	weird	aneh

### 3.9 Validity and Reliability of the Vocabulary Test

This section discusses the validity and reliability of the instrument in this research.

#### 3.9.1 Validity

Hatch and Farhady (1982) explained that validity refers to the extent to which an instrument really measures the objective to be measured and suitable with the criteria. A test can be considered to be valid if it can precisely measure the quality of the test. There are four types of validity: (1) face validity, (2) content validity, (3) construct validity, and (4) criterion-related validity.

The validity of the instrument in this research was examined using content validity and construct validity. Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) stated that content validity has to do with how well a test or observation instrument tests what it purports to test. Milton (2009) states similar statement that content validity considers whether a test has the necessary and appropriate content to measure what it is supposed to. The tests in this research were designed to measure students' mastery of the target words being taught in the entire treatment. If we want to reassure test's content validity, then the test should cover the target words which were being taught in the treatment. In fact, the test actually consisted of

target words taken from the treatment itself; it can be assumed that this test is valid in terms of its content validity. The test tested students' mastery on target words specifically by providing an L1 translation of the target words.

Construct validity, which is often closely associated with content validity, considers whether the test measures the construct or skill it is supposed to (Milton, 2009). In the case of this research, the construct of knowing a word (word knowledge) will be used to assure the construct validity of the test.

Nation as cited in Milton (2009), as described in Table 2.1 in Chapter II of this present research, elaborated the different types of knowledge involved in knowing a word as well as the distinction between receptive and productive knowledge. For example, knowledge of the spoken and written form of a word involves knowing what the word sounds like and looks like at the receptive level, whilst it involves knowing how to pronounce and spell a word at the productive level. Understanding the meaning attached to a specific word form, and being able to select the appropriate word form to express a specific meaning represents the knowledge of form-meaning links at the receptive and productive level respectively. The last level of knowledge described by Nation is the knowledge of word usage, which includes the grammatical functions of a word, knowing which words it co-occurs with (collocations) and knowing where, when and how frequently to expect to come across and use a word.

This research dealt only with the partial word knowledge on written form and meaning, and also planned to deal with a little part of word use as in grammatical

function. However, after finished collecting data, the researcher realized that there were only a few students who were able to use the target words as in grammatical function (making a good example of sentence using target words); all of those students who were able to provide an example of a target word used in a grammatical function were coming from Explicit class, and most of the sentences they provided were coming from the dialogue in the video that had been discussed before. In this case, the researcher decided that students' vocabulary mastery test scored only in translation test.

The construct validity of an instrument can be established by proving that the instrument's measure or results agree with the predictions based on theory. In regards to the principles of knowing a word by Nation as shown in Table 2.1 in Chapter II, the instrument used for this research has met the construct of knowing a word as shown in the table below; and accordingly met the criteria of construct validity.

**Table 3.7** Table Specifications of Construct Validity

No	The Concept of Knowing a Word	The Component of Word Knowledge Assessed
1	Knowing the meaning of a word means knowing its equivalent in the students' language.	Providing the L1 equivalent or translation of the target words.

### 3.9.2 Reliability

Hatch and Farhady (1982) explained that reliability refers to the extent to which a test produces consistent result when administered under similar condition. In

addition, Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) also state that there are four methods of estimating reliability: (1) test-retest method, (2) parallel test method, (3) inter-rater reliability, and (4) internal consistency method. Inter-rater reliability was used in this study to estimate the reliability of the instrument. There were 2 raters, the first rater was the researcher himself and the other rater was a legitimate English teacher colleague from the same school where this research was conducted. The data from the raters was analyzed using Cohen's Kappa formula in SPSS 23. Cohen's kappa ( $\kappa$ ) can range from -1 to +1; the closer to +1, the strength of agreement will be higher; meaning that the reliability is also higher. Morgan et al. (2011) stated that to indicate good reliability, the kappa value should be high (usually  $> .70$ ) and positive. The output of Cohen's kappa analysis in SPSS 23 is as follows:

**Table 3.8** Cohen's kappa ( $\kappa$ ) output from SPSS 23

	Value	Asymptotic Standardized Error <sup>a</sup>	Approximate T <sup>b</sup>	Approximate Significance
Measure of Agreement Kappa	1.000	.000	36.344	.000
N of Valid Cases	120			

The value of Kappa for score from rater 1 and rater 2 is very high (kappa = 1.000); this indicates that there is very high reliability between rater 1 and rater 2 scores.

Assessing or scoring translation test is very straightforward. If the provided answer does not correspond to the correct meaning of that particular word, then the answer is incorrect. Perhaps this is the reason why the reliability value is very

high between rater 1 and rater 2 in scoring students vocabulary mastery of the target words.

### **3.10 Research Procedure**

The procedure of conducting this research was as follows:

1. In the first week, a pre-test was carried out to determine the target words for this research. This pre-test was important to make sure that every target words used in the treatment were all unknown by all the students. Two hundred and sixteen (216) content words taken from video extract were tested in a vocabulary knowledge test. All of the students were asked to provide L1 translation or definition of the target words. The result of this pre-test was analyzed and 30 target words were chosen out of 216 words in pretest.
2. On the second week, the students were given treatment using subtitled-video based on which group they belong to. The length of the video was around 3 minutes. The video was played 5 times in the entire treatment. The details were as follows;
3. In explicit learning group, the steps of teaching are explained below:
  - a. The teacher informed the students that they were going to watch a movie and learn some vocabulary from the movie. The teacher explicitly asked the students to really pay attention and try to memorize the words that they were going to learn on that day. To strengthen the effect of intentional learning, the teacher also informed that their knowledge of the target words was going to be tested at the end of the treatment; however, the

students were not informed about the upcoming delayed post-test in the next 2 weeks.

- b. Before watching the video, the teacher taught the students the orthographic form and the proper pronunciation of the target words; then the teacher asked the students to repeat the pronunciation several times. This process was important to help students to identify the target words in the spoken and written form in the video. Process “a” and “b” took about 10 minutes.
- c. Teacher, then, played the video with subtitle (L1 or L2, depended on which class was the teacher dealing with) and then explicitly asked the students to try to recognize the target words in the video. The teacher also suggested the students take notes if they wanted to do so, as they watched the video.
- d. After 5 minutes watching the video, the teacher and the students discussed the target words in terms of the context of appearance in the videos (sentences on the video), the written form, the meaning, and the pronunciation; this discussion took about 5 minutes. After that, the students watched the video again for the second time and repeat these processes up to the fifth time of watching the video. The total time for this activity was about 40 minutes.
- e. After that, students had an immediate-posttest to measure their vocabulary mastery of those target words; as they had been informed beforehand. The test took about 20 minutes.

4. In implicit group, the students were simply asked to watch the videos without any direct vocabulary teaching before and afterward. They also did not being directed to pay attention to particular target words, since they did not know there were any target words to learn from the video. Their only job in this treatment was to comprehend the general storyline or the message of the video. The teacher helped the students to comprehend the content and context of the videos by giving contextual clues of the situation, but only in a very general and limited manner; teacher did not specifically address target words or the meaning of a particular target word. Then, the students were asked to write a summary of the video in Bahasa Indonesia and submit it to the teacher. The videos were played 5 times as well, with 5 minutes pause break in each turn (this was where the teacher helped the students to comprehend the content and context of the videos). Students in implicit vocabulary learning were not informed about the upcoming immediate and delayed post-test. At the end of video-watching activity in each meeting, students in implicit learning also had an unannounced immediate-posttest to measure their vocabulary learning of those target words. This immediate post-test took about 20 minutes.
5. Unannounced delayed post-tests after 2 weeks from each respective meeting to measure students' vocabulary retention of target words were carried out to both explicit and implicit vocabulary learning group; took about 15 minutes.
6. The teacher, then, collected students' answer sheet and then made a copy of those answer sheet and gave it to the 2<sup>nd</sup> rater to rate the test results. The data obtained from this stage were, then, analyzed using inferential statistical

analysis or descriptive qualitative analysis; depended on what data being considered.

### **3.11 Data Analysis**

The data on this research were students' vocabulary mastery and retention. In the immediate and delayed post-test, students were required to work on the modified vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) with those 30 target words. The vocabulary retention test was similar to vocabulary mastery test; the only difference was at the time of performing this test. Vocabulary retention test was carried out 2 weeks after each respective meeting.

Research question number 1 dealt with the analysis of students' vocabulary retention after 2 weeks delay. Research question number 1 was answered by providing a descriptive qualitative analysis. To answer research question number 2, 3 and 4, the data were analyzed using two-way ANOVA and one-way ANOVA with follow-up contrast in SPSS 23 program. The detailed information about this is discussed in Chapter IV.

#### **3.11.1 Normality Testing**

The aim of normality testing is to know whether the data are normally distributed or not. In this research, the researcher used *Kolmogorov-Smirnov* test to test the normality of the data with the help of SPSS 23 program. This test was carried out to every data group on this research, which was:

1. Students' score in explicit vocabulary learning with L1 subtitled-video;
2. Students' score in explicit vocabulary learning with L2 subtitled-video;
3. Students' score in implicit vocabulary learning with L1 subtitled-video;
4. Students' score in implicit vocabulary learning with L2 subtitled-video.

To see the normality of the data, the criteria are as follows:

1. If the significant value exceeds the level of significance at 0.05, then the data are normally distributed.
2. If the significant value does not exceed the level of significance at 0.05, then the data are not normally distributed.

### **3.11.2 Homogeneity Testing**

Test of homogeneity of variance measured the homogeneity of the variance of this research in 4 classes using *Levene's test* with the help of SPSS 23 program. The results of homogeneity test are presented in Chapter 4 in each respective test result. The criteria to see the homogeneity are as follows:

1. If the significant value exceeds the level of significance at 0.05, then the variance in each class is homogeneous.
2. If the significant value does not exceed the level of significance at 0.05, then the variance in each class is not homogeneous.

### 3.12 Hypothesis Testing

There were only three out of four research questions that were answered using statistical analysis; they were research questions number 2, 3 and 4. The first research question was answered using descriptive qualitative analysis. In this manner, there were only 3 alternative hypotheses that could be proposed in this research; they are:

1. There is an interaction between explicit-implicit vocabulary learning using subtitled-video and types of subtitle (L1 and L2) to students' vocabulary learning.

To test this hypothesis, two-way ANOVA was carried out and the output was examined accordingly. The interaction value and the profile plots were examined to determine the degree of the interaction.

2. There is a difference in vocabulary mastery of students in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning using L1 and L2 subtitled-video.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher carried out one-way ANOVA and follow-up contrast that compare the means score of students in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning both in using L1 and L2 subtitle. The output of this procedure was interpreted and assessed accordingly.

3. There is a difference in vocabulary mastery of students with L1 (Indonesian) and L2 (English) subtitled-video in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher carried out one-way ANOVA and follow-up contrast that compare the means score of students with L1

(Indonesian) and L2 (English) subtitled-video both in explicit and implicit vocabulary learning. The output of this procedure was assessed and interpreted accordingly.

## V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter provides some conclusions of this research and also suggestions regarding the results of this research for the teacher and also for further research.

### 5.1 Conclusions

The conclusions of this research are drawn upon the answers of the research questions of this research. In that manner, it can be concluded that:

1. Students in explicit learning tend to learn and retain the target words more than those in implicit learning; with students in L1 subtitled condition having the highest retention rate (60.28%). The total target words are 30, the target words that students in each group can retain after 2 weeks delay is as follows: 14.17 words in Explicit-L1 subtitle group (60.28% of target words learnt in immediate post-test); 12.17 words in Explicit L2 subtitle group (57.93% of target words learnt in immediate post-test); 1.13 words in Implicit-L1 subtitle (22.60% of target words learnt in immediate post-test) and 0.83 word in Implicit-L2 subtitle (20.83% of target words learnt in immediate post-test). Compared to the scores from immediate post-test, scores in every learning condition in delayed post-test are decreasing. However, students in explicit learning tend to have the lowest ratio of decrease; with students in Explicit-L1

subtitle condition having the lowest ratio of decrease (39.72%). The lower the ratio of decrease means the higher the retention rate.

However, the effectiveness of L1 or L2 subtitle in the delayed post-test is moderated by the type of vocabulary learning (explicit or implicit) used in the treatment. One way ANOVA reveals that in explicit learning, there is a significant difference ( $p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$ ) in L1 and L2 means score; it means that, in explicit learning, the type of subtitle (L1 or L2) is significantly affecting the result of translation test in delayed post-test. However, in implicit learning, the difference between the mean score is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.186 > \alpha = 0.05$ ); it means that type of subtitle does not play important role in affecting students' score in delayed post-test in implicit learning.

2. There is a significant interaction between types of Vocabulary Learning (explicit and implicit) and Types of Subtitled-Videos on students' translation test final score ( $p = 0.004 < 0.05$ ). This interaction means that the effect of *explicit-implicit vocabulary learning on students' score on translation test* depends on *which type of subtitle* is being considered (L1 or L2); and also can mean that the effect of *type of subtitle (L1 and L2)* depends on the type of *vocabulary learning (Explicit and Implicit)*.
3. There is a significant difference ( $p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$ ) in *vocabulary mastery of the target words (translation test score)* between students in *explicit and implicit vocabulary learning* when the video is in *L1 and L2 Subtitle*. It means that students in explicit vocabulary learning scored significantly much better

(18.5 points in L1 subtitle, 17 points in L2 subtitle) in immediate translation test than those in Implicit Vocabulary learning. In this manner, it can be concluded that explicit vocabulary learning is better than implicit vocabulary learning in facilitating students to learn the meaning of the target words both in L1 and L2 subtitled video.

4. There is a significant difference ( $p = 0.000$ ) in *vocabulary mastery of the target words (translation test score)* between students with L1 and L2 subtitle in Explicit and Implicit Learning. It means that, in Explicit and Implicit Learning, students with L1 subtitle do significantly better (2.5 points in Explicit, 1 point in Implicit) on the Translation test than those with L2 subtitle ( $p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$ ). Thus, it can be concluded that L1 subtitle is better than L2 subtitle in facilitating students to learn the meaning of the target words both in Explicit and Implicit Learning.

## **5.2 Suggestions**

Based on the results and discussion of current study, there are several suggestions that the researcher can propose in this matter. The suggestions are divided into two section; suggestions for English teacher and suggestion for further research.

### **5.2.1 Suggestions for English Teacher**

Based on the findings of this research, L1 subtitled-authentic-video has proved to be a valuable resource in bridging real-life English into the classroom especially when presented using explicit instructions to learn new vocabularies. English teachers should find a way to make a good use of authentic video in their

classroom more often; using subtitle or caption is one of the ways. However, teachers need to be very careful in using subtitled video in their classroom; many things need to be put in mind such as:

1. The teachers need to consider students' current level of proficiency. This is important information for the teachers so that they can pick the most appropriate authentic-video for their students. If the teachers end up with too-complex and too-difficult video for their students, the effectiveness of subtitled video might decrease or might have no effect at all on students' vocabulary learning, especially in implicit learning. Authentic video is still much preferable; but again, teachers must be very careful in picking up the video material for the students. If the teachers are working with low-level learner; they need to find a video material that has a very clear pronunciation and very simple or basic vocabulary. This is a challenging task for teachers, but if they can accomplish this, the result will extremely worth it. As the level of proficiency of the learner rising, the teacher may increase the level of difficulty of the video, and probably eliminate the subtitle for good if they think their students are ready for that. If the teachers believe that authentic movies still seem to be too difficult, modified-non-authentic video material that specifically designed for language learning may be used for very low-level language learner. Moreover, if this is the case, the teachers need to find educational videos (non-authentic) that contain high-frequency words and provide direct teaching of those high-frequency words, especially the second thousand items in the General Service List (Nurweni & Read, 1999); these

first second-thousand words are important for English language learner as they will allow the students to understand the content of any written or spoken authentic material better, which in turn will allow comprehensible input and acquisition of new vocabulary items to occur. However, the degree of effectiveness of non-authentic media for very low proficiency learner will require further investigation in the future.

2. In the case of which type of subtitle should be used for starters, the findings of this research suggest that teachers should start with L1 subtitle especially if the students are low-level English learner. In the case of explicit and implicit learning, the result of this research suggests that explicit learning (watching the video with L1 subtitle followed by direct teaching of target words) is more effective, and probably efficient, in facilitating students to learn new vocabulary items. Teaching and learning specific vocabulary items may not necessarily increase students' vocabulary size instantly; but over time, as the number of vocabularies learned increase, it will eventually increase students' vocabulary size and finally increase their chance to respond to the four language skill effectively.
3. For a long-term vocabulary learning using subtitle video, the teacher may need to teach the students subtitled-video viewing strategies to optimize the potential of vocabulary learning using subtitled-video for more significant effect; and possibly stimulating autonomous language learning outside the classroom. Nurweni & Read (1999), suggested that longer term strategies to address students' lack of vocabulary knowledge must be explored to build up

the English vocabulary knowledge of students in their earlier study; in this case is in junior high school. Considering the results of current research, explicit vocabulary teaching and learning using subtitled video may be just the right answer for this problem.

### **5.2.2 Suggestions for Further Research**

There are several glitches that this research cannot address because of some limitations. This information might be a valuable resource for future research in this topic.

1. As the researcher has stated in Chapter IV, the use of translation test as an instrument to measure students' vocabulary mastery is not sensitive enough to detect gains in degrees of students' word knowledge. Future research must address this limitation by providing a more sensitive instrument to measure students' vocabulary mastery.
2. The fact that students in implicit learning perform significantly lower than students in explicit learning, I suspect, is because of the video used in this research is too difficult or complex to allow incidental learning to happen. In other words, this type of video on this research is too difficult to be used in implicit learning to students in junior high school with relatively low proficiency. It doesn't allow students in implicit learning to get comprehensible input from watching the video with subtitle. Carefully selected video material may be used in the future for further investigation in implicit learning. Apart from the video, the design of activities in implicit

learning in this research also seems ineffective to promote incidental learning to happen. Future research needs to provide proper activities that allow students to engage more actively in the learning process. Video with captions needs substantial work from teachers if it is to have a positive effect; factors including the quality of subtitles, careful selection of material according to proficiency level, and the balance between reading and listening skills need to be taken into account (Caimi, as cited in Vanderplank, 2013).

3. It seems that different interval on delayed post-test will produce a different result. Future research also needs to investigate interval of delayed post-test to enrich the findings on this topics. This research only pictures students' retention after 2 weeks from each respective treatment. Shorter (less than 2 weeks) or longer (more than 2 weeks) interval of delayed post-test might affect the result of the vocabulary retention test in different types of vocabulary learning (explicit & implicit) with different modes of input (L1 and L2 subtitled-video). Also, by knowing when the students start to forget most of the target words, it will help the teacher to design a recycling program to promote longer retention of the target words which are expected to be acquired permanently in a long term memory eventually.
4. Last but not least, future research must address research facility problem. The video, the screen projector, the room or language laboratory, the hearing aid or so called headset, the quality of those things must be carefully maintained. These tools may also affect the overall result of vocabulary learning using subtitled video. Participants in this research do not use a proper headset as

they watch the movie; only single stereo speaker in the front side of the language laboratory room. Even if it is loud enough for the students in the back row to hear the conversation in the videos, but it lacks detailed audio quality in listening to the conversation in the video that might affect students' performance in noticing the target words and to listen for comprehension. It also reduces the potential of multimodality input using subtitled video.

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