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Making the most of multimedia learning: evaluating the impact of combined audiovisual translation tasks on the acquisition of L2 multiword expressions

by

Anastasia Beltramello

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Philosophiae Doctor

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September 2019
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Abstract

The use of audiovisual material in the Italian L2 classes in the last decades has acquired an increasingly important role, especially since the communicative approach has identified spoken language as the main objective of teaching and learning practices. The establishment of such an approach resulted from a painstaking process of revision of traditional teaching tools and methods that shifted from giving great relevance to grammar and written words to putting orality to the centre of the debate. With communication being the main goal of L2 learning, didactic material created specifically for the school environment was no longer considered suitable, hence the introduction of multimedia products in the foreign language classroom. The European Survey on Language Competences reveals that Europeans still need to improve their knowledge of foreign languages. The reassessment of translation as a didactic tool and the continuous development of technological advances available to teachers and students resulted in the production of an ever growing number of studies suggesting that foreign language acquisition may be facilitated by using multimedia products combined with audiovisual translation techniques such as subtitling and revoicing. In particular, much of the current research is focussing on how subtitling and revoicing tasks can enhance language skills. The current doctoral project is placed in this line of research and it aims to shed light on the possible benefits of using a combination of AVT practices in the FL classroom on students’ vocabulary learning. By overcoming research in single-word acquisition, where words are often presented out of context, this study investigates the effects of the combination of dubbing and subtitling tasks on learners’ acquisition of multiword expressions.

A total of four studies were conducted in order to explore the potential of subtitling and the combination of subtitling and revoicing within the same module. All studies were integrated in the language curriculum of BA students of Italian as they were offered as full modules within the general language course. After extensive piloting, the main study focussed on an experimental investigation into the extent to which a combination of subtitling and dubbing tasks can benefit L2 learning as opposed to traditional unimodal translation.

The triangulation of qualitative and quantitative data revealed a steady trend towards improvement in vocabulary acquisition in both groups, with a slightly higher increase in the experimental group.
**List of Abbreviations and Acronyms**

AV - Audiovisual
AVT - Audiovisual Translation
BA – Bachelor’s Degree of Arts
CEFR - Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLT - Communicative Language Teaching
CG - Control Group
EG - Experimental Group
EU - European Union
FL - Foreign Language
L2 - Second Language
NUIG - National University of Ireland, Galway
PR - Productive Recall
RR - Receptive Recall
SLA - Second Language Acquisition
ST - Source Text
TBLT - Task-based Language Teaching
TILT - Translation in Language Teaching
TT - Target Text
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Introduction

Fostering language learning and intercultural communication has always been a priority for the European Union; in order to promote mobility and inclusion, it funds various programmes and projects such as Erasmus+ or the European Language Label. Within the European Union, linguistic diversity is a fact of life and it is inherent to the identity of European citizens who express their cultures in a variety of languages. Directly quoting the European Language Policy¹,

In an EU founded on the motto ‘United in diversity’, the ability to communicate in several languages is an important asset for individuals, organisations and companies. Languages not only play a key role in the everyday life of the European Union but are also fundamental for respecting cultural and linguistic diversity in the EU. One of the objectives of the EU’s language policy is therefore that every European citizen should master two other languages in addition to their mother tongue (EU Language Policy 2019, p.1)

Motivated to comply with such educational policy and promote plurilingualism among European citizens, academics in the field of applied linguistics generated different lines of research aimed at uncovering new ways to encourage second language learning in a variety of contexts. One of these new research paths led to explore the potential benefits of Audiovisual Translation on language learning. Alongside the traditional methods of teaching foreign languages, the use of audiovisual materials is increasingly widespread. The screening of films in the original language during language lessons is a practice quite in use both in schools and in universities. Often, however, the student / viewer, at the time of viewing the video, does not yet have a level of knowledge of the language that can fully understand the dialogues of the film. Although the extralinguistic elements provide additional information, which can integrate the missing linguistic data, it is sometimes necessary to resort to audiovisual translation (AVT) which allows to translate the dialogues from the original language to a target language. Subtitling, along with dubbing, is the most well-known and used form of audiovisual translation and is divided into intralingual subtitling (subtitles are in the same language as the film's dialogue) or interlingual (subtitles are

Accessed: 28/3/2019
in a language other than the language of the dialogues). The latter is the result of various operations, and not a simple translation of the filmic dialogue.

This line of research concerned with the study of AVT as a didactic tool attracted the interest of the European Union that funded several projects related to the use of AVT for language learning purposes. For instance, in 2006, the European Commission funded the Learning via Subtitles (LeViS\textsuperscript{2}) project, specifically geared toward promoting the subtitling practice in language teaching and learning. Based on the positive outcome of the LeViS experience (Sokoli et al., 2011), more funds were allocated to a new project in 2011, that is, ClipFlair (Foreign Language Learning through Interactive Captioning and Revoicing of Clips\textsuperscript{3}). The aim of the ClipFlair project is to promote the use of other AVT modes, including dubbing and audio description, along with subtitling in language learning.

The overall aim of this doctoral thesis is to contribute to the fast-growing field of applied linguistics concerned with audiovisual translation and second/foreign language acquisition and carry out empirical studies on the effects of practical audiovisual tasks upon L2 vocabulary learning. The innovative aspect of this investigation, compared to other studies that will be discussed in the second chapter of this thesis, is that it takes into account multiword expressions rather than single words. In other words, the investigation into vocabulary acquisition follows a comprehensive approach by observing learners' ability to acquire multiword expressions mainly in the form of collocations, as opposed to concentrating on individual lexical items. The present investigation takes a further step into exploring students' ability to internalise previously acquired collocations by testing their ability to contextualise them and ultimately to reproduce them orally in interaction. Indeed, one of the novelties of this research lies in the investigation of vocabulary use, with particular attention paid to the contextualised use of the vocabulary learned. In particular, the present work aims at shedding light on the possible benefits of using a combination of AVT practices in the FL classroom on students’ vocabulary learning. Starting from the assumption that contextualising language is a valuable exercise that intends to give real communicative value to the language that learners encounter, the studies described in Chapter 3 and 4 investigate to what extent AVT-based tasks can enable students to acquire L2

\textsuperscript{2} \url{http://levis.cti.gr/}
\textsuperscript{3} \url{http://clipflair.net/}
vocabulary and observe whether they are able to use it appropriately. Furthermore, by overcoming research in single-word acquisition, where words are often presented out of context, this study aims at testing learners’ acquisition of multiword expressions through contextualization and ultimately oral production.

The study discusses a total of 5 studies carried out during the period of this doctoral project. The following table outlines the specific objectives and research questions for each of these studies conducted over the course of this doctoral project:

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<th>Objectives</th>
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| Exploratory (2016/2017)| 1. To tap into the potential of the combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks as language learning tools that can provide students with opportunities to develop L2 pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence.  
2. To investigate whether this combination can help students acquire multiword expressions. |
| Complementary Study 1  (2016/2017)| 1. To explore the effects of subtitling on L2 students’ pragmatic awareness.  
2. To observe whether creating interlingual subtitles can lead students to perceive an improvement in their understanding of L2 spontaneous discourse. |
| Complementary Study 2  (2017/2018)| 1. To explore whether the combination of interlingual subtitling and revoicing is beneficial to learners’ recall and recognition of phrasal verbs.  
2. To investigate whether, provided recognition and recall of phrasal verbs are achieved, students are able to make oral communicative use of them. |
| Pilot study (2017/2018)| 1. To explore the effectiveness of the combination of AVT practices (interlingual subtitling and revoicing) in promoting learners’ acquisition (recall and recognition) of multiword expressions (collocations).  
2. To investigate whether, provided that acquisition (recall and recognition) of multiword expressions is achieved, students are able to make use of them (productive knowledge) in a given context or by providing a context themselves (controlled use). |
| Main study (2018)      |                                                                          |

Table 1 Studies’ objectives and research questions

Besides contributing to a fast-growing area of research, this research project links up with the recommendations of the European Union to increase students’ knowledge of audiovisual material, as well as their digital and multimedia skills and literacy; as
mentioned above, in a community perspective it is important to foster second language learning and mastery whilst at the same time enhancing other transferable skills. The modules devised within this research project are supported by the assumption that a methodology for effective learning must work towards enhancing learners’ ability to process input and glean meaning from the message rather than towards the ability of the teacher to teach pre-fabricated language structures. In the framework of this project, students become the focus of research as they actively engage with various tasks that require the use of translation.

This doctoral thesis is divided into two main sections that are in turn structured into 4 chapters in total. The first section is overall theoretical, and it includes chapters 1 and 2; the second section comprising chapter 3 and 4 can be deemed empirical as it includes the description of all the studies carried out within the present PhD. First and foremost, Chapter 1 is divided into two sections that provide an overarching theoretical framework for the studies described henceforth in order to contextualise them within the various teaching and learning theories and methods that have been developing and changing throughout the years. A second section discusses vocabulary learning and refines the notions of appropriateness and contextualisation in relation to the present project in which participants in the studies were required to contextualise and use the acquired language appropriately. Chapter 2 offers an overview of the pedagogical applications of AVT tasks in the FL classroom. Firstly, it begins by describing different types of video material, and emphasises the notion of authenticity and its relevance in the didactic use of AV input; these paragraphs are followed by an outline of the theories and hypotheses that uphold the use of AV material as a pedagogical tool. This chapter progresses in describing how subtitling and dubbing can be effectively employed in the FL classroom, both from a descriptive (empirical and experimental studies) and prescriptive (i.e. didactic proposals) point of view. Further advantages of pedagogical AVT tasks are identified in pragmatic and intercultural learning and finally, the chapter comes to an end introducing another original aspect of the present research, which is the combination of the aforementioned AVT modes (subtitling and dubbing) within the same course and the introduction of multimodal analysis as an integral part of the learning experience through AV input.

The third chapter offers a thorough description for each of the studies carried out in view of the main experimental study; each description follows the same outline,
accounting for participants, material, methodology, data collection, procedures, results and a brief discussion. The exploratory study yielded preliminary results in terms of L2 recall of multiword expressions and indicated a general positive response to the module, since students demonstrated active engagement and interest in both AVT tasks. Concurrently, the complementary study 1 was conducting with second-year Bachelor of Arts (BA) students and it focussed solely on the creation of subtitles and its effects on learners’ pragmatic awareness. Insights obtained from students’ answers to the questionnaire corroborate the preliminary findings obtained in the exploratory study, which suggest that vocabulary learning through AVT tasks can take a multiword approach and go beyond single word units. This study represented a stepping stone to complementary study 2 which introduces revoicing into the methodology and observes how this combination of AVT tasks impacts on students’ learning of multiword expressions. Finally, Chapter 4 moves on to describe the pilot study and the main experimental study. Following the outline adopted in describing each of the previous studies in Chapter 3, this chapter opens with a description of the pilot study and an analysis of its results; subsequently, the main experimental study is described and analysed in detail. The novel aspect of these studies concerns the dependent variable under investigation, which in this case is the type of translation used, specifically, traditional unimodal textual translation against AVT. Therefore, rather than testing the effectiveness of one treatment, these studies explore to what extent both translation treatments enhance student’s vocabulary learning. Finally, the conclusion will evaluate the contribution of the studies carried out in the present doctoral research from a theoretical and empirical perspective. By taking stock of the results obtained and accounting for the limitations of this work, a final discussion will suggest possible future research paths that can take further steps into the investigation of the effects of AVT tasks on L2 learning.
CHAPTER I – Theoretical framework

1.1 Introduction

This first chapter is divided into two main sections; The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (§1.2.1) is described at the beginning as the encompassing theoretical framework underpinning the present research. The chapter continues providing an overview on the methods and approaches adopted in FL teaching upon which this study draws, such as the Lexical Approach (§1.2.3) and Communicative Language Teaching (§1.4) approach which are particularly relevant to this work as well as Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) (§1.2.5). Special attention will be devoted to the use of translation as a pedagogical tool (§1.3), therefore the different types of translations employed in the present studies will be described, namely, the notion of directionality (§1.3.1) as well as intralingual translation (§1.3.2). Since the present work relates to the learning of Italian as a Foreign Language, a paragraph analyses the current situation of Italian teaching outside of Italy with a particular focus on Ireland, which is the country where this research has been carried out (§1.5). The second part of this chapter is concerned with the scope and the novelty of this research; the concept of Communicative Competence and its connection with oral proficiency (§1.5.1) will be illustrated as the overarching definition encompassing the notions under investigation, namely, the acquisition of vocabulary (§1.5.2); the dichotomy productive and receptive knowledge will also be briefly described (§1.5.2.1) as a framework for the testing tools employed in the studies which will be further described in chapters 3 and 4. Superficial learning is often an issue in the FL classroom, especially when it comes to vocabulary acquisition which is only tested in receptive mode. Reception and recognition of vocabulary do not ensure that the words or lexemes acquired will be stored in the learners’ long-term memory and made available for future productive use. Therefore, productive tests are also necessary in order to achieve a better understanding of learners’ knowledge of the vocabulary acquired. However, here too, vocabulary knowledge is often tested at a productive level in isolation, especially when single words are concerned. Evidently, learners’ level of proficiency does not always allow for the testing of productive vocabulary knowledge in context; in fact, students might lack the L2 grammatical or syntactical knowledge needed to produce a context for a given word or expressions. However, as
shown by Boers, raising awareness of formulaic language in students can lead them to ‘recycle’ the expressions acquired. In this study, target vocabulary, will always be presented in context and tested both in isolation and in context at the two levels of proficiency under investigation (A2/B1 for the complementary studies and C1 for the main experimental study). Therefore, appropriateness and contextualised use of vocabulary will be described as key notions that represent the objectives of the tests administered to students before, during and after the experiments (§1.5.3). One of innovative aspects of the present work concerns the nature of the vocabulary to be acquired; the studies here reported aim at exploring the possibility of acquisition of multiword expressions through the use of AVT practices. Finally, collocations and idioms will be described in greater detail (§1.5.4) since they are the two types of figurative language under investigation in the Main Study.

1.2 Theoretical framework: methods and approaches in Second language Acquisition

First and foremost, this thesis begins by introducing the fundamental concepts of foreign (or second) language learning and acquisition, in order to contextualize the educational proposal that is put forward in this research, which presents a didactic module based on the combination of subtitling and revoicing. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory is concerned with the way students learn any other language (L2) additionally to their first language (L1). There are various proposed definitions that aim at distinguishing between Second Language and Foreign Language, for example by referring to the settings in which the learning takes place. The setting can be formal when learning happens in a classroom, or informal when the learner picks up the language by being exposed to it or by having the opportunity to interact naturally with native speakers. In order to define the scope and the approach adopted in the present research, it is important to outline some of the main principles of Second Language Acquisition, in particular in regard to the distinction between ‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’.

In 1981, Krashen formulated the Learning-Acquisition Hypothesis in which he postulates that learners have two different ways of developing language abilities, that is, by acquiring a language and by learning a language. Acquisition is a “subconscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a language”; it “requires meaningful
interaction in the target language – natural communication – in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding” (Krashen 1981, p1). Acquisition, thus, results in skills of which learners are usually not aware; in other words, Lertola explains that: “we are generally not consciously aware of the rules of the languages we have acquired. Instead, we have a ‘feel’ for correctness. Grammatical sentences ‘sound’ right, or ‘feel’ right, and errors feel wrong, even if we do not consciously know what rule was violated”. (Krashen as cited in Gass & Selinker 2001, p.198). Nevertheless, Lertola (2013) states in her work, “in recent years, the term SLA has been more widely used to indicate the study of another language regardless of the environment in which it takes place” (Lertola 2013, p.13) In consideration of this, the terms ‘learning’ and ‘acquisition’ are used interchangeably within the present work, unless otherwise stated. The present work is concerned with incidental learning of lexical chunks or formulaic language (which will be explained at §1.5.4). Incidental learning occurs without intentionality; however, it involves L2 language awareness. The main experimental study (§4.3) explores the incidental learning of multiword expressions through implicit instruction, where AVT material is used as a valid source of rich authentic L2 input and AVT-based tasks represent an opportunity for students to improve their communicative competence. According to Ellis, incidental learning can be tested in two different ways: (1) learners are given a task without being told that they will be tested or (2) learners are given a task that brings their attention on a particular aspect of the L2 and, without warning, they will be tested on a different aspect of the task (Ellis as cited in Loewen et al., 2009). This second method is applied to the present research since in the studies described in chapter 3 and 4, as learners are asked to carry out AVT-based tasks (subtitling and revoicing) where their attention was focused on producing the L2 target expressions contained in the film dialogue. Upon completion of the subtitling and revoicing activities, students – without being warned – were tested on their acquisition of multiword expressions encountered and their appropriate and contextualised use.

1.2.1 The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

The Common European Framework of Reference for Language will firstly be described as it is commonly used as a tool in the foreign language curricula as well as a crucial document for practitioners of all kinds in the language field. In particular, this
study draws upon the notion of communicative competence described in the CEFR as instrumental for an accomplished use of a foreign language. In the framework of an ‘action-oriented approach’, the CEFR descriptive scheme is translated into practice by adopting some collaborative tasks in the language classroom. Between 1993 and 2000 the Council of Europe coordinated a project aimed at producing a document which could promote collaboration among language teachers across all European countries and ensure transparency and comparability among different teaching systems and language qualifications. This document, known as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), was first published in the two official languages of the Council of Europe – English and French – and has been subsequently translated into more than 30 European languages. As outlined in Figure 1, the CEFR organises language proficiency in six stages of developmental learner from A1 to C2, which in turn can be grouped into three broader levels, namely, Basic User, Independent User and Proficient User.

![Figure 1: The CEFR descriptors of the six language proficiency levels.](image)

These descriptors were created without reference to any specific language, which guarantees their relevance and across-the-board applicability. The descriptors specify progressive mastery of each skill, which is graded on a six-level scale (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2). The CEFR makes a definite contribution to language policies in Europe, the major objectives of which are to improve the communicative competence of European citizens and produce transparency in language qualifications. By limiting itself to describing the desired outcomes for a range of different language skills, the framework does not represent a dogmatic or prescriptive dossier as it does not impose any specific method for teaching modern languages. Conversely, the CEFR regards language learning as an action-based and communicative activity and it seeks to
“describe in a comprehensive way what learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively” (Council of Europe 2001, p.1). The organisation proposed by the CEFR is close to real-life language use which is grounded in interaction and where meaning is co-constructed by language users. Activities suggested for the development of language skills are grouped under four modes of communication: reception, production, interaction and mediation.

**Image 1 CEFR competences**

Mediation plays a pivotal role in the context of my research since it involves the use of translation in the foreign language classroom. This notion has gained importance throughout the various versions of the CEFR: in 2001, mediation was described as:
In both the receptive and productive modes, the written and/or oral activities of mediation make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason to communicate with each other directly. Translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary or record, provides for a third-party a (re)formulation of a source text to which this third party does not have direct access. Mediation language activities, (re)processing an existing text, occupy an important place in the normal linguistic functioning of our societies (CEFR Section 2.1.3).

At Section 4.4 (§ ibid) this definition is further developed:

In mediating activities, the language user is not concerned to express his/her own meanings, but simply to act as an intermediary between interlocutors who are unable to understand each other directly, normally (but not exclusively) speakers of different languages. Examples of mediating activities include spoken interpretation and written translation as well as summarising and paraphrasing texts in the same language, when the language of the original text is not understandable to the intended recipient. (CEFR Section 4.1.)

Nevertheless, for a long time the concept of mediation seems to be have been limited to interpretation and translation. Between 2014 and 2017 a project to develop descriptors for mediation was initiated; that project asserts a wider view of mediation, as illustrated in Appendix 5 and thoroughly explained in the paper Developing Illustrative Descriptors of Aspects of Mediation for the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The new extended notion of mediation with its new descriptors is an important concept since this skill is regarded as “an important concept introduced in the CEFR which has assumed even greater importance with the increasing linguistic and cultural diversity of our societies” (CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors 201, p.22). The novelty consists in adding new descriptors for the notion of mediation such as the relay of specific information and processing of texts (both in written or oral form). Relaying specific information refers to the way some particular piece(s) of information of relevance is selected from a given text and explained to someone else. The user/learner examines the text in order to glean the necessary information which he/she can subsequently relay to a recipient. In processing texts, the user/learner can then choose to relay the information to the recipient in a way that is different from that he received such information, depending on the objective of the communicative performance. As far as translation is concerned, the latest version of the CEFR provides an exhaustive explanation of translation-specific descriptors for each user-level considering a variety of texts. On the one hand, translating a written text in speech is an informal activity that is somewhat frequent in everyday life. It consists in spontaneously providing an oral translation of a written
text, which can be for example a letter or an email. On the other hand, translating a written text in writing is a more formal activity, however, it is not related to the practice of translation as a profession. Quite simply, plurilingual users/learners may encounter situations – whether in a personal or professional context – that require them to produce a written translation of a text.

This focus on mediation and the inclusion of competences such as relaying and processing information have been crucial to the development of the methodology adopted in my research; these new descriptors contextualise translation as a communicative activity and provide a conceptual framework for the use of the audiovisual translation and reinforcing activities – such as paraphrasing and intralingual translation – that form part of task-based teaching approach applied in my study. In fact, not only subtitling and revoicing help students honing in on their translation skills and make sensible use of both their L1 and L2, but also these AVT tasks were also supported by reinforcing activities aimed at fostering collaboration and interaction such as relay or processing of information and translation of a written text into speech (e.g. students were asked to provide a written or oral summary of the text to be translated). Furthermore, the definition of mediation put forward by Coste & Cavalli takes into account the variety of texts and manipulations that can be made to them, highlighting, among other things the semiotic dimension of a text which is pivotal in AVT-based tasks:

To mediate is, inter alia, to reformulate, to transcode, to alter linguistically and/or semiotically by rephrasing in the same language, by alternating languages, by switching from oral to written expression or vice versa, by changing genres, by combining text and other modes of representation, or by relying on the resources – both human and technical – present in the immediate environment. Mediation uses all available means, and this is its attraction for language learning and the development of a range of discourse competences (Coste & Cavalli 2015, p. 62-3)

Some of the instruments produced within the Council of Europe have played a decisive role in the teaching of foreign languages by promoting methodological innovations and new approaches to designing teaching programmes, notably the development of a communicative approach (§1.2.4). As illustrated by the descriptors, in order to reach communicative competence, learners need to become independent and subsequently proficient. The concept of independent learning is introduced among the descriptors of the CEFR at B1 level. The parameters of creativity and independence
are better understood with reference to the notion of Language Awareness (LA). As Page puts it:

Learners must no longer sit there and expect to be taught; teacher must no longer stand up there teaching all the time. Teacher have to learn to let go and learners have to learn to take hold (Page 1992, p. 84).

The next paragraph illustrates the Language Awareness approach and its implications for foreign language teachers and especially students, in particular in regard to their achievement of an independent use of the foreign language.

1.2.2 Language awareness

A definition of language awareness is provided by the Association for Language Awareness (ALA), which defines it as “explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use” (ALA, 2012). Hawkins (1984) initiated the discourse on LA by advocating that language studies should consist of mother tongue study going hand in hand with foreign language study and language awareness work. According to this ‘trivium’, learners are encouraged to develop noticing skills and a critical attitude in the appreciation of a text, be it in their mother tongue or in their foreign language(s). One of the most relevant features of the LA approach is the importance bestowed to the mother tongue in the language learning process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Attention</strong></th>
<th><strong>Noticing</strong></th>
<th><strong>Understanding</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– Interest</td>
<td>– Consciously register</td>
<td>– Recognition of general rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Alert</td>
<td>– Discovery techniques</td>
<td>– Knowledge of patterns and principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Paying attention</td>
<td>– Consciousness-raising tasks given to students</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– Involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Curiosity</td>
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**Table 2 Language Awareness Features**

Working with the same model proposed by Hawkins, Carl James (1999), suggested that:

[…] one’s understanding of the workings of the foreign language can be illuminated by mother tongue study, by transferring one’s mother tongue metacognitions to the task of foreign language learning. (James 1999, p.142).
In accordance with this model, language acquisition represents a bridge between the mother-tongue and the foreign language, while translation takes up the role of a meaningful task that allows learners to practice both their L1 and L2. Promoting language awareness among foreign language learners can help them gain a positive attitude toward the L2 by developing the confidence to make attempts or take risks when performing communicative tasks. By drawing links between their mother tongue and the foreign language, students may become more responsible for their own learning. Learning more about language in general may help students develop an appreciation for the FL, boost their motivation and improve their attitude towards the foreign language. In fact, a LA approach does not impose a top-down transmission of language knowledge by a teacher or a course book to learners, but rather it is developed by the learner as an individual and gradual realisation of the mechanisms of language use. Language awareness is achieved when learners begin to pay attention to a certain language instance in an attempt to identify patterns of language use. The development of such noticing skills is crucial to the language learning methods described in this chapter, in particular the lexical and the communicative approach, and to the methodology adopted in my study. The Language Awareness approach relies heavily on the assumption that the best learning experience occurs when students are actively engaged with the subject and willing to dedicate time and efforts to it. Krashen’s hypothesis regarding the Affective Filter represents the theoretical foundation for this assumption since it shows how the affective dimension impacts on learners’ attitude and motivation. Another pivotal principle is that when paying conscious attention to authentic language use learners may become aware of the mismatch between their own performance in the foreign language and the performance of a native speaker. In fact, this approach is centred on developing learners’ awareness of how the target language is used for communication by its native speakers; its “main objective is to help learners to notice for themselves how language is typically used so that they will note the gaps and “achieve learning readiness” (Tomlinson 1994, p. 122-3). The acquired noticing skills can lead students to give salience to specific features of the target language that may become more noticeable in future input; in so doing, this approach contributes to the learner’s psychological readiness to acquire a particular feature and can help him/her to become independent and learn the language outside of the school context (Pienemann 1985; Tomlinson 1994). As far as the use of audiovisual translation is concerned, the following chapter will present some of the numerous studies that have
shown how practicing translation in the FL classroom can help students develop language awareness (§2.2).

1.2.3 The lexical approach
In 1993 Lewis proposed the Lexical Approach that shifts the focus of language learning from grammar to vocabulary. Lewis sees language consisting of language chunks which he terms ‘lexical items’.

In recent years, many applied and educational linguists have emphasized the importance of drawing second or foreign language learners’ attention to standardized multiword expressions (such as collocations and idiomatic expressions), referred to in the literature as ‘lexical phrases’, ‘multiword units’, ‘formulas’, ‘prefabricated chunks’, ‘ready-made utterances’, and so forth (e.g. Foster, 2001; Howarth, 1998; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Wray, 2002). Particularly relevant to this study are collocations, defined as words which co-occur frequently in a text and range from fully fixed (e.g. to save time, to make progress) to novel collocations. Noticing and learning collocations can be profitable for two reasons: firstly, it is wise to learn words within a recurrent pattern of use since they are not normally used individually as single units; secondly, research has proved that learning the whole and then breaking it down into components is more efficient than learning the components (or parts) and putting them together.

Within the LA, learners are encouraged to notice recurring lexical chunks in the authentic L2 language they are exposed to. Lewis claims that acquisition can be triggered by an awareness-gaining process that relies on imitation of the sequences noticed during exposure to the L2. Furthermore, activities based on the comparison of L1 and L2 as well as translation should be encouraged. Translation seems to be an instinctive way to approach language learning and, Lewis believes that translation is “inevitable” (Lewis 1997, p. 60). Applying the Lexical Approach entails the ability to identify expressions or chunks in a text; once this ability is acquired it can help translation greatly. In fact, rather than translating with a word-for-word approach, learners can be taught to use a chunk-for-chunk approach. The importance that Lewis gives to the need to prepare teaching activities that foster the expansion of vocabulary according to lexical units rather than single words is reflected in the study of memory capacity; despite having a limited span, memory is in fact able to group the incoming
elements into higher units of meaning, therefore the presentation of lexical chunks respects and favours short-term memory capabilities. One of the most remarkable characteristics of this approach lies in the focus on contextualisation of the lexical units and the input in L2, which must be the most authentic, rich and diversified as possible. Here the audiovisual element comes into play providing rich contextualised L2 input. Audiovisual material can be used in the FL classroom for a large number of activities and for different purposes. A recent survey carried out by Canning-Wilson (2000) points out the advantages of integrating audiovisual material in the FL classroom by showing that students like learning languages through audio-visual material; the survey indicates that students’ overall comprehension of video material is largely due to the presence of visual clues that aid the understanding of the auditory component. Although some scholars maintain that the Lexical Approach cannot yet be considered a consistent and scientific theory, it is still nonetheless a change in perspective in the field of language teaching that emphasises the importance of accessing a foreign language through content rather than through form.

1.2.4 The communicative approach or communicative language teaching (CLT)

The communicative language teaching (CLT) or communicative approach originated in Britain between the 1960s and 1970s. In those years Europe was experiencing remarkable changes both within its economic system and its society structure. The creation of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957 led to an increased mobility of European citizens, which consequently boosted the demand of language instruction for work or personal reasons. To this end, in 1957 the Council of Europe launched a program whose aim was “to break down the traditional barriers which fragmented the language teaching profession in Europe and to promote its coherence and effectiveness as a major force for European integration, whilst preserving linguistic and cultural diversity” (Trim 2007, p. 10). The approach is based on the theories of functional linguists such as the British Firth and Halliday and the American sociolinguists Hymes, Gumperz and Labov; in particular, while on the one hand the initial contribution to the development of CLT was made by British applied linguists such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), on the other hand the notion of CLT was introduced in the 1970s, when Hymes (1972) coined the term Communicative Competence. Communicative Language Teaching followed on from a period where
the traditional language teaching methods were proving inadequate to respond to the fast-paced increasing demand for language learning. More specifically, before the advent of CLT, Situational Language Teaching (SLT) was considered the standard teaching approach; the downfall of this approach lies in its over-focus on internalising structures of the L2 and teaching grammar rules as well as template sentences, while neglecting the practical dimension of a language that come with its use. Because of its prescriptive nature based on the teaching of grammar and the acquisition of form before meaning, SLT could not fulfil the needs of a more multilingual society, whose goal was to achieve good communicative proficiency rather than mastery of L2 structures. In this context, the 1970s witnessed the advent of a new teaching approach that shifted the main focus on communication as the ultimate goal of language learning. The very foundation of CLT lies in the idea that a language essentially serves the purpose of communication and thus linguistic knowledge as well as knowledge of meaning and form are both part of the communicative competence. CLT was successfully greeted by language instructors who were faced with the task of reassessing their teaching methods and curricula in view of the new communicative approach. In 1971 a commission of experts began to investigate the possibility of creating language courses in which learning tasks are broken into units. The following year, Wilkins proposed a communicative syllabus for language learning that comprises an analysis of the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express. In particular, he identified two categories of meaning, that is, notional categories (time, sequence, quantity, location, and frequency) and categories of communicative function (requests, denial, complaints, and offers). Such distinction underlies the development of the notional-functional syllabus which discards the traditional dichotomy grammar-vocabulary as the basic structure of a language, in favour of a teaching strategy aimed at the fulfilment of effective communication in the FL. Wilkins’s notional syllabus was adopted by the Council of Europe and further expanded with the inclusion of the description of objectives of FL courses, situations in which the L2 might be used (e.g. business or travel), topics learners might need to talk about, functions that learners need to fulfil (e.g. requesting information or disagreeing), the notions used in communication (time, frequency) as well as vocabulary and grammar principles needed. This new pedagogical approach developed further in the 1980s and 1990s and, in 1998, Johnson and Johnson (cited in Laviosa 2014, p. 22) described its most salient features as follows:
Nowadays the main principles of the communicative approach are still endorsed and commonly used in FL teaching; some of these key principles are as follows: meaning is paramount; dialogues shall not be memorised but used to fulfil communicative functions; contextualisation is a basic premise (meaning cannot be understood out of context, thus teachers using this approach usually present a grammar topic in a meaningful context); language learning is learning to communicate; translation may be used where students need or may benefit from it; reading and writing are encouraged from the very beginning; teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In view of these principles, it is essential to understand the role of instructional materials in CLT and how they are used to create a variety of learning activities. CLT material is a means to influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use and its primary role is to promote communication among FL students. There are three main types of materials adopted in CLT, which are: text-based, task-based and realia (or authentic ‘real-life’ material). On the other hand, the creation of activities within the Communicative Approach is based on the principle that “successful language acquisition was the outcome of cognitive processes engendered by the effort to communicate” (Howatt 2004, p. 347). It follows that activities must be carefully devised to maximise “genuine language use for communicative purposes” while engaging students in collaborative work. (Howatt, 2004, p. 258-345). Certainly, videos employed for subtitling and revoicing tasks can be placed within the wide range of activities that is possible to create with such material. As well as catering for the use of authentic material (videos from L2 contemporary movies or TV series), these two audiovisual translation modes seem to closely follow the aforementioned principles outlined by Johnson and Johnson (1998). Firstly, both subtitling and dubbing provide students with the opportunity to observe L2 input in a real-life context as used by native speakers (appropriateness and message focus); both activities involve cognitive processing (this will be further explained at
§2.3.4 with Mayer’s Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning); finally, both subtitling and revoicing activities involve to some extent risk taking (especially with intralingual and L2 translation) and free practice. In fact, thanks to the practical nature of these activities, students learn by doing, engaging in hands-on projects (subtitling or revoicing a short video) where they constantly negotiate between the risk of making errors and the need for creating a correct and cohesive TT. Finally, both AVT activities call for the simultaneous use of four language skills: reading a ST text, listening to the audio track of the video, translating the ST or writing a script and, as far as revoicing is concerned, producing oral L2 dialogue. Other skills such as contrastive language and intercultural analysis are also promoted through the use of AVT practices.

1.2.5 Task-based Language Teaching (TBTL)

Nunan (2004) identified the empirical basis for 1.2.5 Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) in Krashen’s four hypotheses: (1) The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, (2) the Natural Order Hypothesis, (3) the Monitor Hypothesis and (4) the Input Hypothesis (§1.3.1). From a different perspective, Skehan and Ellis (2003) viewed the TBLT as a refinement of the CLT; in fact, TBLT draws upon several principles underpinning the communicative approach, such as communicative language use, active engagement of learners as well as meaningful and contextualised use of the L2. TBLT spurs learners to make use of their deduction skills as well as carrying out independent language analysis. For this reason, TBLT can be regarded as a learner-centred approach where the teacher works through learners’ needs and interests and selects materials, activities and tasks accordingly. Activities promoted within a communicative approach comprise exercises that enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, in particular to engage in communication, requiring the use of communicative processes like information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. Although the methodology applied in the present study will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2, the following paragraph will provide a brief explanation of the concept of task-based learning or task-based language teaching, in particular its implications for FL teachers as well as some of its advantages.

In TBLT, motivation for communication becomes the fundamental driving force since it places the emphasis on communicative fluency rather than the achievement of unflawed utterances. Furthermore, exposure to the target language should take place in naturally occurring contexts; therefore, any material adopted
should not be purposefully created for the language learner but should be selected (and adapted when necessary) from authentic sources made for native speakers of a given target language. The initial drive for the development of this approach comes from Prabhu (1987) who believed that students learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using. Central to this approach is the definition of task and Prabhu proposes the following one:

An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process, was regarded as a ‘task’. (Prabhu 1987, p. 24)

The nature of task is often depicted in general traits and a review of relevant literature show that various definitions of this concept have been attempted by scholars over the years (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 2001). One of the first definitions of tasks was attempted by Long (1985) who described it by looking at what people usually do in real life; in his view a task is ‘[…] a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child or filling out a form […]’ (Long 1985, p. 89).

Another definition proposed by Skehan (1998) highlights four characteristics that a task must have; according to him, a task is an activity in which meaning is primary; there is a problem to solve; the performance outcome is evaluated; there is a real-world relationship (Skehan & Foster 2001, p. 12-13). By presenting the task as a problem-solving activity Skehan (1998) highlights the real-life like nature of it where its completion is the ultimate goal and main concern; in this view the learner is thus presented as a ‘language user’. Expanding on a first definition given in 1989, Nunan distinguishes between real word (or target) task and pedagogical tasks, the latter defined as follows:

a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused in mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end. (Nunan 2004, p. 4)

It follows that a key feature of this approach is a focus on meaning over focus on form and learners are actively involved in communication in order to carry out a task and achieve a predetermined goal. Although a certain degree of variation exists among all the definitions provided by scholars over the years, there are three main characteristics that can be identified as emblematic in defining a task-based approach: meaning is
paramount and it must be the primary focus; a task should be an independent and self-contained language activity with a strong real-world relationship; the performance produced upon completion of the task (outcome) is the subject of evaluation. An important contribution towards the definition of task and thus the implementation of the TBLT came from Rod Ellis. According to Rod Ellis, a task must satisfy four criteria: it involves a primary focus on (pragmatic and semantic) meaning; it contains some kind of ‘gap’ (Prabhu had previously identified the three main types as information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap); the participants choose the linguistic resources needed for its completion; the outcome is clearly defined and it’s non-linguistic (meaning that the language serves the purpose of achieving the outcome and is not as an end itself). In an attempt to further clarify the notion of task, Ellis (2003) differentiates the terms ‘task’ and ‘exercise’ based on their compliance with the four criteria previously expounded; he argues that while an exercise may satisfy the criteria related to the need for a gap and the resourceful use of language by learners, it does not satisfy the principle that focus must be on meaning, since learners are aware that the main purpose of the activity is to practice correct language rather than to process the input to construct meaning; additionally, an exercise does not satisfy the criteria related to the nature of the outcome, since its outcome is purely the use of correct language. However, it must be pointed out that Ellis is not suggesting that exercises have no didactic value, but rather he wishes to make a clear distinction between these two notions.

Albeit the definition of task is still not univocal and continues nowadays to attract the attention and criticism of scholars, a task-based learning approach appeared for the first time in the 1950s within vocational training practice. The pedagogical implementation of tasks in the FL classroom is yet again a matter of discussion and scholars propose different strategies. Willis (1996) describes a process where language students move from the core – understanding meaning – to the surface – looking at the
form. Communication is a permanent feature in Willis’s framework, which develops in three phases: a pre-task, task cycle and language focus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-task</th>
<th>Task cycle</th>
<th>Language focus</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Introduction to topic and task</td>
<td>• Task</td>
<td>• Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Planning</td>
<td>• Practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Report</td>
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Figure 2 Task-based learning framework (adapted by Willis 1996:53)

In the pre-task phase, the task and its goals are presented to the students; the teacher needs to find ways to explore the topic in the classroom, for example through pictures or brainstorming as well as provide relevant vocabulary. It is very important to leave students time to prepare for the task during this phase and to present the communicative situation in a way that can boost their motivation towards undertaking the task. The task-cycle consists of three phases, namely, task, planning and report. In the first phase students perform the task which can be done by eliciting students’ responses to written or oral input; at all times, the teacher should encourage spontaneous communication and lead students to successful completion of the task which generally boosts their motivation. The second phase, planning, gives students the opportunity to prepare for the next stage, which consists of presenting their task performance to their classmates. Reporting can occur in oral or written form, as pair-work or individually; in this phase students have the opportunity to focus on accuracy for their presentation and to practice the FL by engaging in a discussion. At this point, the language focus phase follows the task cycle; this phase emphasises specific language features. While the two previous phases concentrated exclusively a focus on meaning, this final phase envisages a focus on language itself. This final stage is further divided into two sub-phases, that is, analysis and use. At the end of the task cycle students reflect on the input by examining and discussing specific features of the
language they were exposed to (analysis) and make meaningful use of the language learned in the previous phases. During all three phases students are encouraged to produce spontaneous language, gain fluency and confidence in themselves. Willis and Skehan point out that the need for grammatical accuracy comes into play once the task has been performed; this is so because while performing the task, learners pay attention to meaning and tend to neglect grammatical correctness. The approach chosen for this research is student-centred and it follows essentially a task-based model. Superficial learning is often an issue in language education, especially when students do not acquire a sense of when and how to use which vocabulary but rather learn all the words they will need for the exam and then quickly forget them. Within a task-based approach in the FL classroom this is overcome by presenting vocabulary in a real-world situation (hence the use of authentic videos) and by stimulating students to take an active role in the process of successfully carrying out a task. Such an approach is advantageous because it is enjoyable and motivating and it allows for a certain degree of freedom in terms of language control. In all the stages of a task students can draw upon all their language skills rather than just practising one pre-selected item; it encourages communication among students. A task-based approach is integrated into the present study in so far as the tasks consists of the production of subtitling and revoicing projects. The combination of active AVT tasks calls for the simultaneous use of a variety of skills that can be improved through engaging activities that trigger students to work resourcefully. Furthermore, choosing a task-based approach for my course-model means adopting a more communicative language teaching approach as students are required not only to examine, interpret and translate a given text, but also to actively engage in the process of subtitling and revoicing. An essential part of these methods consists of translating a given text from L1 to L2 or sometimes vice versa.

The next paragraphs will examine how translation is integrated in the FL curricula and will examine the concepts of bimodality and directionality.

1.3 Translation in language teaching

The wording ‘Translation in Language Teaching’ (TILT) was firstly used by Cook (2010), one of the most fervent proponents of the reappraisal of the role of translation in language teaching. With this phrase he referred to the use of translation as “an integral part of the teaching and learning process as a whole” and as “a part of the
general revival of bilingual teaching” (Cook 2010, p. 10). However, notwithstanding this recent reassessment of translation as a didactic tool, its role in the FL classroom has been a matter of controversy among scholars for quite a long time; in particular various changes in attitude towards its pedagogical use have taken place over the last few decades. Without entering the long-time debate that saw scholars arguing in favour of or against translation as a teaching tool, I will provide a brief account of the changes in language learning perspectives that have contributed to the development of various different methodological paradigms that have been applied in the language classroom. Firstly, however, it is necessary to contextualise the definition of translation within a functional framework in order for it to be better understood. For the sake of clarity, it must be acknowledged that translation is an activity which interweaves with multiple areas of study and a result has different objectives. Vinay & Darbelnet (1958/2000) establish three main areas in which translation skills can be practised: educational, professional and linguistic research. When carried out in an educational context, translation constitutes a means for language learning or a useful instrument for testing comprehension and accuracy. On the other hand, the goal of a professional translator is not to improve his/her understanding of the source text but rather to make it understandable to a target audience. In the area of linguistic research, translation is regarded as a tool for linguistic analysis, since it can highlight linguistic phenomena by comparatively displaying two languages and their function in relation to one another. Delisle (1998) defines pedagogical translation as follows:

Academic, or pedagogical, translation is intended to help the student acquire the rudiments of a language, or at a more advanced level, to perfect his style. It is never an end in itself, but always a means. (Delisle 1988, p. 26)

In consideration of these definitions, the present study involves the use of translation in a foreign-language learning/teaching context and therefore the area of professional translation will not be dealt with. The areas concerning the educational function and the linguistic research are here combined in order to develop a didactic methodology in which audiovisual translation tasks are used to improve students’ communicative skills in the foreign language.

Some of the arguments raised by proponents and critics of translation are listed in the following table:
In favour of translation | Against translation
---|---
It is a time-saving way of teaching and testing L2 proficiency (Duff 1989/1992: 7; Sewell 1996: 142; Campbell 1998: 58) | Lack of communication or language practice which is the ultimate goal of many language teaching methods (Coleman, 1986; Marsh, 1987)
At an advanced level, it helps honing linguistic accuracy (Snell-Hornby, 1985: 21) | It may induce learners to wrongly believe that there can be a one-to one equivalence between languages (Lado, 1964: 53-54)
By encouraging contrastive analysis, it helps students to notice structural differences between L1 and L2 (Snell-Hornby, 1985) |  
It helps to prevent L1 interference (Sørensen 1988 and 1990) |  

Table 3 Arguments in the translation debate

Translation was widely practised as a didactic activity within the Grammar Translation method, which used translation of individual sentences specifically devised to elucidate certain grammatical features. “This meant that the examples could be graded for difficulty and that the grammar could be taught systematically” (Howatt 1984, p. 132). However, with the advent of the Reform Movement in the early 19th century, the use of translation was no longer recommended in teaching practices until in the 1960s – 1970s, the new Direct Method explicitly banished the use of the mother tongue from language learning contexts. Indeed, before discussing the use of translation, it must be acknowledged that this issue is part of a larger debate on the use of the mother tongue in the FL classroom. The Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT) frowned upon the use of the mother tongue in educational contexts, since its ultimate goal was to help learners master a foreign language by promoting communicative activities rich in meaningful, comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) in the L2. The use of L1 and translation activities in language teaching have enjoyed renewed attention (e.g. Ferrer, 2005; Deller and Rinvulcri, 2002; Atkinson, 1993, 1987; Auerbach, 1993). As Rinvulcri so succinctly reminds us in a recent publication, ‘the mother tongue is the womb from which the second language is born’ (Deller and Rinvulcri 2000, p. 4), a metaphor which clearly highlights the more favourable facilitating role currently attributed to translation and the use of the mother tongue in EFL contexts.
The use of L1 has also been promoted for certain procedures such as explaining difficult concepts, checking comprehension, raising confidence, explaining the rationale of language learning activities, error analysis, or vocabulary clarification (e.g. Prodromou, 2002). Juárez and Oxbrow (2008) put forward that:

It is our belief that a more open-minded approach to using the mother tongue could be adopted in order to encourage learners to focus on similarities and differences between their first language and the target language under study rather than just using it as a managerial aid (Juárez and Oxbrow 2008, p. 95).

It is interesting to notice how, once again, the focus on similarities and differences between L1 and L2 is acknowledged as a benefit derived from translation activities that can promote noticing skills and thus lead students to critically examine the foreign language and acquire vocabulary.

Although translation seems to have lasted through the long period of time in which it was banned from language classrooms, there is still an issue with the way it is now integrated in the foreign language curricula, in particular in undergraduate degrees in modern languages across several countries. Schäffner (2004) describes a possible scenario in which translation is taught as part of a language programme. In particular, she envisages a translation course of a duration of 12 weeks in which translation is used to reinforce and test students’ linguistic skills. Referring to the general objectives of translation courses for final year students in undergraduate language programmes, she explains that translation has a threefold purpose:

− Show whether students have understood the content and the linguistic structure of an L2 source text which is translated into L1.
− Show whether students can produce well-structured L2 texts when translating from their L1, conforming to linguistic rules and conventions of the L2.
− Show whether students have fully understood the message of a text in L2 and whether they can reproduce this message in a well-structured text in L1, conforming to the rules and conventions of the L1. (Schäffner 2004, p.115)

All this is made possible thanks to the many advantages that translation offers to the L2 learner; in particular, as Zojer (2009) identifies in the following points, practising translation in the FL classroom serves multiple purposes:

1. Translation acts as a cognitive tool for contrastive analysis between L1 and L2 and can prevent interference mistakes;
2. It can be used to integrate activities closer to real-life language use as opposed to more selective language activities which focus on single aspects of language;
3. Learners are encouraged to expand their linguistic range since avoidance strategies are not allowed. A text should be translated in all its parts;
4. Translation presents vocabulary effectively and it helps avoiding possible misunderstandings;
5. Learners are required to develop reading and comprehension strategies;
6. The translation task can be more straightforward in terms of instructions compared to some other tasks;
7. It allows the evaluation of syntactical, semantic and textual comprehension;
8. Besides practising the L2, learners can improve L1 competence;
9. Metalinguistic reflection is encouraged as part of the translation process;
10. Translating a text allows learners to acquire a range of transferable skills;
11. Translation as a mediation activity can be used in learners’ professional or personal lives.

Observing the language teaching situation in the UK, Carreres and Noriega-Sánchez (2011) point out that ‘translation classes in this context differ from both general language classes with a translation component and from the teaching of translation for professional purposes’ (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez 2011, p. 282). As explained at the beginning of this paragraph through the different definitions of translation, this is due to the fact that translation can be regarded both as a means and as an end. In educational contexts, translation is an end in as much as professional translator training is concerned, and a means when used for improving FL skills. Schjoldager (2004) highlighted the difficulty in designing syllabi to avoid the fact that in many language courses translation is still essentially used as a means of teaching and assessing L2 competence. A few years later Cook (2010) asserted that:

The two roles of translation—as a means and as an end—need not be kept apart, as they have been traditionally. Learning to translate is not a special purpose or an add-on to general learning but should be an integral part of a major aim of language learning—to operate bilingually as well as monolingually (Cook 2010, p. 55).

Cook seem to suggest that reconciling the dual nature of translation can be beneficial to language learners. In a presentation given at the TLT (Translation and Language Teaching) conference in 2017, Carreres, Calduch and Noriega-Sánchez support Cook’s belief that translation may be regarded as a means and as an end at once by
showing that when we teach translation, we are at the same equipping learners with a set of valuable skills such as:

- Contrastive awareness
- Lexical and morphosyntactic range and accuracy
- The four basic skills (speaking, writing, reading, listening)
- Awareness of conventions linked to genre and text type
- Pragmatic and intercultural competence
- Close-reading skills and text analysis
- Stylistic awareness
- Dictionary and documentation skills, including the use of online resources
- Creativity and problem-solving
- Autonomy and collaboration

Inspired by Philip’s book Translation and Own-Language Activities (2014) they suggest a number of sample activities that can be implemented in the FL classroom, among which intralingual translation, audio description, translation of humour and translation of linguistic variations,\(^4\) which are also used in some of the studies described in this thesis (§3.3.1, §3.3.2 and §4.3). In terms of Audiovisual Translation, transcriptions and scripts from audiovisual material (videos, documentaries, movies etc.) can be regarded as texts rich in authentic L2 input; according to scholars such as Christine Heiss (2000) film and multimedia translation can be valid instruments in the advanced teaching of foreign languages and cultures. Heiss recommends the use of film translation and dubbing in the FL classroom as tools to promote vocabulary acquisition and raise students’ awareness of the L2 culture. The advantages of using AVT will be further explained in chapter 2 where a definition of audiovisual text is provided as well as examples of how AVT tasks are effectively integrated in the FL classroom.

On this note, the next paragraph expounds the definitions of the notion of directionality in relation to the use of translation in language teaching. The concept of directionality does not appear to have been widely investigated by both scholars and teachers, and translation into and outside of the mother tongue is practised in the language classroom

\(^4\)The last two activities mentioned usually involve a comparative analysis of two the ST and the TT and possibly a subsequent attempt by students at providing an alternative translation.
without addressing possible implications related to it. The axiom that translating into the L2 is unnatural, difficult and wrong is based on assumptions that are not reflected in empirical and scientific studies on language learning; on the contrary, in the last decade there has been an increase in studies that seek to challenge this axiom by showing that L2 translation can bring benefits to the language learner. The students who took part in the studies described in chapters 3 and 4 were required to translate from L1 into L2 and vice versa L2>L2 (intralingual Italian translation); therefore, it is important to acknowledge the characteristics and the benefits of these types of translation, especially in the context of the present research, where AVT-based activities and translation in general are carried out into the L2 and intralingually.

1.3.1 Directionality in translation in the FL classroom
With the term ‘directionality’ Pavlović (2007) refers to whether translation is done into one’s native language, or language of habitual use, or out of it. As mentioned in the previous paragraph (§1.3), when the Grammar-Translation Method dominated the educational scene, L2 translation was largely employed in the language classroom; in fact, it was one of the principal instruments for checking language skills acquired by the learners who firstly approached translation through words and short sentences in order to progress towards laborious translation of literary texts. One of the problems that led to the rejection of this method lies in the very nature of the texts to be translated, which often consisted of unnatural-sounding phrases. Furthermore, in order to maintain the focus on written language and help learners to grasp linguistic structures, phrases to be translated were often presented out of context, thus cancelling any attempt at developing communicative skills. Carreres (2006) interestingly argues that:

In their understandable dissatisfaction with this way of teaching, I believe proponents of the communicative approach picked the wrong target. In a way, translation, misconceived and overused, could be seen as a victim of the grammar-translation method, rather than the source of its evils. The problem was not translation as such, but a teaching methodology that abstracted language from its communicative function (Carreres 2006, p. 5).

The Grammar-Teaching Method later fell by the wayside as it seemed to discourage people from learning a foreign language; in fact, communication and interaction in the L2 were overlooked in favour of memorisation of grammar rules and vocabulary through ‘tedious’ L2 translations. This uncritical approach led to the rejection of translation on the grounds that it was a fruitless and even detrimental practice for
language learners. For many years thereafter, scholars held a hostile attitude towards L2 translation which is reflected in Newmark’s (1988) statement:

Translat[ing] into your language of habitual use [...] is the only way you can translate naturally, accurately and with maximum effectiveness”. Although Newmark acknowledges that in practice translators “do translate out of their own language,” he dismisses the practice by calling it “service” translation and by saying that those translators who engage in this “contribute to many people’s hilarity in the process (Newmark 1988, p. 3).

Despite the fact that Newmark did not base his judgement on empirically oriented research studies, his view of L2 translation seemed to have long prevailed among translation scholars and professionals to the extent that it is now taken for granted that translators shall operate into the mother tongue. Although issues related to the direction of translation have been investigated chiefly from a professional translators’ perspective (Jakobsen, 2003; Pavlović, 2007; Pokorn, 2005), this is still a rather under-researched area and, to the best of my knowledge, there are very few attempts at empirically examining its implications in contexts where translation is used as a language learning tool. In fact, the notion of directionality itself has often been neglected or even utterly ignored by both professional translators and scholars in favour of the assumption that translating into a foreign language is an undesirable and purposeless exercise. The main arguments against the use of L2 translation are listed as follows:

1. It is a counterproductive exercise since it leads learners to always look at the foreign language in relation to their mother tongue, which can cause interferences and dependence on the L1.
2. It can lead to frustration and de-motivation since students cannot reach in their TT the level of accuracy, fluency and style of the given ST.
3. Since translators are typically required to work into their native language, inverse translation is a worthless practice that has no application in real life.

In reviewing the literature on translation pedagogy, Carreres (2006) points out that although L2 translation seems always to be rejected, there has been a constant production of arguments throughout the years to justify its persistent use in the FL classroom as opposed to attempts to banish it from the curricula; she identifies two reasons for this, the first being that in many educational institutions L2 translation is a consequence of the need to prepare students for official examinations that include this
practice rather than “having the exercise included in the exam because it is considered pedagogically valuable”. In fact, she notes that in several countries official examinations “are part of a highly formalized procedure and introducing change is notoriously difficult. Hence, understandably, many academics pick the easier battle: how to adjust teaching to the exam, as opposed to the other way around” (Carreres 2006, p. 4). The other reason she addresses has to do with the actual usefulness of L2 translation; in fact, even when they disregard it, teachers seem to still use it in the FL classroom. This second reason is supported by Lavault’s research (1985) in which he reported that language teachers in French secondary schools still often employed translation in the classroom and even those who strongly embraced the Communicative Approach felt that sometimes translation was the best way to help learners understand a grammatical notion or a lexical item. According to Schjoldager (2004), translation has a communicative function. If it is seen as a text production activity, translation can be effectively used to enhance language learning with the condition that students are provided with real-life scenario texts to translate. Schjoldager continues explaining the benefits of L2 translation, which can increase students’ linguistic knowledge and accuracy while promoting critical reading and textual analysis skills.

Despite a tacit approval among language teachers, more claims were being made by scholars against the use of L2 translation, in particular one that refers to its ‘unethical’ nature that may lead students to think that they are qualified to do translations professionally. As previously mentioned, L2 translation has various realisations in real life, however, the reality of the translation market sees translators operating almost exclusively into their L1. This has been the default translation direction in most of the Western world for the last few hundred years (Pokorn, 2000) and it is based on the assumption that translators yield better products when translating into their mother tongue. However, this assumption attracted the attention of several scholars who are challenging it by showing that the direction of translation does not seem to impact on its quality. Pokorn (2005) carried out a study that involved the textual analysis of 50 literary translations done by 8 non-native and 6 native speakers of the target language and of responses of 46 competent native speakers; the results revealed that the accuracy and acceptability of the translation do not depend on directionality.
While the direction of translation L1>L2 has been and still is controversial in professional as well as in educational settings, intralingual translation L2>L2 seems to be given very little consideration by translation scholars and language teachers. The next paragraph will provide an explanation and examples of intralingual translation practices in order to emphasise its relevance in the context of my research study and to highlight similarities between professional AVT practices and the AVT-based tasks employed in the classroom.

1.3.2 Intralingual translation

Roman Jakobson distinguishes between three types of translation in the following way:

- Intralingual translation or rewording is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language.
- Interlingual translation or translation proper is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language.
- Intersemiotic translation or transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems (Jakobson 1959, p. 114).

Although the notion of intralingual translation is well defined, there seems to be a considerable lack of studies in its regard, at least in comparison to the volume of research carried out on interlingual translation. In Baker’s (1998) words:

[…] intralingual translation is not such a minor issue as the existing literature on translation might suggest…I know of no research that looks specifically at the phenomena of intralingual or intersemiotic translation. We do have classifications such as Jakobson’s, which alert us to the possibility of such things as intersemiotic and intralingual translation, but we do not make any genuine use of such classifications in our research (Baker 1998, p. 17).

This lack of research is even more remarkable if we consider that, in practice, intralingual translation occurs in various shapes in everyday life; examples of it are forms of expert-to-layman communication, easy-readers for children, subtitling for the deaf, summaries, some kinds of news reporting, new translations of classics, etc. (see also Shuttleworth, 1997 and Gambier, 1992). One scholar who wrote on intralingual translation is Gambier. Although his work is not based on empirical studies nor does it compares intralingual to intralingual translation, it provides valuable insights into this often-neglected practice and its real-life applications. Relevant to the present research is Gambier’s (2013) description of four basic types of intralingual translation in the context of AVT:
1. **Intralingual subtitling**, or same language subtitles, with a shift from the spoken mode of the verbal exchange in a film or TV program to the written mode of the subtitles. The two main reasons for using intralingual subtitles are for language learning and reinforcement of reading skills, and for accessibility, defined as the right for certain groups to have access to AV texts, such as people who are deaf and hard of hearing. Intralingual subtitling is also called, particularly in the United States, closed captions, as opposed to open captions (i.e., subtitles that cannot be turned off).

2. **Live subtitling**, sometimes called re-speaking. Done in real time for live broadcasts (e.g., sporting events, TV news), it needs technical support, such as voice recognition software. The quality of the end product can be questionable, because there is little time, or resources, to proofread the output of the software before it is broadcast.

3. **Audio description** provides those who are blind and visually impaired with access to films, art exhibits, museums, and opera and theatre performances. It involves reading information to describe what is happening on-screen (action, body language, facial expressions, costumes, objects). The information is added to the sound track of the dialogue or to the dubbing of the dialogue for a foreign film.

4. **Audio subtitling** is useful for people who are dyslexic, elderly, partially sighted, or slow readers. A text-to-speech software reads the subtitles aloud. (Gambier 2013, p. 896-897)

As emerges from Gambier’s description, all these practices are regularly used in professional media settings to a greater or a lesser extent and I think it worthwhile to point this out since intralingual subtitling is employed as a language learning task in some of the studies described in chapters 3 and 4. Thus, the notion of intralingual translation will be reinstated in the next chapter in light of the pedagogical use of AVT applied to the studies described in Chapter 3; in particular, a comprehensive overview of subtitling and revoicing (§2.4.1 and §2.5) will show the benefits that these AVT practices can bring to language students.
1.4 Italian as foreign language in Ireland

Italian as a foreign language is currently taught outside of Italy both at secondary (schools) and third level education (university). According to the Eurostat\(^5\), Italian is the 5\(^{th}\) most studied language in Europe, learned by 3\% of students in general upper secondary education (ibid.; p. 2). Within the European Union, Italian is studied in upper secondary education primarily in Malta (38\%), Croatia (24\%) and Cyprus (17\%). In 2017 Ireland launched the *Strategy for Foreign Languages in Education 2017-2026* which aims to considerably improve Ireland’s education system within the next decade. The main goals of this strategy are listed in the aforementioned document as follows:

1. Improve language proficiency by creating a more engaging learning environment.
2. Diversify and increase the uptake of languages learned and cultivate the languages of the new Irish.
3. Increase awareness of the importance of language learning to encourage the wider use of foreign languages.
4. Enhance employer engagement in the development and use of trade languages (ibid., p. 8).

According to the Census 2016 Summary Report, published in April 2017, Italians represent one of the most significant groups of foreign nationals living in Ireland with 11,732 people (ibid., p. 14). Currently, Italian is offered at Junior Cycle in many Irish schools across the country; however, in 2016, only 14 schools out of a total of 730 presented more than five candidates for Italian at Leaving Certificate, while French, for example, accounted for 643 schools.

As the charts show, Italian is taken by a very small number of students at both Junior and Leaving Certificate level. Quoting directly the Languages Connect, Ireland’s Strategy for Foreign Languages in Education 2017 – 2026:

The two charts show that the uptake of the languages offered in Junior Certificate and Leaving Certificate is unbalanced and highlights the need for greater diversification in the range of languages offered by schools and chosen by students. Schools need to be encouraged and incentivised to offer students a wider choice of languages. One of the desired outcomes of this Strategy is that the proportionate uptake of the various languages at national and local level should more accurately reflect the identified needs of the economy and of society. (ibid., p. 27)

Back in the year 2000, the Post-Primary Languages Initiative (PPLI) was launched with the aim of achieving greater diversification of foreign languages by promoting and supporting the two lesser-taught curricular languages already in the system – Italian and Spanish. Since the setting up of the PPLI, the number of students taking Italian and Spanish has grown and support for Italian will be continued under this Strategy, in order to build on the successes achieved to date. In particular, the aim is to increase the uptake of Italian Leaving Certificate examination by 0.9% (ibid., p. 11).
1.5 Scope of the research

1.5.1 Communicative competence and oral proficiency

The present work aims at shedding light on the possible benefits of using a combination of AVT practices in the FL classroom. In particular, it intends to investigate not only whether working with AVT-based tasks can enable students to acquire L2 vocabulary but in particular to what extent they are able to make appropriate use of it. In other words, by overcoming research in single-word acquisition, where words are often presented out of context, this study aims at testing learners’ acquisition of multiword expressions through contextualisation and oral production. It is envisaged that this approach will help learners to improve their communicative competence as well as oral proficiency.

Communicative language competence is considered here as described in the CEFR (2001), comprised of three subcomponents: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic. According to Bachman’s model of Communicative Language Proficiency (1982), pragmatic competence is comprised of the broader category of language competence, and it concerns the ability employed in a contextualised performance, and the interpretation of socially appropriate illocutionary acts in discourse. In turn, pragmatic competence encompasses illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of how to perform illocutionary acts, and sociolinguistic competences. Strategic competence concerns the ability to assess the context and interpret relevant information; it involves assessment and planning skills inasmuch as it requires the language user to match new information to existing information that is relevant to answer a question. Although its definition seems to be clear, some of the main issues that teachers face when it comes to learners’ communicative competence is how to effectively promote it as well as how to assess it. A review of the research carried out on the use of AVT in language learning seems to indicate that although acquisition is the main goal in the FL classroom, there is no investigation done on whether students can later contextualise and reuse the words they have acquired for communicative purposes (Borràs & Lafayette, 1994). For instance, oral proficiency – which is crucial in developing communication and interaction skills – is relatively difficult to assess in language testing and many different scales and rubrics have been compiled by experts over the years, especially by language tests creators (IELTS and OPI to name just a couple). All these rubrics comprise factors such as fluency, pronunciation, grammatical range and accuracy,
vocabulary and lexical resources, and content. The multifaceted nature of the notion is remarked upon by Weyers (1999) who states that “communicative competence is not a catch-all referring to one single skill” (Weyers 1999, p. 347). In 1994 he conducted an experiment on 37 students of Spanish as a foreign language, to test the validity of the hypothesis that an increased quantity and quality of information provided by the authentic video would result in enhanced oral production in terms of both quantity and quality. One of the two groups underwent the experimental treatment which required them to watch the first 13 episodes of a Mexican telenovela. In order to assess students’ oral production, Weyers chose a narration from picture approach and measured it both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative measurement was based on a words-per-minute analysis of the taped responses. The qualitative measurement was based on five categories drawn from the model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and are defined as follows:

- **Confidence in Speech** relates to the students’ use of monitoring and self-correction.
- **Scope and Breadth of the Response** relates to the detail given to each action.
- **Style/Flow of Response** deals with the students’ general fluidity in spoken foreign language, with special attention to “choppiness”.
- **Effectiveness of Message** relates to the comprehensibility of the response to a native speaker.
- **Communicative Techniques** employed were evaluated according to the students’ use of circumlocution and their avoidance of English lexical items when the desired lexical items were not known.

It is interesting to note that Weyers’ findings in relation to oral production, point to a great increase in the experimental group’s communicative competence for the category of **Confidence in Speech** and the category of **Scope and Breadth of Response**, whereas the other three categories did not show significant differences between the two groups. A core assumption of this study is that improved interpretation of the context in all its aspects – and thus a deeper understanding of its content and message – can lead to an improved oral proficiency. In order to improve their oral proficiency, students must be given the necessary tools to transform the linguistic notions acquired into performative and informative output. In other words, they need to activate their
passive knowledge of the foreign language by putting into practice what they have learned.

1.5.2 Vocabulary knowledge

One of the main assumptions that underpin this research project is that vocabulary provides the crucial knowledge that enable learners to successfully improve in other areas of language proficiency (Laufer and Nation, 1999). In order to test vocabulary acquisition and communicative competence, it is firstly necessary to ask, “what does it mean to know a word?” The answer to this seemingly easy question is not univocal and the definition of vocabulary knowledge is, indeed, multifaceted. In view of the ambiguity of its definition, there are no studies that can test all the facets of vocabulary knowledge at once; however, at present there is a number of studies that employ valuable tests to investigate some aspects of word knowledge. The first studies on vocabulary knowledge date back to the 1940s, when Cronbach (1942) put forward a definition of vocabulary knowledge based on five principles: generalisation, breadth of meaning, precision of meaning, availability and application. Although he seeks to explain what exactly knowing a word means, the drawback of his definition lies in the fact that it focuses more on meaning than use. In 1976, Richards elaborated a more comprehensive definition, which includes eight assumptions of lexical knowledge: growth of vocabulary size, frequency, register, syntax, derivation, association, semantics, and polysemy. In a further attempt to clarify this concept, in 1990, Nation proposed a taxonomy of word knowledge components, which forms a list of questions that the learner should be able to answer. In particular, he establishes the fundamental distinction between productive and receptive knowledge. This dichotomy proved fundamental for the revision of his taxonomy that Nation carried out in 2001; in this new version, he included all aspects involved in knowing a word from the points of view of both receptive and productive knowledge and use. The overarching conceptual framework of vocabulary knowledge adopted in the present research is essentially based on the collective strength of the definitions postulated by Nation and Chapelle. On the one hand, Nation’s taxonomy proved a solid framework for the present study since it isolates the single units of word knowledge, making it very practical for research purposes. In fact, Lertola (2013) had selected this taxonomy as a framework for her study, which focused on the acquisition of word meaning; on the other hand, the present study aims to bring acquisition to a further level by investigating another
unit described in Nation’s taxonomy – vocabulary use. On the other, Chapelle’s
definition has also made a significant contribution to the development of testing tools
for this research, since it highlights the contextual dimension of vocabulary
model of communicative competence which encompasses linguistic knowledge as
well as the ability to use language in context. Not only is this model more
comprehensive than previous ones but it also places greater emphasis on the central
role of strategic competence. Based on this model, Chapelle (1994) singles out three
main components of what she calls ‘vocabulary ability’: ‘(1) the context of language
use; (2) vocabulary knowledge and processes; and (3) the metacognitive strategies
required for vocabulary use in context’ (Chapelle 1994, p. 164). (1) refers to the
limitations that the context imposes on linguistic choices; (2) refers to lexical
knowledge and processing and (3) seems to coincide with what Bachman and Palmer
refer to as ‘strategic knowledge’ (Singleton 1999, p. 205). Chapelle’s definition is
relevant to this research in as much as it takes into account the contextual feature of
vocabulary; in fact, the use of language in context is proposed here as a precondition
for the achievement of successful communicative competence.

1.5.2.1 Receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge

Receptive vocabulary knowledge is often defined as the ability to recognise the form
(Laufer et al. 2004), understand the meaning (Webb 2008) or provide a L1 synonym
or a translation of a given word (Webb 2009). On the other hand, productive
vocabulary knowledge is defined as the ability to glean both form and meaning (Laufer
et al. 2004; Webb 2008), or to provide an L2 word starting from its L1 equivalent
(Webb 2009). Laufer (1998) further divided productive vocabulary knowledge into
controlled and free productive knowledge; the first concerns the ability to produce
words when a cue is given while the latter indicates the spontaneous use of a word
without any elicitation (i.e in a composition or an interview). However, the limitation
of these definitions lies in the fact that both receptive and productive vocabulary
knowledge seem to be only concerned with meaning and form. Henriksen (1999, pp.
304–7) defined vocabulary knowledge as a multi-dimensional construct, comprising:
(a) a partial-to-precise dimension, reflecting the degree of meaning comprehension;
(b) a content-related dimension, representing the extent to which a word is
related to other words in the language; and (c) a grammatical dimension, specifying
the word’s part of speech. However, these definitions still lack an account of the
contextual dimension of vocabulary knowledge, which is crucial for effective
communicative competence.

Melka (1997) acknowledged the use of different expressions in relation to reception and
production: passive/active, comprehension/production, understanding/speaking.
(b) a depth dimension, similar to network building, representing the association of words; and (c) a receptive-productive dimension which shows learners’ control of, and access to, word knowledge. The third dimension represents a novelty in the way vocabulary knowledge was thought of since it introduces the idea of ‘accessing’, that is, using a word. In line with Henriksen’s definition, Nation (2001) expanded the notion of vocabulary knowledge by adopting a broader perspective that includes form (pronunciation, spelling and word parts), meaning (form/meaning relationship, concept and referents, associations) and use (grammatical functions, collocations, constraints on use). In the present work, receptive vocabulary knowledge is defined as the ability to recall and recognise multiple aspects of word knowledge in reading and listening, while productive vocabulary knowledge is the ability to use multiple aspects of word knowledge in writing and speaking.

**1.5.3 Appropriate and contextualised vocabulary use**

The concept of vocabulary control is described in the CEFR (2018) as referring to:

> The user/learner’s ability to choose an appropriate expression from their repertoire. As competence increases, such ability is driven increasingly by association in the form of collocations and lexical chunks, with one expression triggering another (CEFR: Learning, Teaching, Assessment: companion volume with new descriptors 2018, p.134).

An innovative aspect of this research lies in the investigation of vocabulary use, with particular focus on the contextualised use of the vocabulary learnt. The next paragraphs will discuss the notions of appropriateness and contextualisation in relation to my research project whereby participants in the studies were required to contextualise and use the acquired language appropriately.

In the two of the language tests employed in the studies described in chapters 3 and 4 (§3.3.2, §4.3) students are asked to contextualise the vocabulary learned during the module, that is six target collocations. In the immediate written test, productive vocabulary knowledge is assessed through contextualisation, that is, students are required to provide the L2 collocation in context (writing a sentence for it) rather than in isolation (i.e providing a translation for the L1 collocation). One month after the end of the module, the oral test observed students’ ability to contextualise the target collocations involving a pragmatic and sociolinguistic dimension since students had to use the listed items in interaction. Contextualisation can be defined as framing language into a meaningful and real context rather than treating isolated items of
language for language manipulation practice only. Contextualising language tries to give real communicative value to the language that learners meet.

The notion of appropriateness is recurrent in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics studies, in particular in relation to second language acquisition. The first definitions of appropriateness seemed to focus exclusively on its sociolinguistic nature. Trudgill (1997), for example, referred to the:

[…] sociolinguistic notion of appropriateness. As is well known, different situations, different topics, different genres require different linguistic styles and registers. (Trudgill 1997, p. 253).

This limitation to the sociolinguistic field was overcome by Hymes (1997) who highlighted the strong link that exists between appropriate language use and context; to put it in his words “whether and to what extent something is in some context suitable, effective, or the like” (Hymes 1997, p. 13). With regard to SLA, Wolfson identifies appropriate speech as suitable, effective, or similar to natural speech; in other words, appropriate speech must be functionally equivalent to natural speech: ‘if speech is felt to be appropriate to a situation and the goal, then it is natural in that context’. (Wolfson 1997, p. 124). As well as the context, the notion of appropriateness is also strictly connected to the sociocultural norm of politeness. As reported by Fetzer (2015):

In spite of numerous controversies about the nature of the connectedness between appropriateness and politeness in sociolinguistics, sociopragmatics, and applied linguistics, there is some general agreement about the connectedness between a face-threatening act and appropriateness. (Fetzer 2015, p. 7)

With respect to the notion of context, its miscellaneous nature has made it difficult for scholars to share a commonly accepted definition. The definition chosen for the present work is that related to the field of pragmatics and socio-pragmatics where the context is defined according to its power of relating individual actors and their surroundings, relating social actions and their surroundings, relating social actions, and relating the set of individual actors and their social actions to their surroundings (Fetzer & Akman 2002; Fetzer 2012). Appropriateness and context are inherently related and in language-use research such as in the field of applied linguistics, the two notions cannot be separated. In her study, Taguchi (2006) reports an experiment carried out on fifty-nine Japanese college students of English at two different proficiency levels whose ability to produce a request speech act was assessed through a spoken role play
task and quantitatively analysed by rating performance on a six-point scale for overall appropriateness. In order to measure appropriateness of L2 speech act production she combines two methods that consists respectively of rating overall appropriateness of speech acts as well as analysing linguistic expressions used in speech acts. She chose to adopt a definition of appropriateness that describes it as “the ability to perform speech acts appropriately according to situations” (Taguchi, 2006, p.10) and created a six-point rating scale ranging from no performance (0) to excellent (5) aimed at assessing learners’ ability to appropriately use linguistic expressions at the proper level of directness and politeness according to situations. Grammatical competence and discourse control (i.e., overall management of speech) were also incorporated into the rating descriptors in terms of the degree to which they interacted with appropriateness. For instance, speech acts received low ratings when they had major grammatical and word choice errors, or poor discourse control, including excessive repetitions, illogical response, or incoherent speech (Taguchi 2006, p. 11). As will be discussed in chapters 3 and 4, her study contributed to designing a method for assessing appropriateness in the oral tests administered to participants in the complementary study 2 and in the main experiment.

1.5.4 Beyond word-units: multiword expressions and idiomaticity

In the process of speech or text production, complete freedom of choice of a single word is rare and rather there is a phraseological tendency where meanings are created through word combinations.

(Sinclair 2004, p. 29)

In line with the principles of the Lexical Approach (§1.2.3), the studies reported in this thesis investigate the acquisition of lexemes or multiword expressions and provide insights into the development of students’ figurative competence. The acquisition and correct use of lexemes or multiword expressions has been linked to a better L2 fluency, in particular for what concerns communicative competence and oral proficiency.

The Lexical Approach develops many of the fundamental principles advanced by proponents of Communicative Approaches. The most important difference is the increased understanding of the nature of lexis in naturally occurring language and its potential contribution to language pedagogy (Lewis 1993, p. 6)
According to Canale and Swain’s model, communicative competence (1980), consists of four main elements: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical competence</th>
<th>Sociolinguistic competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(knowledge of the language codes, syntax, lexis etc.)</td>
<td>(use of appropriate language according to situation, register, style, politeness etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse competence</td>
<td>Strategic competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(knowledge of how to combine language structures in order to produce cohesive and coherent texts)</td>
<td>(use of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to get the meaning across and compensate for communication breakdown)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3 Canale and Swain’s model for communicative competence (1980)**

By extension, idiomaticity – the ability to understand and use idioms appropriately and accurately in a variety of sociocultural contexts, in a manner similar to that of native speakers, and with the least amount of mental effort, so defined by Liontas (1999) – may be seen as part of the sociolinguistic competence as described by both Canale and Swain’s (1980) and Bachman’s framework of areas of language knowledge (1996).

What exactly is to be acquired through figurative competence goes beyond word-unit, indeed, it includes several items. For instance, the term ‘lexeme’ (meaning lexical unit or lexical item) has been employed in the case of multiword expressions to indicate an item which is utilised as a single unit, but which contains more than one word (Schmitt, 2000). Schmitt (2004) adopts the term ‘formulaic sequences’ as an overarching definition that encompasses a range of different items, from simple fillers to collocations and idioms. The studies outlined in this thesis account for the presence of Italian formulaic language – collocations – in the AV input provided to students; respectively, collocations are used with second-year students, while both collocations and idioms are used with final-year students according to their level of proficiency in Italian.

Collocations are defined in linguistics according to two different approaches; a broader one adopted by Firth (1953) that sees collocations strictly from a linguistic
perspective and therefore defines them as simple co-occurrences of words whose semantic meaning cannot be attributed to only one of the occurring words; a more specific approach adopted by Hausmann (1989), defines collocation according to their syntactic structure and singles out six different types:

- adjective + noun (*excruciating pain*)
- (subject-) noun + verb (*snow was falling*)
- noun + noun (*a round of applause*)
- adverb + adjective (*deeply concerned*)
- verb + adverb (*work overtime*)
- verb + (object-) noun (*stand a chance*).

Knowledge of collocations is of paramount importance for the language learner and it is considered essential to achieve a native-like proficiency level in the L2. Fox claims that:

> When even very good learners of the language speak or write English, the effect is often slightly odd. There is nothing that is obviously wrong, but somehow native speakers know that they would not express themselves in quite that way. [...] The problem is often one of collocation. (Fox 1998, p. 33)

However, as part of the broader category of formulaic language, the teaching of collocations seems to have elicited little interest among scholars. This might be partly due to divergent views on which collocations (and by extension idioms) should be taught and how. As regards the very nature of the collocations, Bahns (1993) suggests that it would be wise to start by teaching those that have no direct equivalent in the L2. Regarding how to teach collocations, Krashen and Nation maintain that they are learnt implicitly while Schmitt (2004) and Lewis argue that they should be taught explicitly. Perhaps the most successful method lies somewhere in the middle, characterised by a combination of both implicit and explicit learning. On the one hand explicit instruction can help learners to ‘activate’ their attention and lead them to a conscious noticing and thus recognition of these lexical structures. On the other hand, implicit instruction through constant meaningful input is also desirable. The same view can be extended to idioms as they are also comprised in the bigger category of formulaic language. Levorato (1993) and Levorato and Cacciari (1992) coined the term *figurative competence* to focus on the production and comprehension of idioms. This type of competence refers to the ability to decode and encode figurative expressions. Levorato
(1988) defines idioms as strings of words whose semantic meaning cannot be directly derived from its constituents. Hornby (2006) defined idiom as ‘a group of words whose meaning is different from the meanings of the individual words’ (Hornby 2006, p. 768). He also defines idiomatic as “containing expressions that are natural to a native speaker of a language” (Hornby 2006, p. 770). In other words, what makes idioms difficult to learn and interpret is the fact that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts (Baker, 2011); it means that one cannot get the meaning of idioms by understanding the words composing them. Using idioms makes language learners fluent in speaking, and figurative competence in foreign language is an indicator of learners’ level of communicative competence (Zarei & Rahimi, 2012). According to Scrivener (2011) meaning is not as precise as we might feel it to be. He believes that this is because different people from different cultures have different interpretations of the world around them. This can be one source of difficulties for students and teachers.

The way learners acquire idioms has been largely investigated. Bulut & Celik-Yazici (2004) for example, looked at the strategies that learners employed in the processing of L2 idioms. They reported that L2 learners recalled the strategies acquired during first language acquisition to construct L2 idiom meanings. Other studies, such as Cooper’s (1999), showed that learners try to guess L2 idiom meanings by using the context among other strategies. In any case, failure to recognise idioms represents one of the biggest obstacles to reading comprehension. In this regard, Cooper (1999) carried out a study to explore all the possible strategies that a learner has at his/her disposal when it comes to the interpretation of idioms. Not only did he identify 7 strategies, but he also reported their occurrence as follows:

- Guessing from context (28% of the time)
- Discussing and analysing the idioms (24%)
- Using the literal meanings of idioms (19%)
- Using background knowledge (7%)
- Repeating or paraphrasing the idioms (7%)
- Connecting L2 idioms to L1 idioms (5%)
- Other strategies like personal discussion and meta-analysis of the idiom (2%) (Cooper 1999, p. 246)
Observing Cooper’s findings, it emerges that guessing from context (28%) was mostly used by learners and this strategy led to a correct answer 57% of the time. The least used strategy was referring to an L1 idiom (5%) which led to a correct answer 8% of the time. At this point, Cooper was able to compile a rank of the most successful strategies, that is, those that most frequently lead to a correct answer:

- Guessing from context (57% of the time),
- Using the literal meaning (22%),
- Using background knowledge (12%),
- Referring to an L1 idiom (8%).

In a very comprehensive study on recognition and interpretation of English idioms by native and non-native speakers, Mäntylä (2004) outlines other strategies that learners can use to understand and learn idioms:

- Using images and imagination
- Making a relation between meaning and form
- Using actions, objects, and pictures
- Using guessing or inferencing strategies
- Using contextual clues (Mäntylä 2004, p. 87-89)

However, despite the seemingly abundant research on the acquisition of idioms that accounts for several different strategies employed by learners, empirical research from a teaching perspective is still relatively scarce. In fact, after reviewing the current situation of teaching idioms in Portugal, Bravo (2008) rightly calls for a revision and consequent upgrading of teaching approaches and methods that should focus more on communicative competence. She underscores a discrepancy between the way knowledge of idioms is tested and what is taught in the classroom. Her claim can be extended to other languages, including Italian, especially if we take into consideration Liontas’ (2002) findings on students’ perception of idioms and informal language. He investigated students’ self-awareness towards their knowledge of idioms both at a teaching and learning level. The results of his study point towards a lack of instruction in relation to idioms in the foreign language classroom; not only did the majority of students assert that they had not been taught idioms in the classroom, but also, they highlighted the importance of such language features that they perceive as a significant part of natural communication and a tool to increase conversational fluency. This lack
of instruction on idioms and figurative language in general can be attributed to several different factors; a recent study conducted in 2016 at the Department of Italian Studies of the University of Zadar (Croatia) investigated the current trend among teachers in the instruction of collocation. Antić (2016) organised a workshop for teachers of Italian as a foreign language in upper secondary schools with the purpose of enticing the teaching of collocations and to facilitate the presentation of this linguistic phenomenon in the foreign language class through various activities. At the end of the workshop, the participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire that elicited answers on the use of Italian collocations in the FL classroom. To the question “how often do you use collocations when teaching?” 60% of participants answered rarely while 32% very often. Of that 60%, 76.47% answered that the reason why they rarely use collocation is because they are not native speakers of Italian and thus feel uncomfortable using them, while 23.53% simply think that they should be taught at an intermediate (B2) or advanced level (C1/C2). In general, the answers collected through questionnaires, revealed that many teachers do make use of collocations, though rarely, while communicating with pupils although they do not seem to be aware of it. This is shown by the fact that, before attending the workshop, the majority of teachers answered positively to the question that asked them whether they knew the term collocation, however, they were not able to provide an explanation of its meaning. Furthermore, many of them believe that the teaching of this linguistic phenomenon is more suited to intermediate and advanced levels and that it is difficult to use them with students at low levels because the Italian language has a large number of collocations that often differ greatly from those in Croatian and thus, they must be memorised. Finally, the school books adopted by these teachers do not seem to offer a good variety of exercises and texts that allow students to practise formulaic language. Despite the difficulty in securing a safe place in the language teaching curricula, figurative language is generally perceived as beneficial for learners’ L2 fluency, helping them to come across as proficient L2 speakers. In 2006, Boers set up a small-scale experiment to observe the extent to which the use of formulaic language enables learners to be perceived as proficient L2 speakers. According to Boers (2006) there are three main assumptions that make L2 figurative competence advantageous for learners:

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7 Since the original text is in Italian, the questions have been here translated into English for the sake of clarity.
1. Mastery of the idiomatic dimension of natural language can help learners come across as ‘native-like’.

2. Since formulaic language is retrieved from memory as prefabricated chunks, they are believed to facilitate fluent language production under real-time conditions since there is usually no hesitation in using these ready-made sequences.

3. Due to their prefabricated nature, formulaic expressions can help learners to achieve language accuracy. (Pawley & Syder, 1983; Skehan, 1998 cited in Boers 2006, p. 246)

In view of these assumptions, Boers hypothesised that a mastery of formulaic sequences can help learners to come across as fluent and accurate L2 speakers. Therefore, participants in the study were divided into an experimental and a control group, both groups exposed to the same amount of authentic input. However, students in the experimental group were made aware of the presence of formulaic language and great emphasis was placed on phrase-noticing. Conversely, in the control group authentic language was used to elucidate grammar structures. Taking into consideration the complexity of measuring oral proficiency and in order to guarantee a degree of reliability of results, Boers and his colleagues employed two assessors for their experiment and gave them detailed guidelines in order to help them to account for the different aspects of language use such as fluency, range of expressions, accuracy. Two blind judges assessed the interviews of all participants, without knowing whether they belonged to the experimental or the control group. The interview consisted of two 10-minutes parts, the first being a conversation about an article they had previously read, while the second part consisted of a more spontaneous conversation on a topic that would be familiar to students (for example, travelling). While listening to the interview recordings, the two judges noted down all the occurrences of multiword expressions, counting only the correctly formed chunks without making any judgment on the degree of complexity. The results of this study point towards positive effects of the phrase-noticing condition in the experimental group. One of the most interesting findings of this experiment is that students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group mostly in the first part of the interview, which was on an article they had previously read in preparation for the interview. Boers (2006) observes that this might indicate that students’ awareness of
formulaic language had increased to the extent that they were able to “recognise usable chunks in a new text and to subsequently recycle these in a conversation. In other words, these students turned their awareness into a strategic advantage” (ibid., p. 256). However, Boers remarks that while “noticing may be a prerequisite for learning, it does not necessarily guarantee the acquisition of every single element that gets noticed” (ibid., p. 257). In fact, not every noticed chunk can be stored and made available for active use. This can happen on the condition that students are provided with “activities with greater mnemonic potential” (ibid., p. 257). Ultimately, Boers’s experiments conclude that encouraging learners to expand their repertoire of formulaic language can support the improvement of their oral proficiency. The present work draws upon these findings to explore the potential of AVT practices in enabling students to acquire multiword expressions and consequently be able to make appropriate and contextualised use of them, ultimately enhancing their oral proficiency. The next chapter will describe the AVT modes employed in the exploratory and complementary studies as well as in the main experimental study, namely, subtitling and revoicing.
CHAPTER II – Audiovisual Translation in the Foreign Language classroom: pedagogical applications

2.1 Introduction

Audiovisual Translation is defined by Perego (2007) as an umbrella term that encompasses all the modalities of linguistic transfer which intend to translate the original dialogues of audiovisual products, that is to say products that communicate simultaneously through the acoustic and visual channels, in order to make them accessible to a wider audience. AVT modes can be divided into two main practices, subtitling and revoicing. This chapter provides a conceptual framework for the use of AV input as a teaching tool; the key notions of authentic video material and audiovisual text will be expounded as well as the cognitive theories underpinning the use of such material. Subsequently, it will offer an overview of the didactic use of two AVT practices that are relevant to the present research, that is, subtitling and revoicing. After describing the numerous studies that proved the effectiveness of subtitling and dubbing as language learning tools, other pedagogical possibilities offered by these AVT practices are taken into consideration, in particular those related to L2 pragmatics learning. Since in this research project a great amount of L2 input is present in context (through episodes of an Italian TV Series), the opportunities for pragmatic and cultural learning in the Italian language classroom are manifold.

2.2 Audiovisual text

In defining an audiovisual text, Gottlieb (2003) refers to a reality constructed by several semiotic resources, which combine and integrate together to generate a meaning-making process in which a combination of sensory signs conveys communicative intentions. It emerges that an audiovisual text is a complex medium consisting of a number of signifying codes that simultaneously converge in the process of creating meaning. One of the key challenges in AVT practice and research is to identify the types of relationships between verbal and nonverbal signs. Gambier (2016), summarises in the following table the multiple semiotic systems that act to varying degrees in the production of meaning.
Table 4 Semiotic codes in AV products (Gambier, 2016)

The interaction between these codes occurs, for example, when people watch a subtitled movie; in order to fully understand the AV input, viewers must use both visual and auditory channels at once.

While didactic videos present several advantages, authentic videos are chosen for their language characteristics. Ruling in favour of didactic videos is the fact that they are usually created targeting a certain age group and language level and their content has been edited or adapted in view of different pedagogical applications; revision can in fact ensure grammatical and lexical accuracy that can be exploited in the classroom for specific tasks. Finally, they are often integrated with additional multimedia resources and extra activities as well as a user's guide. However, the downside of didactic videos concerns the lack of authenticity in their language and therefore it deprives the student of a direct access to a real language (Talaván, 2013, pp. 41-42). In fact, language used in AV products such as films or TV series has been defined as ‘an authentic source material – that is, created for native speakers and not learners of the language’ (Kaiser 2011, p. 233).
The effective use of authentic material in the FL classroom has already been touched upon in the previous chapter within the Lexical Approach (§ 1.3), the Communicative Language Teaching (§ 1.4) and the Task-based Language Teaching (§ 1.5). A definition of authentic materials is provided by Bacon and Finnemann (1990) who refer to them as texts made by native speakers for non-pedagogical purposes. Comodi (1995) rightly emphasized that authentic video material is enriched with body language, kinetic and spatial elements, as well as proxemics, which allow the learner “to perceive the global sense of a message and to acquire a real pragmatic-functional competence” of the Italian language (Comodi 1995, p. 14). According to the Begotti (2006), the most used authentic video materials in the Italian language classroom are television programmes (such as talk shows, documentaries, newscasts, weather forecasts, television games and quizzes, teleshopping, sports videos), programmes and films in VHS or DVD, and video advertising. Furthermore, she stresses the importance of a complete authenticity, meaning that it is crucial that “the didactic film is Italian, with Italian actors that can authentically transmit all those linguistic, paralinguistic and extra-linguistic elements, that are peculiar to Italian culture” (Begotti 2006, p. 17). Indeed, albeit scripted and generally delivered by professional actors, these L2 samples resemble what learners are most likely to encounter in real life. Despite being defined by some scholars as “written-to-be-spoken-as-if not-written” (Gregory & Carroll 1978, p. 72) and “scripted/constructed dialogue written to sound natural and believable” (Bednarek 2010, p. 63), recent studies have disclosed analogies between film and TV language on the one hand and face-to-face conversation on the other, with regard to authenticity and spontaneity (Bonsignori, 2013; Forchini, 2012; Kozloff, 2000; Quaglio, 2009). Allan, for instance, claimed that video is a good means of “bringing a slice of living language into the classroom” (Allan 1986, p. 48). Authentic video material has not been made for learners of a second language, but its target audience are native speakers of that language in which the video product is made. For instance, Weyers (1998) refers to the Spanish telenovelas as “unstructured, non-graded linguistic samples which are more effective than commercially prepared video programs, in exposing student viewers to genuine language samples, much like what they would encounter in the

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8 Translated by the author.
9 Translated by the author.
target culture” (Weyers 1988, p. 340). Not only can students associate the spoken work to a visual element, but also, they are afforded a great opportunity to see and appreciate how native speakers interact in everyday conversations providing them with linguistic cues (regional accents, register and grammatical and syntactical structures), as well as paralinguistic cues (body language, gestures) allowing them to see language in use in a cultural context (Diaz Cintas & Marco Fernandez Cruz, 2008). Another asset of authentic AV input is that it is particularly useful in settings where exposure to the L2 is limited; video programmes with abundant L2 create a language-rich environment where students can witness correct pronunciation, stress and intonation patterns as well as paralinguistic and extra linguistic cues. Exploring the multimodal nature of AV products can be a useful exercise in the foreign language classroom as it represents an opportunity for students to fully understand the input and perhaps compensate for the lack of understanding of the language component, especially when this presents unknown or unfamiliar vocabulary.

2.3 Theoretical framework

Due to their polysemiotic nature, the use of audiovisual texts as didactic tools entails complex input processing. The next paragraphs discuss the theories and hypotheses that underscore the pedagogical value of authentic audiovisual material. Krashen’s Input hypotheses and affective filter, Schmidt’s Noticing Hypotheses, Paivio’s Dual Coding Theory and Mayer’s Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning show how learners of a foreign language can derive great benefits from the exposure to and the use of authentic video (visual element, images) in conjunction with a written support (subtitles or a dialogue transcript).

2.3.1 Krashen’s Input Hypothesis and Affective Filter

The Input hypothesis is Krashen’s attempt to explain how the learner acquires a second language. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses when he/she receives second language input that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. Comprehensible input can be then defined as the target language that the learner would not be able to produce but can still understand; it goes beyond the choice of words and involves presentation of context, explanation, rewording of unclear parts, use of visual cues and negotiation of meaning. The meaning successfully conveyed constitutes the learning experience. Díaz Cintas
(2008) sees a direct relationship between the implications of this hypothesis and the use of video materials for second language instruction, in that “video material can provide students with masses of comprehensible input (notably images and noises) at the same time as they provide lots of extra-linguistic cues to help them understand the linguistic meaning of the message (intonation, rhythm, gestures, movements and the like)” (Díaz Cintas 2008, p. 203). Additionally, as students are familiar with authentic video material outside of the classroom, they generally feel comfortable using this type of resource. Tasks based on authentic videos can be highly motivating for learners, the input provided by authentic video material seems to generate a high level of comfort in students, who subsequently show an increased confidence in producing the output (Weyers, 1999). In this respect, it is important to mention another hypothesis formulated by Stephen Krashen (1982) that concerns what he calls affective filter. The filter refers to the levels of anxiety, stress, motivation and self-confidence that a particular task or learning situation can produce in a student. A task or a situation that generates stress in students (higher affective filter) is more likely to have a negative impact on their performance, and will be of little learning value to them. Conversely, students who feel confident in carrying out a certain task that produces a lower level of anxiety (lower affective filter), normally succeed in their performance and therefore are more likely to acquire the language. In this context, video materials can be exploited to create highly motivational tasks which lower students’ affective filter.

Learners with a low affective filter: high motivation, self-confidence, a good image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in SLA learners with a high affective filter: low self-esteem and a high level of anxiety form a mental block when the filter is high, it blocks language acquisition. The low affective filter is desirable. (Krashen 1982, p. 10)

In one of his works, Krashen affirms that the input is more likely to be received as intake when it is interesting and relevant to the learner (Weyers, 1999). Authenticity is a crucial feature of video material used in language learning, as the material provided presents situations and conversation, as they are likely to occur in real life; such a characteristic can encourage students to engage in watching and manipulating videos that not only reproduce everyday speech but also contain interesting, meaningful and valuable information. If conveniently exploited by teachers, video materials have the
power to lower the affective filter and thus make the class more enjoyable for students and of greater learning value.

2.3.2 Paivio’s Dual Coding Theory

Unfortunately, not all the contextualised, unstructured native speech provided by authentic video material is always picked up by students. On the one hand it is true that some paralinguistic cues present in video material (such as body language, gestures, intonation, facial expression etc.) can aid comprehension when the linguistic element is not known to viewers; on the other hand, it must be acknowledged that much of the spoken target discourse presented in videos is lost to the learner (Baltova, 1994). As she points out, this is due to a number of different reasons such as speech rate, unfamiliar vocabulary, slower processing skills and difficulty in parsing speech into different words. Accordingly, exposure to authentic video materials in the target language does not necessarily entail a valuable learning experience, since the input, though comprehensible, might not be accessible for learning. Certainly, video material should be selected following the above-mentioned input hypothesis (§2.3.1), according to which people “acquire by understanding language which contains a structure a bit beyond our current level of competence \((i+1)\). This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information” (Krashen 1982, p. 21). The \(i\) represents the current level of L2 competence of learners who are exposed to \(I\) input, which is at a somewhat higher level than what they can fully understand. However, in order to overcome the limitations of video alone, the input can be made more accessible to learners through the use of captions and subtitles which can increase the pedagogical effectiveness of the visual medium. According to the Dual-Coding Theory formulated by Paivio (1971), the association of the written word to a visual element improves the retention and the memorisation of the language. As Paivio and Lambert put it:

Dual Coding Theory (e.g. Paivio 1971, 1975) is based on the assumption that memory and cognition are served by two separate symbolic systems, one specialized for dealing with verbal information and the other with nonverbal information. The two systems are presumed to be interconnected but capable of functioning independently. Interconnectedness means that representations in one system can activate those in the other, so that, for example, pictures can be named, and images can occur to words. Independence implies, among other things, that nonverbal (imaginal) and verbal memory codes, aroused directly by pictures and words or indirectly by imagery and verbal encoding tasks, should have additive effects on recall (Paivio & Lambert 1981, p. 532).
Paivio’s Dual Coding Theory suggests that video materials should help the viewers in recalling words that appear on the screen and further research supports the idea that visual stimuli foster students’ comprehension of the message of the video. This theory suggests that verbal and non-verbal processing have equal weight and that presenting information in both visual and verbal form enhances recall and recognition of target language elements.

2.3.3 Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis

The Noticing Hypothesis originates from the observation that exposure to comprehensible input alone was not sufficient in order for learners to acquire language; in fact, Schmidt (1990) postulated that input can only become intake for language learning when it is noticed, that is, consciously registered. According to Schmidt (2010), noticing represents a precondition for language acquisition:

For SLA, the allocation of attention is the pivotal point at which learner external factors (including the complexity and distributional characteristics of input, the discoursal and interactional context, instructional treatment, and task characteristics) and learner internal factors (including motivation, aptitude, learning styles and strategies, current L2 knowledge and processing ability) come together. What happens then within attentional space largely determines the course of language development, including the growth of knowledge (establishment of new representations) and the development of fluency (access to those representations) (Schmidt 2010, p. 731).

Research in language acquisition has highlighted the value of noticing in relation to the target language and in the perception of translation practice. Laufer and Girsai (2008) saw in translation an asset to L2 vocabulary teaching due to the cross-linguistic nature of this type of instruction, which entails comparisons between the source text language and the language of translation:

One way to make a foreign language feature noticeable or salient in the input is to enhance it by providing contrastive association with the corresponding L1 item (Laufer & Girsai 2008, p. 697).

In the studies described in this thesis, a crucial step in the subtitling process is the translation of the dialogue transcript into the students’ L1; once the translation is completed, students could move on to add subtitles to the video. These two steps double the possibility for learners to notice L2 words by contrastively analysing the dialogue with their L1 and are likely to reduce the amount of words that can often go unnoticed (usually non-salient or infrequent words).
2.3.4 Mayer’s Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

Partially drawing on some of Paivio’s key concepts, in 2009 Mayer formulated another cognitive theory that upholds the use of subtitles as an instructional tool, called Multimedia Learning Theory. The principle known as the ‘multimedia principle’ states that ‘people learn more deeply from words and pictures than from words alone’ (Mayer, 2009). His theory of multimedia learning introduces the idea that the brain does not process a multimedia presentation of words, pictures, and auditory information in a mutually exclusive fashion; rather, these elements are selected and organised dynamically to produce logical mental constructs. From Mayer’s theory it emerges that providing coherent, verbal, visual information and guiding learners to select relevant words and images can contribute to reduce the load for a single processing channel and therefore enhance the learning process. Mayer’s theory stems from the assumption that the visual and verbal channels alone are sufficient to only support a limited amount of cognitive processing and relying only on two channels entails the risk of cognitive overload. In consideration of this, subtitling can enhance the learning process due to the presence of written text and picture; in fact, availing of both video and dialogue transcript facilitates information processing.

2.4 Subtitles and language learning

One of the main reasons that legitimises the use of AVT modes in the FL classroom is that they cater for a variety of tasks and create an enjoyable learning environment. In fact, according to the previously mentioned Dual-Coding Theory (§2.3.2), the association of the written word with a visual element improves the retention and the memorisation of the foreign language. There is a remarkable number of studies that account for the benefits of introducing subtitled material as a didactic tool. Many researchers have carried out empirical studies which test the effect of different types of subtitles upon different language skills, chiefly listening comprehension, written production, syntax and prosodic features such as intonation and pronunciation.

It is important to distinguish between three different types of subtitles:

- Standard or interlingual: the audio is in the L2 and the subtitles are in the L1.
- Bimodal or intralingual: both audio and subtitles are delivered in the L2.
- Reversed: the audio is in L1 and the subtitles are in L2.
On the one hand, intralingual subtitles have been largely promoted as a didactic tool at advanced language levels (Vanderplank, 1988; Borrás&Lafayette, 1994; Caimi, 2006); several studies seem to indicate that foreign language learners with a post-beginner level of L2 fluency can use intralingual subtitles to improve pronunciation, word recognition, and listening skills (Vanderplank, 1988; Garza, 1991; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Baltova, 1994, 1999; Markham, 1999); on the other hand the number of studies on interlingual and reversed subtitles is comparatively smaller. Caimi (2006) conducted a study at the University of Pavia, where a group of students first watched an English movie without subtitles, followed by oral and written tasks to test their general comprehension of the movie. Subsequently, they worked with handouts containing lexical, structural and idiomatic expressions taken from the film dialogues, with the aim of codifying the received information into long-term memory. Therefore, after watching the movie with intralingual subtitles, they would be able to associate the input received from the movie with what is already in their memory to make the information meaningful. Caimi’s methodology is helpful to learners as she argues that when learning a foreign language through subtitles, it is advisable to create pre-tasks in the form of handouts that provide students with key words and specific linguistic structures shown in the subtitles. In so doing, students can focus on certain aspects of the language that they might not grasp by only watching the movie. A post-task can also be administered with the aim of comparing the subtitles to the soundtrack and point out changes, omissions etc; this can be a useful practice for learners who are therefore encouraged to pay closer attention to the text, thus promoting linguistic awareness and skills related to textual analysis (both visual and audio texts). When selecting subtitles types (interlingual, intralingual or reverse) as a teaching tool, instructors must take into account students’ levels of language. As previous research has shown (Vandeplank, 1988; Guillory, 1998), the information delivered by a certain type of subtitled material may not be accessible to all students, as they might not have the linguistic abilities necessary to acquire the input provided. One of the findings of Vanderplank’s study (1988) suggests that, for instance, intralingual subtitles benefit learners with higher level of language proficiency rather than beginners and lower intermediate students. Guillory (1998) tested 202 American students of French as a foreign language and found that captions do not support learners’ comprehension when the video features a fast speech rate and when they are not familiar with most of the vocabulary used in it. Besides supporting Krashen’s hypothesis of comprehensible
input, these findings suggest that instructors need to carefully match learners’ competency level and the linguistic difficulty of the audiovisual material. Another factor to take into account is the length of the exposure. Exposure to subtitled material has proven to be more effective when long-term; research carried out by d’Ydewalle & Pavakanun (1997) shows that when exposure to subtitled material is carried out on a short-term basis, there is no evidence of improvement by students on L2 syntax acquisition. In another study, Perego and Ghia (2011), note that when the exposure time is prolonged, the acquisition of L2 syntax increases. Markham, et al. (2001) conducted a study on 169 intermediate university-level students of Spanish as a foreign language; the students were then divided into three groups and distributed across three treatment conditions, while watching a 7-minute Spanish language video with either English captions, Spanish captions, no captions. Their findings report that students’ comprehension was hindered by the absence of captions and that the group that accomplished the best performance was the one under the English caption treatment.

Based on this research it seems reasonable to suggest that a developmental progression is possible and that, given particularly challenging video material, captions in the L1 help students’ comprehension. At a higher level of proficiency, students’ improved language skills would allow them to understand difficult video material with the aid of interlingual subtitles and finally they are able to view and comprehend challenging videos without the aid of subtitles. Hence another innovative aspect of my research is the progressive feature of the work, which gradually shifts from the use of one type of subtitles to another, in order to suit students’ linguistic comprehension skills and ensure that they are able to derive the greatest benefits from subtitled material. Researchers have explored the benefits of interlingual and intralingual subtitles but, as far as I can ascertain, nobody has investigated their relationship in terms of long-term exposure to captioned material, regardless of the language in use. Hitherto, the major focus of research on subtitles as a pedagogical tool has been on the memorisation process, which leads to the acquisition and the retention of new vocabulary (Garza, 1991; Baltova, 1999; Lertola 2012; Gambier et al, 2015). In an experiment carried out in 1991, Garza observed that captions can bridge the gap between reading and listening comprehension skills, the latter usually developing at a later stage than the former. He chose to adopt authentic material that he defines as “originally produced in a given language for a native-speaking audience of that language, and not for learners of it as a foreign language” (Garza 1991, p. 241). He also reports that this is the kind of
language that advanced learners often cite as the most desirable and yet most difficult to comprehend (Garza, 1999). Research has proved that subtitles as instructional tools are certainly beneficial to the enhancement of three of the four communicative skills: listening, reading and writing. However, the fourth skill, that is, speaking, seems to have been neglected. In 1994, Borrás & Lafayette conducted a study, which aimed to test the use of subtitles to improve the speaking performance; specifically, this study investigated the use of subtitling during translational task practice with multimedia courseware on oral communicative performance. In order to evaluate oral production achievements, they adopted four criteria, namely, Effectiveness, Accuracy, Organization, and Fluency. These criteria were designed around different models: Bartz’s (1979) Amount of Communication and Accuracy scales were used to design the Effectiveness and Accuracy measures; O’Malley et al.’s (1985) speech organisation criteria constituted the base for the Organization scale; Emmet’s Fluency scale was adapted to create the fluency measure. This approach to oral communicative evaluation guarantees a thorough and accurate assessment of the communicative performance, both on a global level (through the effectiveness measurement), and on a component level, where grammatical and discourse competences are evaluated respectively through the accuracy and the fluency measurements. The findings of this experiment suggest that intralingual subtitles have potential value in helping the learner not only to better comprehend authentic linguistic input, but also to produce comprehensible communicative output (Borrás and Lafayette, 1994). Between 2003 and 2008, Araújo conducted a descriptive and semi-experimental study on the educational use of subtitled films in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teaching. Two experimental and two control groups were involved in the trial and each group was exposed to, respectively, subtitled and unsubtitled video material. Araújo opted for the use of interlingual subtitles for beginners and intralingual subtitles for intermediate/advanced students; her choice was based on the concern that students would reject the use of subtitles if they could not cope with them at the beginning of their learning. Students were administered pre- and post-tests to evaluate their oral proficiency; these tests aimed to analyse listening comprehension and speaking skills. The overall aim of the study was to compare performances between the four groups and to analyse the effectiveness of subtitles in an EFL setting. With regard to the speaking test, oral proficiency was measured according to two parameters: pronunciation and fluency. Pronunciation was assessed through Grant’s pronunciation
proficiency continuum with a scale that ranged from 1 to 6, where 1 means *minimal pronunciation* proficiency and 6 *barely detectable accent*. In order to assess fluency, Araújo adopted the model proposed by Kormos and Dénes (2004) that distinguishes between two definitions of fluency: “one which considers fluency as a temporal phenomenon and one that regards it as a spoken language competence […]” (Kormos & Dénes 2004, p. 146). The quantitative analysis of fluency draws on Gomes’ proposal by using temporal criteria to measure fluency in areas such as speech rate (number of syllables articulated per minute), rhythm (number of syllables stressed per minute) and lexical density (number of different words pronounced divided by the number of words uttered in a certain speech sample). The results of the qualitative analysis are inconclusive due to the fact that new students with low oral proficiency joined the experimental group; however, the results of the quantitative analysis show an increase of each parameter in the experimental group. However, I believe there are some flaws in both Borrás & Lafayette’s and Araújo’s studies; the former was conducted on a small group of subjects, in a limited period of time and with practice tasks (description and narration) that did not involve the spontaneous use of any pragmatic or cultural instance conveyed by the L2. The latter had a very wide range of subjects, ranging from 16 to 50 years old and originating from different backgrounds; furthermore, all of the second semester students quit the course in the second semester, and only 6 of those who began the third semester finished it.

Frumuselu et al., (2015) investigated the potential of subtitles to bridge the gap between teaching and learning informal language. They compared the effects of intralingual and interlingual subtitles upon film comprehension and informal and colloquial language learning. A sample of 40 university students whose level of English as a Foreign Language ranges between A2 and C1 was randomly divided into two groups. The majority (90%) were Catalan and Spanish speakers, while the remaining 10% had different mother tongues, such as German, Russian, Romanian, Dutch, Moldavian, but they reported being fully integrated into the Catalan/Spanish educational system and fluent speakers of both Catalan and Spanish. Each group was assigned a different treatment, the variable being the type of subtitles (interlingual or intralingual). The students were required to watch 13 episodes of the TV series *Friends* over a period of 7 weeks; every week the participants watched in the classroom 2 episodes of 25 minutes each. Assessments consisted of multiple-choice and open
questions. The results indicate when it comes to lexical learning, students benefit more from the intralingual condition than from the interlingual one. Despite the fact that it shares the limitations above mentioned about Borrás & Lafayette’s and Araújo’s studies, this study provides some crucial guidelines for my research. Firstly, the two theoretical premises that underpin their study are also at the very core of my own project and they are respectively:

1. Video material facilitates the improving of FL skills.
2. Intralingual and interlingual subtitles foster incidental vocabulary acquisition and further proficiency in the foreign or second language.

Secondly, the selection of video material that is as much authentic as possible is crucial to the present research. As stated by the authors themselves:

The sitcom Friends was chosen as a didactic material due to its rich informal and lexical content and because it discloses authentic cultural aspects of an English-speaking country. It also presents communicative, real-life situations, which are highly relevant for the age of our participants (Frumuselu et al. 2015, p. 112).

As it will be outlined in the following chapter that illustrates the methodology adopted in my research, the choice of such video material is of utmost importance as far as the evaluation of an improvement in colloquial/informal language is concerned. Whilst film language cannot be regarded in the same way as natural conversation, many and various works prove that television and spontaneous speech have far more in common than might be expected. As Quaglio (2009) asserts “television dialogue should sound natural; otherwise, viewer identification with the show characters can be negatively impacted, thus, potentially affecting the success of the show” (Quaglio 2009, p. 13).

Last but not least, it is worth mentioning that this study focuses specifically on certain features of the language studied, specifically, informal and colloquial language. After reviewing the current teaching of idioms in Portugal, Bravo (2008), rightly calls for a revision and consequent upgrading of teaching approaches and methods, which should focus more on the communicative competence. She underscores a discrepancy between the way knowledge of idioms is tested and what is taught in the classroom. I believe that her claim is valid for Italian too, especially in view of Liontas’ (2002) findings on students’ perception of idioms and informal language. He investigated students’ self-awareness towards their knowledge of idioms both at a teaching and learning level. The findings of his study point towards a lack of instruction in relation to idioms in the foreign language classroom; not only did the majority of students
assert that they had not been taught idioms in the classroom, but also, they highlighted
the importance of such language features that they perceive as a significant part of
natural communication and a tool to increase conversational fluency. As the present
research addresses learners’ communicative skills, the analyses and methodologies
described in the aforementioned studies are of great interest to the studies described in
the next chapter. On the one hand, exposure to subtitled material has proven beneficial
to vocabulary learning, word recognition and retention; on the other, to the best of my
knowledge, there are no studies that have investigated the communicative value of the
acquired vocabulary and how the linguistic input given by subtitles can be turned into
an informative output in an adequate context. Vanderplank (1998) reports that the
participants in his study “picked up a great deal of language that they would use at
some time later” (Vanderplank 1998, p. 275); one of the objectives of my research is
to observe whether subtitles integrated with AVT tasks can enable students to turn the
acquired linguistic elements into communicative instances within structured discourse.

Since this project intends to reach beyond mere exposure to authentic videos
(Baltova, 1994; Weyers, 1991) and subtitled video material (Vanderplank, 1988;
Borrás and Lafayette, 1994; Araújo 2008), the next paragraph will present the most
recent findings from studies that investigated the potential of subtitling tasks in the
foreign language classroom.

2.4.1 Subtitling as an active task

Research shows that subtitles can be a powerful didactic resource as they promote task-
based learning and it fosters both independent and collaborative learning. Subtitling as
an active task is a fairly recent area of investigation, however, relevant research has
been carried out in the last decade to prove the efficacy of this AVT mode in the
language classroom.

Nevertheless, the use of subtitling as an active task has been explored by a relatively
limited number of scholars, compared to the studies on exposure to subtitled videos.
Williams and Thorne (2000), were amongst the first scholars to put forward a more
hands-on approach to FL learning by means of interlingual subtitling:

Even for students who have no desire to work in the media, the combination of aural,
visual and written elements required in order to subtitle competently makes it [training
in interlingual subtitling] unique as a language-learning tool. [...] more practically
based and vocationally orientated courses, similar to subtitling, would be of benefit to
language undergraduates and would contribute to increase motivation in second language acquisition (Williams & Thorne 2000, p. 217).

The two researchers have set up a training programme in interlingual subtitling (Welsh-English) at the University of Wales in 1990, proving to be far ahead of many other institutions. In their work, they emphasise the very many skills learners need to acquire to carry out interlingual subtitling activities. Below are listed those considered most relevant:

1. Listening skills, as understanding video content in a foreign language is far more challenging than in one’s mother tongue (Vanderplank 1997). Furthermore, having to analyse dialogues to then translate them and reduce them requires a full comprehension of the oral input.

2. Reading/viewing skills, which allow the connection between language and visual input (i.e. proxemics, kinesics, setting etc.), whose interaction gives rise to the overall meaning. In this way, learners can observe the interaction of different communicative layers at work and understand ‘that communication in another language is considerably more than merely stringing together a series of words’ (Williams & Thorne 2000, p. 220).

3. Translation skills, such as ensuring that the language of the target video is lexically and pragmatically accurate as well as the coherent with the visual information displayed.

4. Editing skills in order to select and reorganise linguistic input while preserving the original message.

5. Writing skills, allowing a smooth passage from oral to written communication and a suitable choice of register according to the style of the video material. The language used should read naturally and syntactic units should be organised through splitting and punctuation.

6. Reviewing skills and ability to discuss and motivate the choices made. This will induce students to reflect upon their translational behaviour and be critical about their speaking, writing, proofreading skills.
However, there are limitations concerning this study. Firstly, due to the limited number of participants (N=40) and to their profile (higher education students studying a BA in English Studies) it is not possible to draw definite conclusions. The delayed tests have been carried out after the treatment, which could have strengthened their findings and offer a broader perspective on the topic.

The first monograph including a section on the didactic applications of subtitling, was edited in 2011 and it features much of the up-to-date studies in the field. In the same year, Sokoli, Zabalbeascoa, Fountana, presented and evaluated the LeViS (Learning Via Subtitling) project, whose general aim was to develop educational material and tools for active foreign language learning based on video subtitling. The LvS software in use for this project, was the only software developed up to then to use subtitling as a pedagogical tool. The evaluation showed that LvS was positively perceived by the users as a reliable and user-friendly tool, as well as adequate for the purpose for which it was designed. Sokoli et al. (2011) assert that “the idea of asking language learners to add or modify subtitles on a video emerged with the view to enlarge the range of exploitable activities” (Sokoli et al. 2011, p. 220).

In the same year, Talaván (2011), investigated the benefits that the creation of interlingual subtitles has on EFL students. One of the most relevant findings of her study shows that this practice can be a valuable resource for the enhancement of listening comprehension skills within communicative, task-based context (Talaván 2015). Finally, Lertola’s experiment proved the effectiveness of subtitling as a resource for incidental vocabulary acquisition (Lertola, 2012).

With respect to the investigation of students’ perception and attitude towards the subtitling activity, Incalcaterra McLoughlin and Lertola’s (2014) and Talaván and Rodríguez-Arancón’s (2014) studies offer valuable insights into the feedback learners provided to different subtitling task. The first study presents findings from a questionnaire administered to 40 undergraduate students of Italian as a foreign language who undertook a subtitling module in four different academic years. The analysis reveals that the vast majority of students (91%) enjoyed the subtitling task and were satisfied with the finished product (their subtitled video). When asked to evaluate their performance in terms of L2 skills improvement, translating (93%) was rated as the most enhanced skill, followed by listening (85%), reading (65%) and writing skills (65%). Only 22% perceived an improvement in their oral skills, which
is probably due to the fact that the subtitling task did not specifically involve speaking practice. In the same year, Talaván and Rodríguez-Arancón (2014) explored the effects of standard interlingual subtitling on L2 listening comprehension skills in C1-level students of English as a foreign language. Findings from the final questionnaire revealed that almost all learners felt their listening skills had greatly improved through the subtitling task. In addition, most students perceived an improvement also in their L1 writing skills.

2.5 Dubbing activities in the FL classroom

Dubbing is a post-production process in which a pre-recorded dialogue in the target language replaces the original soundtrack of an audiovisual product. The line of research that investigates the didactic potential of dubbing is relatively new compared to that concerned with the use of subtitling in the foreign language classroom. In fact, while the volume of research on the latter AVT mode seems to be more conspicuous to date, there is a fast-growing interest in the pedagogical use of revoicing practices and dubbing in particular. In fact, dubbing can have great didactic potential when used as an active resource in the FL classroom. It can be exploited in different ways in order to create task-based activities and it has the potential to enhance all four communicative skills. As far as oral comprehension is concerned, students can improve their skills by listening to the original audio tracks, their classmates’ recordings; reading comprehension can be enhanced inasmuch as students are provided with the original script of the video clip they work with. Students can write a translation of the script, which is used for the recording; in so doing, they would have to take into account the need for lip-synchronisation, which impels them to pay close attention to writing features such as style, cohesion, register and so on. Finally, and most importantly for my research, dubbing can provide students with a number of tasks involving the oral dimension of a video clip, so that they are allowed an opportunity to improve their speaking skills by working with authentic video material. In order to produce a dubbed version of a video clip, students will have to record their voices trying to sound as spontaneous as possible; they will work mainly on pronunciation and fluency, trying to imitate the natural, flowing communication of native speakers in the original version.
The number of studies on the pedagogical potential of this AVT practice is quite limited compared to aforementioned studies on subtitling tasks as didactic tools. In the eighties and nineties, Duff (1989) and Zohrevandi’s (1994) ground-breaking proposals sparked an interest in the use of dubbing as a teaching tool to improve students’ oral production; since then, a number of methodological proposals and empirical studies contributed to shed light on the didactic potential of this AVT mode. In addition, after using dubbing as a didactic tool for three years, Kumai (1996) reports that this activity helps students to improve their pronunciation, intonation, and speed by reproducing native speakers’ utterances as they appear in the movies. González Davies (2004) formulates a proposal to carry out dubbing tasks in the foreign language classroom, which is composed of the following three stages:

1. Students are given the dialogue transcript from a film and asked to translate it.
2. They compare their translations with those of their peers.
3. They listen to the official dubbed version in the target language and compare their versions to the professional translation in order to discuss and justify their own choices (González Davies 2004, p. 181).

A year later, Burston (2005) compiled a more detailed methodological proposal on how to successfully integrate dubbing tasks in the FL classroom. He recommends that a video dubbing project should unfold through several steps as follows:

- Video selection
- Scene cropping and muting
- Initial class presentation of the target video
- Group listening comprehension activities
- Individual practice
- Group rehearsal
- Soundtrack dubbing

He presents two different scenarios on the use of dubbing tasks for students at different levels: the first is a good starting point for beginners and consists in substituting students' voices for an existing soundtrack; the preparation of the soundtracks affords substantial listening and reading comprehension activities as well as abundant pronunciation practice. The second, more suited for advanced students, would require them to take a muted video and create their own storyline and accompanying script
from scratch; by matching a dialogue to a scenario, students not only use the lexicon and grammar learnt, but even more so they supplement what they have learnt with new vocabulary and grammatical structures appropriate to the context. To the extent that accurate lip sync is involved, audio track dubbing requires students to pay particular attention to timing, which fosters more native-like speech delivery. Finally, Burston suggests that the finished product of video manipulation can not only be shown in class, but also be put up on a course website for all to see; the greater the audience, the greater the stimulus to put on a good performance. In relation to the characteristics of the video clips to be chosen for dubbing tasks, Talaván and Costal (2017) recommend that the duration of a video should be between one and two minutes. Furthermore, unlike González Davies’s proposal (2004) whose focus is on the translation task, according to Talaván and Costal (2017), a dubbing task should require actual recording. The same idea is shared by Bilbrough (2007) who advocates the use of dubbing to practice spoken interaction in the FL classroom. According to his proposal, learners are provided with the dialogue transcript of a selected excerpt from a movie or a soap opera and required to dub the lines onto the muted video clip. Subsequently, their dubbed versions of the video clip can be shown to the rest of the class, followed by a viewing of the original video. According to Bilbrough (2007) the dubbing task can be carried out into three different ways as follows:

1. After playing the video in the classroom, students are asked to write the script as they can remember it and, subsequently, to dub their lines on the muted video. At the end of the task, students are encouraged to compare their version with the original version.

2. Before watching the original video, students are given the original dialogue transcript translated into their L1 by the teacher; they are then required to translate it into back into L2 and dub their lines onto the original video.

3. Students are shown a scene from a video clip in their L1 and asked to write an L2 dialogue to be dubbed onto the video.

In the complementary study 2 described in Chapter 3 (§3.3.2) a variation of the first point is employed, whereby students were required to first subtitle an excerpt from a movie and after a two-week break where they did not see the video, to dub it by rewriting the script. While Bilbrough’s intent was that of fostering learners’ listening and writing skills, it must be clarified to them at the beginning of the session that the
task does not represent a memory exercise, but, as explained in the complementary study 2 (§3.3.2), an opportunity to recreate their dialogue by putting into practice their L2 skills.

Consistent with Burston’s proposed model, experimental studies have been carried out recently on the didactic applications of dubbing. Danan conducted an extensive study between 2007 and 2010, where US soldiers dubbed American films and TV series into Dari, Farsi and Pashto. The findings of this study show that the translation of the original script helped the learners to acquire new vocabulary; the rehearsal of the translated text for the dubbed video fostered oral communication, in particular, learners put effort into delivering the speech as fluently as possible and with accurate pronunciation. Generally dubbing was perceived as an engaging and entertaining activity, which encouraged creativity and initiative among participants. The improvement of pronunciation through dubbing projects is further investigated by Chiu (2012). His study concluded that synchronous dubbing presentation was effective (in line with Danan's findings) and learners also felt highly motivated. The qualitative findings imply that video dubbing projects can effectively help students to improve pronunciation and intonation in several ways:

− Film dubbing helps learners to reduce mispronunciation, as they focus more on the correct pronunciation of words and phrases.
− Learners had to rehearse the translated text several times before dubbing the video; repeated practice has been reported to be beneficial to students’ fluency.
− The very process of dubbing helps learners to raise awareness of intonation; participants reported that one of the most difficult parts was to express emotions.
− Learners linked the pronunciation textbooks with the actual use.
− Many participants expressed the wish of having a native accent. Working on film dubbing projects can help them meet their expectations, since they work with authentic video material which offers native-like communicative situations. (Chiu 2012, pp. 25-26)

Research suggests that dubbing projects are a rich source of activities in all language skills areas (speaking, writing, reading and listening) and such activities can foster advanced grammar and vocabulary acquisition (Burston, 2005). They also foster both
collaborative (students usually work in groups to produce a dubbed video clip) and independent (much of the work can be done outside of the classroom as the software needed, such as MovieMaker, is usually available for free and very user-friendly) learning and lower the affective filter, since working with videos is less intimidating even for very shy students.

Both Danan’s and Chiu’s findings show the effectiveness of dubbing as a didactic tool insomuch as they contribute to improve learners’ pronunciation, intonation and general fluency. However, further research is needed to investigate also the benefits of dubbing tasks in the development of oral competences, such as the improvement of the communicative use of certain phrases, locutions, pragmatic structures and so on. In the studies described in Chapter 3, the revoicing task intends to give students the chance to practice the L2 by imitating the work of voice actors. During the course developed for these research studies, students have the opportunity to observe instances of L2 used in a real-life like context and notice pragmatic phenomena as they occur in social interaction. I believe that the potential of dubbing can be further exploited in that the videos chosen, provide a context-rich scaffolding for analysing authentic discourse. Students were encouraged to analyse the whole video by carrying out a multimodal analysis, but the focus was on the linguistic element; in so doing they were urged to reflect on aspects such as the use of colloquial/informal language, register, intonation, use of dialects and slang, while simultaneously considering other elements of the video such as setting, interaction between the characters and so on. Students completed the multimodal analysis before beginning the subtitling and revoicing task and it is hoped that this would increase their chances to retain language, since it involved delving into the L2 text first and then contrastively analysing it through translation and subtitling. The integration of multimodal analysis with subtitling and revoicing tasks provided opportunities for pragmatic learning that will be described in the next chapter as part of the preliminary studies that led to the main experiment.

2.6 AVT and pragmatic learning

Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics as “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other
participants in the act of communication” (Crystal 1997, p. 301). According to Kasper & Rose (2002) pragmatics “is not only concerned with performing speech acts but it also requires learners to engage in different types of discourse and participate in speech events of varying lengths and varieties” (Kasper & Rose 2002, p. 2). On the other hand, the term interlanguage pragmatics refers to a learner’s use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability. As explained in Chapter 1 (§1.5.1), pragmatic competence is inscribed in the broader category of communicative competence and indicates learners’ ability to use the L2 appropriately according to the context. However, it must be acknowledged that foreign language learners may have little access to target-language input outside the classroom and even less opportunity for productive FL use. As previously discussed in this chapter, AV material offers accurate and contextualised pragmatic input as well as natural conversational models representing a use of language which is as close as possible to the real use that occurs in a spontaneous conversation among native speakers. Although movies and TV series adapt spontaneous conversation to cinematographic needs, from an academic perspective, the language they employ is nonetheless an acceptable emulation of spontaneous speech. As already mentioned, one of the reasons behind the efficacy of AV input in enhancing the receptive language skills, lies in the fact that the information is presented on three different levels (visual, oral and written) and that the processing of such information is aided by the synergies created in the interaction of these three levels. Martínez-Flor (2008) maintain that audiovisual material represents a valid didactic resource insofar as it exposes learners to authentic examples of appropriate pragmatic input in a variety of contexts. Thanks to AV input, students are provided with realistic contextualised examples of how verbal communication occurs among native speakers, witnessing a variety of situations – spontaneous conversations, interviews, monologues – and genres – documentaries, TV series, and movies. TV dialogue is a versatile teaching tool in as much as the ‘oralised’ speech of the screenplays represents a realistic imitation of contemporary every-day language, but without all the complexities of real oral discourse that can be an obstacle to foreign language learners. Content wise, TV series represent a valuable source of stories from which the teacher can select video clips and tailor them to the tastes and linguistic levels of the students, or even showing whole episodes. Nuzzo’s (2016) comparative study between video material (specifically TV series) and textbooks shows how the latter are now an often-inadequate source of pragmatic input for the foreign language students. She analyses
the rendering of two speech acts, i.e. thanking and complimenting, in film dialogue and textbooks and concludes that the film dialogue presented in TV series offers a wider range of contexts, communicative situations and social variables, as well as linguistic realisations. Thus, it seems that AV material helps to gain an overall improved understanding of a text which otherwise might not be fully comprehended in all respects solely through mastery of grammatical structures and knowledge of vocabulary. Pragmatics and sociolinguistics awareness contribute to a large extent to achieving a full understanding of an audiovisual text, especially in relation to interactions between the characters at a social, personal and individual level. Although studies in AVT are rapidly expanding both at a professional and at an academic level, there is still a remarkable lack of investigation into the pragmatics of film language and its input in L2 teaching and learning. A study conducted by Desilla (2014) postulates a methodology to study the comprehension of implicatures in movies by British (source audience) and Greek (target audience) viewers. The results of her experiment indicate that source and target viewers did not always understand implicatures in the way the filmmakers would like them to, or the analyst had predicted. However, she points out that many of the participants’ responses clearly demonstrate that viewers (including members of a target audience) are active meaning-makers who draw inferences by creatively combining visual and acoustic information, as well as by linking what they perceive to previous experience. This is a call to abandon the approach that sees target viewers as mostly passive receivers who are either assumed to completely surrender to the story-telling machine and adopt the preferred (‘correct’) interpretation, or are automatically deemed to fail to make sense of the film dialogue because of the presence of impenetrable ECRs. The result of this active engagement is that they often manage to understand the filmmakers’ communicative intentions. Active involvement is also a motivational factor in the language learning process, as showed by the numerous studies reported in this chapter that highlight the benefits for L2 learners of AVT-based tasks. By working on the source text, listening repeatedly to the audio track, translating the script and subtitle, students are encouraged to reflect on the language, to note unfamiliar and unusual expressions and are guided by the instructor to acknowledge speech acts and pragmatic instances as they occur among native speakers of Italian. By translating these linguistic items they can relate them to their own language and culture; this sort of task makes students ponder over the L2 and it is more likely that new vocabulary expressions,
phrases etc. will stay with them. Unlike traditional role play tasks, this approach based on AVT is advantageous because students are given the opportunity to watch examples of conversation as they occur among native speakers and then to replicate them through active tasks such as re-voicing videos, role plays, re-interpreting scenes, dubbing, and so on. A study carried out by Incalcaterra McLoughlin (2009) aimed at investigating the development of pragmatic awareness in Irish university students of Italian as a foreign language. The 22 students who participated in the study had different levels of proficiency; 10 A1, 3 B1 (undergraduate) and 9 C1-C2 (postgraduate). The A1 students were equally divided into two groups and were given the same dialogue transcript to translate from Italian into English. One group was asked to translate the dialogue transcription without watching the video clip, after being briefed about its context; in the meantime, the other group was shown LvS software (Learning Via Subtitle) and required to watch the video and create subtitles using the transcript provided. Comparison of the two groups’ translations shows that the group using LvS attempted a less literal translation and demonstrated a certain degree of pragmatic awareness compared to the other group. At the end of the treatment, all students in both groups were recorded while answering some interview questions, and those from the subtitling group seemed to better recall lexical elements they had encountered in the AV dialogue and to use more correct syntax. Due to their small number, participants with B1 level worked as one group. First, they watched a video taken from an Italian movie and after being provided with its transcript, they were asked to translate it into English. Once the translation was completed, they were introduced to LvS software and asked to subtitle the video; shifting from translation to subtitles seemed to play an important role in raising students’ awareness of linguistic patterns that might have otherwise gone unnoticed. Also, when also the subtitling task was completed, students were asked to discuss the differences between their translation and subtitles. It emerged that subtitling seemed to have increased their awareness of pragmatic phenomena in the L2 text. In general, students at A1/B1 level attempted to find equivalences between the two verbal systems; furthermore, correspondences between the target language and the communicative act on the screen encouraged them to pay more attention to the input. Findings from the C1-C2 level group will be not be discussed since these students were training to become professional translators and interpreters, and the aim of the course was to improve translation skills rather than developing pragmatic awareness.
2.7 AVT practices to promote intercultural learning

Another interesting facet of the use of authentic video material in the FL classroom, is the relevance given to the cultural elements of the target language. Authors such as Pedersen (2005) and Zojer (2011), explored how cultural references are rendered in subtitles from a translational point of view. Both their papers offer an overview of approaches and strategies that are at the translator’s disposal when he/she engages with this mode of AVT. Although they show that subtitled video material can be rich in cultural elements, their work does not coincide with the scope of the present research, as the target audience of both articles is not FL students, but translators. However, it is worth mentioning these authors as they acknowledge that cultural references can come in many different disguises within an AV text, such as dialect, slang, allusions, and so on. The didactic use of AVT modes has been recently explored also in relation to intercultural learning; while investigating the effects of audio description tasks in language learning, Steyvers (2014/2015) interestingly observes students’ knowledge of the cultural stereotypes portrayed in the movie. 20 B1/B2 students at the University of Gent took part in the experiment for which they were required to audio describe two scenes from the movie Benvenuti al Sud (which will be used in one of the studies outlined in §3.3.2). The experiment lasted for a total of 4 hours consisting of 2 lessons of 2 hours each. During the first lesson, students were given an introduction to audio description and the rules to follow when audio describing. They were then divided into eight groups of two or three people and for the rest of the lesson each group carried out the audio description of a clip. In the second lesson, they exchanged scenes, so that each group had to correct and rewrite an audio description of the other scene. In the pre-test students were asked what they knew about cultural stereotypes between the North and South of Italy; in the post-test they were asked whether their point of view on North-South cultural stereotypes had changed after the treatment. Answers from the post-test seemed to indicate that students had deepened their cultural knowledge, since most of them reported having understood that in the North there are stereotypes about the South that often do not find correspondence in real life or at least are exaggerated. In fact, most students seemed to have understood the implicit message of the film and the intention of the filmmaker of playing on stereotypes purely for a comical purpose. Furthermore, questionnaires’ results showed that students reflected much on the language and they reported to have expanded their vocabulary. They also
reported to be happy to have worked with authentic video material which contains pragmatic and socio-cultural aspects of their second language; this helped lower the affective filter, which made the whole activity enjoyable and effective. Finally, Steyvers also reports that some students noted that cultural elements were not only conveyed through the language (dialects, accents, expressions in some dialogues) but also through the images (for example gestures, events, food, clothes); this observation suggests that multimodal features of the AV input are taken into account by students even when they are not salient. Explicitly asking students to observe and analyse the various components of a multimodal text can potentially enrich their L2 learning experience by developing their L2 pragmatic, sociolinguistic and intercultural skills, hence the idea of accompanying the AVT-based tasks with a multimodal analysis of the AV material used in the Main Study of this thesis project.

As far as subtitling as an active task is concerned, a study conducted by Borghetti and Lertola (2014) investigates the creation of subtitles in the FL classroom as an opportunity for the enhancement of cultural and intercultural awareness development. The participants were 14 undergraduate students of Italian as a foreign language at A2/B1 level whose age ranged from 18 to 35 years. The clip selected was a scene taken from the movie Tutta la vita davanti (Paolo Virzì, 2008) for a duration of 7 minutes. The clip was chosen as it features various features of Italian culture such as the Italian university system and a contemporary job-hunting experience in Italy. The subtitling module was divided into five stages as follows:

1. Motivation: the subtitling task was presented, and deadlines and objectives were set.
2. Global perception: all students watched the clip in the original language once. In order to facilitate comprehension, they were provided with the transcript in Italian.
3. Analysis: after more individual viewings of the video, students were divided into pairs and asked to answer a form that included nine questions concerning film genre, settings and characters. The aim of these questions was to encourage group discussion in an intercultural perspective, thus highlighting similarities and differences between the Italian cultural elements shown in the movie and the students’ native cultures. The form
also required students to identify their target audience before starting the subtitling task and to consider possible implications of their choice.

4. Synthesis: students translated and synchronised the spoken dialogue from Italian into English, using the software LvS (Learning via Subtitles).

5. Reflection: students worked in pairs to answer seven questions which required them to reflect on their translation choices considering the subtitling’s constraints.

All participants took part actively in the subtitling task throughout the five phases. Some of them not only noticed unknown vocabulary but also were able to link it to the target culture as in the example of the expression *sezione del liceo* and *summa cum laude*. The students shifted their focus from language to culture, when they asked the teacher what those expressions would mean in Ireland or England (and not in English). This experiment concludes that subtitling gives students an opportunity for independent cultural and intercultural awareness development. The findings show that on the one hand, the teacher plays a pivotal role in promoting such awareness by enhancing class interaction, but on the other, the subtitling process itself offers students an opportunity for independent learning. One of the major difficulties the authors encountered in this study was identifying whether cultural and intercultural awareness was actually promoted by the subtitling activity or by the translation in general. It is true, however, that time and space limitations typical of subtitling seemed to have stimulated the participants to reflect closely on the audiovisual text and on their responsibilities towards their intended audience. Borghetti and Lertola’s study proves that learners engage in the active process of translation which requires them to work closely on the text, with positive results for their comprehension of target cultural elements. This study can be a starting point for the development of new AVT tasks that get students actively involved in the process of recognition, comprehension and elaboration of cultural instances of the target culture. The methodology employed in the studies described in chapter 3, largely draws on the five-step model adopted by Borghetti and Lertola. Last but not least, the aforementioned studies highlight the importance of selecting material adequate to students’ L2 level of proficiency and at the same time contains cultural instances that enrich the language learning experience.
2.8 Combined AVT practices: an all-round AVT perspective in the foreign language classroom

To date subtitles and dubbing have been used as distinct and often mutually exclusive teaching tools; to the best of my knowledge there are very few studies to date that seek to shed light on another possible didactic implementation of productive AVT tasks in the FL classroom.

Talaván, Bárcena, and Villarroel (2014) explored the potential of the combination of reverse subtitling and reverse dubbing; their experimental study was conducted on UNED (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia) undergraduate students enrolled in two different degree programmes, that is, Tourism and English Studies (translation course) who were required to dub and subtitle a six-minute long tourism video from Spanish into English. Over the course of 10 weeks, 15 students collaborated on the online platform of UNED using the software Aegisub for subtitling and Audacity for recording the dubbing. The tasks comprised four stages, as follows:

1) Introduction to the tasks and the software;
2) Students from the translation course translated and subtitled the video assisted by tourism students who could help them with specialised vocabulary.
3) Tourism students translated and dubbed the videos with the help of translation students for what concerned the translation task.
4) A task-evaluation questionnaire was administered to all students.

Results obtained from observations and the evaluation questionnaire reveal that the students from the tourism degree paid particular attention to the linguistic and translation aspects of the task, thus improving their mediation competence, while the students of translation focussed on English for specific purposes language in order to properly subtitle and dub the tourism video from Spanish into English.

The following year, at the same university, Talaván, et al. (2015) conducted a study that aimed at observing learners’ improvement of speaking skills through reverse subtitling and dubbing. For three months, 71 participants were divided into an experimental group (46) and a control group (36 students), the former was required to dub and subtitle each clip, the latter simply continued in their English language course. The experimental group collaboratively dubbed and subtitled four two-minute-long
video clips selected from a Spanish movie. The analysis of the quantitative data collected, indicate that students in the experimental group improved their oral production.

In the same year, Talaván & Ávila-Cabrera (2015) published a study that offers further valuable insights into the combination of dubbing and reverse subtitling. Her experiment involved 40 EFL students from formal and informal instructional contexts, who worked collaboratively online in the dubbing and subsequent reverse subtitling of four video clips taken from the Spanish movie *Todo es mentira*. The aim of the experiment was to assess the effects of a didactic task based on the combination of dubbing and subtitling, on students’ oral and written skills as well as general translation competence. The participants were divided into two groups, the dependent variable being the AVT tasks, and were administered a pre-test and a questionnaire aimed at gathering information on their written and oral production skills. The experimental group carried out the dubbing and reverse subtitling of the four selected clips within a total of 8 weeks (2 weeks per each video), and after completing the final questionnaire and post-tests, they took part in a video conference where they exchanged impressions and provided feedback on the project. From the analysis of data, it emerged that the greatest advance took place in the cases where oral production and general translation skills were assessed, whereas written production improved to a lesser extent. Based on information from the final questionnaire, the authors suggest that the reason behind such an unexpected result probably lies in the motivational factor that characterises the dubbing activity, which students seemed to appreciate more than subtitling as a didactic resource. Not only does this study acknowledge the efficacy of this new didactic methodology on integrated skills and language development, but it also points to the versatility of such resource in relation to the focus of the activity. Interestingly, besides perceiving an improvement in the targeted competences – translation, oral and written production – 90% of participants also affirmed that the AVT tasks helped them develop their linguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural skills. While there are several studies that show how AVT can promote intercultural knowledge, the number of studies that deal with the improvement of sociolinguistic and cultural awareness is much more limited. By focusing mostly on vocabulary learning and on the improvement of the four language skills, it seems to
me that research in AVT and language learning lacks a specific focus on the enhancement of sociolinguistic and pragmatic skills.

In comparison with the large body of empirical studies covering subtitling and revoicing, the combination of these AVT practices to support second language learning has been under-investigated. This chapter began by illustrating how exposure to authentic video and subtitled material (mainly interlingual and intralingual subtitles) enhances all four communicative skills to different extents. Research on subtitling and dubbing as active tasks performed by students has only begun to develop in the last decade, however, there is an increasing number of studies that explore their potential as didactic tools. In fact, these AVT modes can be exploited in the foreign language classroom as practical activities, with high motivational impact on students who would work in a multimedia and familiar environment, carrying out a task that will lead to a tangible, visible result, that is, the AVT product. However, there seems to be a gap in the literature in relation to the use of multiple AVT modes in the FL classroom. Talaván’s pioneering work risks to remain an isolated attempt at investigating the advantages of employing two AVT modes as language learning tools. The present research intends to further explore the untapped potential of such a combination by employing both subtitling and revoicing tasks in the Italian language classroom. In a recent study, Lertola & Mariotti’s (2017) investigated the effects of combined reverse dubbing and subtitling on students’ development of pragmatic awareness. Although it does not involve the use of both AVT practices within the same course, their study is useful to the present research as its findings indicate the subtitling experimental group as the best performing in both post-immediate and post-delayed tests, followed by the dubbing experimental group. These results indicate that “these activities have potential and should be further explored” (Lertola & Mariotti 2017, p. 114) which is what the studies conducted within this research project attempt to do, by combining the two AVT practices to explore new ways of disclosing their potential in the FL classroom.

Chapter 3 will describe the studies carried out in the period of this doctoral research, which applied the notions and methods discussed in this and the previous chapter within the framework of pedagogical audiovisual translation. The exploratory and complementary studies (§3.2, §3.3.1 and §3.3.2) will be described as the fundamental stages that led to the accomplishment of the pilot and the main experimental study of this research project.
CHAPTER III – Exploratory and complementary studies

3.1 Introduction

As demonstrated by the literature concerning the use of AVT in language teaching, most studies have focused on the didactic advantages of exposure to subtitled material in terms of enhancement of listening and written comprehension, fluency and intonation; active subtitling and revoicing proved beneficial for the improvement of lexical and syntactical abilities as well as for the retention of idiomatic expressions. AVT material has the great advantage of conveying contextualised language input in a natural-like way and it is likely that this potential has not been fully exploited yet, since there seems to be a lack of studies on the incidental vocabulary learning that comes with a mix of exposure to and practice of AVT-based tasks. The first insights into incidental vocabulary acquisition through active subtitling were provided by Lertola (2013); however, her work concerns the acquisition of words as single units, and although the target words are always presented in context, their acquisition is tested also in isolation and when the context is present it is provided by the instructor in fill-the-gap exercises. Furthermore, except for Incalcaterra (2009) and Lertola’s studies (2013; 2015; 2017) most of the research on AVT and language learning is carried out in EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts where English is the target language. Therefore, this thesis intends to contribute by extending this field of research to other languages, in particular, to Italian.

This chapter presents the exploratory and complementary studies carried out as part of the present doctoral research prior to the pilot and main experimental study (§4.1 and §4.2). These shall be considered preliminary studies whose quantitative and qualitative findings contribute to fine-tune the structure of the pilot and Main Study; the methodology applied is upheld by previous empirical studies described in Chapter 2 and data is gathered through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and, in the case of the exploratory and the complementary study 2, language pre and post-tests. However, the results from the exploratory and complementary study 1 are not analysed statistically as they are only aimed at observing students’ response to the implementation of a course entirely based on AVT and thus to test its feasibility in the FL classroom, given the paucity of previous studies that use a combination of AVT practices.
The studies discussed hereunder describe in detail the work that was necessary to define a methodology for the main experiment and contributed to giving the envisaged module a coherent structure as well as an effective schedule for its implementation. In particular, the studies outlined in this chapter reflect the two levels on which the present research works, and the parallel investigations that took place during the second and third year of the current PhD. The exploratory study outlines the work done with B2/C1 students (final-year BA students), while the complementary studies examine the work done with A2/B1 students (second-year BA students). Given the difference in level of L2 proficiency, research questions and course structure differ between exploratory and complementary studies. In fact, while the exploratory study led to the pilot study and ultimately to the main experiment, the two complementary studies work towards addressing different research questions; however, all studies are intended to integrate the field of research that deals with AVT and language learning, in particular with vocabulary acquisition.

A scientific method was chosen for the present research since it enables the objective investigation of a phenomenon by gathering data (Kumar, 2002; Boccia, 2007; Cohen et al., 2007). Carefully considering each and every one of the stages of the following process proved fundamental in order to achieve the design of the Main Study:

− Observation
− Statement of the problem
− Literature review
− Formulation of hypotheses
− Identification and labelling of variables
− Research design
− Selection of testing tools
− Piloting of the experimental procedures, material and testing tools
− Identification of participants
− Data collection
− Data analysis
− Discussion in relation to the hypotheses formulate
− Interpretation of the final results

An initial non-experimental study sought to tap into the potential of the combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks as language learning tools that can provide students with opportunities to develop L2 pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. The
observation stage took place during this exploratory study carried out in 2016 where the gap was identified: a lack of investigation into the acquisition of multiword expressions and the testing of their appropriate and contextualised use. A thorough review of the literature showed that research on subtitling and revoicing is still scarce compared to that on exposure to subtitled material; furthermore, as previously mentioned, at the time there was only one study that explored the combination of two AVT modes (Talaván & Ávila-Cabrera, 2015), while other studies treated subtitling and revoicing as mutually exclusive by focusing on one or the other of these practices. The hypotheses were thus formulated for both studies (the main and the complementary) and the variable identified was the practice of the two AVT modes: subtitling and dubbing (as opposed to practising merely textual translation). A first complementary study (CS1) focused on subtitling as a potential tool to raise pragmatic awareness in the L2. A second complementary study (CS2) was carried out the following academic year to observe whether the combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks could yield vocabulary gains. Chapter 4 will describe the pilot study that resulted from the investigations carried out through the exploratory and complementary studies and that ultimately shaped the main study (§4.3). Since all studies were carried out at the National University of Ireland, Galway, it is important to acknowledge that within the department of Italian Studies, a two-semester module on subtitling was offered from 2008 to 2013 by Lertola as part of the Bachelor Degree of Arts (2BA) and Bachelor Degree of Commerce (2BC). However, from 2013 to 2016 this module ceased to be an option and students in the aforementioned courses no longer had the opportunity to practice AVT.

3.2 Exploratory study (2016/2017)

After conducting a literature review and identifying the gap, a teaching module of 12 weeks (corresponding to one semester) was devised and it was entirely based on AVT tasks, namely subtitling and revoicing. The reinforcing activities also consisted of practising revoicing since the ultimate aim of the course was to promote students’ oral proficiency. This exploratory study will be described in detail since it was fundamental to verify testing tools and AV input, and also in helping to identify the gap in the literature which the main experiment intends to fill. The goal of this study was to explore the effects of combined AVT modes on language acquisition, especially with regard to multiword expressions, and students’ ability to use the language acquired for
communicative purposes. Several studies show how AVT can be exploited in multiple ways in the FL classroom for different purposes. Subtitles can be used to foster vocabulary recognition and retention (Baltova, 1999; Caimi, 2006; Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2011; Vanderplank, 1998). Audio description can make students reflect on the language and learn new vocabulary (Steyvers, 2014-2015) and it promotes phraseological and lexical competences (Ibañez Moreno & Vermeulen, 2008). Dubbing has proved to be an effective didactic tool inasmuch as it provides students with an opportunity to speak and improve their intonation, pronunciation and general fluency (Burston, 2005; Chiu, 2012; Danan, 2010). Activities that involve the use of an AVT mode feature a strong motivational factor, since students perform practical tasks imitating the work of professionals in a comfortable learning situation. Referring to subtitling as an active task in the FL classroom, Tavalán (2013) points out the specific, tangible, visible and immediate results for the learner. She also stresses the importance of this didactic tool since it is very comprehensive, combining the benefits of various pedagogical resources. As previously discussed, one of the main factors that supports the use of AVT mode in the FL classroom is the presence of authentic video material; many studies on the use of subtitles, audio description and dubbing in the FL classroom show that at the end of the experiments, students reported that they were happy to work with video material and felt motivated (Chiu, 2012; Danan, 2010, Steyvers, 2015).

3.2.1 Audiovisual translation and L2 pragmatic awareness

As outlined in the previous chapter (§2.6), AV input offers accurate and contextualised pragmatic input as well as natural conversational models representing a use of language that is as close as possible to the real use of language that occurs in spontaneous conversation among native speakers. Although movies and TV series adapt spontaneous conversation to cinematographic needs, from an academic perspective the language they employ is nonetheless an acceptable emulation of spontaneous speech (Nuzzo, 2016). In addition, it must be acknowledged that mere knowledge of L2 grammar and vocabulary does not necessarily guarantee the ability to effectively participate in a communicative exchange. It is necessary to enable students to interpret the meaning correctly within the context of enunciation, and to guide them in noticing relevant input that can be subsequently registered under awareness and ultimately internalised. By working on the source text, listening
repeatedly to the audio track, translating the script and subtitle, students are encouraged to reflect on the language, to note unfamiliar and unusual expressions and are guided by the instructor to acknowledge speech acts and pragmatic phenomena as they occur among native speakers of Italian. Unlike traditional role play tasks, this approach based on AVT is advantageous as students are given the opportunity to watch examples of conversation and then to reproduce them through active tasks such as re-voicing videos, role plays, re-interpreting scenes, dubbing, and so on. Besides stimulating learners’ motivation, using authentic audiovisual input in the classroom has numerous benefits; since this type of material is not tailor-made for L2 learners, the language is presented in real-life situations with characters speaking at normal conversational speed and with a variety of accents and sociolects. Indeed, audiovisual input is often rich in idioms, proverbs and other fixed formulae, which are used by different individuals interacting in different contexts (formal, neutral, informal registers). Therefore, subtitling also represents an opportunity for students to develop pragmatic skills as well as enhancing their linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. In fact, while translating, learners can practise discourse competence (organise the sequence of sentences in a coherent manner) and functional competence (functional use of written language) as well as improve their ability to use patterns of social interaction (Lertola, 2013).

3.2.2 **Aims and objectives**

Based on the research outlined in the previous chapter and especially that summarised above, this non-experimental study intends to be an investigation of the effects of the combination of AVT tasks on learners’ communicative competence, in particular on its sub-categories of pragmatic and sociolinguistic awareness. Two main objectives were identified as follows:

1. To tap into the potential of the combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks as language learning tools that can provide students with opportunities to develop L2 pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence.

2. To investigate whether this combination can help students acquire multiword expressions.

Acquisition and correct use of lexemes or multiword expressions has been linked to better L2 fluency, in particular in relation to communicative competence and oral
proficiency (Boers, 2006). The methodology proposed in this small-scale project identifies, in subtitling and revoicing activities, potential tools for enhancing students’ noticing skills and communicative competence through the acquisition of meaningful and contextualised multiword chunks. On the one hand, when subtitling these linguistic items from L2 to L1, learners can relate them to their own language and culture; this task makes students ponder over the L2 and it is more likely that new vocabulary expressions, phrases etc. will be internalised. To further enhance noticing and help students become independent analysts of L2 dialogue, the subtitling task is integrated with multimodal analysis, which encourages students to consider and value all the components that contribute to meaning in the audiovisual product they subtitle. On the other hand, revoicing activities offer students the opportunity to watch examples of conversation as they occur among native speakers and then reproduce them, practicing both linguistic and paralinguistic skills.

3.2.3 Data collection
A mixed-method approach was applied to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. Data is collected through classroom observation, post-test and final questionnaire. This study was carried out with a non-experimental design where a single group of participants was exposed to the experimental treatment and a single measurement (a post-test) was taken afterwards. An end-of-course questionnaire was also administered to gather data on students’ perception of their improvement of L2 communicative skills and opinions of the course. A post-test was administered at the end of the course to observe students’ productive recall of multiword expressions and their ability to re-utilise them. The post-test consisted of one exercise in which students had to translate 4 expressions that appeared in the episodes they worked with during the module.

3.2.4 Outline, participants and material
The course consisted of a total of 12 hours over two semesters (one hour a week for a total of 6 hours per semester) and it was part of the module Italian Language which is comprised of intensive language work with practice in translation from Italian into English, textual analysis and essay writing on topics of contemporary interest in Italian social, political and cultural life, as well as aural and written comprehension. Lessons took place once every two weeks and each lasted approximately one hour. However, extra hours were made available to those students who wanted to carry out the
assignments in the language laboratory (mainly the subtitling task, as the software had
been previously installed in these laboratories) under the supervision of the instructor.
The course followed a progressive approach that commenced in the first semester with
subtitling activities and moved towards tasks that increasingly required the use of oral
proficiency such as audio description and finally dubbing in the second semester. Such
an approach was designed to give students the opportunity to become acquainted with
the video material in use, expand or reinforce their knowledge of Italian vocabulary,
including informal and colloquial expressions, idioms and slang terms of which the
TV series offers plenty of examples. In the case of the subtitling activities the aim was
to give students the time to familiarise themselves with the software and the translation
strategies involved in the process of subtitling. Subtitling tasks constituted the basis on
which students can build up vocabulary, foster their listening, reading and writing
skills as well as noticing L2 structures while translating. Furthermore, such a
progressive approach aimed at spreading the cognitive load over a longer period of
time in order to facilitate the learning process and give students time to get acquainted
with the type of tasks and the software.

The study was carried out in a class of 19 students of Italian in their fourth and
final year of Bachelor of Arts Degree at the National University of Ireland, Galway;
according to the common European Framework of Reference for Languages, their
level of Italian corresponded to a B2 level (upper intermediate). 15 students were
English native speakers, 3 were native speakers of French, one was a native speaker
of Slovakian and one is a native speaker of German. The majority of them had been
on Erasmus in Italy for a period of 9 months during their third year. The videos chosen
for this course were taken from the Italian TV series Zio Gianni; this sitcom is
produced by the Pills in collaboration with RAI and released in Italy in 2014. The
protagonist is Gianni Coletti, a 50 year old man who, after finding himself divorced
and unemployed, is forced to seek accommodation with students in order to save
money. He ends up sharing an apartment with three students in their early twenties.
Confronting himself with college students’ life and struggling to get his job and family
back, Gianni is determined to get back on track with the help of his three young
roommates.

In one of her studies, Bruti (2016) observes how video clips from TV series
can be easily used in the foreign language classroom to help students develop
awareness of pragmatic features of conversation and show them the dynamics of face-to-face interaction. Quaglio (2009) and Forchini (2012), carried out a corpus-based analysis of fictional dialogue of TV series and discovered that they share very similar uses and patterning with spontaneous conversation.

The material chosen for the present module consisted of short videos, selected according to the amount of realistic dialogue, richness of colloquial expressions, accents and idioms present in the scenes. Humour, speed of speech and number of characters were also among the criteria used to select the material. Another important reason behind the choice of the TV series Zio Gianni, is the fact that each episode is self-contained; this enables the instructor to choose which episode to show and work with, without having to follow a long storyline.

The subtitling tasks were carried out through VisualSubSync (VSS), a free subtitling software available online.

**Image 2  Screenshot of VisualSubSync interface**

Accessibility was a determinant factor for the choice of the software, which is freeware, user-friendly, intuitive and easy to install; furthermore, its website provides good tutorials on how to use the software (e.g. how to make a transcript or how to synchronise the subtitles).
3.2.5 Methodology

The methodology followed in this study intends to contribute to the design of an innovative approach to foreign language teaching that capitalises on the linguistic richness of audiovisual input by tapping into the potential of combined subtitling and revoicing practices in the foreign language classroom. In order to develop students’ noticing skills, a language awareness approach was adopted in the present study; this approach is centred on developing learners’ awareness of how the target language is used for communication by its native speakers, and its main objective is to “help learners notice for themselves how language is typically used” (Tomlinson 1994, p. 122-3). In one of her studies, Josélia Neves (2004) explores how language awareness can be promoted through training in subtitling, in particular through the following phases:

1. Media text analysis. This allows for the improvement of receptive skills, including extracting information, inferring opinion and attitude, deducing meaning from context, recognising functions and discourse patterns and markers.

2. Script analysis. A variety of Discourse Completion Tasks (DCT) can be derived from incomplete or incorrect scripts; transcription of film dialogue is also an excellent listening comprehension task. Finally, dialogue analysis is pivotal for drawing and understanding a character’s profile.

3. Translation/editing. At this stage productive skills are also involved as writing calls for accuracy, and the constraints in terms of time and space, typical of subtitling, make the production of a written text a painstaking process.

4. Spotting/cueing. This final stage allows for a systematic review of the work done by the student and, however time-consuming, it is important to get students into the habit of checking their work as a natural part of the whole subtitling activity.

In view of this, subtitling and revoicing tasks are bolstered by multimodal analysis that incorporates both media text and dialogue transcript analysis. The methodology applied in the proposed course looks to Neves’ four stages of language awareness development and unfolds as follows:

− Preparation/motivation
- Multimodal analysis of the audiovisual text
- Production of AVT tasks (subtitling/revoicing)
- Correction of the tasks and class discussion

Two subtitling tasks and two revoicing tasks were carried out by students as assignments throughout the course, and most of them used the extra lab hours (two or three per week depending on lab availability) to do the assignment under the supervision of the instructor. Initially, the audiovisual text analysis was guided by the instructor who intentionally focused on specific translation issues and pragmatic phenomena. During the 12 lessons, multimodal analysis\(^\text{11}\) was used to encourage students to focus on certain passages of the videos and their scripts which were fundamental to achieving a thorough comprehension of what was happening in the scene, and how meaning was conveyed through different channels. Particular emphasis was placed to the language component of the multimodal text, which students had to analyse carefully under different aspects. In his book *Discourse Strategies* (1982), Gumperz suggests that it is important to use an approach that leads students to analyse discourse independently and question the purpose and intention of the speaker and his/her interlocutor. Thus, in their analyses students answered questions concerning the intentions of the speakers, the purpose(s) a given utterance might have, the kind of social relationship that exists between the interlocutors, the way the interlocutor interprets the speaker’s utterance and so on.

### 3.2.6 Opportunities for pragmatic learning

#### 3.2.6.1 The interlingual subtitling tasks

During the first lesson the outline of the course was presented to the students, and the main objectives were explained as well as the type of activities they would undertake. Due to the limited amount of time available for the course, the introduction was concise and thorough at the same time; the notions of subtitling and revoicing were explained by means of definitions and examples displayed in a Prezi presentation.

During the second lesson students carried out their first subtitling task which consisted of translating and subtitling into English a 7-minute episode of the TV series

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\(^{11}\) As described by O’Halloran and Smith (2010) “multimodal analysis includes the analysis of communication in all its forms, but is particularly concerned with texts which contain the interaction and integration of two or more semiotic resources – or modes of communication – in order to achieve the communicative functions of the text” (O’Halloran and Smith 2010, p.2)
**Zio Gianni.** They were shown the video initially without subtitles and subsequently with Italian subtitles created by the instructor using VSS (unfortunately RAI did not publish an official subtitled version of this series). This preliminary viewing was followed by a discussion on their understanding of the episode, in particular of accents and dialects, as well as paralinguistic cues. After the discussion, the instructor handed out a copy of the transcription of the episode dialogue and allowed some time to examine it; afterwards, students were asked to indicate any unfamiliar vocabulary or expressions. They were then divided into small groups of 3 or 4 people each and they had one week to translate the script into English. Since the purpose of this brief course is not to train professional translators, students are not expected to perform perfect synchronisations either in the subtitling or in re-voicing tasks. On the third lesson each group presented their translation reporting any problems or difficulties they encountered and subtitled the video. The following paragraphs present brief excerpts that attest to the students’ activities of subtitling and multimodal analysis in order to show how this methodology can provide opportunities for sociolinguistic and pragmatic learning.

### 3.2.6.2 Excerpt 1

This excerpt is taken from the video that students subtitled during the course as their first assignment. This is the first episode of the sitcom, in which Gianni does not succeed in renting an apartment, mainly because of the fact that he is considered old for sharing an apartment. In fact, in the scene here described, an Asian guy addresses Gianni repeatedly and excitedly in his own language. Most likely, he is telling Gianni impolitely that he is too old to rent a room, but it is up to the Asian girl to translate this into Italian. While the guy shouts in another language, she calmly addresses Gianni with the following statement:

> “Dice che sei troppo avanti con l’età.”

[“He says you are too advanced in age.”]

The girl decides to use a euphemism to save face and avoid coming across as rude; in so doing, she complies with the principle of politeness as conflict avoidance and its rule of making the other person feel good, by being friendly. More precisely, it is a negative politeness strategy (Brown & Levison, 1987) where the speaker takes advantage of the role of translator to soften the tone of an exclamation that would have
almost certainly hurt the listener if understood in the source language. It is interesting to note that most students translated “troppo avanti con l’età” as “too old”; the Italian expression “essere avanti con l’età” is a euphemism, a courteous way to say that somebody is old. “‘vecchio” and the girl uses this expression in order not to offend Gianni. Most students did not interpret the dialogue appropriately in its context and chose to translate “troppo avanti con l’età” as “too old”, which could be perceived as blunt; one student even used “way too old”, which is definitely too strong for the context. Appropriate translations are “too advanced in age” or “too mature” rather than the blunt ‘too old’ or even “way too old”, which are the ones that the majority of students used. The multimodal analysis interestingly revealed that certain features in this scene helped students to understand the context and thus provide an appropriate translation; in fact, some of those who subtitled this line correctly as ‘too mature’ or ‘too advanced in age’, reported that the girl’s movements and facial expressions in the video indicated that she was apologising and trying to be polite. Students reported that her gestures, the tone of her voice, her hesitation and pause (after “che”) in translating the guy’s statement revealed that she was feeling awkward in that situation, therefore a very polite answer would be the best translation.

3.2.6.3 Excerpt 2

This second excerpt is taken from the second episode subtitled by the students (episode 5 of Zio Gianni). Already in the opening line, they were faced with the task of conveying politeness and a formal register into their subtitles. In so doing, they were asked to focus on the illocutionary act behind this statement, which is a request to the manager to move Gianni’s job interview to the following day. The scene opens with the following line:

“Guardi glielo chiedo, mi risponda con franchezza. Se fosse possibile spostarlo a domani.”

[“Look, I thought I would ask, please answer frankly. Would it be possible to move it to tomorrow?”]

Interestingly, in their subtitles, most students decided not to omit the first part of the sentence where Gianni dithers before asking the question; although aware that subtitling poses limits to the amount of speech that can be translated, most students considered it important to convey Gianni’s feelings of hesitation in their translations.
In fact, they reported that while analysing the video they felt that Gianni’s hesitations and the complexity of statement were important in as much as they reveal that he would not want to make that request but he was somehow forced to. The following are examples of some of their subtitles:

- “I don't want to bother you now, but... is there any possibility to postpone it?”
- “Look I’ll ask, answer me frankly. What if you could move it to tomorrow?”
- “What I'm asking is... answer me frankly. Is it possible to change it to tomorrow?”

Gianni formally addresses his interlocutor using the Italian polite form “lei”; this person deixis is essential in determining the tone of the conversation and the relationship between the speaker and his interlocutor. Although this is the opening scene of the episode and thus the audience does not know who Gianni is talking to, by analysing this request, students understood that Gianni is paying respect to his interlocutor so they were able to choose a translation that was appropriate to the formal tone of this enunciation. After both subtitling assignments were submitted, one lesson was dedicated to viewing the video with the subtitles created by the students, who were asked to compare their versions.

### 3.2.7 Revoicing tasks

Revoicing tasks are intended to provide students with abundant practice of their L2 speaking skills and possibly encourage them to reproduce communicative structures they might have learned from watching and subtitling the videos. A first revoicing activity was carried out as a sort of warm up exercise, in order to introduce students to this practice. The groups that carried out the translation of the script had to choose a passage to read aloud to the instructor, dividing the roles of each character among themselves and paying attention to their pronunciation and intonation. The first proper revoicing task was carried out in the first semester; a brief muted clip (1:51-minute long) taken from the 6th episode of *Zio Gianni*, was shown to students and they were asked to write the script and record its enactment. The muted clip starts at 1:20 and students watched the part before as an introduction to the topic of that episode. Subsequently, they were given a list of hints that summed up what each character was talking about as well as a file with the order of appearance of the characters. Both the list with hints and the other file were divided into three time slots (e.g. 00:00–0:29;
0:30–1:09; 1:10–1:51). This scene was chosen since it suited the collaborative intent of the tasks which gave students the opportunity to interact in the L2; the four protagonists are reunited in the kitchen and are discussing Gianni’s need for a new car after he sold his old one. Another reason why this scene is suitable for the task is that, although all four characters appear at the same time, they do not talk over, or interrupt each other. Two groups of four students each were formed, and each student decided which character to interpret. The purpose of this task was to stimulate creativity in the L2 and observe whether they correctly interpret the scene by choosing terms, idioms and expressions that are socially and pragmatically appropriate to the given context.

All students engaged in the research and use of informal/slang terms to best render the language of the three students and their sarcasm, however, they tended to be cautious in including swearwords or foul language in discourse. An example of this can be seen in Fulvio’s response to Gianni’s nostalgic story of his car; the hint given about the scene specifically states that Fulvio only uses one word to dismiss Gianni’s story as boring, and that word in the original script is “sticazzi” (an expression which is similar to English ‘wtf’). However, both groups opted for less vulgar terms, namely, “palloso” (boring) and “chissene” (who cares), which nonetheless are very colloquial.

The second revoicing task consisted in acting out a scene from the dialogue transcript. Firstly, students were given the dialogue transcript of the whole episode 5 of Zio Gianni which they were asked to subtitle as the last assignment of the first semester. Secondly the instructor selected two excerpts which are two self-contained scenes not related to each other and where only two characters appear; students were divided into pairs and they were given general information on the topic of the episode before they started to read the excerpts and enact them. The purpose of this task was to test students’ ability to understand and interpret a given context and perform the scene accordingly; as well as understanding the content of the dialogue and practise pronunciation, students were required to interpret characters’ feelings, actions and reactions and convey them with adequate intonation and perhaps even gestures. The fact that students had previously worked with episodes from the same TV series is believed to be an advantage, since they know the characters and they may be able to predict their behaviour in a given situation. During the course they had the opportunity to study the characters and form an opinion on each of them. This is, indeed, one of the advantages of using a TV series like this, where characters are to some extent
stereotyped and tend to behave in a predictable way in different contexts. For example, as in the first episode, Fulvio does not worry about offending Gianni by telling him that he is 70 years old, he is now talking to Alessandro, a 7-year-old child, as if he were an adult, advising him on how to flirt with all the girls in his primary school. Similarly, Chiara is a very naive and cheerful girl, who offered to look after Gianni’s son without having the least idea of how to babysit.

The following scene shows Gianni trying to move a job interview scheduled for the same day that he has to mind his son Alessandro. Chiara offers to look after the child while Gianni goes to the interview.

- Gianni: Guardi glielo chiedo, mi risponda con franchezza. Se fosse possibile spostarlo a domani. Allora che volete? ecco infatti fra due ore ci vediamo. Si si si, no no no non c’è problema per carità! grazie, anzi, per questa opportunità. arrivederci, grazie. E ti pareva. ti pareva?
- Chiara: Ti pareva cosa? Guarda che oggi è il turno tuo di fare i piatti eh.
- Gianni: Ma no che c’entrano i piatti, è che oggi devo stare con Alessandro, mio figlio, che è tornato dalla settimana bianca, mi hanno messo un colloquio di lavoro fondamentale e non so come fare.

This excerpt contains colloquial expressions such as “ti pareva” (of course) and “che c’entrano” (what do they have to do with it) as well as the fixed expression “settimana Bianca” which is a typical Italian expression to indicate a ski trip, or more generally a winter-sport holiday break. In particular, it was interesting to observe how students interpreted the context appropriately and picked up how characters’ feelings make their intonation change. Some students realised this when Gianni was talking on the phone at the beginning and understood that the call upset him. However, most students did not pick up on Chiara’s willingness to look after Alessandro and they used an annoyed tone for her lines.

The same episode contained a wide range of colloquialisms and slang terms as in the following line where Fulvio tries to advise Alessandro on how not to become a ‘sfigato’ (loser) like his father:

Fulvio: Bravissimo! Vedi, tuo padre è uno sfigato perché quando tua madre l’ha lasciato non aveva nessun altro da cui andare. Te che sei bello giovane, ben vestito, fresco, puro, devi capire che te ne devi tenere almeno 3 o 4 di riserva. Tu devi... rimorchiare un botto! Me stai a capi? Tu domani vai a scuola con il tuo zainetto, la mela fresca, la merendina, l’astuccio, e ci provi con tutte! La bidella, la maestra, quelle magre, basse, grasse, tutte, a tappeto! È la legge dei grandi numeri, Ale.

Students were allowed a few minutes to read it and note unfamiliar vocabulary. As expected, they asked questions about dialecticisms (typical of Rome and neighbouring
areas) such as “daje” (come on), “me stai a capì?” (Do you hear me?), “ce devo prová” (I must hit on them), “pischelle” (girls) as they were not familiar with their meaning and use. Most of them remembered the expression “un botto” from a previous lesson as one of the colloquialisms they had translated and subtitled. The Italian expression “a tappeto” (thoroughly) also caused confusion to some students who translated the word “tappeto” with its literal meaning “carpet”. During the class discussion some students reported that their translation of “carpet” did not seem to make any sense within the context of the enunciation, which induced them to think that they were facing a fixed-expression. Classroom observation and discussion revealed that the enactment of both scenes proved to be a successful exercise in various ways; it represented an opportunity for students to reflect on the language and to notice new vocabulary, especially colloquialisms and multiword expressions. They also practiced their pronunciation and intonation as well as some paralinguistic elements of speech such as gestures, pauses, loudness, pitch and rate of speech; last but not least they had the chance to practice pragmatic skills by using politeness formulas, speech acts (such as request and complaint), sarcasm and so on.

3.2.8 Post-test results
A vocabulary post-test was administered at the end of the course, 2 weeks after the end of the module. The objective of the post-test was to ascertain whether incidental learning of certain multiword expressions had occurred during the treatment. Incidental vocabulary learning through subtitling has been investigated by Lertola (2013), though in terms of acquisition of single words rather than chunks. In the present study, it was hypothesised that learners would benefit from a mixture of exposure to and practice with authentic AV input (subtitling and revoicing as well as multimodal analysis), and use it as a context-rich scaffolding, which could help them retain certain L2 lexical chunks. Four expressions (3 multiword chunks and 1 colloquialism) were selected from the excerpts used during the course and students were tested on their knowledge through a vocabulary test. The first part of the test required students to provide the L1 translation for each of the four expression (bilingual productive recall). After they completed this part, they were given a different sheet with the four expressions listed in random order and they were required to put them in the correct sentences provided below (L2 monolingual productive recall). Out of the 9 students who sat the post-test, 7 provided a correct L1 translation and the same
7 students completed all four sentences with the correct expression. Albeit preliminary, these results seem to indicate that students not only recalled the meaning of the language items on which they were tested but also, they were able to identify the appropriate context for each of them.

3.2.9 Questionnaires results

Only 7 of the 19 students taking part in the exploratory study completed the end-of-module questionnaire. With regard to the AV input, 78.6% of students considered it easy to understand and 100% thought it was stimulating. 78.6% felt they learned new vocabulary, in particular idioms and colloquial expressions (92.8%). 71.4% reported that the dubbing tasks gave them the opportunity to use some of the new vocabulary, idioms and colloquial expressions learnt. 80.3% thought the course helped them to improve their communication competence in Italian, in particular 85.7% felt more confident in using slang and colloquial expressions in Italian when appropriate. However, 85.7% of participants expressed their preference towards subtitling over revoicing. This might be due to the change in software (VSS was used for the subtitling task while Clipflair for the revoicing) and the lack of sufficient time to get accustomed with the technicalities of Clipflair. Generally, lack of time was the major issue throughout the course, in particular, some students reported a discontent with the discontinuity of the lessons. All students reported that they would have been happier if lessons had taken place every week rather than every two weeks; they explained that this way they were not able to properly focus on the assignments which were confused with other assignments of the same module. However, one of the students commented that he/she enjoyed learning new phrases and colloquial expressions and because he/she was thinking of how to translate them, and revising them again before subtitling, the new expressions stayed with him/her. Finally, two students commented on the importance of learning language instances which are typical of everyday spoken Italian and of entering an Italian person’s mind-set and humour. One of them mentioned the usefulness of working with this kind of TV series as he/she felt he/she could learn new vocabulary and the context in which to use it. The following table shows the answers provided by those students who completed the open-ended question:
Most students seem to think they have learned new vocabulary during the course and that revoicing tasks were an opportunity to practice such vocabulary. Moreover, they believe that they will be able to use with confidence the new vocabulary acquired during the course. In order to obtain further insights on this matter, in the final questionnaire one question asked students whether they felt the course had helped them to improve their communicative competence and if so how, as reported in the table above.

### 3.2.10 Classroom practice observations

Class observation revealed that the visual and auditory components of the audiovisual text seemed to play an important role in relation to L2 learning in as much as the input is contextualised at different levels; in fact, audiovisual translation seems to offer an advantage over literary translation as the various pragmatic phenomena appear to be easier to notice for students, who experience them contextualised at an acoustic, spatial and kinetic level. These observations are reinforced by the examination of students’

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<th>Do you think this course has helped you improve your Italian? If so, how? Please leave a comment below.</th>
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Table 5 Answers to the open-ended question.
multimodal analyses of the videos, in which they analysed body language, gestures, movements, hesitations, pauses and interruptions etc. as parameters on which to base their translation choice. As far as revoicing was concerned, it was observed that students generally tended to speak fast, as they identified a good oral performance with a spontaneously rapid and fluent conversation. However, this caused several pronunciation mistakes as students were focusing on speed rather than on conveying a clear and understandable message. Finally, it is interesting to note in the subtitled videos a general tendency to be cautious in including swearwords or foul language in discourse. An example of this can be seen in Fulvio’s response to Gianni’s nostalgic story of his car; the hint given about the scene specifically states that Fulvio only uses one word to dismiss Gianni’s story as boring, and that word in the original script is “sticazzi”. However, both groups opted for less vulgar terms, namely, “palloso” and “chissene” which nonetheless are very colloquial, but they play down the significance of the rudeness that marks Fulvio’s speech. This observation is in line with previous studies that showed how impoliteness is more marked in the L1 and in particular with a study conducted by Incalcaterra McLoughlin and Lertola (2016) in which the authors found that when translating from their L2 into their L1, students tended to provide a weaker version of impoliteness than exists in the original text.

3.3 Complementary studies

These complementary studies were carried out with the same broader intent as the main study, which is to contribute to the research on acquisition of multiword expressions through AVT translation practices. Unfortunately, due to institutional constraints and students’ schedule, it was not possible to have a control and an experimental group to conduct experimental studies; however, the studies described in the following paragraphs provide useful insights into the way learners develop L2 competences through AVT practices, in particular, they explore new possibilities to exploit AV input and AVT as language learning tools.

3.3.1 Complementary study 1 (CS1)

This first complementary study can be classified as an exploratory study in that it intends to simply observe the effects of subtitling on L2 students’ pragmatic awareness. A module was designed according to Willis’s task-based learning framework where a pre-task introduces students to subtitling and motivates them
towards the subtitling task. The task cycle consists in subtitling the video and it includes space for students to analyse the multimodal text, report potential issues and raise questions, while allowing the instructor to observe how they tackle the subtitling process. Finally, the language focus phase offers space for reflection on the subtitling process and students’ language learning experience through it. During the twelve weeks of the module, the following approach was applied to each of the scenes to be subitled: viewing of the video clip, first without and then with the dialogue transcript; comprehension of the transcript; and finally subtitling of the video.

This 12-week module mixed both exposure and practice in that students watched Italian videos with intralingual Italian subtitles and then they were required to subtitle the same clip into English. The aim of this study was to observe whether students’ pragmatic and sociolinguistic awareness is raised through the creation of subtitles, and whether this leads to an improvement in their perceived learning experience. Participants in this study were 25 2BA and 2BC students of Italian at NUI Galway and it took place during the second semester of the academic year 2016/2017 for a total of 12 hours. Continuous assessments consisted of subtitling clips taken from Italian movies, accompanied by written and oral comprehension tasks. For this study, interlingual subtitling was chosen as the only AVT practice under investigation.

While carrying out the subtitling task, students can practice a number of skills that are listed as follows:

− Listening
− Reading/Viewing
− Translation
− Review and discussion of the language used, and choices made
− Editing and obeying technical rules. Rephrasing and paraphrasing text
− Pragmatic and sociolinguistic awareness (i.e register, politeness)
The present study is simply an investigation of whether creating interlingual subtitles can lead students to perceive an improvement in their understanding of L2 spontaneous discourse. The module devised comprised a total of three subtitling tasks carried out on different videos. Each video was taken from an Italian movie and lasted no longer than 2 minutes. Before beginning to subtitle, students were firstly introduced to this AVT practice and subsequently trained with the online platform Clipflair.

The three videos subtitled are taken from the following movies: Pane e Tulipani (2000), Notte prima degli esami (2006), and Benvenuti al Sud (2010) and they represented a small corpus of subtitled video clips to be shown to second-year students in their language lab hour. Each video clip lasted no longer than 3 minutes and consisted of a self-contained scene. The first video was taken from the movie Pane e Tulipani and in this scene Fernando and Rosalba find themselves awake in the middle of the night and they start talking. The conversation is brief and simple, and Fernando speaks slowly and clearly. Before beginning to subtitle the video, students were required to complete a written comprehension task on the Italian dialogue transcript; in particular, the instructor highlighted certain words that students should devote particular attention to while subtitling. The second video is taken from the very beginning of the movie Notte prima degli esami in which on the last day of secondary school, the protagonist Luca, decides to vent his frustration on his most hated teacher:
according to Luca, arts teacher Antonio Martinelli made his life a living hell throughout the five years of secondary school. The third and last video was taken from the most recent movie *Benvenuti al Sud*. The protagonist Alberto Colombo is the manager of a post office in a town near Milan, who dreams of a job in the main office downtown. In order to increase his chances of moving to Milan, he pretends to be disabled. In this scene we see inspector Borghetti unmasking the fraud while visiting Colombo for an interview about his application. Throughout the course students were encouraged to carefully analyse the source text and then compare their translation into the L1 with the original L2 text focusing both on grammar issues (i.e. subject number-verb agreement, tenses, use of articles) and differences in pragmatic realisation, thus eliciting a contrastive analysis from the students. The following table presents an overview of the module’s outline:

| Lesson 1 | Introduction to subtitling: some technical rules and introduction to the free subtitling software VSS. Viewing of the first episode *Zio Gianni* with L1 subtitles created by final year students during the exploratory study in semester 1. |
| Lesson 2 | Presentation of the objectives of the course: identify Italian pragmatic phenomena. Introduction to pragmatics (slides) |
| Lesson 3 | Training with VSS |
| Lesson 4 | Video 1 |
| Lesson 5 | Subtitling + video and dialogue transcript analysis |
| Lesson 5 | Subtitling |
| Lesson 6 | Video 2 |
| Lesson 7 | Subtitling + video and dialogue transcript analysis |
| Lesson 8 | Subtitling |
| Lesson 9 | Video 3 |
| Lesson 10 | Subtitling + video and dialogue transcript analysis |
| Lesson 11 | Subtitling |
| Lesson 12 | Final questionnaire and feedback on subtitling assignments |

Table 6 Outline of the complementary study.

This study largely draws from previous research that shed light on the possibilities of using AV input (Abrams, 2014) and AVT (Lertola & Mariotti, 2017) to foster L2 pragmatic awareness. An early study by Mariotti (2002) investigates the
strategies for presenting AV material to EFL learners and proposes a first viewing with no audio and no subtitles (sound off/vision on), followed by two viewings with audio (sound on/vision on) and no subtitles, a fourth viewing with audio and bimodal subtitles and a last viewing with audio and interlingual subtitles. The authors acknowledge the effectiveness of the first sound off/vision for focusing on extra-linguistic elements such as kinesics and proxemics aspects of communication as well as for analysing the background.

Thus, the present study constitutes an exploration into the possibility of enhancing the learning experience by making use of the AV input as a rich L2 pragmatic scaffolding and by encouraging students to pay close attention to the richness of AV discourse when translating and subtitling video clips. In particular, students are required to reflect on the text they have to subtitle by engaging in and analysing both the video and the dialogue transcript and answering a series of questions for each video clip that concern various aspects of pragmatics, such as speakers’ intention (illocutionary act), or interlocutors’ understanding of certain statements (perlocutionary acts). This kind of pragmatic analysis concentrates on learners’ general pragmatic awareness, i.e., the ability to interpret the dynamic demands of an interaction in any language (Bella, 2012; García, 2004; Kasper, 2004; Young & Miller, 2004). In other words, it is an investigation of learners’ ability to interpret characters’ attitudes and intentions as well as assessing and recognising the appropriateness of certain responses to a given situation. From this perspective, this study does not intend to develop a model for teaching pragmatics through AVT but rather it aims to exploit the pragmatic richness of AV texts in a way in which students can observe pragmatics phenomena in the L2 video and relate them to their L1 by creating interlingual subtitles. Abrams (2014) argues that while it is true that:

Speech acts are an established approach to teaching pragmatic competence, including comparisons of realizations between L1 and L2 use (Cohen, 2008), increasing attention has been recently devoted to discursive approaches to pragmatics and politeness, suggesting that discourse-length, authentic models in language learning are essential in order to help learners explore notions of “appropriateness” and speaker/learner agency. (Abrams 2014, p. 56)

The choice of speech acts and their various realisations are often viewed as culture and language specific (Kallia, 2005). Indeed, Cohen (2008) states that the ability to correctly use a speech act in a given situation (when it is said) and in the correct form (how it is said) belongs to native speakers’ pragmatic competence as it comes as a
spontaneous intuition that non-native speakers do not possess. For this reason, the analysis of learners’ performance of speech acts has been the favourite method for assessing L2 pragmatic competence so far. However, Mills (2011) notes that speech acts do not have a one-to-one linguistic realisation: there is not one way to express a compliment, and not everything that looks like a compliment is actually intended as one by the speaker or interpreted that way by the hearer (e.g., sarcasm or perceived impoliteness). Generally speaking, not all members of a culture or speakers of the same language would unanimously agree on which speech act is best suited to express a particular intention, and different manifestations can be due to dialect or register choice, for example. Thus, Mills argues that it might be better not to identify abstract, generalised cultural norms, as they may lead to stereotyping and incorrectly reconfirm “fixed notions of appropriateness” (Mills, 2009, p.1056). On the contrary, spoken interplays should be analysed as they unfold in natural situations, as collaborative, interpersonal acts that depend on the individuals in a particular interaction (Culpeper et al., 2010; Spencer-Oatey, 2002). This more recent approach to interpreting interactions emphasises the significance of the local context, including variables such as the personalities of and relationships between interlocutors, the topic or purpose of that interaction, or even its minute-by-minute unfolding (Barron, 2005; Cohen, 2005; Kallia, 2005). This methodology differs from the common speech act production analysis in that the meaning is constructed cumulatively and not on the basis of isolated utterances performing particular speech acts. Firstly, students watched the video and translated the dialogue transcript and subsequently they created the subtitles, thus watching the video repeatedly, which created more opportunities for fully understanding the script. Interlingual subtitling was thus identified as an activity that offers greater opportunities not only for language learning but also for understanding the way in which native speakers use the language. Students showed their interest in the activities proposed by working diligently at the subtitling tasks throughout the module. The final questionnaire was administered at the end of the module and it sought to investigate students’ response to the module, in particular on their L2 pragmatic learning and how it was aided by the use of the video as a support to their translation as shown in the following tables:
Thanks to the insights provided by students through the final questionnaire and classroom observation, a gap was identified: considering the richness of AV input in L2 pragmatic phenomena and the intrinsic key role that context plays in conveying meaning to spoken interplays, and considering that subtitling has been shown to foster incidental vocabulary learning (Lertola, 2013), perhaps students’ learning can move beyond single word units and they might be able to acquire multiword chunks.

Since interlingual subtitling is an activity that requires students to watch a given video clip repeatedly and then match the L2 with their L1, it can be a way for students to exploit the fact that L2 discourse comes naturally contextualised and helps with the acquisition of new language. Because the videos provide realistic examples

| Student #1 | Yes, we learned new phrases and how to convey sarcasm in Italian. |
| Student #2 | Yes, just understanding the uses of words and expressions and when they are appropriate. |
| Student #3 | Yes, it gave a clearer understanding of what is involved with pragmatics. |
| Student #4 | I think it did, but I think some work on Italian idioms with the lecturer would be beneficial. |
| Student #5 | Yes. Watching an Italian series gave us insight to the sarcasm and idioms they use. |

Table 7 Students’ opinion on L2 pragmatic understanding

| Student #1 | Seeing the images and [facial] expressions in the videos helped with the translation. |
| Student #2 | It was easier to see when the characters were being sarcastic. The sound track helped to know the mood of the conversation. |
| Student #3 | [The video] gave certain expressions context. |
| Student #4 | The body language, soundtrack, visual aspects etc. were also important to the translation. |
| Student #5 | I think the way in which they presented their lines helped most when watching the video. It’s not just about what is said, but how it is said. I could see something written down and understand what it means. But I like to hear how they deliver it to give it my best interpretation and translate it as accurately and fluently as I can. |

Table 8 Students’ opinion on the usefulness of AV input
of not only real-life language but also of the way this language is used by native speakers and conveyed through a series of paralinguistic features (body language, gestures, facial expressions, intonation etc.), perhaps learners can not only acquire new vocabulary but they might also feel more confident in using it later. Therefore, this study was pivotal in leading to the design of the next studies, respectively, the second complementary study and the main experiment.

After observing how students engaged in answering questions related to the L2 pragmatics by making use of both the dialogue transcript, the videos and their translation, it was considered timely to systematise this practice for future studies in the form of multimodal analysis. Given the short time allocated to the main experiment, multimodal analysis was used in the main study to maximise learning opportunities. This means that instead of answering a few questions for each video clip, in the next studies students carried out a multimodal analysis in order for them to explore all the aspects of the AV product they were using and consider how the various elements that form a video interplay to convey meaning. The focus for the subsequent complementary study was chosen and the acquisition and controlled use of some Italian collocations was chosen as the goal of the study. The choice fell on collocations since, as explained in Chapter 2, they are recurrent ‘chunking’, and as outlined in previous research, spontaneous language is largely composed of these ‘prefabricated chunks’. Thus, the following studies want to take a step forward into vocabulary acquisition by looking at whether it is possible for learners to learn these chunks through AV input and AVT practices. Furthermore, using collocation in the L2 can make the learner sound more fluent, and considering the relatively low level of L2 proficiency of participants (A2), they were considered appropriate.

3.3.2 Complementary study 2 (CS2)

This second complementary study largely draws on previous findings on the use of AVT practices as didactic instruments for raising pragmatic awareness and enhancing incidental vocabulary learning (Borghetti & Lertola, 2014; Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014; Lertola, 2013; Lertola & Mariotti, 2017; Talaván, 2015).

Two research questions were identified as follows:

1. Is the combination of interlingual subtitling and revoicing beneficial to learners’ recall and recognition of collocations?
2. Provided recognition and recall of collocations are achieved, are students able to make oral communicative use of them?

In order to address these research questions, the testing tools selected consisted of vocabulary knowledge tests, in particular, receptive recognition and productive recall in bilingual version. A week before the beginning of the course students undertook the pre-test, which consisted of a bilingual receptive recall of the selected target multiword expressions. The main difference between a collocation and an idiomatic expression “lies in the fact that the latter presents a fixed structure and constituents” (Cowie & Mackin 1983, p. 12) and thus its meaning cannot be inferred from the meaning of its constituents. Conversely, the meaning of a collocation, albeit through non-transparent mechanisms, can be derived from that of its constituents, which is why collocations are considered quasi or semi-compositional units. Benson (1985, p. 61) classifies collocations into two categories:

1. Lexical collocations, which contain elements of the same syntactic level: e.g., drain pasta, defensive foul, etc.;
2. Grammatical collocations, which occur through the combination of a verb, noun, adjective and a grammatical word, typically a preposition: e.g., adhere to, show of, ready for, etc.).

According to this taxonomy, which is still accepted, one of the most frequent types of collocations is formed by verb + article + noun (object) and this is precisely the type of collocation adopted in the present investigation. The seven collocations selected for this study are listed as follows:

− Andare in pensione (to retire)
− Essere occupato (to be busy)
− Essere nei casini (to be in trouble)
− Fare uno scherzo (to play a prank)
− Fare onore a qualcuno (to do credit to someone)
− Mettere in discussione (to question)
− Avere a che fare (to deal with)

Knowledge of the aforementioned collocations was tested with a bilingual receptive recall pre-test in order to ensure that students were not already familiar with them.
This study was carried out during the second semester of the academic year 2017/2018 on 16 2BA and 3 2BC students. The study was conducted in the LAB module as part of the Italian language course. Of the 19 students enrolled in the module, 14 of them were Irish native speakers of English, 2 were French Erasmus students and 2 were bilingual who spoke English and another language (Spanish and Polish respectively). The group consisted of 17 females and 2 males, all aged between 19 and 21. Data gathered from the Language Background Questionnaire administered at the beginning of the module, showed that while most students had experienced translation before, only one student (one of the French exchange students) had previous experience with subtitling but no experience with dubbing. All students reported they had studied Italian for at least one year, however, 80% of them said they only practise it within the classroom setting. The present study is defined as non-experimental since it was not possible to work with a control and an experimental group. Working without a control group is often due to logistical reasons, especially in institutional contexts where it is necessary to compromise and accommodate constraints. In this case, the classroom setting made it impossible to recruit a control group. Of course, this incurs methodological problems, mainly being unable to assess whether the post-treatment outcomes observed in the experimental group are in fact a consequence of the treatment. However, even when a control group is employed, methodological problems arise particularly in institutional settings as there is no means of controlling the whole array of variables that may interfere with the treatment. In classroom-based studies, for example, instructors assume that the learning effects obtained are produced by the treatment administered, without necessarily being able to examine whether the control group underwent any other instructional practice that was included in the treatment. One of the advantages that observational studies afford, is providing instructors with insights into classroom processes. As Long (1984) pointed out, there is a lack of information on classroom processes and he called for a process-product-classroom research model that allows researchers to explore the dynamics at play in the foreign language classroom; researchers would be able to explain learning outcomes, assess and change interventional measures and monitor the delivery of the instructional treatment. However, it is hoped that the results of this study can be translated into recommendations for pedagogical practice, as they provide useful insights into classroom-based activities that involve both independent and collaborative learning tasks. Indeed, this small-scale study can be seen as an
observational study in that it intends to monitor students’ learning of FL multiword expressions through multiple data collection tools. The research design employs a mixed-method approach where quantitative and qualitative data is collected through questionnaires (initial and final), pre-test, mid-test and post-test (immediate and delayed) as well as semi-structured group interviews.

The material selected for this course consisted of a brief video taken from the movie *Benvenuti al Sud*. For reasons of time constraints, it was not possible to carry out a pilot study; however, this clip has been previously piloted in the preliminary complementary study. As previously mentioned, this movie narrates the story of Alberto Colombo, a post office manager in a town near Milan, who dreams of a job in the main office downtown. In order to increase his chances at moving to Milan, he pretends to be disabled, but the fraud is soon unmasked and as a punishment he is relocated to a small town near Naples. To his surprise, Alberto starts to like this new place and his new affectionate colleagues as he abandons all the prejudices and derogatory opinions about life in the South of Italy that he had before departing from the North. Although *Benvenuti al Sud* is rich in the use of dialects and different accents, the particular scene was chosen as it does not include these linguistic variations and the language used is standardised. Not only is this a self-contained scene, but it also can be divided into two sub-scenes, one subsequent to the other. The first part of the scene shows the protagonist deciding to fake a disability and happily telling his colleagues and wife that he obtained the transfer to Milan; in the following parts of the scene he faces the unexpected visit of an inspector who was sent to ascertain the condition of disability of the applicant. The first part of the scene presents informal situations in which the characters interact familiarly with each other; on the contrary, the second part scene is characterised by a more formal atmosphere, since Alberto does not know the inspector and he is tense as he is afraid of being caught. The whole video is approximately 4 minutes long and the parts of the scenes last respectively 1 and 3 minutes.

The instruments chosen for quantitative data collection were essentially the same as those employed in the pilot and Main Study with the final year students, the only difference being that they were presented in the bilingual version. The objective of the pre-test (receptive recognition) was to check students’ knowledge of the target collocations. It was administered in class as an MCQ test with only one correct answer.
and 2 distractors per each of the target expressions. The distractors chosen, represent actual incorrect results that would be expected from students. Therefore, in this case, literal word-by-word translations of each item of the collocation could constitute a distractor. Also, one of the two items taken in isolation might have an ambiguous meaning and choosing the wrong one is another way of generating distractors (as in the example of “essere occupato” where “occupato” can be an adjective meaning “busy” or a noun meaning “employee”). The pre-test was administered a week before the beginning of the module. Similar to the pre-test, the mid-test presented a receptive recognition task with the addition of a monolingual productive task recall consisting of DCTs (Discourse Completion Tasks); 2 sentences were provided per each verbal collocation, one correct and one wrong. The objective of the mid-test was to ascertain the effect of subtitling on the receptive recall of the target collocations and test students’ ability to contextualise them. These two tasks embody the dichotomy of active vs passive vocabulary, since students are first asked to recognise the target collocations thus showing their passive knowledge of them; subsequently they are required to choose the correct context for each of them, and in so doing they prove whether they can use them appropriately. The need for contextualisation though DCTs also allows for the observation of the development of pragmatic awareness of the target collocations. The immediate post-test was administered after the dubbing task and it was identical to the mid-test, the only difference being that in the first exercise (receptive recognition) the word order was changed and the DCTs prompts for the productive recall exercise were also modified. The aim of the immediate post-test was to observe whether or to what extent the dubbing task enhanced the productive recall of target expressions. Finally, an oral test was administered about a month after the completion of the experiment and the post-test and it consisted of a list of target words to use orally in short sentences. The aim was to observe the oral communicative value of the target expressions acquired during the experiment by re-using them appropriately within a sentence.

With regard to the collection of qualitative data, four main instruments were used, respectively, a language background questionnaire, reflective essays, a final questionnaire and semi-structured group interviews. The language background questionnaire aimed at collecting factual data (age, sex, and gender), behavioural data (when they use Italian), students’ language background, experience with translation
and AVT, attitude towards audiovisual material. Immediately after completing the subtitling, students submitted their reflective essays in which they stated their opinion on the task. The reflective essay consisted of three blocks, each of them aiming at eliciting opinions on a specific aspect of the task: (a) video and the script (b) translation (c) subtitling. Each block contained a few questions that served the purpose of guiding students to reflect on their experience with this first task, from the very beginning (by watching the video and reading the script) to the end (accomplished subtitled video).

The final questionnaire was created with Google Forms and made available on Blackboard on the last day of the module. It consisted of 18 Likert scale questions divided into 5 sections. Each section was meant to elicit opinions on a different aspect of the module, specifically the material used, the structure of the lessons and the difficulty of tasks, in particular the combination of two AVT modes within the FL classroom. The goal was to observe students’ perception of their own improvement in the target area of language learning. Finally, semi-structured group interviews took place three weeks after the end of the experiment. According to Dörney (2007), the semi-structured interview is a widely used tool in the field of Applied Linguistics since it represents a compromise between structured and open interviews. In fact, in semi-structured interviews there is a “set of pre-made questions but the format is open-ended, and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised” (Dörney, 2007, p 136). Firstly, a consent form was submitted to students in order to obtain their authorisation to record the interview session, the interviews were then organised in three groups of 5 or 6 students each and were conducted by three interns in the Italian department (all Italian native speakers who had assisted me throughout the course) who had been previously instructed on the nature of the questions and how to carry out the interviews. Indeed, they were given an interview guide that gathered key information on the content and the method of the interview. As explained by Dörney (2007), the main function of the interview guide is to help the interviewer:

- By ensuring that the domain is covered and nothing important is left out by accident.
- By suggesting appropriate question wordings.
- By suggesting a list of useful probe questions to use if needed.
- By offering a template for the opening statement.
- By listing some comments to bear in mind (Dörney 2007, p. 137).
The interview was prepared following Dörney’s guidelines and thus it was divided into three stages, the main objective being to obtain feedback on some aspects of the course. The first stage is very important since it sets the tone and it should create a comfortable environment in order to encourage the respondents to open up; therefore, this section consisted of warm-up questions aimed at eliciting personal or factual data. The following stage focussed on the topic under investigation and it was further divided into three sub-categories that reflected on different aspects of the course. In particular, questions were aimed at gathering students’ opinions and experiences related to their approach to AVT translation, the use of translation vs subtitling and the combination of subtitling and revoicing within the same course. Finally, the third stage comprised a few closing questions that were intended as an opportunity for the respondents to express their opinion on the whole course and give suggestions on how to improve it. The interview guidelines also provided examples of probes and suggestions for using them if needed. Probes are useful in that they allow an explanation in greater detail of some of the issues raised by the respondents, for example, by taking something interesting they said (a word or a sentence), repeating it and asking to elaborate. The following table provides the outline of the procedures adopted for the group interview.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Warm up questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General background data: name, surname, how long have you been studying Italian for?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content questions:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Approaches to AVT translation  
• Was this your first time translating a text from Italian into English?  
• Did the video help you?  
• How did you go about the translation and then the subtitling task?  
• Can you describe how you approached the first assignment? |
| 2. Translation vs Subtitling  
• Have you learned new vocabulary while translating the script? Give examples if you can.  
• And have you learned any more vocabulary while subtitling?  
• How did the subtitling activity add to your learning? |
| 3. Combination of subtitling and revoicing within the same course.  
• How do you feel about doing subtitling and revoicing activities within the same course? |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Close up/final questions:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| • Do you have any suggestions on how to improve the course?  
• Is there anything you would like to add? |

**Table 9 Semi-structured group interviews**

The overall aim of the semi-structured group interviews is to obtain descriptive data on the personal experiences of participants, hoping to disclose issues that may warrant further investigation; some useful insights obtained by interviewing students will be presented in the last section of this chapter. As shown in the following table, this study was carried out over a period of 12 weeks during which 18 participants engaged with the subtitling and the revoicing of a video clip. Each lesson lasted approximately one hour, however, in designing the plan, some 5 minutes were allowed as ‘extra time’ in each lesson.
| Lesson 1 | Language Background Questionnaire (5 minutes)  
|          | Vocabulary pre-test (10 minutes)  
|          | Course overview (10 minutes)  
|          | Introduction to subtitling (20 minutes)  
| Lesson 2 | Viewing of movie trailer without subtitles (2 minutes)  
|          | Class discussion: hypotheses (5 minutes)  
|          | Viewing of movie trailer with Italian (intralingual) subtitles (2 minutes)  
|          | Viewing of video to subtitle with Italian subtitles (3 minutes)  
|          | Viewing of the script and translation (25 minutes)  
| Lesson 3 | Translation of the script (30 minutes)  
|          | Clipflair overview (5 minutes)  
|          | Subtitling task (20 minutes)  
| Lesson 4 | Subtitling task (approximately 1 hour)  
| Lesson 5 | Subtitling (25 minutes)  
|          | Reflective essay (20 minutes)  
|          | Vocabulary mid-test (10 minutes)  
| Lesson 6 | Break from AVT tasks  
|          | Show scenes with dialect + written and oral comprehension activities.  
| Lesson 7 | Presentation of revoicing task (2 minutes)  
|          | In pairs viewing of the same video but without audio (4 minutes)  
|          | Write a script to act out (approximately 45 minutes)  
| Lesson 8 | Revoicing task = enactment and recording (1 hour)  
| Lesson 9 | Revoicing task = enactment and recording (30 minutes)  
| Lesson 10 | Vocabulary post-test (1 hour)  
| Lesson 11 | Final questionnaire (10 minutes)  
|          | Semi-structured group interviews (40 minutes).  
| Lesson 12 | Oral test (1 hour)  

**Table 10 Outline of complementary study 2**

The exposure and practice time were scheduled originally over 6 weeks, however, when the experiment was repeated, it was extended to 7 weeks; this timeframe has been deliberately chosen taking into account the language acquisition process outlined in Chapter 1. A number of previous empirical studies report that the shortness of the exposure may have impacted on the outcome of the treatment and thus on the results obtained; for instance, in their study Bisson et al. (2014) link the lack of differences across conditions to the limited exposure to the FL (only 25 minutes). The outcome,
in fact, showed that the process of incidental vocabulary acquisition is slow and with such a limited exposure it yielded little vocabulary gains.

The initial questionnaire and the vocabulary pre-test were followed by an overview of the course, outlining the type of tasks that students would be asked to perform and methods of assessment. Subsequently students were introduced to subtitles and subtitling. Particular attention was paid to the process of translating for subtitling and to the overview of useful online dictionaries that students could use throughout the course. The slides shown in class were then made available on Blackboard so students could resort to them any time they needed to, in particular with regard to the subtitling process and its main rules (i.e. number of characters, good line-break). Before commencing the subtitling task, students were shown the trailer of the whole movie in order to contextualise the video clip and become acquainted with the characters and the overall plot. The video chosen for the subtitling task was shown to them firstly without subtitles and they were asked to make hypotheses on the content of it; a second viewing with Italian subtitles allowed them to verify their hypotheses. Afterwards, they were given the script and asked to start translating it into English; the translation and subtitling tasks were deliberately kept separate and carried out in class; at the end of every lesson all the scripts were collected and given back to them at the beginning of the following lesson. The purpose of this was to ascertain the impact of each practice on students’ vocabulary learning and also to observe how they approached the text and its translation. After completing the translation of the script, students were introduced into the subtitling platform Clipflair (which was also briefly presented in the introductory slides) and were given the remaining time of the lesson to start the subtitling task, which was carried out individually. The fourth lesson and half of the fifth, were dedicated to subtitling and when the task was completed, students were required to write a short reflective essay. After that there was a ‘break’ from the AVT tasks in order to stop students from viewing the video again before the revoicing task. Moreover, this break lesson was meant to ignite students’ interest and hopefully boost their motivation towards subtitling and to give an overall AVT perspective to the whole course. In fact, during this lesson they watched two other videos taken from the same movie with English subtitles\(^{12}\) and discussed the subtitler’s choices. The main

\(^{12}\) The subtitles to which reference is made are those provided in the DVD version of the movie which was used in class.
intent was to draw their attention towards issues related to the translation of culture-bound language, register and politeness, but also those related to the interaction between the written and the auditory dimensions of the multimodal product. After the break lesson students were presented with the revoicing task; they were divided into pairs and two weeks after they last watched it, they were shown the same video again but without audio. They were then asked to write a script for it, whether they remembered exactly some lines from the original one did not matter as long as they accomplished a script on which to base their revoicing tasks. It was expected that they would not remember the exact words from the original script, but at least the content or message of the dialogues; some of them were able to go back to the original dialogue remembering some key words, while others remembered the gist of the scene but rewrote their own dialogue without trying to repeat the actual words of the original. In any case, in order to facilitate the writing of the script, they were given a sort of track that showed the order in which the characters speak. The subsequent two lessons were devoted to the revoicing task, however, if some students did not finish their dialogue transcript, they were allowed some time to complete it before starting to revoice the video. The synchronisation was provided by the instructor; therefore, students only had to focus on perfecting their script and its delivery.

In order to analyse data, a repeated-measure design was applied, since this type of design is typically used in the scenarios where a variable is measured in the same subjects before and after some type of intervention, or a variable is measured in subjects closely matched in terms of relevant variables. The same individuals (or ones closely matched) are expected to perform more similarly than different individuals. In the case of the present study, the individuals are closely matched since they all have the same language level. Out of the 21 students who enrolled in the module, 11 sat the pre-test, 16 the mid-test, 14 the post-test. The following analysis concerns the data of 10 students who consistently attended lectures and sat the three written tests. For what concerns the analysis of students’ receptive recognition (RR), a one-way within-subject ANOVA test was conducted to compare scores at Time 1 (pre-test), Time 2 (mid-test) and Time 3 (immediate post-test). The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 3.
Productive recall | N | Mean scores | St.deviation
---|---|---|---
Pre-test | 9 | 3.3333 | .86603
Mid-test | 9 | 6.1111 | .78174
Post-test | 9 | 6.3333 | .70711

Table 11 Descriptive statistics for Receptive Recall (RR)

As we can see from the above table, the mean scores of the sample has increased from the pre-test to the mid-test and again from the mid-test to the post-test. It is thus necessary to have a closer look at the three tests to see if any significant difference exists between them; the following table shows the significance values at the three times:

| Test | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig.  
|---|---|---|---
| 1 | Mid-test | -2.778* | .324 | .000
| | Post-test | -3.000* | .289 | .000
| 2 | Pre-test | 2.778* | .324 | .000
| | Post-test | -.222 | .222 | 1.000
| 3 | Pre-test | 3.000* | .289 | .000
| | Mid-test | .222 | .222 | 1.000

Table 12 Pairwise Comparisons

The above table compares each pair of time points and indicates whether the difference between them is significant (see Sig. column). When the significance value is >.05, the difference in the mean scores between two times is not statistically significant. In this case scores for RR between mid-test and post-test are not statistically significant. This can be due to the small size of the sample but also to the fact that the revoicing task did not involve translation but rather a “re-creation” of the script. This is in line with previous studies that show that translation and, in this case, subtitling promotes vocabulary retention (Lertola; 2013) and in fact, while subtitling, students are exposed to natural-like L2 which they translate into their L1.
As far as productive recognition is concerned (PR), a t-test (paired-sample) was performed in order to test whether there is a significant difference in scores across the two time points (mid-test and post-test).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Test Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>T9</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mid-test</td>
<td>634.72</td>
<td>2106.4</td>
<td>635.1</td>
<td>-780.4</td>
<td>2049.78</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7901</td>
<td>2732</td>
<td>2458</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 Paired Samples T-Test for PR

Even if no statistically significant differences were found between the outcomes of the mid-test and post-test for what both RR and PR, the mean scores show a positive trend between the mid-test and the post-test, which shows that revoicing does have potential that needs to be further explored.

Overall, the analysis of quantitative data (pre-test, mid-test and immediate post-test) seems to indicate an improvement in the recognition and productive recall of the target expressions. The collocations formed by verb + noun/adjective are the most common in Italian and the pool of target collocations included a range from easier to more difficult ones.

- Most students knew the collocations “essere occupato” and “andare in pensione” at the time of the pre-test and this is probably because this type of collocation is a “free collocation” where the verb has a very general meaning which makes it easy to guess if the following word is known (other example of this type of collocation are “prendere una decisione” and “fare una telefonata”). This category of collocations can be divided into two sub-categories: (a) verb + article + noun or (b) verb + noun.

- The collocation “fare uno scherzo”, also belongs to this category, however, less than half of the students knew the meaning in the pre-test. This is probably due to the fact that students were not familiar with the word “scherzo”.

- In the expression “essere nei casini”, the word “casini” can have an ambiguous meaning. Classroom observation and students’ reflective essays have revealed a tendency to use a word-for-word approach to translation, at least in the first
stages of the module. In the specific case of this collocation, they might have been misled by the fact that the word “casino” can be found in both English and Italian, but the meaning is completely different (“casino” in colloquial Italian means “mess/trouble”).

− The least known collocation was “fare onore”.
− Many students confused “avere a che fare” with “avere da fare”.

The meaning of free collocations such as “essere occupato”, “andare in pensione”, “mettere in discussione” was somewhat easier for students to guess their meaning since the verb has a very general meaning (and these verbs are highly frequent in Italian so they probably encounter them often in other language modules) and the nouns belong to the category of high-frequency words. After 4 hours of subtitling, students’ recognition of the target expressions seemed to have largely improved; the productive recall test yielded very positive results, reinforcing previous findings according to which subtitling is an effective tool in promoting incidental acquisition of words (Lertola, 2013), and its effectiveness appears to extend to acquisition of multi-word expressions such as collocations. As discussed in the previous chapter, the use of L2 multi-word expressions contributes to make FL students sound more fluent in their L2; therefore, this study points towards another advantage of using AVT-based activities, which is that students can not only enrich their L2 vocabulary but also acquire multi-word chunks that will help them to improve their proficiency.

After nearly one month since undertaking the language post-test, students were administered an oral test that aimed at observing the controlled use of the target expressions. This test differed from the mid and the post-test mainly for two reasons: unlike the previous tests, which were written, this test required them to produce oral sentences and record themselves; secondly, they did not have to choose the correct sentence but they had to produce a sentence for each of the collocations listed. This test aimed at observing students’ ability to correctly use the expressions learned without any prompt; on the contrary, having to choose the appropriate context can put students in the position to rule out one of the two options especially when they present unfamiliar vocabulary. With this type of oral test, students have to provide an adequate context for each of the given expressions, thus proving that they have not only acquired their meaning but are also aware of how to use them. The following table shows the sentences that students produced and recorded in the oral test.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Andare in pensione</th>
<th>Essere nei casini</th>
<th>Essere occupato</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mio padre deve lavorare ancora due anni prima di andare in pensione.</td>
<td>1. La mia amica è nei casini perché non ha fatto i compiti.</td>
<td>1. Non devi chiamarla perché è occupata.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. La mia nonna non lavora più perché è andata in pensione.</td>
<td>4. Sono stata nei casini ieri, perché avevo perduto la mia borsa.</td>
<td>4. Sono occupata perché ho molte cose da fare.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Andrò in pensione, quando avrò sessant’otto anni.</td>
<td>5. Sono nei casini perché ho un esame domani e non ho studiato.</td>
<td>5. Sono occupata stasera perché devo fare i miei compiti.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Dopo molti anni di lavoro, il direttore è andato in pensione.</td>
<td>7. Sono nei casini perché non ho fatto i miei compiti.</td>
<td>7. Devo studiare per l’esame e adesso sono molto occupato.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mettere in discussione</th>
<th>Avere a che fare</th>
<th>Fare onore</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Se questo mette in discussione i risultati, dovrei fare tutto di nuovo.</td>
<td>1. Con lui, non so a che ho da fare.</td>
<td>1. Sempre dice la verità, le fa onore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mia madre mi mette sempre in discussione se non faccio niente nella casa.</td>
<td>2. Non voglio avere a che fare con questa ragazza.</td>
<td>2. Mio zio dice che io faccio onore a lui.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ho messo in discussione con i miei il problema con il mio lavoro.</td>
<td>3. Non ho a che fare con mio vecchio amico.</td>
<td>3. Ho fatto onore a Luca perché ha aiutato i bambini con i compiti.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I genitori devono mettere in discussione le storie di loro figlio.</td>
<td>4. Il ragazzo ha a che fare i compiti.</td>
<td>4. Dire la verità fa onore a una persona.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mio posto di lavoro è metta in discussione dopo l’incidente.</td>
<td>5. Le domande hanno a che fare con la presentazione domani.</td>
<td>5. I cittadini fanno onore al Presidente.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 Oral test transcription
Although grammatical accuracy was not taken into account in the evaluation of this test, it is nonetheless interesting to note that for the expressions “andare in pensione” and “fare uno scherzo”, students were able to conjugate the verb of the collocation in different tenses (for example, in the future “andrò in pensione” or the past “è andata in pensione”); the same can be said for “fare uno scherzo” where one student also used the personal pronoun “mi” correctly before the expression. With regard to the expression “mettere in discussione”, two out seven students (2 and 3) seem to have mistaken the expression with the verb “discutere” which means “to discuss/talk about”; a similar error was observed in the use of the collocation “avere a che fare” where two students (4 and 6) seem to have mistaken it with “avere [molto] da fare” which means “to have [a lot] to do”. As revealed from the language post-test, “fare onore” was probably the most difficult expression, with only 50% of students being able to correctly use it in a sentence; this might be due to the fact that the use of this verb+noun collocation is relatively limited in the Italian spoken language\textsuperscript{13}. Despite the limited number of informants, overall this test shows that most of the students retained the collocations learned during the module and proved capable of using them correctly in a sentence. After testing the collocations learnt during the module in both a receptive and productive fashion with written language pre, mid and post-tests, this last test intended to add a further contribution to the investigation of learners’ productive recall by looking at whether students would be able to use such linguistic items without being prompted to do so; furthermore, after three written tests, it was considered appropriate to perform this test orally, consistently with the fact that for three weeks students worked on dubbing the video and were steadily encouraged to practice their L2 speaking skills. In view of the positive outcome of this oral test, it was decided to adopt a similar one in the main experiment ($\S$4.3), however, instead of producing a single sentence, students were paired up with a partner and asked to record a short dialogue including the target expressions.

After the subtitling task, students undertook a reflective essay in which they had the opportunity to express their opinion on the video, the translation and the subtitling task. The reflective essay and the structure interviews provide valuable insights into the way students approached translation and the subtitling task, since it is

\textsuperscript{13} See “frequenza d'uso del termine ‘fare onore’ a nel tempo” at: https://educalingo.com/it/dic-it/fare-onore-a.
not yet clear whether it is the subtitling activity itself that yields acquisition gains or the translation that is naturally intrinsic to the task. As can be seen in Table 15, most students seemed to agree on the fact that the video was challenging but overall not too difficult for their level of Italian; they also thought it was very helpful to watch the video with the script and look for unfamiliar words in the suggested online dictionaries (WordReference and Reverso Context). Several students highlighted the usefulness of having the video alongside the script which they could use as a source of paralinguistic material that aided their comprehension of the script: (#5) “the video helped me a lot, it made me understand the emotion and context that the characters spoke in and made my translation very close in meaning as the original.”; (#6) “the video alongside the script is a very useful combination. If I had only the script to work off there would be an awful lot of language and humour lost in my translation”.
| Student #1 | Overall, I did not find the video too difficult to understand but there were a few words and phrases that I didn’t know. However, it was easy enough to find them in the suggested dictionaries – mainly Word Reference and Reverso. The video definitely did help in my translation of the script as some of the sentences were quite difficult/confusing to understand out of context. |
| Student #2 | I thought this exercise had a good level of difficulty because it was challenging but was still a manageable task and we could understand parts of the video from the first time we listened to it. Much of the vocabulary was familiar to me once I had seen the script. However, the phrases that cannot be translated literally were unknown to me and I had to look them up. The video made the expression and tone clear and helped me to find a closer translation by imagining what was being said in each scene. |
| Student #3 | The level of difficulty was fine, it wasn’t overly difficult, there were a number amount of unknown vocabulary that I couldn’t understand but thanks to the use of online translators and also with help of my teacher, it was easy to overcome and also great for learning new phrases! I found that watching the video while translating helped me with translating the script as the video helped with depicting the scenes and what’s going on in the video. |
| Student #4 | I found the video quite difficult to understand without the subtitles at first, however I did not have a lot of difficulty translating the script. The video helped to give an idea of the situation if I was unsure what the dialogue meant, or if the direct translation did not make sense. I learned quite a lot of new vocabulary but mostly new phrases, some of which cannot be translated directly from English which was very useful. The dictionaries were easy to find and very helpful with the translation. |
| Student #5 | All in all, I have thoroughly enjoyed this section of the module. I feel the task itself was very interesting and allowed me to better my skills in another aspect of foreign language learning. The aspect I found most challenging about this work was the comprehension of the video alongside the script. As a non-native of Italy, it’s very easy to sometimes miss little turns of phrase or gesticulations that mean much more than they could possibly mean in Ireland or anywhere else for that matter. Saying this the video alongside the script is a very useful combination. If I had only the script to work off there would be an awful lot of language and humour lost in my translation. |
| Student #6 | In my opinion the video and the script weren’t very difficult, there were words that I didn’t understand but the suggested dictionaries really helped me to both understand the meaning of the word and with the examples given, to understand in what context to use the words. The video helped me a lot, it made me understand the emotion and context that the characters spoke in and made my translation very close in meaning as the original. |

**Table 15 Students’ opinion on the video**
The second question asked them to express their opinions on the translation task performed before the subtitling. It is interesting to notice that one student pointed out that while translating the script, he/she “started to recognise certain words and phrases that were repeated” and while checking their translation and subtitles the student was able to compare both texts which (#3) “helped me to learn some new vocabulary”.

| Student #1 | My first approach to the translation was to translate the script directly into English using dictionaries such as Word Reference and Reverso. I tried to translate each sentence by myself first before referring to the dictionaries. I had not done much translation before this task, but I definitely felt that my skills improved as I went along. For example, I started to recognise certain words and phrases that were repeated. |
| Student #2 | First, I watched the video and tried to understand the context of the video and figure out what the story was. Then I used Reverso Context, which we had used last semester for subtitling activities. Sometimes, Word Reference was also helpful, especially for words that I was unfamiliar with or I knew by a different meaning. Having a physical copy of the script while translating was great – once the subtitles were all in English, I could look back and see if they made sense. It also helped me to learn some new vocabulary by looking at the English and Italian versions side-by-side. |
| Student #3 | I first approached the translation by firstly watching the video a few times and then reading the script and attempting to translate it and make it sound as accurate as possible to the scene. I really think my translation skills have improved as it was a great challenge and also very enjoyable which made it easier. |
| Student #4 | I wasn’t sure what to expect from my first translation assignment, as I wasn’t sure if I would enjoy it or how difficult it would be. I think my translation skills have improved, as I’m better at choosing the appropriate translation for a phrase, especially if it does not have a direct translation. |
| Student #5 | I study another language that has been thought through translation work from last year, therefore I have had previous experience with translation work. I have always found translation work quite difficult in both languages. I feel my skills have improved as far as Italian translation from Italian to English has improved. My approach to Italian translation has improved in that now I have the confidence to approach another exercise like this knowing I have experience in this aspect. |
| Student #6 | I first approached the translation by reading through it and understanding what was going on and how many characters there are, I then started writing out the translated sentences on my sheet, I chose words that I didn’t understand and watched the video, this helped me to understand the meaning of the word with the use of the translator, as some words have two meanings in different contexts. I feel like my translation skills have improved greatly, I now know the crucial steps when it comes to translations and the best translators to use online to get the best understanding of the words. |

Table 16 Students’ opinions on the translation
Finally, students expressed their opinion on the subtitling task, in particular on how it helped them to learn new vocabulary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student #1</th>
<th>I think that subtitling is a helpful activity because it increases your vocabulary and you hear words and phrases that are used more colloquially. It is also helpful because we get to hear Italian being spoken. The main difficulty I encountered was that I wasn’t always sure how to accurately translate certain phrases while still making sure it sounded natural in English. I would like to do more subtitling exercises in the future.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student #2</td>
<td>It was difficult to adjust the literal translation to the intended meaning and I struggled a little bit with cutting down unnecessary information. I would really like to do more of this work. I’d like to work with TV series or movies that are targeted at our age group…perhaps comedies! Or something that would help with commerce vocabulary maybe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #3</td>
<td>I think subtitling is a helpful activity in the foreign language classroom as it’s very useful and also makes you understand phrases better and great for learning new words and phrases that you would never have known. The main difficulty I’ve encountered was trying to keep the phrases as accurate and short as possible and trying to keep it to the point and also trying to translate difficult phrases. I would like to do more subtitling exercises in the future as it’s a very fun task and great for improving my Italian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #4</td>
<td>Subtitling is a helpful activity in that it introduces students to Italian material that contains colloquialisms and phrases that are not taught in language classes. In doing so provides an insight into Italian culture that has not been interpreted by a different country. The main difficulty I have encountered is phrases that when translated directly into English are incorrect and there is a different translation specific to Italian. I would enjoy doing more subtitling tasks in the future, preferably from Italian films/TV shows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #5</td>
<td>With the subtitling exercise, I found it to be very interesting. The exercise was completely new to me and I found it hard to remember the specific rules to follow when completing the task. Overall, I found this module very fun and rewarding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #6</td>
<td>It is a great way to expand your vocabulary and learn words that are used in different situations on a daily basis in the chosen country. I would love to do more subtitling, it’s fun and it’s a great way to learn fast and the words really stay in your head when you have to go and translate them yourself and understand why and where they are being used. I would like to subtitle some popular series such as game of thrones or friends.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 17 Students’ opinion on the subtitling task**

For what concerns the AV input, 80% of the students agreed that the language used in the video was adequate to their level of Italian, and 93.4% thought that it contained useful vocabulary and expressions. As for subtitling, data from the final questionnaire
mostly reflects the opinions provided in the reflective essay: generally, 86.7% of students found that subtitling a video helped them to improve their overall language competence in Italian. All of them thought of subtitling as a useful activity for language learning and would like to do more similar activities in the future. The revoicing task is subject to more uncertainty compared to subtitling since 60% of students thought that the revoicing task helped them to improve their L2 speaking skills, while 73.3% acknowledged that such exercise was also an opportunity to use some of the new vocabulary and expressions learned through subtitling. However, students seem to have found the overall course useful as 86.7% said to have learned new vocabulary during the module and the same percentage think they can use such vocabulary.

The group interviews took place in the language laboratory; each group composed of three or four students was interviewed by an intern working for the Italian department who recorded the conversation with a recording device under the supervision of the instructor. Three recordings were gathered from 10 students and a week later each intern transcribed her interview and that of another colleague, in order to ensure cross-checking and avoid transcription errors. Ultimately, the audio files and the transcription were examined by the instructor. Students’ responses on the subtitling task corroborate previous findings that support their efficacy in fostering L2 learning and acquiring transferable skills: “I found out more about subtitles, how they are made. The technical way”; “it is an extra skill that it was added to you”; “when we were watching them, we could learn how people communicate each other. It was useful for when we go to Erasmus, we know what to say”.

One question asked students their opinion about carrying out both subtitling and revoicing tasks within the same course. Most answers show a positive attitude towards this combination; for example, one student claimed that “I really liked doing it [subtitling]. I think it was one of my favourite things that I’ve done so far, as part of the Italian course. Because I think you can kind of see like how Italian could actually be used” and “I think it is very good, because it does help you in a different way to learn the language and it is practical”. Some issues arose with the revoicing tasks as some students reported feeling frustrated when they could not remember the dialogue from the original video and when they paraphrased, their version didn’t fit in the video: “It was difficult, because we had to try to remember. But it was kind of enjoyable and
a challenge as well”; “it was difficult, but I enjoyed that, there was nothing that I really didn’t like about the course. I found it enjoyable”.

3.4 Considerations for further research

Combining subtitling with other AVT modes is a novel idea with promising benefits for FL students. The combination of different AVT tasks within the proposed didactic methodology seems to be effective in as much as it guides students to acknowledge certain pragmatic phenomena; the fact that subtitles must match exactly what is said and displayed in the video leads students to question the meaning of certain utterances, in particular the purpose of the speaker and the social relationship with his/her interlocutor. Revoicing activities represented an opportunity to put into practice what has been previously observed in the interaction between the characters, improving their general fluency by practising intonation, pronunciation and other paralinguistic features of communication. Field notes and class observations during students’ performing of the assignments (in particular during the extra lab hours) reveal the tendency of this particular sample of students to favour a more traditional learning style over an experimental one. This attitude made it difficult for them to move away from the approach to language learning they are accustomed to, and to appreciate the novelty of AVT modes as didactic tools, especially subtitling. Their translations of the script showed a solid knowledge of certain Italian vocabulary and colloquialisms and good abilities at paraphrasing and rendering them in English (both in the translation and in the discussion in class). This non-experimental study presented as a didactic experience has several limitations and extreme caution must be exercised in interpreting and generalising the results obtained. However, it seems to reveal an untapped potential in the combination of subtitling and revoicing as an aid to language learning that offers abundant possibilities to practice and develop different areas of language competence, such as pragmatic competence as described in this section. The AV input seemed to be well accepted by students as suitable to their level of L2 proficiency as well as being challenging enough. However, for the pilot study it was decided to only use some of the episodes from the TV series Zio Gianni in order to create a common thread within the course and to take advantage of the repetitiveness of characters’ interactions and their use of language, which was deemed closer to spontaneous than that used in the clips taken from the movies. Furthermore, since the
ultimate goal was identified as the improvement of communicative skills, in subsequent studies to let the students interact with each other and thus the dubbing task from English into Italian was removed from the procedures. A major change involved the type of testing tools; it was considered more appropriate for the main experiment to have the pre-test in a bilingual version, that is, the first two exercises became bilingual receptive recognition and bilingual productive recall. This was decided in order to facilitate students’ comprehension of all the expressions listed since there was no time to administer a language test prior to the commencement of the experiment. On the other hand, the post-test was administered on the last day of the course and it had a similar design with a greater focus on the contextualised use of the formulaic language acquired. The delayed post-test mirrored the third section of the pre-test and thus asked students to perform a role-play; the situations provided were similar to those encountered in the video since it was hoped that students would make spontaneous use of the expressions learned when facing a situation that they recognised as familiar. However, by its very nature, spontaneous use cannot be easily triggered within a classroom setting and in fact, only one pair used one of the target expressions in their recording. Finally, the software in use was also changed. Participants found that although VSS was relatively easy to use, it seemed to freeze and crash, quite often deleting students’ progress on the subtitling task. Therefore, it was decided to change software and simply use Clipflair also for the subtitling task.

Another feature introduced in the main experiment is the multimodal analysis, which served the purpose of appreciating the completeness of the AVT tasks as opposed to traditional pedagogical translation. In fact, although the translation of literary texts also provides contextualised vocabulary, AV input has the great advantage of presenting input that is contextualised on different levels, namely, visual, linguistic, spatial, auditory and kinetic. The way in which students make multimodality an asset to their set of skills often seems to go unnoticed or perhaps it is taken for granted in AVT literature, since many experimental studies do not acknowledge it. As a matter of fact, most studies do not choose the literal translation (possibly integrated with complementary activities) as the treatment for the control group. Currently, to the best of my knowledge, there is one study (Lertola & Mariotti, 2017) that investigates effects of AVT tasks as opposed to traditional translation as a means to enhance ESL
learning in an Italian higher education setting. While selecting subtitling or revoicing as the independent variable to be investigated, most studies, indeed, chose listening, writing and oral comprehension tasks to be administered to a control group. However, as outlined in Chapter 1 (§1.3), translation of literary texts as a didactic tool offers many valuable advantages to the language learner by helping him/her to improve a series of L2 skills. In view of this, the present research intends to investigate the potential benefits that a course entirely based on AVT can offer as opposed to those offered by a course based on traditional pedagogical translation. Multimodal analysis was acknowledged as a tool that students use in order to glean meaning from all the components of a multimodal text. As shown in the previous paragraph, when students doubted or failed to interpret the linguistic signs, this type of analysis proved extremely useful in achieving a thorough understanding of the content of the scene and thus providing a correct translation.

The encouraging results obtained from the exploratory study and the two complementary studies triggered new questions that further research aimed at addressing with a further experimental study. Thus, the next chapter will first illustrate the methods and discuss the findings from a pilot that shaped the main studies, carried out in order to test the viability of a didactic approach based on AVT tasks as opposed to traditional translation exercises. Unlike the studies described above, in both the pilot and the main experimental study, a CG and EG group design was employed, however, data was collected through a mixed-method research approach, similarly to the studies outlined in this chapter.

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14 See ‘Reverse Dubbing and Subtitling: Raising Pragmatic Awareness in Italian English as a Second Language (ESL) Learners’, Lertola & Mariotti, 2017
CHAPTER 4 – Main Study

4.1 Introduction

Based on the literature reviewed in Chapter 1 and 2, this chapter discusses the pilot study and the main study. The main study, in particular, is a small-scale experiment designed to provide insights into the potential of AVT based activities (subtitling and revoicing) in comparison to translation integrated with oral task-based activities.

The idea behind the present research project arises from the realisation that evidence of longitudinal studies investigating learners’ language acquisition through the creation of subtitles and exposure to authentic audiovisual materials is still scarce. The literature review carried out in the first chapter highlighted the important role that translation plays in foreign language learning, in particular in relation to the possibility of identifying similarities and differences between L1 and L2 which can lead to improved noticing skills and vocabulary acquisition (§1.3). When pedagogical translation is used as part of a language programme, Heiss (2000) advocates for the use of transcriptions and scripts from AV material as they are rich in L2 authentic dialogue and can foster vocabulary acquisition while raising L2 cultural awareness. In consideration of this, in the main study, translation of AV input was chosen as the treatment condition for the control group. Given the positive influence of subtitling on foreign language learning (§2.5), it was decided to test the effectiveness of such AVT mode against the translation of transcripts of AV products. Furthermore, in order to give students the opportunity to practice oral skills and give an all-round AVT perspective to the experimental group, a dubbing task is included in the module designed for this group. The review of the literature on the use of dubbing as a language learning tool (§2.5) highlights a gap concerning the use of revoicing activities, which still have an uncharted potential that the work carried out in the main study intends to disclose. Therefore, by providing students with the opportunity to practice oral skills and at the same time exposing them to rich, authentic contextualised L2 input, dubbing can reach beyond the mere purpose of improving pronunciation, intonation, speed and fluency, and encourage students to develop their ability to creatively use the L2 vocabulary at their disposal. For this reason, a type of oral test was firstly piloted in the CS II (§3.3), as a means to observe students’ ability to reuse the target expressions by providing an appropriate context for each of them. Considering the encouraging
results obtained from this test, a similar one was adopted for the main study, with the difference that oral production would be performed in interaction. Thus, the analysis of the main study (§4.3) ultimately focuses on students’ ability to reproduce orally the expressions previously acquired in appropriate spoken productions, and on their capacity to maintain the conversational register and style required. This is a very important premise that frames the perspective from which the data analysis provided below should be interpreted; as a matter of fact, although the two groups involved in the main experiment are labelled as experimental and control, it must be kept in mind that the control group still receives some kind of instruction. Thus, the ultimate goal of this study is to compare two different methods rather than testing the effectiveness of a single method. Finally, it is very important to acknowledge that the power of the statistical test performed for this research is very dependent on the size of the sample used in the study. In fact, as Stevens (1996) points out, when the group size is small, researchers need to be aware of the possibility that a non-significant result may be due to insufficient power.

4.2 Pilot study

A pilot study was carried out during the academic year 2017/2018, in order to test both the material and most importantly the data collection instruments. In this study, 10 students were divided into two groups who were each assigned a different condition: group A carried out the AVT tasks, while group B watched the video and translated the transcript of the dialogue with the aid of the video. One week before the beginning of the module, all students sat a pre-test that contained two exercises, one aimed at checking Receptive Recall (RR) of six target multiword expressions and another one aimed at testing productive knowledge of the selected multiword expressions. In the post-test, however, students were provided with a number of situations to be identified as suitable contexts for the expression listed. Although the ultimate goal in both tests

15 In the section ‘Language Test’ (4.3.3.2) of the Main Study, more details will be provided on the nature of these expressions and the tests chosen to measure their knowledge.
was to have students produce a sentence for each expression, in the pilot study the pre-test contained an extra cue as compared to the post-test, that is, a context was provided for each of the expressions and students had to choose the correct one. In preparation for the main experiment, it was decided to eliminate any differences between the two tests and simply ask students to provide a sentence for each of the given expressions without prompts. In so doing, data obtained from these tests could be statistically analysed in the same way as data obtained for receptive recall. Considering the difference between PR tests, only data collected from the two RR exercises were analysed with SPSS through a Two-way ANOVA test. The following graph shows that there was an improvement for RR in both groups between pre-test and post-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL_RR_Pre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total_RR_Post</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>1.337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 RR Mean scores from pre-test to post-test

As we can see from the mean scores of the Pre-test in the above table, despite the randomization of the groups, the EG seems to have started from a higher baseline than the CG. However, although both groups improved between pre-test and post-test, the EG improved by 2.17 points whereas the CG by 2.00. Despite the fact that the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant, a steady tendency towards improvement can be observed from pre-test to post-test in both groups, which seems to suggest that both conditions have an effect on students’ acquisition of the selected expressions, although it is evident that participants in group A (under the AVT condition) improved more than their peers in Group B.

As a result of the pilot study, the testing tools for the Main Study were finalised as bilingual receptive recall and productive vocabulary knowledge (PR). In addition, a mid-test was adopted in the Main Study halfway through the module as a *snap-shot* of the ongoing development of students’ acquisition of the target expressions. In
relation to qualitative data, a background questionnaire and an end-of-module questionnaire were administered at the beginning and upon completion of the module respectively. A major change compared to the pilot study regards the addition of more open questions in the final questionnaire in order to get more useful insights on students’ opinions on the translation tasks and on the videos.

4.3 Main study

This small-scale experimental study was carried out during the academic year 2018/2019 in the language laboratories at NUI Galway. It involved two groups of students for a total of 6 hours per group. Overall, the module devised for both groups was composed of four different phases as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction and preparation</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Script translation</td>
<td>Subtitling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Script translation + oral production task</td>
<td>Revoicing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 19 Main Study procedures**

The preparatory phase was identical for both groups and consisted of an introductory lesson followed by two practice-based sessions of approximately two hours each (the first dedicated to the subtitling task and the second to the revoicing task). The subtitling and revoicing phases represented the core of the course, engaging students in hands-on activities. A final phase of synthesis and reflection took place at the end of the course and it was intended as an opportunity for both groups equally to take stock of their experience with AVT or translation combined with video-based activities. By performing a statistical analysis of the data collected, this doctoral project attempts to answer two research questions in order to provide further insights into how AVT practices can enhance L2 learning:

1. Is the combination of AVT practices (interlingual subtitling and revoicing) effective in promoting learners’ acquisition (recall and recognition) of multiword expressions (collocations)?
2. Provided that acquisition (recall and recognition) of multiword expressions is achieved, are students able to make use of them (productive knowledge) in a given context or by providing a context themselves (controlled use)?

To this end, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypotheses (0) = the AVT condition and the non-AVT condition (translation integrated with oral tasks) have the same effect on students' recall and recognition of phrasal verbs and locutions.

Hypothesis (1) = the AVT condition leads to an improved understanding of the contextual meaning of certain linguistic elements and results in a more efficient communicative use of them. The combination of revoicing and subtitling tasks can be effective to this purpose in as much as it encourages students to peruse and analyse the text.

The selection of the dependent variables for the present study, led to some secondary objectives pertaining to RQ1; in particular, the only dependent variable under investigation concerns the type of translation, in other words, AVT for the EG and unimodal/traditional pedagogical translation for the CG. Testing unimodal translation against AVT gave rise to issues concerning which of the two treatments is more effective in terms of acquisition of L2 collocations. Although the primary focus of this doctoral thesis is to ascertain the effectiveness of the pedagogical combination of two different AVT modalities, the explanation of procedures, analyses and discussion of data collected in this study will take into account that also the students in the CG received an instructional treatment aimed at improving their L2 skills. The didactic context in which this study is conducted calls for students enrolled in the fourth year of BA of Arts to attend a translation module. This ensured that the experiment was offered as part of a translation module, giving students the possibility to experience a different type of translation and allowing to reduce significantly differences in treatment between the two groups.
The following table shows the outline of the main study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two video clips from the TV series <strong>Zio Gianni</strong>, of a duration of 2.59 and 3 minutes respectively.</td>
<td>Two video clips from the TV series <strong>Zio Gianni</strong>, of a duration of 2.59 and 3 minutes respectively.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clipflair Platform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson 1</th>
<th>Video 1 viewing without subtitles</th>
<th>Video 1 viewing without subtitles. Video 1 viewing with intralingual subtitles Slides on screen translation Overview of dictionaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Video 1 viewing with intralingual subtitles Overview of dictionaries Translation of the script</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson 2</th>
<th>Session 1 Subtitling</th>
<th>Written comprehension &amp; production = in pairs divide the text into sequence (with titles) + summary.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subtitling Mid-Test</td>
<td>Multimodal analysis Mid-Test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Lesson 3 | | |
|----------|----------||

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson 4</th>
<th>Session 2 Video2 viewing Overview of the task on Clipflair Intralingual translation Revoicing in pairs</th>
<th>Muted video2 viewing + hypotheses Viewing with Italian subtitles Oral task-based activity = script parts in Italian to re-order and act out in pairs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revoicing</td>
<td>Translation into English + Multimodal analysis Oral task-based activity = in pairs intralingual translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Lesson 5 | | |
|----------|----------||

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson 6</th>
<th>Immediate post-test Final questionnaire</th>
<th>Immediate post-test Final questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Table 20 Material and procedures**

The material chosen for the main experiment consisted of two video clips taken from the TV series **Zio Gianni**. The episodes of this TV programme were used in the exploratory study (described at §3.2) as they do not need contextualisation and no or limited manipulation to the video, and after being piloted, their content and language used were judged suitable to be used in the main experiment. After identifying two video clips, the instructor prepared the transcriptions of the film dialogue and
evaluated the scenes in terms of their linguistic and paralinguistic appropriateness; thus, the scenes selected contained language functions and topics covered in the B2 level of the CEFR (§1.2.1) and did not contain offensive language or actions. In particular, the appropriateness of utterances is defined with regard to the relationship between an interlocutor’s communicative intention, its linguistic realisation and its embeddedness in linguistic and social contexts. The two video clips selected represented self-contained scenes – which gave consistency to the video and thus facilitated comprehension – and lasted no longer than 2 minutes each (respectively 00:01:53 and 00:01:50). All the material used during the course, transcriptions of AV dialogues and videos, was made available on Blackboard for consultation and download.

4.3.2 Participants
This study is grounded in a broader institutional context and involves university students of Italian as a foreign language; therefore, it is fair to say beforehand that the participants involved in this study constitute a ‘convenience sample’. As explained by Dörnyei (2007), Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling where the selection of participants is based on practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility. Dörnyei (2010, p. 61) further explains that “captive audiences such as students in the researchers’ own institution are prime examples of convenience sampling”, making it the most frequently used sampling type in L2 research. As Mackey and Gass (2005) point out, the obvious disadvantage of convenience sampling is that it is likely to be biased. Since the selection of sample is not random, results obtained through convenience sampling have limited generalisability and inferences are to be made only on the sample itself; nevertheless, a thorough description of the sample can help identify similarities between the selected convenience sample and the target population. In order to do so, an initial questionnaire was administered to all participants and its structure will be outlined in at § 4.3.3.1.

Another important assumption concerns the nature of the experiment and the type of participants it requires; as previously discussed, key to this research is the observation of vocabulary learning – beyond the word unit – as well as recognition and productive knowledge of Italian context-bound expressions. According to the CEFR descriptors, learners at a B1 or B2 level “can understand the main points of clear
standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. […] can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear” (CEFR: Learning, Teaching, Assessment Companion volume with new descriptors, 2018, p. 167). Since the present study is targeted to learners with an intermediate/upper intermediate level of proficiency in Italian – which, according to the CEFR corresponds to a B1/B2 level – final year students were identified as participants of the main experimental study. Students enrolled in the first year of the Bachelor of Arts Degree (1BA) at NUI Galway are normally absolute beginners and are meant to reach an A2 level according to the CEFR, by the end of the first academic year; on the other hand, students enrolled in the second year of the Bachelor of Arts Degree (2BA) will reach a B2 level at the end of the academic year. Italian Studies at NUI Galway tends to have a larger number of students in 1BA with numbers decreasing towards final year, which usually has an average of 20 students enrolled. A total of 22 students enrolled in the module, however, regardless of the efforts made in order to prevent or at least reduce drop-outs, some students did not attend one of the two treatment sessions or did not complete one of the tests and thus had to be eliminated from the experiment. By the end of the course 13 students had completed both the pre-test and the immediate post-test, and 12 the mid-test. The course was offered as part of a four-hour module called Language III which includes one hour of translation practice every week. The course was named Audiovisual Translation and ran every Monday and Wednesday from 11 to midday from January 16th, 2018 to February 21st, 2018, for a total of 12 hours. A brief description of the course was included in the booklet available to final year Arts students and the course was presented at the end of the first semester. At the same time, participants were asked to form two groups by choosing whether to attend Monday or Wednesday’s class according to their availability and class schedule; they were also informed that once the course had started, they could not change group. The two groups were then identified as control group (CG) and experimental group (EG), the former attending on Mondays while the latter was assigned to Wednesday’s classes.

4.3.3 Data collection tools
For the main experimental study, multiple instruments were used to collect data. The exploratory and the pilot study helped not only to identify research questions and
hypotheses but also to identify and test the most adequate data collection tools for the main experiment. An initial and a final questionnaire were administered to participants in both groups as well as pre-test, mid-test, immediate post-test1 (written) and an oral post-test. The following tables summarises the tools employed for the collection of different types of data;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Outline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Receptive recall</td>
<td>1) Provide L1 expression (in isolation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Productive recall</td>
<td>2) Put L2 expressions in the appropriate context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-test</td>
<td>Receptive recognition</td>
<td>12 multiple-choice-questions (MCQs) with 3 options each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 target multiword expressions + 6 distracters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Receptive recall</td>
<td>1) Provide L1 expression (the 6 target expressions were listed in English in a different order than the pre-test)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Productive recall</td>
<td>2) Contextualise the expressions by writing one sentence for each of them (in L2).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21 Quantitative Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Outline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial questionnaire</td>
<td>Factual, behavioural and attitudinal data</td>
<td>Mix of open-ended and yes/no questions on previous experience with translation and audiovisual material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final questionnaire</td>
<td>Opinions on material, module structure and difficulty of tasks</td>
<td>1) EG version 15 questions about attitude towards use of AVT in FL classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oral communicative value of the target expressions</td>
<td>2) CG version 9 questions on the use of translation in the FL classroom/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral test</td>
<td></td>
<td>In pairs record a dialogue including one or more of the six collocations given in a list.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22 Qualitative data

4.3.3.1 The questionnaires

Brown (2001) defines questionnaires as “[…] any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either
by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers” (Brown 2001, p. 6). According to Dörnyei (2010) questionnaires can yield three types of data about the respondent: factual, behavioural, and attitudinal. The initial questionnaire (also background questionnaire) was designed in order to collect such data and was structured in three sections as follows:

1. Factual data (age, sex, gender) was elicited through open-end questions which also required students to state whether they had lived in a foreign country for a period of three months or longer.

2. Behavioural data was gathered in the second section of the questionnaire. One open-end question, one dichotomous (yes/no) question, one multiple choice question and a rating scale question aimed at gathering information about students’ Italian as a FL, such as years of study, level of fluency, use outside the FL classroom and contexts of use. The rating scale question consisted of a self-assessment and required students to complete a table stating all languages they could speak and at what level. The scale ranged from a value of 1=Very poor [level] to 7 = native-like [level] and the values in between were as follows: 2=Poor 3=Fair 4=Functional 5=Good 6=Very Good.

3. A final section of open-end questions and four dichotomous questions elicited information on students’ experience with translation and audiovisual material. Questions 6 and 7 asked students about their attitude towards audiovisual material, in particular, whether they watched AV material (movies, documentaries, and TV series) produced in a FL and if so whether they watched it with subtitles or dubbed. Question 11 asked them whether they ever used AV material in the FL classroom (videos, films, etc.); question 10 whether they practised translation in the FL classroom and in particular if they have ever worked with any type of AVT (question 9 and 11).

The final questionnaire contained Likert scale questions and two dichotomous (yes/no) questions. Through Likert scale items, participants are invited to “make an evaluative judgement of the target by marking one of a series of categories organized into a scale” (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 26). Participants are asked to express to what extent they agree or disagree with certain statements by ticking one of the options that range from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’, on a horizontal line. Usually a neutral option ‘neither agree nor disagree’ is also available as in the case of this questionnaire.
The rating scales were presented coherently, thus the negative/low category always appears on the left-hand side, while the positive/high on the right-hand side and the average or neutral response (neither agree nor disagree) is in the middle.

The main objective of the final questionnaire was to elicit opinions on the material used, the structure of the course and the difficulty of tasks. The EG version contained a total of 15 questions and its main goal was to explore students’ attitude towards the extensive use of AVT modes in the foreign language classroom. Question 1 required informants to express their opinion on the Clipflair platform while questions 5 and 10 asked for their opinions on the videos and other material provided during the course (transcriptions, slides, notes); questions 2, 3 and 4 concerned the use of AVT modes in the FL classroom, in particular, they elicited information on whether the participants found these activities useful for language learning purposes and enjoyable. Questions 6, 7, 8 and 9 required participants to reflect on their experience with AVT during the course. Question 6 asked them whether subtitling helped them to notice and single out unfamiliar vocabulary. Questions 7 and 8 focused on their learning during the course, asking whether they learned new vocabulary (question 7) and achieved a better understanding of Italian expressions and colloquialisms (question 8). Question 9 required them to express to what extent they felt more confident in using the language learned during the course. The last two Likert-scale questions asked participants if the revoicing task helped improve their speaking skills (question 11) and if this task gave them the opportunity to practise some of the vocabulary learned during the course (question 12). Finally, two dichotomous yes/no questions asked students if they would like to have more subtitling and revoicing activities in the FL classroom.

The CG version of the questionnaire contained 9 questions and it was structured as follows: questions 1-7 consisted of Likert scale ratings while question 8 was open-ended and the last question was dichotomous (yes/no). The first 2 questions concerned students’ opinions on the videos and were identical to the EG version; questions 3 and 4 elicited their opinions on the use of translation in the FL classroom and asked them whether they felt that their translation skills improved. Question 5 was identical to the EG version and asked participants if they learned any new vocabulary during the course. The following three questions aimed at gathering information on students’ response to the use of AV material in the FL classroom, in particular the use of the video as an aid to the translation task. The next question was open-ended and
asked students how specifically the video-based activities helped them in carrying out their translation. Finally, the last question asked them whether they would like to have more video-based translations in the FL classroom.

Both questionnaires were administered as Google Forms due to the versatility of this tool. A link to the questionnaire was made available on Blackboard and participants in both groups could complete it on-line. Submitted questionnaires are stored online and can be downloaded at any time for data analysis; Google Forms offers the option to display individual answers to the questionnaire or a recap of the data collected in the form of charts. Furthermore, completion of questions was set as obligatory in order to avoid missing data.

4.3.3.2 Language tests
In order to address the two research questions, data on participants’ language learning and production was collected during the course through four vocabulary tests. Much of the literature in the field of L2 acquisition classifies vocabulary knowledge into productive and receptive vocabulary (Laufer, 1998; Laufer&Paribakht, 1998; Henriksen, 1999; Nation, 2001; Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2014). Harmer (2001) identified active knowledge of vocabulary as vocabulary that students can make appropriate oral use of; on the other hand, passive vocabulary can be recognised by students, however, it cannot be productively used in writing and speaking. In relation to productive vocabulary knowledge, Laufer (1998) operates a further distinction between controlled and free use, whereby the first is identified as the ability to use a word when given a certain cue; the latter is the ability to spontaneously use a word (for example in free writing) without any encouragement to produce it. Knowledge of meaning is composed of four aspects laid in a hierarchical order, whereby passive recognition is identified as the easiest component, followed respectively by active recognition, passive recall, and active recall. Among the various layers of knowledge that define the meaning of knowing a word, the dichotomy receptive/productive is probably the best known (Richards, 1976; Nation, 1990), but it must be acknowledged that the definition is somewhat more complex as it includes a variety of other elements such as collocations, associations, use in context and related meanings.

In order to obtain an all-round perspective on learners’ vocabulary knowledge, the tests chosen for the experimental study focus on two aspects of vocabulary knowledge, that is, receptive recall and productive vocabulary ability, the latter
observed in terms of controlled use of the target expressions. As explained by Laufer and Nation (1999) the term ‘controlled productive ability’ refers to “the ability to use a word when compelled to do so by a teacher or researcher, whether in an unconstrained context such as a sentence-writing task, or in a constrained context such as a fill-in task where a sentence context is provided and the missing target word has to be supplied” (Laufer and Nation 1999, p.37).

The pre-test and the post-test consisted of two sections, one testing receptive recognition where the expressions are given in isolation, and the other testing productive knowledge through contextualisation, whereby students are required to provide the L2 expressions in the appropriate context. A similar test was employed by Bravo (2008) who investigated Portuguese EFL learners’ recall and retention of idiomatic expression. At the end of an experiment that involved constant monitoring of students’ improvement through a series of tests – one of which also involved a subtitling activity – students sat a final test in which they were provided with a list of paraphrases in Portuguese for each English idiomatic expression they had been exposed to with intralingual subtitles (L2+L2), and were required to choose seven expressions and produce a coherent written text in English that contained these expressions. Due to the limited amount of time available for the present study and also to the limited number of target expressions, rather than producing a coherent text, students were given a list containing all the six expressions they were exposed to and asked to write a sentence in Italian for each them. The production exercise had very positive results, with 15 out of the 20 students who took part in the study making correct use of the seven idioms selected, while only three students wrongly used one idiomatic expression. The subtitling activity mentioned above, was carried out using LvS subtitling simulator; the instructor had pre-selected the idiomatic expressions as cues for the students to subtitle in their L1. Through repetition of the AV text, students were exposed to the meaning of idiomatic expressions in context, and this seems to have helped aid acquisition. This assumption is at the core of the present experimental study, where, active subtitling plays a central role in the module alongside revoicing, in helping students acquire L2 expressions and make correct use of them.

In relation to the nature of the expressions selected for this study, a recent definition describes multiword expressions as “lexical units larger than a word that can bear both idiomatic and compositional meanings, (...) the term multi-word expression is used as a pre-theoretical label to include the range of phenomena that goes from
Collocations to fixed expressions” (Masini 2005, p. 145). Phraseological analyses indicate that approximately one-third to one-half of language is formed by multiword expressions, which seem to be retrieved from memory as a whole (Erman, 2007; Schmitt et al., 2004; Wray, 2002). Thus, a good knowledge of such linguistic elements is deemed to be profitable for L2 learners.

For the present study, six collocations were identified as the target expressions and selected from the video clip chosen after being piloted in the exploratory and pilot study. The first section of the pre-test included a bilingual productive recall exercise whose main objective was to examine students’ knowledge of the target expressions. These expressions were listed in Italian and students were asked to provide the English translation for each of them. Each of the expressions was tested in two modalities, that is, receptive and productive recall. In particular, receptive recall was tested in the first section of the pre-test by asking students to provide the L1 translation for each of the L2 listed expressions:

- Trovare le parole (find the right words)
- Da un giorno all’altro (overnight; suddenly)
- Farla finita (stop it; get over with it)
- Prendere atto (to acknowledge)
- Fare apposta (to do something on purpose)
- Attraversare un periodo delicato (go through a rough patch)

The second section of this test required students to write a sentence for each of the expressions listed above, following given prompts. Therefore, in order to gauge both passive and active knowledge, in both pre-test and post-test, recall of vocabulary is tested first with the locutions given in isolation and subsequently by asking students to provide a context for each one of them. In the second exercise, students were asked to complete 6 Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) in Italian. The 6 prompts for the DCTs concerned situations in which students were encouraged to spontaneously use the expressions learned.

The objective of the mid-test was to observe receptive recognition of target expressions following the subtitling task and to monitor differences in vocabulary learning between the CG and the EG related to the different modalities of translation (AVT for the EG and textual translation for the CG). The mid-test was identical for
both groups and it was administered during the third lesson of the experiment, at the end of the subtitling and the first translation task. It consisted of a bilingual receptive recognition test and comprised of 12 multiple-choice-questions (MCQs) where for each of the 12 expressions listed, 3 options were given (only one was correct). The 12 expressions included the 6 target multiword expressions, while 6 distracters were selected from the same text. The reason behind the inclusion of distracters in this mid-test is mainly related to time concerns; repeated testing on the isolated target expressions may induce students to rote learning and thus foster acquisition of passive vocabulary only; on the contrary, the presence of distracters can contribute to shifting students’ attention to the text and therefore recalling the video and script rather than focussing on specific words.

During the last 20 minutes of the last lesson, students were asked to complete an immediate post-test, aimed at checking both receptive and productive recall and thus productive knowledge of the target expressions. The structure of the post-test is similar to the pre-test in as much as it consists of two sections where the first is aimed at testing productive recall (bilingually), and the second elicited appropriate use of the given expressions through contextualisation. Assuming that receptive recognition is tested with the mid-test, the post-test focused on receptive and productive recall in the same way as the pre-test. The first exercise consisted of a bilingual receptive recall (provide the L1 translation for the L2 word/expression) where the 6 target expressions were listed in English in a different order than in the pre-test. The second section consisted of a monolingual productive recall exercise where students were required to contextualise the expressions from the first exercise by writing one sentence in Italian for each of them.

The scoring method applied is based on Laufer’s (1998) and Bravo’s (2008) guidelines, whereby a correct answer scores one and incorrect or blank answer scores zero. According to Laufer (1998), an answer is considered correct when:

The appropriate word is used to express the intended meaning. If used in the wrong grammatical form […] it is not marked as incorrect. A word with a spelling error which does not distort the word (e.g. *recieve instead of receive) is not marked as incorrect either (Laufer 1998, p. 260).

With regard to the figurative meaning of the target expressions, Bravo’s scoring method classifies a response as incorrect when it reflects “the concrete meaning of a word or words in the expression” or, in the case of idioms “when the
equivalent L2 idiom was completely unrelated to the figurative meaning of the L1 idiom”” (Bravo 2008, p. 180). Therefore, the same scoring system was adopted for all three tests as follows: 1 point was given for a correct translation of the expression and 1 point when the same expression was used with semantic appropriateness in a sentence. 0 points were given when the translation was incorrect or did not convey the figurative meaning of the expression, but it was rather an attempt to a word-for-word translation of it; 0 points were also given in case of no response.

4.3.4 Procedures

Participants in both CG and EG took a pre-test a week before the beginning of the treatment. During the first lesson, which lasted one hour, both the EG and CG groups were given an outline of the course. A Power Point presentation, ‘Introduction to Audiovisual Translation’, was shown to the EG; the aim of the presentation was to give participants a brief introduction to AVT, in particular to subtitling and revoicing: the distinction between intralingual and interlingual subtitles, the modality of transfers, some translation strategies according to time and space constraints. Meanwhile the CG was introduced to screen translation and the various techniques employed when translating a script. Then, participants of both groups filled in the background language questionnaire which took about five minutes. Before moving to the procedures’ description, it is important to draw attention to the type of tasks envisaged for the EG.

In both sessions 1 and 2, participants in the EG were required to perform different AVT exercises that differ to some extent from the way in which this type of tasks has been used in previous empirical research, especially in relation to the revoicing task. Thus, Table 23 gives a brief overview of the activities carried out by the EG, which will be explained in greater detail in the next sections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtitling Task</th>
<th>Revoicing Task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Students were trained to use Clipflair before the beginning of the module.</td>
<td>- The revoicing activity was designed as an intralingual translation, as a means to reuse the vocabulary acquired.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The activity was given to them as a &quot;package&quot;.</td>
<td>- The video chosen for this task presented a similar communicative situation as the video used for the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Subtitle the video clip from L2 into L1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
subtitling task. Given the similarity of context and communicative situation, the target expressions and more vocabulary contained in the first video are considered suitable to be reused for this video.

Table 23 Overview of AVT tasks for the EG

4.3.4.1 Session 1

During the first session, participants in the EG worked on subtitling for one session, for a total of one hour during the first lesson and 45 minutes in the second lesson; at the end of this session they had to submit their subtitle file along with their translation of the script. Since it was not possible to keep track of the exact number of times each student watched the video and in order to provide both groups with a similar input, the control group was asked to perform activities that required watching the video repeatedly. In so doing, the only significant difference between the groups was the AVT task. The first session of the CG (1 hour and 45 minutes) was divided into two different activities; they began by undertaking a written comprehension and production task, which required them to watch the video and carefully read the script in order to divide it into sequences. A sequence was described to them into the context of video products as a distinct narrative unit, characterised by unity of time or space. Subsequently, they had to write a summary of the script and translate it (the translation consisted in the assignment; therefore, it was carried out individually at home). As for the first task, a viewing of the video was followed by group work; they were then divided in 4 pairs and one group of 3 and, after watching the video individually, they had to divide the script into sequences and give a title (in Italian) to each of them. On the one hand, the video could help to identify sequences according to scene changes, where the setting or the character(s) suddenly change; on the other hand, reading the script could help to identify sequences based on a change of content. Furthermore, in order to produce a title for each sequence, students needed not only to understand the script but also to identify keywords. The minimum number of sequences was set at two, while a maximum number was not established, in order to allow each pair to discuss how to best break down the script into smaller units. A first reading of the script was followed by a few minutes of brainstorming, where students shared what
they had understood of the text, to make sure that the key concepts were clear to each member of the group or pair. Then, they started sequencing the script and deciding titles. The sequences of each pair/group were written on the whiteboard in order to discuss the differences, especially in the titles, and determine whether the content and key ideas of the text were understood.

The second activity consisted in writing – in Italian – a brief summary of the script, an exercise aimed at improving written comprehension as well as foster L2 writing skills. The two activities carried out in class can be included in the comprehension phase, which precedes the translation process. Group work and discussion on the video and the script helped students to reach an overall comprehension of the text, which they needed in order to translate individually. The second part of the first session (45 minutes) was dedicated to a reflective task where participants of the CG, after submitting their translated scripts and the attached summary, were required to watch the video and carry out a multimodal analysis of it. They were divided into groups of three and each group was assigned a different semiotic system – visual, kinetic, linguistic, aural, and spatial – and were required to write a paragraph on how it aided their comprehension of the video clip. Students were thus encouraged to reflect on how different elements work together to convey meaning to the video clip and how this can help to achieve a thorough understanding of linguistic input received.

Once session 1 was completed, each group took a mid-test aimed at observing potential differences in receptive recognition of the target expressions following the subtitling task for the EG and the translation task for the CG.

4.3.4.2 Session 2
The video chosen for this second task presented a similar communicative situation as the video used for the subtitling task (a conversation between the same characters – Gianni and Fiorella – where one is struggling to say something to the other). Given the similarity of context and communicative situation, the target expressions are considered suitable for the second video; in fact, all of them can be easily used in any conversation that involves feelings of hesitation (“trovare le parole”), disbelief (“da un giorno all’altro / la fai finita?”) and resignation (“prendere atto”). Students in the EG were asked to carry out an intralingual translation of the script at home and insert the
target expressions in their revoicing task. During lesson 4, participants in the EG were divided into pairs and were shown the video to be revoiced; subsequently they were provided with the script and were asked to carry out an intralingual translation of it, which mainly consisted in rephrasing in order to produce sentences with the same meaning as the original in the L2. The revoicing activity took place during lesson 5. Once all pairs had produced an intralingual translation of the script, they were ready to revoice the video.

According to Jakobson’s (1959/2000) classification of translation types, “intralingual translation or rewording is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language” (Jakobson 1959/2000, p. 114). Although Jakobson first and later Steiner (1975) identify a close affinity between interlingual and intralingual translation, intralingual translation is often overlooked both in translation studies and in language learning contexts. The methodology applied in this experiment draws from the proposal by Ángeles Carreres & María Noriega-Sánchez (2011) on how to teach and practice translation. Although this proposal is targeted to the trainee translators, some of the insights the authors provide can be adapted to use in the FL classroom, in particular as they present intralingual translation as an ‘activity […] used to apply the concept of translation as a communicative act that all speakers perform routinely within their own language’ (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez 2011, p. 290-291).

In their sample translation tasks, they discuss the use of intralingual translation of a film, whose main objectives are to:

- Raise students’ awareness of translation as a communicative activity that is not wholly different from monolingual communication.
- Raise students’ awareness of register, style, geographical variety, medium and target audience.
- Practise reformulation.

Since the ultimate goal of this experiment is to promote communicative competence in the FL, this type of activity was considered appropriate to achieve such objectives. At the same time, Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez’s proposal is taken to a further level where the intralingual translation produced by students is also practised orally through a revoicing activity. In the same way as the subtitling task, synchronisation for revoicing was provided by the instructor and the task was presented again as a Clipflair
activity file, which, once opened in the Studio, only required students to watch the video and insert their captions or record their voices. The evaluation for the dubbing task was carried out using an *ad hoc* rubric that followed the guidelines provided by Talaván & Costal, (2017) and includes the following criteria:

- Accuracy: the voice recordings are grammatically correct.
- Synchrony: there is synchrony between the duration of each voice recording and the duration of the original actor’s corresponding utterances.
- Pronunciation: the voice recordings are pronounced correctly.
- Intonation: intonation is natural.
- Performance/dramatization of the dialogues: performance resembles the original utterance. (Talaván & Costal, 2017, p. 76)

At the same time, during their fourth lessons, participants in the CG watched the same video without audio and made hypotheses on what happens in the clip; the aim of this first activity was to identify the general communicative situation of the video and to observe students’ ability to make assumptions on its content by analysing the various semiotic systems (visual, kinetic and spatial). The viewing was followed by a task-based activity where students were divided into pairs and given parts of the script. They were required to put into order the various strips, each of which contained a few lines of the transcription, and once the script was completed, they translated it into Italian. The translation was followed by a brief class discussion where students were asked to examine the whole script, noting unfamiliar words or expressions and were encouraged to find synonyms for them or rephrase them in Italian (intralingual translation); finally, the oral task consisted of reproducing the same scene in pairs, acting out the script.

At the end of the second session the immediate post-test and the final questionnaire were administered to both groups; the first 15 minutes of the lesson were allocated to the completion of the post-test, while the questionnaire was administered online through Google Forms and students had 10 minutes to complete it.

**4.3.4 Pre-test and post-test analysis**

In this section the analysis of the data collected in the main study is presented. In order to address the research questions RQ1 and RQ2, participants’ results from the aforementioned language tests were analysed using the statistical programme SPSS.
With the intent of providing an exhaustive evaluation of learners’ language performance, a global analysis was carried out by choosing a mixed-method approach for the present experimental study; in addition to a quantitative analysis based on participants’ language tests results, questionnaire responses were also analysed so as to get a more comprehensive picture of the outcome. Qualitative data was gathered through the two questionnaires administered to both groups, especially through the open-ended questions in the final questionnaire. However, before proceeding with the inferential statistical analysis, it is important to underline, as previously mentioned, that generally, results obtained from a small sample size have lower chances of being statistically significant compared to larger sample sizes as they are less likely to reflect the population mean (Royall, 1986). With this in mind, the following examination consists of two parts that attempt at tackling the two research questions formulated at the beginning of the chapter; on the one hand, analysis 1) aims at detecting differences between the two groups involved in the study, in terms of acquisition and ability to use the target multiword expressions thus answering RQ1. Secondary objectives related to RQ1 are investigated in analysis 2) which aims at detailing the effects of the two treatment conditions (AVT and textual translation) at three time points (pre-test, mid-test and post-test) by observing improvement in each individual group. The independent variable for this study is the time and the dependent variable is the treatment condition (AVT vs translation).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receptive Recall (RR)</th>
<th>Productive Recall (PR) + contextualised use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test of normal distribution</td>
<td>Kolmogorov - Smirnoff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not normally distributed</td>
<td>Normally distributed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ1</th>
<th>Analysis 1)</th>
<th>Analysis 1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilcoxon Test</td>
<td>Paired sample t-test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ1 secondary objectives</th>
<th>Analysis 2)</th>
<th>Independent sample T-test,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mann Whitney U-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| RQ2 | Paired sample t-test |

Table 24 Statistical tests employed in this study

4.3.4.1 Analysis 1)

First and foremost, a test of normality was carried out in order to gauge whether the RR and PR scores of participants were normally distributed; a non-significant result (Sig. value is greater than .05) indicates normality within the sample; such a result was obtained in the pre-test for PR, while at the same time there was no normal distribution for the RR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnova</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RR Pre-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RR Post-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR Pre-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR Post-test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25 Tests of Normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov)

Analysis 1 addresses RQ1 by investigating the extent to which both treatments enhanced students’ acquisition of collocations. For the purpose of this analysis, the two groups are considered separately and improvement is shown by comparing the mean scores of one group across the language tests’ times; the goal is to shed light on whether each single treatment condition (pedagogical AVT and unimodal translation) has a positive effect on learners’ acquisition of L2 MWE over a period of time (from
pre-test to post-test). In view of the outcome of the Normality test, it is possible to carry out an independent sample T-test on the two PR tests, while a non-parametric equivalent was applied to the three RR tests.

As it can be seen in the following chart, the Wilcoxon test revealed a statistically significant improvement in Receptive Recall scores for the EG, \( p = 0.017 \). It also revealed a statistically significant difference in Receptive Recall scores for the CG; \( p = 0.026 \).

On the other hand, since the sample shows a normal distribution for PR, a paired-sample T-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the intervention on students’ scores on the vocabulary language tests. By comparing the mean scores of the EG and CG first in the pre-test and subsequently in the post-test, it is possible to observe whether the two groups have a similar baseline.

At pre-test time, no significant difference in scores for the EG (M = 1.29, SD = .95) and CG (M = 1.83, SD = 1.72) was detected; \( t(11) = -.72, p = 0.48 \). It can be thus surmised that both samples had equal levels at pre-test time.

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**Chart 2 Wilcoxon Test**

On the other hand, since the sample shows a normal distribution for PR, a paired-sample T-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the intervention on students’ scores on the vocabulary language tests. By comparing the mean scores of the EG and CG first in the pre-test and subsequently in the post-test, it is possible to observe whether the two groups have a similar baseline.

At pre-test time, no significant difference in scores for the EG (M = 1.29, SD = .95) and CG (M = 1.83, SD = 1.72) was detected; \( t(11) = -.72, p = 0.48 \). It can be thus surmised that both samples had equal levels at pre-test time.
Another independent sample T-test was conducted to examine whether there was a significant difference in PR scores between the experimental and control group at post-test. Although there appears to be higher PR mean scores for the experimental group, similarly to the above result, there was no statistically significant difference for the PR post-test between the groups; \( t(11) = 1.63, p = 0.13 \). The following chart summarises the outcome of the two T-tests conducted at pre-test and post-test time.

**Chart 3 T-tests**

As the above chart shows, the mean scores of both groups improved between pre-test and post-test which seem to indicate that both treatments were successful in enhancing students’ productive recall of the target expressions. However, a more positive trend toward increase can be noticed in particular for the EG.

**4.3.4.2 Analysis 2)**

Contrarily to the previous analysis, analysis 2 examines the interaction between the two groups in order to explore whether one was significantly more effective than the other in fostering students’ acquisition of L2 MWE. To this end, a Mann-Whitney U Test was used to check differences between two independent groups on a continuous measure. Instead of comparing the means of the two groups, as in the case of the T-test, the Mann-Whitney U Test actually compares medians.
In this case the probability value (p) is not less than or equal to .05, which is not significant. $p=.11$. Therefore, results obtained from this test reveal that there is no statistically significant difference in Receptive Recall between the EG and the CG from pre-test and post-test.

Similarly, the T-test results on Productive Recall show a growth in the both groups:

**Chart 4 Mann-Whitney Test - RR**

**Chart 5 T-test - PR**
Although there appears to be higher PR mean scores for the experimental group, there was no statistically significant difference for PR post-test between the groups; \( p = 0.13 \).

### 4.3.5 Descriptive statistics

Alongside the inferential statistics analysis, an additional descriptive analysis was carried out on pre-test and post-test scores in order to establish which expressions students found to be most difficult to retain and use. As demonstrated with the statistical inferential analysis, the scores of both groups have improved over time for both RR and PR, which indicated that both conditions had an effect on students’ L2 acquisition. The following table shows the breakdown of the six target words with the number of correct answers for each of them at pre-test and post-test time for RR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Trovare le parole</th>
<th>Da un giorno all’altro</th>
<th>Farla finita</th>
<th>Prendere atto</th>
<th>Fare apposta</th>
<th>Attraversare un periodo delicato</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 26 Number of correct answers per expression for RR

As can be seen from Table 26, receptive recall improves in all expressions, and the most difficult ones, that is where the score at pre-test is 0, are “prendere atto” and “fare apposta”. The same was done for PR as shown in the table below. When scores in RR happen to be higher than PR at pre-test, it could mean that students remember the meaning of a given word or expression but are not able to use it; in other words, it is stored in their memory as passive knowledge, which they cannot yet activate for productive use. Conversely, some of the scores appear to be higher at pre-test in PR rather than RR and this could be due to the peculiarity of collocations and multiword expressions in general; as explained in chapter 2, collocations are generally retrieved from memory in chunks and they are deeply connected with the context they are used in. Therefore, some students might have heard or seen one of these expressions and remember its meaning when contextualised, however, when presented in isolation they
might be unsure and try to retrieve its meaning by attempting a literal translation of the components.

With respect to the difficulty of target expressions, congruently with the results obtained from the complementary study 2 in the previous chapter (§3.3.2), free-collocations such as “trovare le parole” or “attraversare un periodo delicate” seem to be the easiest ones both for RR and PR. On the other hand, “fare apposta” is composed of the verb “fare” plus the adverb “apposta”, which is widely used in Italian locutions such as a “farlo apposta” or “neanche a farlo apposta” or as an adverb, where it means “on purpose”. The collocation “prendere atto” also caused problems, perhaps because students attempted a literal translation whereby “atto” means action and thus translated it as “take action instead” of “take note/acknowledge”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Trovare le parole</th>
<th>Da un giorno all’altro</th>
<th>Farla finita</th>
<th>Prendere atto</th>
<th>Fare apposta</th>
<th>Attraversare un periodo delicato</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CG</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EG</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27 Number of correct answers per expression for PR

As far as the mid-test is concerned, this receptive recognition test intended to elucidate differences in students’ RR before and after the subtitling task. The purpose of this test was to obtain a ‘snap-shot’ of the acquisition stage reached by both groups halfway through the experiment in order to see whether they were recognising the expressions or if they were struggling in recognising them as chunks. In the present study, both groups seem to remember most target expressions after the first task, which
consisted in subtitling for the EG and script translation for the CG. Greater progress seemed to take place during the subtitling phase as can be seen from the chart below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receptive recognition</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>35</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experimental group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chart 6 Mid-test results for Receptive Recognition**

This result is most likely owing to the fact that students watch the video repeatedly while carrying out the subtitling task, while students in the CG, although having the video at their disposal, probably watched it less times and concentrated more on the translation of the printed dialogue transcript.

**4.3.6 Questionnaire analysis**

This section is dedicated to the analysis of the two questionnaires that were administered to both groups, one at the beginning and one at the end of the module. Prior to the beginning of the module, an initial questionnaire was distributed to all participants. Its structure was the same as the one used in the complementary study and described in detail in the previous chapter (§3.3.2). A total of 14 students answered the questionnaire, however, the following analysis considers only responses from the informants who sat pre-test and post-test as well as demonstrating regular attendance. From this questionnaire it emerged that all students were native speakers of English and three were bilingual with different languages (Yoruba, Spanish and Slovak). Six of them had lived in Italy for five months or less and one of them for one year; the same students spent the other six months of their Mobility Programme in other
countries, such as Germany, Spain, Austria and the USA. In fact, as shown in chart 7, most student could speak another foreign language beside Italian.

Chart 7 Foreign languages spoken besides Italian.

In relation to the contact with the L2, 10 out of the 12 subjects that completed at least two of the vocabulary tests, resided in Italy for a period between three months and one year. Chart 8 shows another interesting aspect of the questionnaire that concerned their familiarity with audiovisual material and their viewing preferences.

Chart 8 Number of students who watch AV products in a foreign language

80% of students reported that they like to watch audiovisual material in a foreign language. Of this 80%, 100% stated that they preferred watching AV material with subtitles. However, when it comes to spoken interaction in the L2, only 50% of the
students reported that they use Italian outside of the language classroom and most of them use it with friends. As far as translation is concerned, all students reported to have some experience with translating texts in the language class and only one student had not subtitled a video before (these were the same students who underwent the complementary study two years earlier).

An evaluation questionnaire was handed out to students in both groups at the end of the experiment to find out about their impressions of the module. As previously described, two different questionnaires were administered to each group in order to gain insights into how students felt each condition had helped them to improve their L2 skills. The questionnaire administered to participants in the CG consisted of two sections, one on the video and one on the translation and its effects on their language abilities.

The following chart summarises students’ answers from the first section of the questionnaire, which elicited their opinions on the video, the translation task and the use of audiovisual material (video).

![Chart 9 Students’ opinions on the video and the subtitling task](image)

The following chart summarizes students’ answers from the first section of the questionnaire, which elicited their opinions on the video, the translation task and the use of audiovisual material (video).
Participants in the CG evaluated the video as adequate to their level of Italian and useful for carrying out the translation task. The second part of the questionnaire contained an open-ended question aimed at gaining a deeper understanding of how watching the video can aid the translation. The first question asked students to comment on how the video helped them in their translation, in particular, what aspects of the video helped them most in understanding the content (i.e. the language spoken, images, soundtrack etc.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student #1</th>
<th>Learning new words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student #2</td>
<td>The language spoken and the characters actions/emotions were useful when translating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #3</td>
<td>The soundtrack helped me to understand the way in which words are said, as did watching how the characters said the dialogue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #4</td>
<td>What helped me the most were certainly the images and the gestures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #5</td>
<td>How formal the language spoken was, could see through body language. Soundtrack helped convey the atmosphere which made it easier to translate the script as you knew what type of setting it was.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #6</td>
<td>The images and gesturing helped me to further understand the content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #7</td>
<td>I think the video helped me with the small words especially when I could see Gianni’s movements and behaviour it was easier to translate the script.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28 Students’ opinions on the video

As emerges from the above table, the visual and kinetic elements – in particular gestures, body language and movements– helped students to better understand characters’ speech. A second open-ended question asked students in the CG to provide insights into how the translation tasks helped them to improve their L2 abilities. The following table reveals that listening comprehension, vocabulary acquisition and grammar are the skills in which students perceived a greater improvement:
On the other hand, the questionnaire for the EG consisted of four sections, concerning the following elements: AV input, subtitling task, revoicing task and intralingual translation. Firstly, the AV input seems to have been well accepted by students, who considered the videos interesting and stimulating and thought they helped them with the translation of the script, as the following table shows:

| Student #1 | In the videos they talked fast, so that helped me improve my listening comprehension. |
| Student #2 | I had to look up different words and phrases I was unfamiliar with. |
| Student #3 | Watching the video and reading the script helped me to better understand the language. |
| Student #4 | Watching the videos my listening comprehension improved greatly and when we were translating the scripts, I had to be careful with the grammar I was using which also only helped me. |
| Student #5 | I had to look up new words which helped my vocabulary. Listening to Italian videos helped with audio skills. |
| Student #6 | By listening to the video, a number of times I was able to follow what they were saying much easier. In the beginning they appeared to be speaking so quickly. |
| Student #7 | My listening comprehension improved as I had to listen and look at the video numerous times to ensure that I was writing the correct words. |
| Student #8 | I learnt how to pronounce words that I was pronouncing wrong in the past. My grammar improved. |

Table 29 Students’ opinions on the translation task

On the other hand, the questionnaire for the EG consisted of four sections, concerning the following elements: AV input, subtitling task, revoicing task and intralingual translation. Firstly, the AV input seems to have been well accepted by students, who considered the videos interesting and stimulating and thought they helped them with the translation of the script, as the following table shows:
The EG version of the final questionnaire comprised questions that specifically addressed the usefulness of subtitling and revoicing as pedagogical tools. Answers gathered from the first section consisting of Likert-scale questions, unanimously suggested that students considered both the subtitling and the revoicing tasks to be equally useful for language learning purposes. In the specific case of the subtitling activity, the following chart shows how students evaluated its usefulness in enhancing various areas of language competence.

Table 30 EG students’ opinions on how the video helped them with the translation

The EG version of the final questionnaire comprised questions that specifically addressed the usefulness of subtitling and revoicing as pedagogical tools. Answers gathered from the first section consisting of Likert-scale questions, unanimously suggested that students considered both the subtitling and the revoicing tasks to be equally useful for language learning purposes. In the specific case of the subtitling activity, the following chart shows how students evaluated its usefulness in enhancing various areas of language competence.
With reference to vocabulary knowledge specifically, students’ responses were quite homogeneous in indicating that the subtitling activities helped them to note and single out unfamiliar vocabulary and expressions (57.1% strongly agree and 42.9% agree). This reflects in their answer to the following open-ended questions:

**Please comment on the above question: how did the subtitling task help you improve these abilities?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student #1</th>
<th>By listening and then creating our own [subtitles]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student #2</td>
<td>I had to think of the English equivalent to certain phrases- more colloquial sometimes. It helped improve vocabulary as had to look up new words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #3</td>
<td>Because I had to try and get the point across, I had to make sure that I fully understood the unfamiliar vocabulary and grammar being used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #4</td>
<td>I was able to hear the video and see what I knew. Also, within translating I found that I knew more Italian than I thought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #5</td>
<td>By watching the video, I was listening more intently to understand the Italian being spoken, it also helped that the video was fun and entertaining to watch. From translating the text at home, I found that my grammar and writing improved and I learned lots of new expressions that I otherwise would not have come across so I think that this will also improve my fluency of the language when speaking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #6</td>
<td>It is really interactive, so it forces your brain to focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #7</td>
<td>Having to repeat phrases helped my spoken and translation [skills]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 31 Students’ opinions on the subtitling task**

Apart from the benefits of acquiring more vocabulary, the subtitling activity was a valuable exercise in the learning experience, as it involved repetition of the verbal text and students were exposed to the meanings of the idioms in realistic contexts. This could only reinforce the imprint of the expressions in their memory. Replaying the segments to be subtitled meant that students could listen to phrasing, emphasis and the tone of the source language. Students found it challenging but not excessively demanding, as they could replay the segments until they accomplished the task.
At the same time, students’ responses on the revoicing tasks describe the activity as enjoyable and beneficial to the improvement of various language skills, namely, speaking, listening comprehension and vocabulary knowledge.

Chart 11 Students’ opinions on the language abilities improved with the revoicing task

Like the CG version, the final section of this questionnaire included open-end questions that offered students the opportunity to elaborate on the revoicing task and its effects on their language competence.
Please comment on the above question: how did the revoicing task help you improve these abilities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student #1</th>
<th>Especially the listening and speaking, listening to the actors.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student #2</td>
<td>It is really interactive, so it forces your brain to focus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #3</td>
<td>I had to learn to understand the dialogue on two levels, its direct translation and also how to say it differently in Italian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #4</td>
<td>Saying phrases out loud instead of just writing them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #5</td>
<td>I was able to practice my annotation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #6</td>
<td>The revoicing task helped me to understand the timing of the speech and so I listened more intently before I said the translation. Practicing speaking out loud helped me to improve my spoken Italian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student #7</td>
<td>I had to use different Italian which I had not done before.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32 Students’ opinions on the revoicing task

The effect of the revoicing task is perceived by students as particularly positive on their communicative competence; 85.7% reported that the revoicing task helped them to improve their speaking skills and all of them saw in it an opportunity to use some of the new vocabulary and expressions learned during the course (57.1% strongly agree and 42.9% agreed). However, when listening to EG revoiced videos, only two groups used two of the target expressions, respectively “da un giorno all’altro” and “trovare le parole”. Certainly, it is a small number, but it is nevertheless an encouraging result that seems to point towards an increase in confidence in how to use these expressions; in fact, as Laufer & Nation (1999) state that:

> a learner may be able, to provide a sentence with an infrequent word when required to do so by the teacher but be reluctant to use it when left to his own devices, as in a composition writing task and choose to use a simpler, more frequent word of a similar meaning. Such reluctance is often a result of uncertainty about the word’s usage. Put differently, lack of confidence is a reflection of imperfect knowledge” (Laufer & Nation, 1999, p.37).

Albeit not infrequent, research on FL learners’ use of collocations has shown that even at an advanced level learners encounter difficulty in producing them (Nesselhauf, 2003) and tend to prioritise free combinations over collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005).

4.3.7 Oral test

The oral test was administered one month after the end of the module and aimed at observing whether students successfully retained the target expressions and were able to use them in a conversation. Similar to the study described in the previous chapter (§3.3.2), this test analysed the oral communicative value of the target expressions that
students had to re-use appropriately. While participants in the complementary study 2 were required to produce one sentence per collocation, this test differs in that participants in both groups were randomly paired up and asked to record a brief dialogue including one or more of the six collocations that were given to them in a list. In so doing, the communicative value of the vocabulary learned is tested through interaction, as each pair of students had to produce at least two lines of dialogue, one including the target expression and one consisting in a reaction to it. Referring to the definition of controlled use provided by Laufer (§1.5.2.1), this type of oral test is controlled in the way that items to test are predetermined and students are required to produce the target expressions in an unconstrained manner. Assuming that receptive vocabulary is larger than controlled active vocabulary, which, in turn, is larger than free active vocabulary (Laufer and Paribakht’s, 1998) and that this can be refined to verb-adverb collocations (Nizonkiza, 2012), this test was intended to observe a progression towards oral use moving away from the written form of the previous tests that measured receptive and productive recall respectively, both in isolation and in context.

The oral test designed for this study can be considered a cued role-play in that students have to interact in the same way they would in a role-play. However, instead of being given a prompt situation, they were given a language item to include in a situation they had to create. Unfortunately, because the oral test was administered at the beginning of the second semester and students were enrolled in different modules, it was not possible to ensure full participation and only six students sat the test, two pairs from the experimental group and only one pair from the control group. Given the very small number of informants, no definite conclusions can be drawn from the results of this test, therefore the next paragraph will be limited to show students’ answers followed by a brief discussion.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pair 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) - Cosa è successo [successo] ieri? Ero molto ubriaco.</td>
<td>1) - Non so come posso trovare le parole per dirti questo ma ieri ho scoperto il tuo cane morto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ho bisogno trovare le parole... ma hai perso la tua chiave.</td>
<td>- Non ci credo. So che è molto difficile, stai attraversando un periodo delicato, ma è molto importante che stai con le persone importanti nella tua vita e non so che cosa posso dirti.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) – Io so che non è possibile che tu cambi da un giorno all’altro, ma devi.</td>
<td>- Ma voglio bene il mio cane.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ho bisogno prendere atto che ho un problema. Ah! Devo cambiare.</td>
<td>- Ma Katie, non l’ho fatto apposta.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Ma Katie, non l’ho fatto apposta.</td>
<td>- Io so che non è possibile che tu cambi da un giorno all’altro, ma devi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Io dico che adesso la fai finita. Devi andare all’incontro A.A. [alcolisti anonimi].</td>
<td>- Io dico che adesso la fai finita. Devi andare all’incontro A.A. [alcolisti anonimi].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Ma non è necessario, attraverso solo un periodo delicato.</td>
<td>– Ma non è necessario, attraverso solo un periodo delicato.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Pair 2** |               |
| 1) – Ciao Megan, non posso trovare le parole ma andò a Spagna [andró in Spagna] per due anni. | 1) – Aisling sono stanca con te. Devi pulire la cucina. |
| - Oh, sono molto triste. | - Sempre sto pulendo la cucina e non ce la faccio più. |
| 2) – Il tempo a Galway cambia da un giorno all’altro, non mi piace. | - Devi prendere atto. |
| - Sí, davvero, non è come in Italia. | - No. |
| 3) – Questo anno è troppo stressante, voglio farla finita ora. | - Sí. |
| - Oh, anche io. | 2) – Aisling sono stanca della palestra. Non ho visto un cambio [cambiamento]. |
| 4) – Dobbiamo prendere atto che quest’anno è molto importante. | - Ma dai, da un giorno all’altro migliorerai. Lo so. Io so che è difficile ma hai bisogno di continuare. |
| - Sí, dobbiamo studiare adesso. | - Lo provo. |
| 5) – Ciao Megan, mi dispiace ma ho dimenticato le tue scarpe per stasera, non l’ho fatto apposta. |               |
| - Oh, Orla! Li bisogno [mi servono] per stasera per la festa. |               |
| 6) – Questo tempo [periodo] l’anno scorso era molto difficile ma oggi possiamo dire che abbiamo attraversato un periodo delicato insieme. |               |
| - Sí, tutto è più facile insieme. |               |

Table 33 Oral test transcription

As discussed in Chapter 1, the notion of appropriateness can be rather difficult to assess as different components of communicative competence must be taken into account (§1.5.1). For the purpose of this test, an ad-hoc rubric was created following Taguchi’s guidelines, previously described in §1.5.3. However, given the limited
amount of data and briefness of the dialogue that could not be very complex for reasons of time, the parameters were refined to include only comprehensibility, register, and overall linguistic and extra-linguistic accuracy. Therefore, a holistic approach was applied to evaluate appropriateness through this oral test by considering pragmatic features such as register and politeness, as well as the linguistic (correct grammatical use of collocations) and extra-linguistic (pitch and intonation) ability to realise those pragmatic features. Furthermore, instead of adopting a rating scale, a pass/fail method for evaluation was chosen, whereby pass was granted by an effective combination of the three parameters mentioned above.

As can be seen from Table 33, students in the CG used four of the six listed collocations, two correctly (“trovare le parole” and “attraversare un periodo delicato”) and two incorrectly (“prendere atto and da un “giorno all’altro”). Taking into account previous tests, it seems that students did not remember the meaning of “prendere atto” and attempted a literal translation that resulted in “take action2”, which seems to be what they wanted to express in this sentence. The same might be said for da un “giorno all’altro” that in this sentence seems to take the meaning of “day by day” rather than “overnight”. On the other hand, pair 1 in the experimental group showed to have retained all the expressions and to be able to adequately use them in interaction. Interestingly, they also managed to produce longer dialogues including several of the target collocations rather than a brief exchange for each of them. Pair 2 instead, created shorter dialogues, however, they adequately used five out of six collocations. From a grammatical and syntactical point of view, “farla finite” is used correctly, however, the expression is incorrect in the context of the sentences provided since it does not mean simply “to end [something]” but rather to “get it over with” or “stop it”. Pair 1 of the EG produced more articulate sentences, as the responses to the sentences containing the target collocation are not limited to yes or no and few more words of approval or disagreement but in turn include more collocations.

Although no definitive conclusion can be drawn from this test, it nonetheless represents an attempt at observing whether students not only retained the collocations learned during the module, but also would they be able to use them in a conversation. This test could also be turned into an in-class activity that requires students to personalise the vocabulary learned, that is, to make use of the language learned in a way that resembles spontaneous conversation. It also opens up further avenues of
future research into long-term effects of exposure to multiword expressions through AVT that will be discussed in the next and conclusive chapter.
CHAPTER V – Conclusions, observations and recommendations for further research

5.1 The research and the studies

The present work stems from the identification of a gap in the current state of research and practice of AVT and is firmly positioned among research trends that support a critical reappraisal of pedagogical translation. The investigation conducted in this doctoral project represents a contribution to the line of research that upholds the reintroduction and reassessment of translation in the foreign language classroom as a means to promote the acquisition of linguistic skills and L2 vocabulary. While presenting an overview of the empirical studies outlined in this doctoral thesis, this final chapter recaps their main findings and discusses their limitations in order to prepare the ground for further investigations and facilitate research into the topic.

A total of four studies were conducted in order to explore the potential of subtitling and the combination of subtitling and revoicing within the same module. All studies were integrated in the language curriculum of BA students of Italian as they were offered as full modules within the general language course. This conclusive section will take stock of the work conducted within this doctoral research and overall contributions to the field of AVT and L2 learning are discussed for each of the studies along with their pedagogical implications and recommendations for further research.

Looking at the theories and approaches that support the use of translation in the foreign language classroom, the use of pedagogical translation has been excluded from the foreign language curricula for a relatively long period of time since the rise of the Communicative Approach against the Grammar Translation Method and of the methods derived from it. Ever since then, translation has often been associated with the passive and almost literal transposition of sentences or short texts deprived of context and with the only purpose of applying grammar rules correctly. However, despite the drawbacks often attributed to translation, it has persisted in various school syllabi across different languages as can be seen in the first literature expounded in the first chapter, which provided a conceptual framework for the current research. This has led scholars to scrutinise the advantages of both interlingual and intralingual pedagogical translation not limited to textual and monosemiotic modalities but
extended to plurisemiotic audiovisual types such as subtitling and dubbing, which are outlined in the following chapter.

Chapter 2 positioned the present work within the existent body of literature, outlining the main contributions to the field of AVT and foreign language and highlighting their relevance in providing a methodological framework for the present work. The presentation of theoretical and empirical studies on the use of subtitling and revoicing as language learning tasks serves as a means to highlight the gap in the literature and construct a methodological framework for the development of the studies that form this doctoral thesis. In particular, the gap extends to three different branches of the line of research dealing with AVT and L2 learning, and they are identified as follows:

- A substantial lack of studies on the combination of pedagogical subtitling and revoicing tasks in a single educational module.
- The scarcity of studies on the acquisition of L2 multiword expressions through AVT, intended both in terms of exposure to subtitled videos (Bravo, 2013) and of subtitling as a practical activity (Lertola, 2013).
- The almost exclusive use of dubbing as a didactic exercise geared to improve oral proficiency (in particular pronunciation, intonation, speed and fluency) as opposed to an opportunity to practice L2 vocabulary and foster its acquisition.

Therefore, as described in Chapter 3, a number of exploratory and empirical studies were conducted in order to address the aforementioned gap in the literature. Firstly, the exploratory study (§3.2) set off to appraise the effects of the combination of intralingual and interlingual subtitling and dubbing of authentic audiovisual material on multiword expressions learning. This study was primarily intended to be a first observation of how students approach the AVT tasks and the opportunities for L2 learning that they provide, with a focus on pragmatic learning. The post-test disclosed that most of the students involved in the study were able to recall the meaning of the expressions on which they were tested and identify the appropriate context for each of them. Such results support and reinforce previous literature in relation to the use of subtitling as a meaningful language learning tool (Lertola, 2013; Sokoli, 2011) especially in relation to incidental vocabulary learning and the development of pragmatic awareness. The Complementary Study 1 (§3.3.1) was conducted in parallel
with the exploratory study and sought to explore further possibilities of L2 pragmatic awareness through the use of AV input and subtitling tasks. This observational study laid the groundwork for the following studies, and it was crucial in order to identify a gap in the literature that the subsequent studies attempted to fill. The final questionnaire and classroom observation provided valuable insights into students’ opinions and approaches to AV products and AVT tasks, and highlighted the key role that context plays in conveying meaning to spoken interplays. In consideration of this and of the fact that subtitling promotes incidental vocabulary learning (Lertola, 2013), it was decided to move the investigation beyond single word units and investigate L2 acquisition of multiword chunks, because, as explained in Chapter 1 (§1.5.4), a good knowledge of multiword chunks helps language learners increase oral proficiency in the L2. As the following answer to the final questionnaire of the Complementary Study I suggests, students seem to be aware that the interplay of linguistic and paralinguistic elements in a video product can aid dialogue comprehension:

I think the way in which they presented their lines helped most when watching the video. It’s not just about what is said, but how it is said. I could see something written down and understand what it means. But I like to hear how they deliver it to give it my best interpretation and translate it as accurately and fluently as I can.

The focus on the way the dialogue is delivered, both by actors in the video clips used and by the students in their dubbing tasks, is key to the present work as it is thought to be beneficial to students in order to acquire L2 multiword expressions, which have been scarcely investigated so far. The subtitling and revoicing tasks devised for these studies were designed to maximise their mnemonic potential (see Boers, §1.5.4), exploit the contextualised L2 input and make the acquired expressions available for active use.

The Complementary Study II (§3.3.2) presents three main novelties: firstly, while continuing along the lines of the Complementary Study 1 to explore the impact of subtitling on L2 learning, it introduced the addition of revoicing tasks within the same module and secondly, it identified collocations as the multiword chunks under investigations. Last but not least, it introduced an oral test aimed at observing students’ ability to correctly use the expressions learned without any prompt. The oral test was administered one month after the end of the module and observed the extent to which students internalised the target expressions by asking them to use each of them in a sentence. A mid-term reflective essay and structured interviews gauged students’
opinions on the combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks, while three language
tests provided quantitative data on students’ learning of the six selected collocations.
The statistical analysis of the results obtained from these language tests corroborates
previous research that upholds the positive impact of subtitling on L2 vocabulary
learning (Lertola, 2013). In fact, statistical significance was detected between pre-test
and the mid-test which took place immediately after the subtitling task and before the
revoicing task. However, results from mid-test and post-test indicate no statistical
significance. As pointed out in §3.4, this could be attributed to the fact that the
revoicing task did not envisage translation but rather consisted of a recreation of the
original text. However, mean scores from mid-test and post-test show a positive trend
which encouraged the further exploration of the potential of revoicing tasks as a
language learning tool. In general, findings from the analysis of the qualitative data
revealed that students positively accepted the combination of subtitling and revoicing
tasks and perceived an overall improvement in their L2 skills. In the same way as the
Complementary Study II, a module was designed to include one subtitling and one
revoicing task and students’ knowledge of six target collocations was tested at the
beginning, halfway through and at the end of the module. This pilot study (§4) was
designed to include a control group in order to test the effects on L2 learning of AVT
as opposed to unimodal traditional translation and the investigation focused
exclusively on receptive recall of the target collocations. The positive results obtained
from this study led to the creation of the main experimental study of the present
doctoral research; the design, methods and data collection tools are essentially the
same as in the pilot study, however, productive recall was also measured alongside
receptive recall and, similarly to the Complementary Study II, a delayed oral test was
implemented. A statistical analysis was performed, and the triangulation of qualitative
and quantitative data carried out in the Main Study (§4.1) revealed a steady trend
towards increases in both RR and PR.

On the one hand, qualitative results obtained across different groups of students
in different experiments seem to verify previous research in that AVT tasks can be
efficiently integrated in the foreign language curriculum and are appreciated by
students as novel and engaging learning exercises. In particular, participants in all
studies positively accepted the AV input proposed (excerpts from movies or TV series)
and expressed the wish to have more subtitling and revoicing activities in their
language course. On the other hand, these studies confirm the positive effect of AVT
tasks on L2 vocabulary learning (Lertola, 2013); although no statistically significant improvement was found in the pilot and Main Study, the analysis discloses a steady tendency towards improvement in both groups. This means that, since the material was identical between the groups and, given the facts that efforts were made to keep the length of exposure to AV input equal in both CG and EG, both conditions seem to have a positive effect on students’ acquisition of the selected expressions. Although the outcome of this analysis is not sufficient to conclude that both types of translations (AVT and unimodal) are effective in terms of L2 learning, and it does not automatically indicate that language teachers should favour either type of translation, it can encourage them to introduce AVT tasks in the L2 classrooms as practical, engaging exercises to develop a wide range of skills, both in terms of linguistic competence and transferrable skills. While a subtitling task offers students the opportunity to practice listening, reading and written skills, a revoicing task engages students in oral production so as to practice all four language skills as well as translation skills. Besides, the acquisition of a number of transferrable skills is also facilitated: editing, critical thinking, problem-solving skills as well as digital literacy, intended as:

The awareness, attitude and ability of individuals to appropriately use digital tools and facilities to identify, access, manage, integrate, evaluate, analyse and synthesize digital resources, construct new knowledge, create media expressions, and communicate with others, in the context of specific life situations, in order to enable constructive social action; and to reflect upon this process (Martin 2006, p. 155).

Indeed, in the context of the didactic modules designed in this doctoral project, students are not only faced with the challenge and the responsibility of becoming acquainted with and using subtitling and dubbing software (VSS) or platform (Clipflair), but according to the abovementioned definition, they also learn to retrieve and assess important information from the AV material and manipulate it by adding captions or replacing the original soundtrack. They also construct new knowledge through their translations and the dubbed video produced after carrying out an intralingual translation of the dialogue transcript. For all these reasons, the design of the exploratory and both Complementary Studies can be used again both for future research and as supplementary activities in the FL classroom to strengthen a wide range of L2 skills and promote vocabulary acquisition.
5.2 Limitations and innovations

This thesis opens up new opportunities for further research into the combination of AVT modes explored in the present studies and points towards a vast and yet still largely untapped potential of new applications of AVT tasks as language learning tools. The implications of these studies can be further explored both in the context of SLA research as well as in the common practice of teaching a foreign language. The present work corroborates and expands on previous findings such as those obtained by Bravo’s study that measured idiomatic expression retention and recall through a subtitling task of one group of Portuguese undergraduate A2/B1 students of English as a FL and Lertola’s work (2013) on undergraduate A2/B1 students of Italian as a FL. On the one hand, Bravo’s investigation focuses on immediate recognition, delayed productive recall and in-context use of idiomatic retention, on the other hand, Lertola’s study focuses on participants’ immediate productive recall of word meaning.

The Complementary Study II and the Main Study investigate participants’ immediate receptive and productive recall of MWE (pre-test and post-test), as well as recognition (mid-test) and ultimately in-context use of such expressions both in a written (post-test) and oral fashion (oral delayed test). The aim of the Main Study was to comparatively investigate students’ immediate recall and subsequent ability to reuse collocations after performing a combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks over the course of 6 weeks. Analyses of tests’ scores reveal that the two translation conditions – AVT and unimodal translation – are not significant in enhancing acquisition of L2 expressions, however, individual growth has been observed independently of the type of translation within each group. The answer to this study’s main research question - whether subtitling and revoicing of L2 audiovisual dialogue into L1 affects incidental acquisition of L2 collocations - was provided by descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. The results obtained demonstrate that the practice of subtitling facilitates incidental vocabulary acquisition in terms of both receptive and productive recall. Therefore, it could be said that the empirical studies conducted in the present research together with Lertola’s and Bravo’s studies validate the efficacy of subtitling for productive recall of vocabulary and tap into the potential of this AVT mode combined with revoicing.

Despite the benefits outlined, each of the four studies conducted encountered limitations that shall be acknowledged, and which could be addressed through further
investigation. Due to a number of reasons including the number of students, ethical and institutional constraints and time management, it was not possible to divide students into two groups for the Exploratory and Complementary Studies. In addition, the number of participants was quite limited, and it varied across all four studies, most of the time due to students missing either lessons or one of the language tests. Therefore, because of too small sample sizes and drop-out rates, it was not always feasible to form a control group, which would have benefited the comparison between these studies and might have reinforced the findings. Another issue is the fact that no delayed tests were carried out at the end of the studies. Delayed post-tests could have strengthened previous findings and disclosed further information on students’ learning of L2 multiword expressions. Ultimately, the exploratory, complementary study I and pilot study, rely exclusively on written vocabulary tests despite the fact that a considerable part of the modules was dedicated to the revoicing activity, which required substantial L2 oral practice. Accordingly, evidence obtained from students’ written tests might not wholly reflect the depth of students’ acquisition of the target expressions and most importantly, their ability to use the words orally in meaningful contexts. Thus, in preparation of the main experiment, it was considered crucial to implement an oral test to give students the opportunity to use the target expressions in oral productions.

Despite these limitations, it is nonetheless fair to say that because these results were recorded during three years of similar experiments, which led to comparable conclusions, it creates a longitudinal perspective on the use of AVT and L2 learning. In particular, the combination of subtitling and dubbing has proved effective since the first exploratory study and in all the subsequent studies. Students’ answers to evaluation questionnaires disclose a keen interest towards both AVT practices and, despite recurring technical issues that led to frustration during the studies, the combination of subtitling and dubbing tasks seemed to have been appreciated by all students. In relation to dubbing in particular, different types of revoicing tasks were adopted in the studies, starting from the exploratory study in which the first exercise consisted of dubbing the last two minutes of a scene having the muted video available and some hints to what the characters might say. The second task required students to focus on the comprehension of the dialogue transcript and the interpretation of the scene, trying to render the paralinguistic elements of the text as well as possible.
On the other hand, in the complementary study, the dubbing task takes the form of a text re-creation exercise, in which students are asked to reconstruct the dialogue between the characters starting from what they remember of the scene in general and then trying to express the same concepts in their own words. The contribution of different types of revoicing tasks upon the development of spoken production is certainly relevant to the current research field of AVT and foreign language learning, given the still limited attention generally dedicated to oral production. All the above-mentioned studies envisage speaking practice as an important component of language acquisition, by taking into account students’ ability to contextualise the vocabulary learnt and reuse it in interactional contexts.

One of the main innovations of the current investigation is the use of revoicing as a means to provide students with an opportunity to re-utilise previously learned vocabulary. Furthermore, the addition of such task to the translation module in the Main Study ensured that students would practice oral production and interaction alongside the skills that are traditionally developed by pedagogical translation (see Chapter 1). It was thus envisaged that the presence of a revoicing activity both in the Complementary and Main Study for the EG would lead to a more thorough acquisition of the target expressions, and it was therefore decided to observe learners’ ability to re-use them correctly in appropriate contexts through spoken interaction, rather than just testing their written production skills. In this perspective, a number of pedagogical conclusions can be drawn in relation to the usefulness of revoicing as opposed to other ‘more traditional’ ways to practice oral production, such as role plays. First, the revoicing task involves students in editing a video to produce a tangible product that can be shown in class or to other groups of students as a motivational activity. Secondly, dubbing a video means that such clips can be manipulated whenever students consider it necessary to achieve a satisfactory result so that at any time they can make changes to improve their performance. On the contrary, role plays are usually done from beginning to end without the possibility of repetition and do not result into a finished product. To the extent that accurate lip sync is involved, audio track dubbing requires students to pay particular attention to timing, which fosters more native-like speech delivery. Finally, working with videos can be less intimidating for shy students than performing a role-play in front of their peers.
The revoicing task and the oral delayed test in both the CSII and the Main Study can be seen as a way to “give lots of active, coached practice” (Svinicki, 1999); in fact, it seemed reasonable to expect that the opportunity to repeat the expressions through meaningful tasks would make them pass from sensory to working memory, and after processing and manipulating the stimuli, the input would ultimately be stored into long-term memory (Caimi, 2006). As pointed out in the previous chapter, the transcription of the EG revoiced videos revealed that two pairs used two of the target expressions, respectively “da un giorno all’altro” and “trovare le parole”. Certainly, it is a small number but nonetheless encouraging, as it suggests an increase in learners’ confidence in using these collocations. Subsequently, in the oral test students in both groups proved to have retained most of the target expressions and to be able to use them correctly in an exchange. Particularly noteworthy is the performance of one pair in the EG who used all six expressions producing well-structured dialogues that contained more than one expression instead of a brief exchange for each of them.

The analysis of the qualitative data reveals that in general students appreciated the different revoicing exercises across all studies. Thus, the set of studies conducted in this doctoral research presents a very positive picture of pedagogical revoicing and highlights its versatility that makes it an effective tool for students at different L2 competency levels to improve pronunciation, intonation and fluency and to practice new vocabulary and pragmatic skills.

Another novel feature of the present doctoral research concerns the structure of the reflective essay in the CSII and the type of data it elicited. Although making students reflect on their own learning process is not an innovative practice in the FL classroom (especially in empirical studies such as this), in the present reflective essay students were asked specific questions about the different phases of the subtitling exercise. In fact, the objective at this point in the experiment was not so much to gauge their generic opinions on the exercise (which was done in the questionnaire and in the interviews at the end of the module), but rather to obtain students’ perspective on the extent to which each of the three stages involved in the task affected their L2 learning. Therefore, students were asked to reflect on their L2 learning by answering 3 questions, one on the usefulness of video viewing, one on the translation of the physical copy of the dialogue transcript, and one on the activity of adding subtitles to the video. In so doing it was hoped to get a clear picture of how students approach the
subtitling task, and at which stage they perceive greater improvement. It was interesting to observe students’ different approaches to the task; for example, when asked about their opinion on the script translation phase, some students admitted they delved into the translation of the dialogue transcript and neglected the video, while other students watched it several times before beginning to translate on paper. However, answers provided by students were limited to acknowledging positive and negative aspects of each of the three phases and did not provide much informative data on their L2 learning. In future research the questions may need to be formulated in such a way as to clearly emphasise the difference between the three phases.

5.3 Opportunities for future research

The present work aimed at opening up a new avenue of research in the field of Applied Linguistics by pioneering an innovative methodology based on the combination of subtitling and dubbing tasks to allow learners to practice all four language skills, especially speaking, which is often neglected in subtitling activities and in general in those FL settings that envisage the use of pedagogical translation modules.

As outlined above, limitations to the studies conducted concern primarily the number of target words chosen for the four studies, which was due to the nature of the AV input and to constraints imposed by the institutional context. Therefore, future researchers should aim at testing students’ acquisition of a larger pool of target expressions. Future research could replicate the experiment conducted in the Main Study and test a different category of expressions, for example idioms and locutions or focus on colloquialisms and informal vocabulary. Future investigation would also benefit from larger samples of informants, with participants of different age groups, educational backgrounds and in different educational contexts; this would certainly contribute to broaden the spectrum of possibilities to use AVT tasks in the foreign language classroom.

Further research may also address the benefits of combining subtitling and revoicing tasks on different aspects of language learning, for instance, the development of pragmatic and sociolinguistic skills. As suggested in the Exploratory Study I, while fostering L2 vocabulary learning, this combination of AVT modes also provides opportunities for pragmatic learning, which could become the focus of further investigation.
Furthermore, the integration of multimodal analysis was touched upon in the Main Study, however, for reasons of time constraints, it was not possible to investigate in depth how this practice enhances students’ learning and contributes to translation. Future research could use the design of Complementary Study II and supplement the subtitling and revoicing activities with a multimodal analysis of the video in order to deliver an educational module entirely focused on audiovisual translation.

Another interesting direction of research would envision the creation of a corpus of subtitling and revoicing activities to be used by language instructors, ideally on an open-access online platform that does not require download or installation.

To sum up, this research has sought to investigate the effects of a combination of subtitling and revoicing tasks on students’ acquisition of L2 multiword chunks. On the one hand, the results obtained from these studies strengthen previous findings on the usefulness of AVT and language learning and reassure teachers and researchers that these practices are positively accepted by students as profitable learning tools. Empirical evidence is key to the Complementary Study II and the Main Study and it was obtained through multiple vocabulary tests. As far as the Main Study is concerned, there seems to be no clear prevalence of the AVT condition over the other as no statistical significance was detected between the two groups. However, findings from both studies reveal that students’ immediate post-test scores tended to increase and in the case of the Main Study this tendency is more evident in the EG; this suggests that the combination of subtitling and revoicing is effective in fostering L2 acquisition, thus future research should implement some adjustments to the present study, starting with the number of participants and the duration of the treatment.

On the other hand, all studies take into account learners’ evaluation of pedagogical subtitling and revoicing and their combination within one module; students’ opinions were collected through initial and final questionnaires as well as through reflective essays and group interviews in the Complementary Study II. The qualitative data obtained shows that learners found subtitling interesting and engaging while they found dubbing entertaining but also more challenging than subtitling. Significantly, all students reported that the use of the combination of AV tasks helped improve overall L2 skills, in particular L2 vocabulary through subtitling, and oral production through dubbing. Finally, the majority of participants in all studies agreed that they would like to have more subtitling and revoicing activities in their foreign language modules.
The triangulation of quantitative and qualitative obtained in the Complementary Study II and the Main Study offered a clear picture of how subtitling and revoicing can be used effectively to foster L2 learning, in particular in regard to multiword chunks. It is hoped that these results will encourage further investigation into the field of AVT and language learning, in particular in relation to the combination of different AVT modes, which, as the present doctoral work uncovered, still has uncharted potential.
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Incalceterra McLoughlin, M. Biscio, & M. Á. Ní Mhainnín (Eds.), 207 Audiovisual Translation Subtitles and Subtitling. Theory and Practice (pp. 139-155). Bern: Peter Lang.


Loewen, S., Erlam, R., & Ellis, R. (2009). The Incidental Acquisition of a Third Person -s as Implicit and Explicit Knowledge. In R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. Erlam, J. Philp, & H. Reinders (Eds.), Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching (pp. 262-280). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.


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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Exploratory Study post-test

Part 1.
Please provide the English translation for the following expressions

- Avere presente __________________________
- A occhio e croce __________________________
- Mi raccomando __________________________
- Piantarla ________________________________

Part 2.
Please put the following expression into the correct sentence

- Mi raccomando
- A occhio e croce
- Piantarla
- Avere presente

1. Sto cercando di studiare ____________________ di fare rumore per favore.
2. Mi spiace ma stasera non ci sono. Non so se __________________ Giulia, mia cugina. Stasera festeggiamo il suo compleanno con tutta la famiglia.
Appendix 2 – Complementary Study 2 pre-test and post-test

Part 1.

Please choose the English equivalent for each of the following Italian verbs. Tick the appropriate box to the left (only one answer is correct).

1. **Fare onore**
   - To honour [someone]
   - To make someone proud
   - To be honourable

2. **Mettere in discussione**
   - To discuss something
   - To call [something] into question
   - To argue

3. **Fare uno scherzo**
   - To make someone laugh
   - To pull a prank
   - To make a surprise

4. **Essere occupato**
   - To be an employee
   - To be busy
   - To be full

5. **Avere a che fare**
   - To deal with
   - To have a commitment
   - To be in a rush

6. **Essere nei casini**
   - To be confused
   - To be in trouble
   - To gamble

7. **Andare in pensione**
   - To go on holidays
   - To retire
   - To be broke
Part 2.
Use the expressions in bold in the appropriate sentence (only one of the two sentences is correct).

1. Mettere in discussione
   • Adesso non ho voglia di _____________________________.
   • Non posso_________________________ la tua decisione, questa volta hai ragione.

2. Andare in pensione
   • A marzo dell’anno prossimo, mio papà potrà ____________________________
     finalmente.
   • Quest’estate______________________________ per due mesi.

3. Avere a che fare
   • Non posso andare alla festa domani, _____________________________.
   • Sono stanco di __________________________ con persone inaffidabili!

4. Fare uno scherzo
   • Puoi _____________________ ________ anche per me domani?
   • Giorgio vuole ______________________________ a un suo amico.

5. Essere occupato
   • Ultimamente mio papà _____ molto______________ al lavoro e torna a casa tardi.
   • Il mio zaino ____________________________, pesa tantissimo!

6. Essere nei casini
   • Quando sono in vacanza mi piace ______________________________ con i miei amici.
   • Devi dire la verità subito, altrimenti__________________________!

7. Fare onore
   • I soldati _________________________________ al comandante.
   • La tua generosità ti ________________________________.
Appendix 3 – Complementary Study Dialogue transcript

BENVENUTI AL SUD

Alberto: E se mettessimo sulla domanda che sono handicappato?
Manager: Ma sei fuori?
Alberto: Ma perché scusa, se faccio un errore cosa rischio?
Manager: Se si scopre io sono nei casini, ma tu sei morto!
Alberto: Ma lo fanno tutti.
Manager: Arrivo!
Donne: Prendilo!
Silvia: Ferme, è mio marito!
Alberto: Abbiamo il trasferimento a Milano.
Silvia: Andiamo a Milano?
Alberto: Sì.
Silvia: Veramente?
Segretaria: Mi scusi signor direttore.
Alberto: Dica.
Segretaria: C’è un ispettore che la sta cercando.
Alberto: Un ispettore, che ispettore?
Segretaria: Dalla direzione, dice che riguarda il suo trasferimento.
Alberto: Lo faccia attendere, cinque minuti.
Segretaria: Va bene.
Alberto: Scusate.
Colleghi: A Milano!
Ispettore: Buongiorno.
Alberto: Sono Alberto Colombo.
Ispettore: Borghetti.
Alberto: Voleva vedermi?
Ispettore: Vorrei sistemare qualche dettaglio in merito alla sua domanda di trasferimento.
Alberto: Prego.
Ispettore: Vuole aiuto?
Alberto: No no no, eh, sono i ragazzini che fanno gli scherzi, bucano sempre le gomme. Ecco fatto. Si sieda. Cosa posso fare per lei?
Ispettore: Da quanto tempo è disabile, Dottor Colombo?
Alberto: Non è facile per me parlarne, ero molto piccolo e... il ricordo è sfocato, mi creda. Rivivere quel trauma è terribile. Sono spasmi muscolari. Passato. Dica.
Ispettore: Dottor Colombo, ci sono state due domande di trasferimento a suo nome.
Alberto: Sì.
Ispettore: Una recente, per persona a mobilità ridotta. E un’altra di sei mesi fa il cui richiedente è normodotato. È lei la stessa persona, Dottor Colombo?
Alberto: Le ho fatte io queste domande, sì. Quella come persona sana l’ho fatta perché volevo che la mia richiesta fosse considerata come quella di tutti gli altri. È importante sa, per noi disabili, vedere negli occhi di voi cosidette “persone normali” qualcosa che vada al di là della semplice pietà.
Ispettore: Le fa onore.
Alberto: Grazie. Ma se questo mette in discussione il mio trasferimento, io sono...
Ispettore: Ma no, è solo una semplice verifica, purtroppo necessaria perché abbiamo spesso a che fare con dichiarazioni false per ottenere sedi ambite a Milano.
Alberto: Ah sì?
Ispettore: Già, succede molto spesso.
Alberto: Che vergogna.
Ispettore: Ma non è il suo caso, Dottor Colombo, si troverà bene a Milano.
Alberto: Grazie.
Ispettore: Bene, non voglio disturbartela ulteriormente.
Alberto: Non mi disturba affatto. Arrivederci Signor...
Appendix 4 – Complementary and Main Study: background questionnaire

Language Background Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data for a small study on the effects of Audiovisual Translation tasks on foreign language learning. Please answer all the following questions. All data and information provided will be anonymized and treated with utmost confidentiality.

Name: Surname: Native Language(s):
Age: Country of Origin:
Sex (circle one): male/female Country of Residence:

• If the country of origin is different from the country of residence, when did you first move to the country where you currently live?

• If you have lived or travelled in countries other than your country of residence or country of origin for three or more months, then indicate the name of the country, your length of stay, the language you used, and the frequency of you use of the language for each country (according to the following scale: 5 always; 4 often; 3 regularly; 2 sometimes; 1 never)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Length of Stay</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency of use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>5-4-3-2-1</td>
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<td>5-4-3-2-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• How long have you been learning Italian?

• Do you use Italian outside the foreign language classroom?
  o Yes
  o No

  If your answer is yes, in which context(s) do you use it?
  o Language software
  o At work
  o With friends/family
  o Online games

• Do you speak any other foreign language? List all languages you know and rate your ability on the following aspects in each language. Please rate according to the following scale:
• Do you ever watch TV series, movies, documentaries etc. in a foreign language?

• If yes do you usually watch them dubbed or with subtitles?

• Have you ever subtitled a video?
  o Yes
  o No

  If your answer is yes, state the language combination.

• Have you ever experienced translating before?

• Have you ever worked with audiovisual material (movies, video clips, commercials etc.) in a foreign language class?

• Have you ever revoiced a video?
  o Yes
  o No

  If your answer is yes, state the language combination:

Thank you!
Appendix 5 – Main study: pre-test

Date ____________________________
Name ________________________________
ID Number ___________________________

1. Please translate the following expressions into English.

1. Trovare le parole

2. Da un giorno all’altro

3. Farla finita

4. Prendere atto

5. Fare apposta

6. Attraeversare un periodo delicato
2. Using the expressions listed above, write a response in Italian for each of the following situations.

1. Spiega a un tuo amico che per vari motivi hai deciso di lasciare la squadra perché non ti senti bene e vuoi dedicarti a cose più importanti. Che cosa gli diresti?

2. Stai cercando di dire al tuo migliore amico che la sua ragazza lo tradisce, ma non è facile e vuoi essere il più delicato possibile. Che cosa gli diresti?

3. Un tuo amico ti dice che sul sito dell’università sono spariti i tuoi voti che erano stati caricati. Tu non ci credi, non è possibile che oggi i voti non siano più visibili mentre ieri lo erano. Che cosa gli diresti?

4. La tua squadra ha perso una partita molto importante, i tuoi compagni sono delusi e vogliono lamentarsi con l’arbitro; tu, invece, credi che sia importante saper accettare anche le sconfitte. Come lo diresti ai tuoi compagni?

5. Stamattina uscendo di casa hai preso per sbaglio le chiavi di tuo fratello; lui ha finito di lavorare presto ma non può entrare in casa senza chiavi ed è arrabbiato perché deve aspettare che tu ritorni. Cosa gli diresti per scusarti?

6. Un tuo compagno di classe è molto nervoso per il compito ma tu sai benissimo che lui si agita per niente e sei stanco di ascoltarlo. Che cosa gli diresti?
Appendix 6 – Main Study: mid-test

Choose the correct translation for each of the given Italian expressions. Please check off the appropriate box to the left of the options.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Scapicollarsi</td>
<td>To accelerate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trovare le parole</td>
<td>Find the words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Da un giorno all’altro</td>
<td>Day to day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. In doppia fila</td>
<td>In a double line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. La fai finita?</td>
<td>Have you finished it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ad oggi</td>
<td>Today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Prendere atto</td>
<td>To take action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Da grande</td>
<td>To grow up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Fare apposta</td>
<td>To do something on purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Non farmi questo</td>
<td>Don’t make me do this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Attraversare un periodo</td>
<td>To go through a rough patch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Shock passeggero</td>
<td>Provisional passenger</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 7 – Main Study: post-test

Date ________________________________
Name _______________________________
ID Number ________________________________

Please translate the following expressions into English.

1. Da un giorno all’altro

2. Prendere atto

3. Farlo apposta

4. Trovare le parole

5. Attraversare un periodo delicato

6. Farla finita
2. Please write one sentence for each of the Italian expressions listed above. Each sentence must contain only one of the given expressions.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.
Appendix 8 – Main Study: final questionnaire EG Version

Final questionnaire
Audiovisual Translation and Language Learning 2018

*Required

- Email address *

This questionnaire is for administration purposes. All data will be anonymized and names will not be disclosed to anybody.

- The Clipflair platform is intuitive and user friendly. * Mark only one oval.

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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</table>

p I enjoyed working with audiovisual material (videos) to learn a foreign language. * Mark only one oval.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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p The videos used were interesting and stimulating. * Mark only one oval.

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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5. The video helped me with the translation of the script. * Mark only one oval.

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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6. Please comment on how the video helped you in your translation; what aspects of the video helped you most in understanding the content? (language spoken, the images, the soundtrack etc.) *

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________
7. **Subtitling is a useful activity for language learning.** *Mark only one oval.*

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<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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- **Revoicing is a useful activity for language learning.** *Mark only one oval.*

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<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
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9. **Subtitling helped me to note and single out unfamiliar vocabulary and expressions.** *Mark only one oval.*

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<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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12. **Do you think the revoicing task helped you improve any of the following abilities?** *Tick all that apply.*

- Listening comprehension
- Writing
- Vocabulary knowledge
- Grammar
- Speaking

**Please comment on the above question: how did the subtitling task help you improve these abilities?** *

12. **Do you think the revoicing task helped you improve any of the following abilities?** *Tick all that apply.*

- Listening comprehension
- Writing
- Vocabulary knowledge
- Grammar
Speaking

Please comment on the above question: how did the revoicing task help you improve these abilities? *

During the course I have learned vocabulary that I did not know before. * Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

15. During the course I have learned Italian expressions and colloquialisms that I did not know before. * Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

16. I can use the vocabulary I have learned during the course in an appropriate context. * Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

17. Translating a text within the same language (intralingual translation) helps you improve your foreign language abilities. * Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

18. Please comment on the above question: how did the intralingual translation helped you improve your Italian? *
19. The revoicing task helped me improve my speaking skills. * Mark only one oval.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
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</table>

20. The revoicing task gave me the opportunity to use some of the new vocabulary and expressions learned during the course. * Mark only one oval.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

21. Would you like to have more subtitling tasks in the foreign language classroom? * Mark only one oval.

- No
- Yes

22. Would you like to have more revoicing tasks in the foreign language classroom? * Mark only one oval.

- No
- Yes

Thank you for your cooperation!

Grazie!
Appendix 10 – Main Study: final questionnaire CG Version

Final questionnaire
Translation and Language Learning 2018

*Required

- Email address *

This questionnaire is for administration purposes. All data will be anonymized and names will not be disclosed to anybody.

- The videos were adequate to my level of Italian * Mark only one oval.

   1  2  3  4  5
   Strongly Disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

q The videos used were interesting and stimulating * Mark only one oval.

   1  2  3  4  5
   Strongly Disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

q Translation is a useful exercise in the foreign language classroom * Mark only one oval.

   1  2  3  4  5
   Strongly Disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

6. My translation skills have improved * Mark only one oval.

   1  2  3  4  5
   Strongly Disagree ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

7. During the course I have learned vocabulary that I did not know before * Mark only one oval.

   1  2  3  4  5
8. The use of audiovisual material (videos) in the foreign language classroom helps improve the overall competence in that foreign language * Mark only one oval.

1  2  3  4  5

8. The use of audiovisual material (videos) in the foreign language classroom helps improve the overall competence in that foreign language * Mark only one oval.

• It was important to watch the video to better understand the content of the script * Mark only one oval.

1  2  3  4  5

8. The use of audiovisual material (videos) in the foreign language classroom helps improve the overall competence in that foreign language * Mark only one oval.

10. The video helped me with the translation of the script * Mark only one oval.

1  2  3  4  5

8. The use of audiovisual material (videos) in the foreign language classroom helps improve the overall competence in that foreign language * Mark only one oval.

q Please comment on how the video helped you in your translation; what aspects of the video helped you most in understanding the content? (language spoken, the images, the soundtrack etc.) *

q Which of the following abilities do you think has improved during the course? * Tick all that apply.

☐ Listening comprehension
☐ Reading comprehension
☐ Grammar
☐ Writing
☐ Vocabulary knowledge

13. Please comment on the above question: how did the translation tasks help you improve these abilities? *
14. Would you like to watch more audiovisual material in the foreign language classroom? * Mark only one oval.

☐ No
☐ Yes

Thank you for your cooperation!
Appendix 11 – Main Study: dialogue transcript

ZIO GIANNI

Ep.10 “Il Derby”

Gianni: Vieni.

Fiorella: Mi hai fatta scapicollare fino a qui, mi dici qual’è il prolema?

Gianni: Sì, prima però Fiorella promettimi di non agitarti.

Fiorella: No, cosa?

Gianni: Promettimelo.

Fiorella: Mi dici cos’è successo?

Gianni: Devo trovare le parole.

Fiorella: Scusa Gianni, però così mi fai veramente preoccupare.

Gianni: Siediti. Ascoltami bene, nostro figlio Alessandro ha un problema.

Fiorella: Ma cosa?

Gianni: È della Lazio.

Fiorella: E quindi?


Fiorella: La fai finita?


Fiorella: Ma tu sei un cretino.

Gianni: Ma non è stata colpa mia, non l’ho fatto apposta! È stato così, improvvisamente, è successo.

Fiorella: Ale!

Gianni: Fammi un favore, non dire niente ai nostri amici di questa faccenda.

Fiorella: Ale, andiamo a casa.

Gianni: Perché non potrebberolo capirlo, è ovvio. Come fai a spiegare...

Fiorella: Ale!

Gianni: Ale
Fiorella: Amore.

Gianni: Vieni qua amore mio, ti voglio dire una cosa.

Fiorella: Gianni, ho la macchina in doppia fila, portamelo giù tra 5 minuti.

Gianni: Ci parlo io. Allora Alessandro, ascoltami bene, papà sta attraversando un periodo molto delicato, con il lavoro, con la casa, con la mamma. Ma tu sei un ragazzo molto intelligente e puoi capire. Da grande potrai fare tutte le scelte che vorrai e papà ti sarà sempre accanto, però una cosa ti chiedo. Alessandro non farmi questo.

Alessandro: Questo cosa papà?

Gianni: Essere della Lazio.