



The University of
Nottingham

School of Education

**INCIDENTAL LEARNING OF SECOND
LANGUAGE VOCABULARY THROUGH
EXTENSIVE LISTENING TO THE GRADED
STORIES AND AUTHENTIC SONGS AS
WELL AS WATCHING AUTHENTIC FILMS
BY EFL LIBYAN LEARNERS**

By

Alarabi Abdelsalam Abdelnabi Almagrabi

**Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

December, 2019



**In the Name of Allah the most
Merciful the most
Compassionate**

Dedication

To the one who gives meaning to my life.

To my fabulous beloved daughter

Salma Almagrabí

Abstract

This empirical study targeted Libyan undergraduates who studied at an English department in Libya. The present study aims to contribute to work in the field of second/foreign language acquisition, by investigating the extent foreign language (FL) vocabulary can be acquired incidentally through extensive exposure to authentic (songs and films) and non-authentic (simplified stories) spoken texts. Additionally, it will evaluate the extent to which the process leads to acquiring or enhancing vocabulary knowledge in terms of form recognition, meaning, grammatical behaviour and use. Based on the results, the two modes of spoken inputs (authentic and non-authentic) are compared to identify which is more effective for L2 vocabulary incidental learning. The incidental FL vocabulary learning was measured by means of Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) tests (pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test).

The present study contributes in the field of EFL/ESL through four different trends: firstly, it is the first study that targeted Libyan EFL learners of English as foreign language. Secondly, it is the first study that investigates incidental vocabulary learning of four knowledge aspects (form recognition, inferring meaning, grammar parts recognition, and word use). Thirdly, it is the first study that contrasts three different spoken inputs (listening to stories, listening to songs and watching films) with an aim to identify which of them leads to more vocabulary gains. Finally it is the first empirical study, to the best of my knowledge, that investigates the influence of five factors (frequency of occurrence, participants' English language proficiency,

participants' previous vocabulary knowledge, participants' vocabulary language strategies, and participants' learning styles) which are hypothesized to play a crucial role in incidental vocabulary learning and to increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input. In order to achieve the aims of the study, an experiment was designed and implemented. Two tests and two questionnaires were designed to investigate the five factors mentioned above. The outcomes of these two tests and two questionnaires were compared with the participants' gains to evaluate the effects of those factors in incidental L2 vocabulary learning.

The results revealed that vocabulary can incidentally be acquired through the extensive exposure to English stories, songs and films. Contrasting the three inputs demonstrates that the non-authentic materials (simplified stories) were more effective than authentic materials (songs and films) for L2 incidental vocabulary learning. The study also concluded that participants' English language proficiency and their previous vocabulary knowledge affected the likelihood of incidental L2 vocabulary learning. It appears that the participants' learning styles did not affect their L2 vocabulary learning as one would expect since learning styles is itself a contentious subject. As for the effect of frequency of occurrence, this study revealed that the effect of this factor on L2 vocabulary learning is weak unless some context clues exist in the oral texts. In terms of the influence of vocabulary language strategies the study concluded that this factor affected only the likelihood of incidental L2 vocabulary learning from films.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to my ex-main supervisor the late Dr. Richard Pemberton who was taken from the world much too soon. The late tutor was an ideal educator. I am very grateful for all the academic support and insightful knowledge he provided to inspiring me to pursue my PhD. The late Richard touched me and all of his heartbroken students with his inspirational spirit, his humility, his warmth, and his kindness. I appreciate him being very patient and humble in stimulating and advising me. I am really indebted to Dr. Richard who was pleased to provide every possible means of assistance and support. This thesis is highly affected by his valuable advice and his professional guidance that influence my thoughts about the domain of vocabulary learning.

I sincerely acknowledge my main supervisor Dr. Barbara Sinclair's endless help. I am very grateful for her willingness to put forth generous effort and time to read, evaluate and feedback on how to improve what I have done. Dr. Barbara has taught me enormously from the continual valuable discussions during the supervision meetings which were constant source that enrich the present study.

Acknowledging the value of his support, I would like to extend special thanks and gratefulness to Dr. Philip Hood for all the hard work he has done to help me. I am also grateful for my second supervisor Dr. Juliet Thondhlana who did her best to help in this thesis.

I am particularly indebted to Jane Restorick whose magic touch helped me to analyse the data. I thank her for the tutorials which were a constant source of the completion of this study. I would also like to thank all staff members at the Research Office at the School of Education, University of Nottingham who did their best to help overcome some academic problems.

Thanks also due to Dr. Abdulrahman Hamza, the head of English department at the time being of the experimental phase of this study, who allowed me to utilize all of the available humble facilities at the English department. Thanks also due to Mr. Omar Aboukzam and Dr. Ibrahim Aboushereah who offered some logistic assistances. And special thanks for the students who participated in both the pilot and the main study.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for their moral support and encouragement during my studies. A very special gratitude due to my fabulous beloved daughter SALMA who has been generously providing me an atmosphere of love and good companionship over the period of my studies.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis, which I now submit to the School of Education at the University of Nottingham in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PhD in Education, has not been accepted in substance for any degree, and not concurrently being submitted in candidature for any degree. It is a result of my own independent investigation, and the extent of my indebtedness to other sources in the text and the bibliography.

Candidate

Alarabi Abdelaslam Almagrabi

Table of Contents

Abstract	I
Acknowledgements	III
Declaration	V
Table of Contents	VI
Table of Figures	XIII
List of Tables	XIV
Table of abbreviations	XIX
Chapter One: Introduction	1
1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. Why research incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening?	1
1.3. A brief Review of Education in Libya	6
1.3.1. Brief historical background of Libya	6
1.3.2. Philosophy of Education in Libya	7
1.3.3. Curricula	10
1.3.4. Teaching English	11
1.3.5. Methodological issues	12
1.3.6. Teaching English at English departments in Libyan universities	13
1.3.7. Perspective of typical oral listening class	17
1.4. Rationale of the Study	19
1.5. Aims of the study	22
1.6. Hypothesis	22
1.7. Research questions	23
1.7. Organization of the thesis	23
Chapter Two: Literature review	26
2.1. Introduction	26
2.2. Learning theories	27

2.3. Listening Comprehension -----	29
2.4. Vocabulary knowledge -----	31
2.5. Incidental learning -----	37
2.6. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning-----	38
2.6.1. The effect of word frequencies. -----	43
2.6.2. The effect of vocabulary needed for incidental learning from listening-----	44
2.6.3. Language learning strategies & Vocabulary learning strategies -----	48
2.7. Summary -----	56
Chapter Three: Incidental vocabulary research -----	58
3.1. Introduction -----	58
3.2. Reviewing previous studies -----	58
3.2. 1. Incidental L1 vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories -----	59
3.2.2. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning from listening stories-----	64
3.2. 3. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening to songs -----	74
3.2.4. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through watching films -----	78
3.3. Summary -----	90
Chapter Four: Methodology-----	96
4.1. Introductions -----	96
4.2. Theoretical framework of the Study-----	100
4.2.1. Merits and shortcomings of positivism-----	102
4.2.2 Rationale for using positivism as a premise for the current study -----	104
4.3. Research design-----	108
4.4. Process-----	112
4.4.1. Pre-experimental stage -----	115
4.4.1.1. Exploring students' interests (Questionnaire)-----	115
4.4.1.2. Choosing spoken materials -----	119
4.4.1.3. Choosing target words -----	127

4.4.2. Pilot Study-----	132
4.4.2.1. Aim of the Pilot Study-----	132
4.4.2.2. Participants in the pilot study -----	133
4.4.2.3. Procedures of the pilot study -----	134
4.4.2. 4. Results of the pilot study -----	136
4.5. Main study -----	141
4.5.1. Selecting the target participants for the main study-----	141
4.5.1.1. Testing students' language proficiency -----	146
4.5.1.2. Testing students' existing knowledge of L2 vocabulary. -----	147
4.5.1.3. Testing students' vocabulary learning strategies -----	149
4.5.1.4. Testing students' learning styles-----	151
4. 5. 2. Exposure to the target audio material-----	154
4.5.3. Tests-----	156
4.5.3.1. Testing word knowledge -----	157
4.5.3.2. Pre-test -----	160
4.5.3.3. Post-test-----	161
4.5.3.4. Delayed-post-test -----	162
4.6. Scoring-----	163
4.7. Data analysis -----	165
4.8. Ethical considerations -----	167
Chapter Five: Data Analysis -----	172
5.1. Introduction-----	172
5.2. Sample characteristic -----	176
5.3. Vocabulary gains and their origins-----	176
5.4. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains.-----	182
5.4.1. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains from stories?-----	182
5.4. 2. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains from songs.-----	185

5.4.3. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains from films. -----	187
5. 5. Degree of word acquisition. -----	189
5.5.1. Degree of word acquisition from stories -----	189
5.5.2. Degree of word acquisition from songs. -----	193
5.5.3. Degree of word acquisition from films. -----	197
5.6. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning from listening.-----	202
5.6.1. The effect of word repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning.-----	202
5.6.1.1. The effect of words repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from stories.-----	202
5.6.1.2. The effect of words repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from songs.-----	204
5.6.1.3. The effect of words repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from films -----	207
5.6.2. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening. -----	212
5.6.2.1. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening to stories. -----	212
5.6.2.2. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening to songs. -----	215
5.6.2.3. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from watching films.	218
5.6.3. The effect of language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	222
5.6.3.1. The effect of language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories-----	222
5.6.3.2The effect of Language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs.....	224

5.6.3.3. The effect of Language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to films.-----	225
5.6.4. The effect of Participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from listening. -----	228
5.5.4.1. The Effect of Participants' Vocabulary Size on Vocabulary Learning from listening to stories. -----	228
5.6.4.2. The effect of Participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from listening to songs-----	230
5.6.4.3. The effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from watching to films-----	231
5.6.5. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	235
5.6.5.1. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories -----	235
5.6.5.2. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs.-----	239
5.6.5.3. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to films. -----	242
5.7. Vocabulary retention from listening. -----	247
5.7.1. Vocabulary retention from listening to stories -----	248
5.7.2. Vocabulary retention from listening to songs -----	252
5.7.3. Vocabulary retention from watching films.-----	255
5.8. Productive vocabulary from listening.-----	259
5.8.1. Productive vocabulary from listening to stories -----	260
5.8.2. Productive vocabulary from listening to songs -----	261
5.8.3. Productive vocabulary from listening to films. -----	262
5.9. Contrasting gains of the three types of inputs-----	263

5.10. The effect of context in identifying the meaning of the target words.-----	268
5.11. Summary -----	273
Chapter Six: Discussion -----	275
6.1. Introduction-----	275
6.2. Discussion of the results -----	277
6.3. Contrasting the three modes -----	281
6.4. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	294
6.4.1. The effect of word repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	295
6.4.2. The effect of participants' language proficiencies on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	298
6.4.3. The effect of participants' vocabulary size on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	300
6.4.4. The effect of vocabulary learning strategies on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	302
6.4.5. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening -----	305
Chapter Seven: Conclusion -----	308
7.1. Introduction-----	308
7.2. Summary of the findings -----	310
7.3. Contribution to the research -----	313
7.4. Limitations of the Study-----	318
7.5. Pedagogical recommendation and implications for learners, teachers and course designers -----	322
7.5.1. Recommendations for learners -----	323
7.5.2. Recommendation for teachers and course designers -----	324

7.5.3. Recommendations for decision makers in education institutions in Libya.....	326
7.6. Further research -----	329
7.7. Conclusion -----	334
References-----	336
Appendices -----	364
Appendix 1: Exploring students' interests (Questionnaire)-----	365
Appendix 2: List of stories used in the study.-----	372
Appendix 3: List of films used in the experiment. -----	373
Appendix 4: List of songs used in the experiment. -----	375
Appendix 5: Participants' English level & vocabulary knowledge of the main study -----	376
Appendix 6: Vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire (VKS) -----	377
Appendix 7: Vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) -----	384
Appendix 8: Target word from stories -----	385
Appendix 9: Target words from songs -----	386
Appendix 10: Target word from films -----	388
Appendix 11: Consent form-----	390
Appendix 12: Vocabulary Size Test' -----	392
appendix 13: Learning Styles Questionnaire (ILQ) -----	409

Table of Figures

FIGURE 1: OUTLINE SEQUENCE OF THE STUDY.....	108
FIGURE 2: PROCESSES OF THE STUDY.....	113
FIGURE 3 SAMPLE (A) OF THE OUTPUT OF THE VOCABPROFILE PROGRAMME.....	129
FIGURE 4: SAMPLE (B) OF THE OUTPUT OF THE VOCABPROFILE PROGRAMME....	130
FIGURE 5: SAMPLE (C) OF THE OUTPUT OF THE VOCABPROFILE PROGRAMME.....	131
FIGURE 6: SAMPLE (A) OF THE OUTPUT OF THE VOCABPROFILE PROGRAMME.....	153

List of Tables

TABLE 1: DEFINITIONS OF ABBREVIATIONS	XIX
TABLE 1-1: SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS IN LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES FOR FIRST YEAR.....	14
TABLE 1-2: SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS IN LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES FOR SECOND YEAR.....	14
TABLE 1-3: SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS IN LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES FOR THIRD YEAR.....	15
TABLE 1-4: SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS IN LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES FOR FOURTH YEAR.....	15
TABLE 1-5: THE PROFICIENCY OF ENGLISH LEVEL OF LIBYANS IN THE WORLD.....	17
TABLE 2-1: SUMMARY OF DIFFERENT STUDIES' TAXONOMIES OF WORD KNOWLEDGE TYPES.....	33
TABLE 2-2: WHAT IS INVOLVE IN KNOWING A WORD.....	36
TABLE 2-3: FACTORS INFLUENCE INCIDENTAL L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING FROM LISTENING CONTEXT.....	40
TABLE 3-1: SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS STUDIES INVESTIGATING INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION THROUGH LISTENING TO AUDIO AND AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS.....	93
TABLE 4-1: CHRONOLOGICAL PRESENTATION OF THE STAGES OF THE RESEARCH.....	114
TABLE 4-2: DETAILS OF THE STUDENTS WHO PARTICIPATED IN ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	117
TABLE 4-3: STUDENTS' PREFERRED AUDIO SOURCES.....	118
TABLE 4-4: STUDENTS' PREFERRED AUDIO GENRE.....	119
TABLE 4-5: DETAILS OF AUDIO & AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS SELECTED.....	123

TABLE 4-6: SHOWS TITLE OF THE SONGS AND THEIR DURATION.....	124
TABLE 4-7: SHOWS NUMBERS OF TARGETED WORDS IN THE MAIN STUDY.....	132
TABLE 4-8: SHOWS NUMBERS OF PILOT STUDY'S TARGETED WORDS.....	135
TABLE 4-9: SHOWS LEXICAL KNOWLEDGE GAINED BY PILOT GROUP FROM THE THREE TYPE OF LISTENING.....	137
TABLE 4-10: SHOWS DIFFERENT LEXICAL GAINS FROM SONGS.....	138
TABLE 4-11: SHOWS DIFFERENT LEXICAL GAINS FROM STORIES.....	139
TABLE 4-12: SHOWS DIFFERENT LEXICAL GAINS FROM FILMS.....	140
TABLE 4-13: SHOWS NUMBERS, GENDER AND LEVELS OF THE TARGETED SAMPLES.....	145
TABLE 4-14: SHOWS THE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF THE TREATMENT PARTICIPANTS OF THE PILOT STUDY.....	149
TABLE 4-15: SHOWS NUMBERS OF TARGETED WORDS.....	162
TABLE 4-16: SHOWS CRITERIA OF EVALUATION.....	164
TABLE 4-17: SHOWS VALUES OF THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT AND THEIR STRENGTHS.....	167
TABLE 5-1: COMPARISON OF MEANS % GAINS BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP.....	177
TABLE 5-2: SHOWS RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY TEST.....	179
TABLE 5-3: %GAINS OF THE TARGET WORD KNOWLEDGE FROM STORIES' POST TEST.....	182
TABLE 5-4: PARTICIPANTS' % GAINS FROM STORIES' TARGETED.....	184
TABLE 5-5:%GAINS OF THE TARGET WORD KNOWLEDGE FROM SONGS POST- TEST.....	185
TABLE 5-6: PARTICIPANTS' % GAINS FROM SONGS' TARGETED WORDS.....	186
TABLE 5-7: %GAINS OF THE TARGET WORD KNOWLEDGE FROM FILMS POST TEST.....	187

TABLE 5-8: PARTICIPANTS' % GAINS FROM FILMS' TARGETED WORDS.....	188
TABLE 5-9: GAINS OF THE FOUR WORD KNOWLEDGE GAINED FROM STORIES.....	190
TABLE 5-10: PARTICIPANTS' %GAINS OF THE FOUR WORD KNOWLEDGE GAINED FROM STORIES.....	192
TABLE 5-11: GAINS% OF THE FOUR WORD KNOWLEDGE GAINED FROM SONGS.....	194
TABLE 5-12: PARTICIPANTS GAINS % OF THE FOUR WORD KNOWLEDGE GAINED FROM SONGS -	196
TABLE 5-13: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE WORD KNOWLEDGE GAINED FROM FILMS	198
TABLE 5-14: PARTICIPANTS % GAINS OF THE FOUR WORD KNOWLEDGE GAINED FROM FILMS	200
TABLE 5-15: SHOWS THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH WORD WAS GAINED FROM STORIES.....	203
TABLE 5-16: SHOWS THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH WORD WAS GAINED FROM SONGS.....	204
TABLE 5-17: SHOWS THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH WORD WAS GAINED FROM FILMS.....	208
TABLE 5- 18: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN WORD PERCENT GAINS WORD OCCURRENCES IN THE TEXTS.....	211
TABLE 5-19: THE EFFECT OF VLS ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING FROM STORIES.....	213
TABLE 5-20: THE EFFECT OF VLS ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING FROM SONGS.....	216
TABLE 5-21: EFFECT OF VLS ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING FROM FILMS.....	219

TABLE 5-22: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS' VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES SCORE & MEAN GAIN OF THE WORD KNOWLEDGE.....	221
TABLE 5-23: THE EFFECT OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION FROM STORIES.....	223
TABLE 5-24: MEAN GAIN OF THE WORD KNOWLEDGE FROM SONGS' POST TEST.....	224
TABLE 5-25: THE EFFECT OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING.....	225
TABLE 5-26: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVEL & MEAN GAIN OF THE WORD KNOWLEDGE.....	227
TABLE 5-27: THE EFFECT OF PARTICIPANTS' VOCABULARY SIZE ON VOCABULARY ACQUISITION FROM STORIES.....	229
TABLE 5-28: MEAN % GAINS OF THE WORD KNOWLEDGE FROM SONGS' POST TEST.....	230
TABLE 5-29: THE EFFECT OF PREVIOUS VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE.....	232
TABLE 5-30: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS' PREVIOUS VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND MEAN VOCABULARY GAIN.....	234
TABLE 5-31: LANGUAGE LEARNERS STYLES AND THE MEAN % SCORES OF THEIR INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY GAINS FROM STORIES' POST TEST.....	236
TABLE 5-32: SHOWS INDIVIDUAL SCORES OF EACH PARTICIPANT IN EACH LEARNERS STYLES GROUP.....	238
TABLE 5-33: LANGUAGE LEARNERS STYLES AND THE MEAN % SCORES OF THEIR INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY GAINS FROM SONGS' POST TEST	239
TABLE 5-34: SHOWS INDIVIDUAL SCORES OF EACH PARTICIPANT IN EACH LEARNERS STYLES GROUP.....	241
TABLE 5-35: LANGUAGE LEARNERS STYLES AND THE MEAN % SCORES OF THEIR INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY GAINS FROM FILMS' POST TEST.....	242

TABLE 5-36: INDIVIDUAL SCORES OF EACH PARTICIPANT IN EACH LEARNERS	
STYLES GROUP.....	244
TABLE 5-37: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS' LEARNING STYLES AND	
MEAN VOCABULARY GAIN.....	246
TABLE 5-38: VOCABULARY RETENTION.....	248
TABLE 5-39: PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS.....,	249
TABLE 5-40: PAIRED SAMPLES TEST.....	250
TABLE5-41: WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST	251
TABLE 5-42: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	252
TABLE 5-43: PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS.....	253
TABLE 5-44: PAIRED SAMPLES TEST.....	253
TABLE 5-45: WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST.....	254
TABLE 5-46: % GAINS OF POST-& DELAYED-POST-TESTS.....	256
TABLE 5-47: PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS.....	257
TABLE 5-48: VOCABULARY RETENTION.....	257
TABLE 5-49: WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST.....	259
TABLE 5-50: MEAN % GAIN OF PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY TEST.....	260
TABLE 5-51: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	261
TABLE 5-52: GAINS OF VOCABULARY PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE.....	262
TABLE 5-53: GAINS OF THE THREE MODE OF LISTENING.....	263
TABLE 5-54: PAIRED SAMPLES TEST.....	265
TABLE 5-55: WILCOXON SIGN RANKS TESTS.....	267
TABLE 5-56: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	269
TABLE 5-57: PAIRED SAMPLES TEST.....	271

Table of abbreviations

Table 1: Definitions of abbreviations		
No	Abbreviation	Definition
1.	AWL	Academic word list
2.	FL	Foreign language
3.	FLL	Foreign language learning
4.	GPCE&SR	General People's Committee of Education and Scientific Research
5.	H	Hypothesis
6.	K1	The most frequent 1000 words
7.	K2	The most frequent 2000 words
8.	LETUP	Libyan English teaching university project
9.	LLS	Language learning strategies
10.	LS	Learning style
11.	MC	Multiple choice
12.	MT	Meaning translation
13.	MWW	Man-Whitney-Wilcoxon
14.	R	Receptively
15.	P	Productively
16.	SL	Second language
17.	SLL	Second language learning
18.	VKS	Vocabulary knowledge scale
19.	VLS	Vocabulary learning strategies
20.	WF	Word family
21.	WinC	Word in context

Chapter 1:

Introduction

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

This study seeks to contribute to work in the field of second language acquisition, with a particular focus on incidental vocabulary learning through exposure to spoken English in a second language context. This chapter presents a series of issues. Initially, this chapter reports the reasons which stimulated the researcher to conduct the current study. The second section of this introduction is devoted to briefly reviewing education in Libya. Furthermore, this chapter also presents the rationale of the study, aims of the study, hypothesis, research questions and organisation of the thesis.

1.2. Why research incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening?

Incidental second language vocabulary learning research has not reached maturity yet. The importance of incidental vocabulary learning has been controversial among researchers. Horst et al. (1998. P. 220) argue that “the power of incidental acquisition may have been overestimated”. They believe, based on the results of their study (gain=22%), that incidental learning is time consuming and leads to a small amount of learning. It could be argued that learning one fifth of the target words is not a small amount of learning especially if cumulative learning is considered. Although Schmitt (2008) agrees with Horst et al. (1998), to the extent that incidental learning is not crucial for learning new vocabulary. He believes that it is only crucial

for enhancing partial knowledge of words and it would be better to deal with incidental learning as a supportive approach to intentional learning. Schmitt supports his argument by referring to a study which “estimated that L2 learners would have to read more than eight million words of text, or about 420 novels, to increase their vocabulary size by 2,000 words” (Schmitt, 2008, p.4). Although both Schmitt (2008) and Horst et al’s (1998) studies have the same view that the gain from incidental learning through listening is marginal, they still implicitly show that this type of learning can help learners to improve their vocabulary.

Some other studies (Saragi, et al., 1978; Nagy & Herman, 1987; Krashen, 1989; Day, et al., 1991; Ellis, 1999; Penno, et al., 2002; Brown, et al., 2008; Mason, et al. 2009) have different views concerning incidental vocabulary learning. These reports demonstrate that incidental vocabulary learning from both inputs, listening and reading, is very effective. Nagy and Herman (1987), and Krashen (1989) said that incidental learning is more effective than intentional or instructional learning. Moreover, Fatemeh, et al. (2015) who compared between intentional and incidental learning concluded that “incidental group outperformed the intentional group in the comprehension task” (p. 1). Huckin and Coady (1999) also claimed, based on a review of much research about reading, that the vast portion of vocabulary learning occurs incidentally. They identified three advantages of incidental learning of vocabulary over intentional learning, stating that it can lead to:

- Contextualisation, giving the learner a richer sense of a word’s use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired-associate exercises;

- That it is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities—vocabulary acquisition and reading—to occur at the same time; and
- Incidental vocabulary learning is more individualized and learner-based because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading materials. (Huckin and Coady, 1999, P. 182).

Concerning the importance of incidental vocabulary learning from listening, Ellis (1999) has convincingly proved that incidental learning is a crucial type of learning. Ellis' (1999) study concluded that incidental learning is essential because:

- “1. Most L2 vocabulary is learnt incidentally, much of it from oral input;
2. Oral input may be particularly important for the incidental acquisition of vocabulary by beginners because it affords more contextual support than written input” (p. 58).

Ellis' (1999) results were supported by those of Nagy and Herman (1987) who claimed that spoken context is much richer than a written context and more helpful in extracting the meaning of new words. Nation (2006) states that spoken texts are much easier than written texts and require a smaller number of vocabulary items to be comprehended. Moreover, various other studies (Vidal, 2003; Saffran, et al. 1997, and Al-Homoud, 2007) have reported high gains from listening. Vidal's (2003) study, for instance, showed that the participants learnt 87.25% of the target words. The results of Saffran's (1997) study showed that adult participants learnt 26.3 (73.1%) of the target words while children learnt 24.6 (68%). Al-Homoud (2007)

states that one of his participants learnt 45% of the target words from listening. He argued that:

“it could be argued that the listening mode in the current study appears to yield better results than the reading mode since it is a real time experience where listeners cannot stop the speaker, nor can he/she go back to any previous parts of the speech”(Al-Homoud, 2007, p. 213).

These results indicate that incidental vocabulary learning through listening helps learners to develop their vocabulary rapidly and may lead to acquiring “several hundred words per semester if more storytelling is included” (Mason, 2009, p. 8). Consequently, incidental L2 vocabulary learning from listening deserves more interest from researchers.

Notwithstanding the previously mentioned results, research into incidental L2 vocabulary learning from listening is very thin. Some studies, as explained above, show that this type of learning plays a crucial role in language learning/acquisition from both reading and listening. However, there is still a lack of sufficient studies that may cover some existing gaps. Thus, this study contributes to the ongoing investigation of the effect of incidental learning from listening with particular focus on its effect on learning the meaning and enhancing word recognition, grammar knowledge and use.

The current study is the second one, to my knowledge, which targets Arabic learners of English. Al-Homoud (2007) was the only study located that targeted Arabic learners in a study which dealt with incidental learning of

second language vocabulary from listening. Moreover, the current study is the first study targeting Libyan L2 learners of English. There are only five studies that deal with vocabulary with respect to Libyan students. Two of those are PhDs studies which focused on the phonological acquisition of English. The first was conducted by Botagga, (1991) who developed research on “A generative phonetics analysis of the vowel development of native Arabic speakers learning English as a foreign language”. The second was carried out by Salem, (1991) “The development of some English consonants: A longitudinal study”. The other two are MA studies that dealt with vocabulary learning strategies used by Libyan learners to learn English vocabulary. The first was conducted by Mutalib, (2002) “Vocabulary learning strategies: A case study of Libyan Learners of English”. The second was carried out by Alahirsh, (2006) “Exploring vocabulary learning strategies in the Libyan EFL classroom”. The last one is the only study that dealt with incidental L2 vocabulary learning, a PhD thesis conducted by Alahirsh, (2014): “Exploring the effectiveness of extensive reading on incidental acquisition by EFL learners: an experimental case study in a Libyan university”.

To sum up, this experimental study is one of few to have focused on incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening to stories, music and from watching films. This research is the first to have investigated which of these three modes may lead to better incidental vocabulary learning through listening to English. Moreover, it is the first that targeted Libyan learners of

English as a foreign language. Other reasons which stimulated the current study are referred to in the conclusion chapter.

1.3. A brief Review of Education in Libya

This section presents a brief overview of the Education system in Libya at the time of the study (January-December 2011). This section is organized into five sections as follows:

1. Brief historical background of Libya;
2. Philosophy of Education in Libya;
3. Curricula;
4. Teaching English in Libya;
5. Methodological Issues;
6. Teaching English at English departments in Libyan universities.

1.3.1. Brief historical background of Libya

Libya is located in North Africa and is the 17th largest country in the world and the fourth largest country in Africa. It covers the total area of 1.75 million km² and 1.5 million km² of which is desert. Libya is bordered by six countries: Egypt to the east, The Sudan to the south east, Chad and Niger from the south, Tunisia and Algeria from the west and has a coastline of 1770 kilometres of the Mediterranean Sea to the North. Many different

ethnic groups have settled in Libya since 34,000 years BCE. The main ethnic groups who lived in Libya were: Afro-Asiatic, Meshwesh, Esbet, Hes, Beken and Tehenu 2778 BCE, Rebu 1580 BCE, Germants 800 BCE, ancient Greek 631 BCE, Romans 97 BCE, Phoenicians 46 BCE, Wendals 445 CE, Bizants 533 CE, Arab since 643 CE till now (Albargothi, 1971). Commercially and economically the location of the country is very important for the region. Accordingly, Libya has been invaded by different foreign forces over the past 500 years: the Spanish in 1510, the Ottoman 1551, the Caramanlia 1835-1711, and by France, England, American, and Italy between 1911-1951. In the contemporary era Libya continues to be a leading country in the region especially for European countries for three main reasons: firstly, it supplies Europe with oil and gas. Secondly, it is the European gate to the African market. Thirdly, it plays a crucial role in preventing the illegal immigration into European countries (Almutalib, 2003).

1.3.2. Philosophy of Education in Libya

The Philosophy of education in Libya has been built upon two main concepts. These concepts are presented in Al-Qadhafi's Green Book (1980) which was considered to be a constitutional document. The first concept claims that education for its own sake is not the ultimate goal of studying, On the contrary the goal is to create the new "typical human being". The second concept claims that routinized and standardised compulsory education and a compulsory curriculum are an obliteration of a human

being's talent, i.e., students (at secondary and university levels) have the right to choose what and where they prefer to study. To implement the second concept the General People's Committee of Education and Scientific Research (GPCE & SR), equivalent to Ministry of Education in other countries, administers three educational sectors which share the responsibility of educating Libyan people. These three sectors of education are: public, private and home-schooling sectors (cf, GPCE&SR's website).

Education in public schools and undergraduate studies at universities is free of charge for both Libyans and overseas students, who live in Libya, from primary school up to university level. Students who cannot meet the required conditions for enrolment into public schools and universities go to private ones. In terms of postgraduate studies, free education is guaranteed for those who are members of staff at universities or who are sponsored by any executive governmental sectors. Sponsorship covers: Total coverage of tuition fees, specific annual amounts of money for books, a computer, transportation fees to the place of study, full health insurance, and a basic monthly salary. These benefits are guaranteed for all sponsored students who study in Libya or abroad.

Pre-university education consists of two levels: basic education and secondary education. The foremost services 1,080,834 students and the latter services 194,490 students (Lagga, et al., 2004). Basic education consists of primary and preparatory levels which are considered compulsory. Primary education lasts for six academic years and accepts

pupils from the ages of seven to twelve years. Preparatory education lasts for three academic years and accepts students from the ages of 13 to 15 years. Secondary education lasts for three academic years and accepts students from the ages of 16 to 18 years (cf. GPCE&SR. homepage).

There were two branches of secondary education in Libya: science education and literary education. The first branch qualified students to enrol into any of the scientific departments at any Libyan university. The core subjects of this branch of education are: Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics and Physics. The second branch qualified students to enrol into faculties of Arts, Law, and Administration. The main subjects of this branch were: Languages [Arabic, English and French], Philosophy, History, Psychology, Sociology, Geography and Theology.

This changed with the amendment for the academic year 2001-2002, when secondary education became a specialized education which includes 17 specializations that are divided into six branches: Basic Sciences, Life Sciences, Engineering Science, Social Sciences, Economics as well as Arts and Media (Lagga, et al., 2004). Admission for these branches is based on the overall average scores of the last year of the preparatory level of education. Students who complete their secondary education can either start their careers immediately, or pursue their university education.

In terms of university education, Alhawat and Ashour (n.d.) state that university education has passed through four historical stages. The first

stage was the establishment stage which started in 1956 continued until 1968. The second stage, began in 1970 and lasted to 1985, this stage is called the stage of response to the state's vocational, administrative, economic and educational requirements. The third phase is the expansion and growth stage that lasted from 1969 to 1985. The fourth has run from 1985 until the present. This stage is claimed to be known as the stage of quality, specialization and international cooperation.

The number of universities in Libya has increased to 27 universities including 74 faculties that include 438 departments (Lagga, 2004). According to a recent decision (No. 149) issued by the General People's Committee on 15/04/2010, the 27 Libyan universities are unified and embodied into 10 universities (Almosrati, 2010). In addition to the universities, the GPCE & SR also administrates 20 research centres, 30 private universities and 184 private higher institutions. According to the statistics of the academic year of 2002-2003, undergraduates were 222,976 were taught by 6,214 lecturers.

1.3.3. Curricula

The GPCE&SR observes, evaluates and develops the curricula. Curricula at the basic and secondary education level are unified. All three educational sectors teach the same curriculum, the same subjects and the same syllabuses which are assigned by the GPCE&SR. As far as the curricula and subjects are mentioned, there are three compulsory subjects for all levels of education from primary schools up to University level: Islamic studies,

Arabic Language and Political Thought (which focussed on Al-Qadhafi's Green Book). In terms of university education, the government supports a new project to unify the University curricula, in other words the curricula are proposed to be the same at all Libyan Universities, i.e., that all students around the country should be exposed to the same body of knowledge. This could be said to restrict creativity and competition among educational institutions.

1.3.4. Teaching English

Interest in teaching English is increasing in many countries and Libya is one of them. The interest in teaching English in Libya goes back to the colonisation period (1911 to 1952). After independence, English teaching continued until 1986. In 1986 teaching foreign languages, English and French, was terminated by means of a governmental decision to withdraw all foreign languages from the curricula in schools and Universities. In 1992 teaching English was resumed and nowadays English is a compulsory course at all levels of education in Libya, namely, from the age of 10.

Recently, the government has planned for a project to improve the teaching of English in Libya. In 2006, The GPCE&SR and the British Council began a new partnership which aimed to implement a so called "Libyan English Teaching Universities Project (LETUP)". The project, initially established seven language centres in Libyan Universities, and then was developed to include 10 centres in 10 different Universities. The main objective of these centres is to qualify graduates, who have gained scholarships, to pursue their

studies in English-speaking countries using English as medium of instruction. In addition to that, the project aims to train Libyan EFL teachers to teach at those centres (cf, British council web). This project is evaluated as the best among another 110 world projects and has been awarded the international prize of the British council of the year 2009 (cf, Oea, 2009).

In addition to the LETUP, the British Council and the GPCE&SR have established and maintained partnership between six Libyan primary and secondary schools and six British schools. Those 12 schools teach the same British curriculum and administer the same exams.

1.3.5. Methodological issues

Before 1996 the Grammar Translation Method was used to teach English in Libyan preparatory and secondary schools. Grammar translation is a teaching method which focuses on the structure of language. It also focuses on reading and writing, the instruction medium is the first language, and vocabulary is taught by means of word lists (cf. Richards & Rodgers 2007: PP5-7). After 1992, the school curriculum for English has been developed to cope with changes taking place within society. The course books for the basic and secondary levels are designed based on the communicative approach which “greatly influences the concept of incidental learning” (Wei and Hong, 2007, p. 64) and which is “based on the premise that what we do in the classroom should have some real-life communication value” (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005, p. 12).

The course books of the basic and secondary levels come in a package of: teacher's book, work book, student's book, and audio cassettes. The cassettes contain recorded texts and some vocabulary practice tasks. The spoken texts are read by native English speakers. The books contain a variety of vocabulary sections, which are not contained in the previous curriculum, from which learners are intended to learn a good amount of new vocabulary. The vocabulary sections contain activities that facilitate vocabulary learning. These activities are: analysis of affixes, collocation, identification of parts of speech, matching words to pictures, guessing meaning from context, paraphrasing, group discussion, studying spelling, and studying sounds.

1.3.6. Teaching English at English departments in Libyan universities

In terms of teaching English at English departments in Libyan universities, students are required to complete all academic requirements specified by the GPCE&SR. Students are only allowed to register for a four year full-time program. The English departments within Libyan Universities require undergraduates to successfully complete forty-four compulsory courses as shown in the tables below.

Table 1-1: Subjects taught at English Departments in Libyan Universities for first year.

NO	Subject title	Credits
1.	Grammar	4
2.	Listening comprehension	4
3.	Conversational & pronunciation	4
4.	Writing & punctuation	4
5.	Reading comprehension	4
6.	Arabic	3
7.	Foreign language	3
8.	Masses thought [Qaddafi's thought]	2
9.	Public	2
	Total	30

Table 1- 2: Subjects taught at English Departments in Libyan Universities for second year.

NO	Subject title	Credits
1.	Grammar	3
2.	Listening comprehension	3
3.	Conversational & pronunciation	3
4.	Writing & punctuation	3
5.	Reading comprehension	3
6.	Literature	2
7.	Translation	2
8.	Phonetics	2
9.	Arabic	3
10.	Foreign language	3
11.	Masses thought [Qaddafi's thought]	2
	Total	29

Table 1-3: Subjects taught at English Departments in Libyan Universities for third year

NO	Subject title	Credits
1.	Grammar	3
2.	Listening comprehension	3
3.	Creative writing	3
4.	Speech varieties	2
5.	Applied linguistics	2
6.	Literature	2
7.	Linguistics	2
8.	Translation	2
9.	Phonetics	2
10.	Arabic	3
11.	Foreign language	3
12.	Masses thought[Qaddafi's thought]	2
Total		29

Table 1-4: Subjects taught at English Departments in Libyan Universities for fourth year.

NO	Subject title	Credits
1.	Phonology	2
2.	Grammatical structure	3
3.	Creative writing	3
4.	Discourse analysis	2
5.	Applied linguistics	2
6.	Translation & interpretation	2
7.	Literary criticism	2
8.	English for specific purposes	3
9.	Psych & socio Linguistics	2
10.	Arabic	3
11.	Foreign language	3
12.	Masses thought [Qaddafi's thought]	2
Total		29

The course descriptions were published in the second part of a booklet in 2008 by the GPCE&SR as guide for lecturers. The booklet only presents the outlines of the courses. It does not refer to any materials or text books to be used in the courses, teaching methods, teaching schedules, teaching hours,

nor the method of evaluation and assessment. Lack of the above mentioned details as well as the deficiency of yearly evaluations of those courses enhances one's scepticism towards the adequacy of those courses as well as their qualities of providing the local labour market with highly proficient linguists, translators or language teachers.

As shown above, there are fixed compulsory subjects to be taught at Libyan universities' English departments; however, there are no fixed course details to be taught in those departments. Educators working for Libyan universities are allowed by the universities to select the materials to be taught according to their teaching experiences and beliefs. According to my experience as an English teacher at different educational institutions, not all the educators are qualified to design a course nor to determine subject content. As far as the teachers' experience is concerned, some reports (by African Development Bank [AFDB] 2012 and another by USA Congress 2007) and much research (Al-Moghani, 2003; Orafi, 2009; Rajendran, 2010; Elabbar, 2011; Kreiba, 2012; Dhaimish, 2012) claims that Libyan educators are not qualified properly for the labour market. The AFDB (2012, p.11) reported that "the curriculum is of poor quality and teachers receive inadequate training". Logically, those who are not qualified to teach are not qualified to design a course. The materials used by the lecturers are not controlled nor reviewed by the departments, university nor any sector working for the Ministry of Education in Libya. The teaching materials being selected by unqualified educators, is one of the reasons that the outputs of Libyan educational institutes were weak and leads to place Libyans "as the least proficient in

English” among non-native speakers in the world as well as in North Africa according to the annual reports of "EF English Proficiency Index", in the years: 2012, 2015 and 2018 as shown in the table below.

Table 1-5: The proficiency of English level of Libyans in the world							
Year	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Rank	54/54	54/60	32/63	70/70	71/72	78/80	88/88

To help teachers further develop their teaching skills, Libyan universities should have offered a wide variety of workshops, conferences and seminars to develop language tutors' teaching skills. In addition to that the education system in Libya should have considered the recommendations offered by serious research. The state had offered thousands of scholarships for Libyan people to gain MAs and PhDs in different fields of studies in Europe, America, Asia and Arabic countries. These candidates, who were supervised by highly qualified and experienced scholars, have offered recommendations following their studies but unfortunately these recommendations have been neglected and have not been sufficiently considered as a means to enhance and develop English teaching in Libya.

1.3.7. Perspective of typical oral listening class

As an English teacher who has been teaching English as a foreign language since 1994 to Libyan Arab undergraduates I noticed that all the listening and speaking teachers used specific English course books which are designed to teach Received Pronunciation (RP) or standard American English (SAE). It

is true that those course books meet some of the foreign learners' learning needs; however, foreign learners are still unable to understand nor deal with native speakers who speak in their regional accents or dialects. Moreover they are unable to understand some authentic songs and movie dialogues. Such a problem can be caused by the native speaker's use of phonological processes for instance; deletion, assimilation and linking. In my own experience, I have come to know that giving phonological process rules can enhance learners' listening comprehension. Therefore, I think that advanced listening courses that focus on the phonological processing of different accents should be taught to non-native speakers.

My first visit to England was in 2001 when I came to Bournemouth on an English study course. At that time I noticed that English people spoke English differently than the English we were learning at language school. The most obvious is the sound /t/ which is pronounced /ʔ/. When I moved to study for my M.A. in Newcastle Upon Tyne I realized that Geordie, a dialect spoken in Newcastle upon Tyne, has both different sounds and different vocabulary. After that I noticed that Londoners, people in Nottingham and people in other cities speak English differently. As Libyan learners need to interact with native speakers from different regions. It is essential for learners to be introduced to at least the main phonological differences among English accents using authentic materials (songs, movies, monologue, dialogue...etc.).

Lately, I have taught a course titled "*Listening Englishes*" in a Libyan university. I designed a course which aims to expose students to different

English accents (SAE, RP, Cockney, Yorkshire, Scouse, Mancunian, Geordie ... etc.,). For the purpose of the course, learners are initially taught some phonological rules show how those accents differ from the RP and SAE, then learners listen in classes to some authentic material (part of a movie, a song, dialogue...etc.,). The main activities which took place in this class were:

- Listen and write down the sentences you listened to;
- Fill in the gap;
- Identify the accent and how you know it.

For their assignments learners were required to log onto the internet to listen to more materials that have the same accent that they learnt in class. By the end of the course, learners expressed their happiness at being more skilled in recognising and comprehending oral English texts.

1.4. Rationale of the Study

As stated, I have been teaching English as a foreign language since 1994 to Libyan Arab undergraduates. During that period, I have met some students who surprised me with their high language proficiency, pronunciation, expressions and the advanced vocabulary they used. That scenario has come about frequently, i.e., every year there would be more instances of such students who exemplified these qualities. I was very enthusiastic about speaking to those students with the aim in mind of exploring the factors that made such students much better than their classmates.

It became clear from conversations with those students that the main reason for their high language levels was their interest in listening to the target language, which appeared to incidentally increase their language abilities. Some of those students claimed that they extensively used to enjoy listening to music and others said that they were obsessed with watching films in English. These observations stimulated me to investigate the effect of such learning on language learners. In addition to that, it inspired me to construct a testable hypothesis, H1, that claims that exposure to language audio and audio-visual materials (films, songs, stories... etc.) can incidentally play a crucial role in foreign language learning through enhancing vocabulary development. Such an observation remains naïve and cannot be accepted by academics unless it is ‘empirically’ demonstrated.

Literature does not offer sufficient help in understanding the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary learning through listening to a foreign language, and many gaps are still uncovered. This study attempts to cover some of those gaps, which are subsumed into exploratory research areas such as:

- The importance of incidental learning in learning vocabulary from listening to a foreign/second language;
- Conditions leading to the acquisition of new lexical knowledge from incidental learning;
- The effectiveness of authentic materials in incidental vocabulary learning;
- Who can learn more from incidental learning?

- To what extent can “learnt vocabulary from incidental learning” be retained in the long-term memory?

The Literature of relevant studies, as mentioned in chapter three, has only focused on the amount of vocabulary that can be learnt incidentally through listening to English. The literature has presented different findings, however, none of the previous studies appear to have investigated **how** vocabulary can be learnt incidentally or to have explored the factors that affect incidental vocabulary learning through listening. Ellis’s (1994) is the one and only study, as argued in section 2.6., which hypothesised that different factors may enhance incidental vocabulary learning. The current study is also designed to assess the testable hypothesis, H2 as presented in section 1.6., which states that incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language may be enhanced by different modes of language text, such as film or song genres.

Additionally, this study is important for four reasons: firstly, this study is the first study investigating the effect of listening to stories, songs and films on Arabic learners of English. Secondly, it is the first study to have focused on four types of vocabulary knowledge (word form recognition, meaning, grammar, and word use). Thirdly, the current study is the first experimental study comparing incidental vocabulary learning from authentic texts (films and songs) and non-authentic spoken texts (simplified stories). Fourthly, the current study is the first experimental study investigating the effect of five factors that are hypothesized, as shown below in H2, to increase the

likelihood of learning vocabulary incidentally from extensive listening to English.

1.5. Aims of the study

This study was carried out in an English Department at a Libyan University. The aim of this study is to investigate to what extent second language (L2) vocabulary can be acquired incidentally through extensive exposure to spoken texts and to what extent it leads to acquiring or enhancing lexical knowledge, in terms of form recognition, meaning, grammatical behaviour and use. In addition to that, it aims to uncover the main conditions required for such acquisition.

This study further aims to offer some pedagogical proposals that may help to enhance the awareness of the importance of listening to the acquisition of the target language, and which may help Libyan course designers and EFL teachers to refocus their pedagogical tasks.

1.6. Hypothesis

Based on an observation, mentioned in the rationale section above (in section 1.4.), this study hypothesizes that:

H1. Vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language.

H2. Incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language may be enhanced by:

(1) Word repetitions within the spoken texts;

- (2) Participants' language proficiency in that language;
- (3) Participants' previous vocabulary knowledge;
- (4) Participants' vocabulary language strategies;
- (5) Participants' learning styles.

1.7. Research questions

The study was designed to seek answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent can vocabulary be learnt from spoken input?
2. What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input?

1.8. Organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters that are organised as follows:

Chapter one is the introduction which is organized as follows: Section one is an introductory element of the chapter. The second part of this chapter sheds light on the educational system in Libya at the time of the study (January-December 2011). This section has been organized into four parts. The first discusses the Philosophy of Education in Libya at that time. The second deals with Curricula which have been taught in Libya. The third gives the historical background of teaching English in Libya. The last section reviews the teaching Methods used in teaching English in Libya. The chapter also states the research problem, rationale, aims, hypotheses and research questions of this experimental study.

The literature review is divided between chapters two and three discussing the concepts used in the thesis and the previous studies which dealt with incidental vocabulary acquisition and learning through listening to English.

Chapter two discusses the factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English.

Chapter three is devoted to reviewing previous studies. It is subdivided into four sub-sections. The first subsection reviews incidental L1 vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. The second subsection discusses incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening to stories. The third subsection discusses incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening to songs. The fourth subsection deals with incidental L2 vocabulary learning through watching films. Finally the chapter ends with a summary in which the researcher refers to how he has utilised the strengths and weaknesses of previous research in designing his study.

Chapter four discusses the methodology that was used to collect and analyse the data. The aim of the study, hypotheses and research questions are briefly restated in the chapter then the chapter explains the rationale of the study and thereafter it discusses the theoretical Framework of the Study. This chapter also extensively discusses the research design for both the pilot and the main studies. Towards the end of the chapter, ethical considerations are reported and the techniques of data analysis are explained.

Chapter five reports the Analyses of the collected data. The chapter has been organised into seven sections. The first section is to examine the

normality of the data which would help in deciding what types of test should be used in analysing the data. The second section is devoted to examining whether the outcomes of the study were caused by the experiment or by any other means. The third section reports the incidental vocabulary gains from the three modes of listening (stories, songs and films). The fourth section examines the effect of the factors that affect incidental vocabulary learning from listening. Section five reports the extent to which the target words can be retained in the long term memory. Section six dealt with productive vocabulary learnt from the three modes. Finally, the seventh section is devoted to contrasting the outcomes of three inputs.

Chapter six discuss the results of the study and links them back to the literature, methodology and theories.

Chapter seven is devoted to reporting the conclusion of the study. The chapter has been structured into four sections. The first section is an introduction in which the aim, hypotheses and research questions of the study are restated. The second section is devoted to summarising the findings of the thesis. The third section makes a claim for contributions of the current study to the field of SLA. The fourth section identifies the limitation of the study. The fifth section offers suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2:

Literature review

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1. Introduction

Literature will be presented in two chapters: chapters two and three. Information in these two chapters will be frequently referred to in chapter six in which results of the study will be discussed and connections drawn, where relevant, to previous research, illustrating the potential impact of this study, on the literature in general as well as adding weight to previous arguments where appropriate. This means that the discussion in these two chapters will be more descriptive in order to provide a clear picture before the study report commences and so the context for the study is as transparent as possible. Chapter two examines some of the key concepts related to incidental learning of vocabulary, as will be outlined in the next section. Chapter three will review a series of research experiments investigating incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English. Chapter three therefore has allowed the researcher to evaluate and critique the methodologies used in previous research which has helped the development of research methods for the current study. The literature has been presented in different chapters to avoid excessive length in any one section and to assist the reading of the thesis. In addition to that the researcher has held back some of the critique to Chapter Six in order to avoid repetition and for the sake of clarity, coherence and effective analysis.

Before embarking further into the literature review, it would be better to clarify some key definitions which are crucial for a reader of this work. This chapter is devoted to discussing the following issues:

1. Learning theories;
2. Listening comprehension;
3. Vocabulary Knowledge;
4. Incidental learning; and
5. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning.

2.2. Learning theories

Second language (L2) acquisition (A)/learning (L) studies show how non-native speakers of a language can learn a foreign (F)/second language, the extent to which learners can acquire/learn that language, and the factors that affect learning processes. Many theorists use only the term acquisition. Krashen (1985) believes that learning and acquisition occur in different situations. He argues that native speakers acquire a language implicitly and subconsciously in informal situations while non-native speakers learn the target language explicitly and consciously in formal situations. The term second language acquisition (SLA) is defined as “the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom” (Ellis & Heimbach, 1997, p. 3). According to Ellis (2008, p. 8) the term second refers to any language rather than the first language.

Ellis (Op. cit.) shows some factors that affect SLA, and summarised them into two factors:

1) Internal which subcategorised into:

a) 'Social milieu' which suggests that language can be learnt by means of interaction with native speakers;

b) 'The input' which means that learning occurs when learners exposed to a language first then imitate what they were exposed to.

2) External factors which shows the reasons beyond the variable rate of gained by different learners.

There are a range of different theories which contribute to explaining second language acquisition (SLA). In this section I will discuss the cognitive approach which will be adopted as a position that will guide my study.

The cognitive theorists' aim is to "develop models which properly represent all of the systems of working memory, perceptual representation, and attention that are involved in collating the regularities of cross modal associations underpinning language use"(Ellis, 1997, p. 6).

Cognitive theorists are categorized into two main groups: Processing approaches (such as Pienemann and Towell and Hawkins), and Emergentists or Constructionist (Ellis, McWhinney and Tomasello).

- Processing approaches investigate how second language learners process linguistic information, and how their ability to process

the second language develops over time. They are focused primarily on the computational dimension of learning, and might or might not believe that language is a separate innate module.

- Constructivist or emergentist views of language learning share a usage –based view of language development, which is driven by communicative needs, and they refute the need to posit an innate, language specific, acquisition device. They include approaches known as emergentism, connectionism or associationism, constructivism, functionalism, cognitivism, and competition Model, etc. ” (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 97)

2.3. Listening Comprehension

According to the cognitive theorists, Language learning is considered as a set of complex cognitive processes in which learners construct meaning from written or spoken inputs. To understand these processes, cognitive theorists argue that we “can understand the second language acquisition process better by first understanding how the human brain processes and learns information” (Op. cit. p. 95). So that, cognitive theorists direct their interest to understanding how L2 learners process linguistic information rather than to understanding the linguistic system itself.

The listening process is more complex than the reading process. This is because a listener has to interpret the speaker’s message and manipulate unknown words simultaneously, i.e. to both attend to the flow and to think of the meaning of the new words, sentences and structures. This argument is

supported by , Rubin (1994) who states that the spoken input process refers to how “learners interpret input in terms of what they know or identify what they don’t know[...] while the process also refers to the way in which listeners use different kinds of signals to interpret what is said” (p. 210).

Concerning information processing, schemata theorists refer to different models that illustrate the listening process. Rumelhart, (1980) and Anderson & Bachman (2007) state that those models are separate but occur simultaneously. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) and Buck (2001) identify three models of the listening process that function in the L2 learners: Top down, Bottom up, and the interactive model.

1. Bottom up processing. In this model, the process works from lower-level schemata to higher-level schemata. It is presumed that spoken input is decoded into sounds and then these sounds are utilized to recognize words which in turn help in understanding a message.
2. Top down processing. Unlike bottom-up processing, listeners utilize their previous knowledge to predict words which are likely to come next. Lund (1991) and Buck (2001) claim that top-down information processing is needed more to manipulate L2 listening messages than it is for reading.
3. Interactive processing. In this model both bottom-up and top-down processes interact in processing the spoken message.

Three memories are involved in processing information: sensory memory (SM), short term memory (STM), and long term memory (LTM). Information received by our senses is initially stored in a storage system

called sensory memory. The information in the SM is held for less than a second before it disappears, unless it is transferred to the STM. Short term memory was thought to be a temporary storage system that could hold a small amount of information and a limited capacity to hold information. At one time, its capacity was identified with the term memory span. Memory span refers to the number of elements one can immediately repeat back. Information is transferred to LTM simply by rehearsing them in the STM. Researchers argue that there are various types of rehearsal (“deep” versus “shallow” rehearsal) and each has a different effect on the LTM. Thus, increased rehearsal of information results in the increased probability of LTM retention (Anderson, 2000).

Transformation of the information from the STM to LTM requires that learners pay attention to what they learn, i.e. they have to focus their attention on understanding, because mere rehearsal does not result in better memory.

2.4. Vocabulary knowledge

According to the Oxford Dictionary and Thesaurus’ (2008) definition, vocabulary is “the words known by a person, or used in a particular language or activity; a list of words and their meanings”. Jackson (1988) stated that a word is a unit of language which separated “by means of the orthographic space between words” (p. 2). Accordingly, some letters that have a grammatical function or add meaning (e.g. the indefinite article **A**) to a linguistic message is counted as a word. So far it is easy to say that

vocabulary is “a set of words”, but the real issue is what do we need to know about a word to claim that we know it?

Many researchers tried to determine what exactly is involved in knowing a word; however, as many notions in the field of educational research, the term is still vague and there is no consensus among researchers. Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014, p. 1) claimed that “knowing a word is an elusive concept and we still unable to capture, in simple description, everything that knowing a word might involve”. Literature (Richard, 1976; Blum-Kulka, 1981; Nation, 1990; Laufer, 1997; Nation, 2001) provides different classifications of different word knowledge aspects needed to be mastered in order to know a word. These taxonomies are briefly summarised in table 2-1 below.

Table 2-1: Summary of different studies' taxonomies of word knowledge types								
1.	Richard, J. C. (1976)	Blum-Kulka, S (1981)	Alexander, R. (1982)	Nation (1990)	Laufer, B. (1997)	Chapelle, C. A. (1998)	Henriksen, B. (1999)	Qian (2002)
2.	The degree of probability of encountering the word in speech or print,	Semantic mapping	Phonological links	The spoken form of a word.	Spoken and written form	Vocabulary size	Partial-precise knowledge	Vocabulary size
3.	The limitations imposed on the use of the word according to the function and situation,	Morph-semantic restriction	Morphological links	The written form of a word.	Word structure	Knowledge of word characteristics	Depth of knowledge	Depth of vocabulary knowledge
4.	The syntactic behaviour associated with the word,	Collocational restriction	Syntactic links	The grammatical behaviour of the word.	Syntactic pattern	Lexicon organization	Receptive-productive	Lexical organization
5.	The underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it,	Communicative function	Pragmatic sense relationship	The collocation behaviour of the word.	Meaning: referential, affective and pragmatic.	Processes of lexical access		Aytmaticity of receptive-productive knowledge
6.	The associations between the word and		Collocation	How frequent the word is.	Lexical relations of the			

	other words in the language,		patterns		word with other words			
7.	The semantic value of the word, and		Style & register	The stylistic register constraints of a word.	Common collocation			
8.			Knowledge of fixed expressions of idiom	The conceptual meaning of the word.				
9.			Connective meaning	The associations a word has with other related words.				
10.			Allusional meaning					

Richard's (1976) taxonomy of word knowledge is the onset attempt in the field that influenced other studies (e.g. Ellis, 1995; Schmitt and Meara, 1997; and Schmitt and McCarthy, 1976; as cited in Meara, 1996). Richard's taxonomy includes seven types of word knowledge: syntactic behaviour, association, semantic value, different meaning, underlying form and derivation.

Nation (1990) provided his first classification in which he claimed that mastery of a word involves eight types of word knowledge. Thereafter Nation (2001) developed more comprehensive categories of the aspects of word knowledge which considered the most detailed category. Nation's (2001) taxonomy classified word knowledge into three main types: form, meaning and use. Each of these three types of knowledge sub-categorised into three types of word knowledge to end with nine types that can be learnt receptively (R) or productively (P) as shown in table 2-2.

Table 2-2: What is involve in knowing a word, from Nation (2001, P. 27)

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Association	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical function	R	In what pattern does the word occur?
		P	In what pattern must we use this word?
	Collocation	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency, ...)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

2.5. Incidental learning

There appears to be little agreement on a specific definition of the term ‘incidental vocabulary learning’. The term is considered as an opposite to the formal learning (intentional) and is described differently as ‘unconscious, sub-conscious, unintentional, indirect, informal, additional unplanned, or unplanned learning’. Wesche and Paribkht (cited in Wei and Hong, 2007, p. 65) define incidental learning as “the process in which learners focus on comprehending the meaning of reading and listening rather than on the explicit goal of learning new words and acquire vocabulary only by a by-product of another activity”. i.e., learners may learn the language while they listening to audio or watch audio-visual materials; or they may learn a skill while they are taught another e.g., learning vocabulary when the focal aim of the class is listening, grammar or reading.

Hulstijn (1998) argues that incidental learning takes place in a second language according to the same conditions required for L1 acquisition. The conditions are: a focus on communication and a lack of intention to or attention on learning the language of what they listen to. The focal debate in the literature of incidental learning, deals with determining the extent of unconsciousness, intention and attention required for this type of learning. Milton (2008) illustrates

that unintentional learning means that "something can be learnt without really trying and without effort, presumably while the learner is busy doing something else". Schmidts (cited in Rieder, 2003, p. 28) states that "attention to input is a prerequisite for any learning to take place" i.e., both types of learning, intentional and incidental, cannot occur without attention. In terms of consciousness, Rieder (po.cit.) refers to some studies' definitions of the concept of consciousness. He summarised them in five definitions:

- "1) Consciousness as intentionality (incidental vs. intentional learning);
 - 2) Consciousness as a product of attention (attended vs. unattended learning);
 - 3) Consciousness as awareness (learning with/without online awareness);
 - 4) Consciousness as instruction (implicit acquisition vs. explicit instruction);
 - 5) Consciousness as control (implicit vs. explicit memory)"
- (Rieder, 2003, p. 27).

In summary, the notion of consciousness is relative i. e. a learner will never learn any new word unless s/he consciously recognises that the word is new, unknown and important; then the learning may occur unconsciously.

2.6. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning

The entire empirical incidental vocabulary learning research often looked at the amount of vocabulary that can be learnt from listening to a second/foreign language rather than how this might happen.

Accordingly, the scope of research, so far, is very narrow and has not offered a comprehensive look at the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary learning. The only study, to the best of my knowledge, that has attempted to explore factors which may affect incidental vocabulary learning was conducted by Ellis (1994). Ellis hypothesized that incidental L2 vocabulary learning from a spoken context is influenced by four main factors: intrinsic word properties, input factors, interactional factors and learner factors. Ellis' factors can be summarized as follows:

Table 2- 3: Factors influence incidental L2 vocabulary learning from listening context (from Ellis 1994)			
NO	Factor	Sub-factor	Explanation
1.	Intrinsic word properties	Pronounceability	The pronunciation of the word affects both learners' perception and production of them
		Parts of speech	Nouns are the easiest part of speech to be learnt then adjective and verbs.
		Distinctiveness of word form	words that have different forms are easier to be learnt than those closer to another word
		Length of word	Long words that contain more than a syllable (polysyllabic) tends to be more difficult to process and retain as new words.
		The degree of correlation between form and meaning	Learners differently process new words according to their language proficiency. A low-level language learner stores new words according to the mutual sound link among them while advanced learners or native speakers tend to associate words according to their meanings
		Imageability	Learning a concrete word that can be imagined is easier than learning an abstract one.
		Polysemy	Words that have the same forms and the same pronunciations but have different meanings (polysemy) are more difficult than words that have a single meaning.
2.	Input factors	Frequency	The more the word occurs in a spoken text the more it is likely to be learnt from the context.
		Saliency through focus	A word can be significant in a spoken context via its repetition, emphatic stress and being a key word. These factors may attract the learners' attention and lead to learning new words.
		Availability of contextual cues	Contextual cues play a crucial role in facilitating meaning deduction and retention of new vocabulary.
		Input complexity	Complexity refers to the text that contains a large number of the unknown words. A text that contains unlimited number of unknown words may not aid comprehension consequently may not lead to better

			learning.
3.	Interactional factors		Interaction by means of negotiation facilitates vocabulary learning. It helps to get the exact meaning of new words and gives the learner the opportunity to be exposed to more new words.
4.	Learner factors	Existing knowledge of L2 vocabulary	Learners who know more vocabulary can gain more new vocabulary from the context.
		Background knowledge	Learners' background of the surrounding environment and the topic they read or listen enable them to be more capable of extracting the meaning of new words from the context and more capable of learning vocabulary incidentally.
		Procedural knowledge	Procedural knowledge refers to learning strategies and procedures used by language acquirers to manipulate new information. The more strategies learners use in tackling new words, the more vocabulary they can gain.
		Immediate phonological memory	Learners' ability to form immediate and precise phonological representation is likely to influence their ability to learn L2 vocabulary.
		The learner's L1	Similarity between L1 and L2 helps in recognizing and acquiring L2 words when exposed to them.

The current study investigates the effect of five factors which are hypothesized to increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input of the target language:

- (1) Word repetitions within the spoken texts;
- (2) Participants' language proficiency in that language;
- (3) Participants' previous vocabulary knowledge;
- (4) Participants' vocabulary language strategies;
- (5) Participants' learning styles.

Some of these hypotheses (H3 and H4) have been generated based on my own teaching experience. I do believe that the third and fourth hypothesis are major factors which might influence incidental learning and so need to be examined and represent a first attempt to look at a range of different factors not just the nature of the vocabulary itself.

The hypotheses of the current study are similar to a hypothesis put forward by Ellis (1994). No other studies addressed the issue of how the incidental learning takes place and accordingly the current study can be seen as the first empirical study which attempts to do so.

Ellis's factors, as shown in table 2-3, were sub-categorised into 17 factors which are theoretical and which cannot easily be empirically examined and certainly not in a single study. Accordingly, this study can be considered the first study that examines the effect of the chosen five factors. In addition to that, this study may stimulate other researchers to contribute by examining other factors in the light of the findings of this study.

The current study examines three hypotheses (the first, the second and the third) which are similar to those in Ellis' (1994) study. My first hypothesis (which states that: The effect of word repetitions within the spoken texts may enhance incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language) is considered one of four sub-

factors of *Input factors* in Ellis' factors. The second and the third hypotheses, mentioned above, of the current study are sub-categorized in Ellis' so called *Learner factors*.

2.6.1. The effect of word frequencies.

Research shows that incidental learning plays an important role in language learning from the two inputs, reading and listening, although there is still a lack of agreement on how many times a word should be encountered in a context, speed rate of the text and the vocabulary size needed for this type of learning. In terms of the repetition needed in order for incidental learning, to occur, studies revealed different results, for instance, Saragi, Nation & Meister (1978) concluded that the minimum number of repetition for a word to be learnt from reading should be more than 16 times. Horst et al., (1998) and Waring and Takaki (2003) argue that a word to be learnt should be encountered at least eight times in written text. Pigada and Schmitt (2006) and Brown et al. (2008) argue that words to be learnt from listening should occur more than 20 times. Laufer et al. (2011) suggested a lower number of occupancy within a text.

2.6.2. The effect of vocabulary needed for incidental learning from listening

Concerning the coverage of vocabulary needed for incidental learning, Hu and Nation (2000) argue that a learner needs to know at least 95% of the tokens in order to learn vocabulary incidentally from spoken text. They added that knowing 98% of the tokens in the text enables a learner to guess the meaning of a word within a surrounded text of 49 words or two-three unknown words per minute. Nation (2001) states that a learner should know a minimum of between 95-98% of the tokens to guess the meaning of words from the spoken text. He added that 98% means one word in every 50 words. Based on these studies, for a text to be understood a listener should know between 95-98% of the words.

In terms of the size of vocabulary needed for incidental learning, Nation (2006) argues, in reference to his analysis of 14000 word of the British National Corpus, that the first 3000 word families (WF) of these lists covers 92.52% of a written text. The study also shows that 8,000-9,000 WF cover 98% of the WF needed to comprehend a written text while the same percentage covers 6,000- 7,000 WF for listening. This means, as calculated by Schmitt (2008), that as “each word family will have several members [...] 6,000 WF equals about 28,000 individual words, and 8,000 WF equals about 35,000 words”

(p. 1). Nation (2006) then suggests, based on another study he conducted, that this size of vocabulary is a receptive size which is achieved by L2 students who enrol in higher studies in which English is the medium of teaching. Nation's (2006) results indicate that incidental vocabulary learning is only adequate for advanced learners who have a large size of vocabulary. Consequently, studies that targeted lower proficiency learners have a common limitation which is "targeting inadequate subjects".

Webb and Rodgers (2009) analysed more than 300 films from eleven genres: action, animation, comedy, suspense/crime, drama, horror, romance, science fiction, war, western, and classics. The films contain, approximately, three million tokens. The result of their study showed that, in the case of the proper nouns and marginal words are not known, the most frequent 1,000 WF covers 86% of the words, the 1,001-2000 WF covers 90,67% of the words, the 2,001-3,000 WF covers 92% of the words. The most frequent 7,000 WF cover 95.03% and the 14,000 WF cover 95.79% of the words. If the proper names and marginal, words in the text, are known, the most frequent 3,000 WF are adequate to cover 95.76% and the 6,000 WF covers 98.15%.

Webb and Rodgers's (2009) study showed that the percentage of the coverage differs from one genre to another. The most frequent 3,000 word families cover 96% of the WF in horror, classic, drama, and 95% of the rest of the genres. The most frequent 4,000 WF covers 95% in war, animated, and action films. The 5,000 WF with the knowledge of the proper nouns and marginal words covers 98% in horror, crime and drama. However, vocabulary knowledge of the most frequent 10,000 is needed to cover 98% of animated films. Webb and Rodgers concluded (2009) that "if learners knew the most frequent 3,000 word families and they watched at least an hour of television a day, there is the potential for significant incidental vocabulary learning.

It becomes clear from the above mentioned studies that knowing 95-98% of the words in the spoken text is required for incidental vocabulary learning through listening. Knowing this size of vocabulary does not mean that the EFL/ESL learner can understand them when they are uttered, that is due to the fact that the learners have learnt vocabulary from both types of inputs, written and spoken. Consequently, there is still a lack of empirical evidence indicating that what is known can be understood when listened to, even though Horror, Classic, and Drama are likely to be more understandable and

easier than the other genres of films. This may encourage researchers to use these three genres in their incidental learning studies.

Some researchers go far beyond the word coverage to think of speech speed rate. In terms of speed rate, Rubin (1994) states that many studies showed that the normal speech rate for native speakers is 165 to 180 words per minute. This rate is inadequate for some learners to comprehend a native English spoken message. The required speed rate for non-native listeners to understand English differs according to the level of the learners. A comprehensible speed rate for lower-intermediate learners ranges from 124 to 127 words per minute. Intermediate and advanced learners can understand a spoken language that ranges from 145 to 185 words. These figures indicate that intermediate and advanced learners are more capable of understanding the target language when it is spoken at the normal speed rate. Consequently, they are more capable of guessing the meaning of new words from spoken context. It seems that these figures should be cautiously considered when targeting samples for incidental learning research.

2.6.3. Language learning strategies & Vocabulary learning strategies

Techniques used by language learner to acquire a language, which is often referenced in literature as Language Learning Strategies (LLS), stimulated researchers to investigate those methods, define and systematically classify them. The literature of LLS provides us with different definitions and different taxonomies of language learning strategies. In terms of terminology, it appears that there is no unified definition for the term (Oxford, 1990). Rubin (1987) defines LLS as “many sets of operations, steps, plans, and routines used by a learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information” (p. 19). Ahmed (1988, p. 84) refers in his definition to mental processes ‘conscious and unconscious’. He states that LLS are “the devices used by the learner consciously or unconsciously, to help him/her advance competence in the TL” (target language). Stern (1992) appears to disagree with Ahmed that the former considers only conscious processes in his definition. Stern defines learning strategies as being “dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies” (p. 261). Richardson and Platt (1992) agree with Stern in terms that learning strategies are conscious behaviour. They define the term as “intentional behaviour and thought used by learners

during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information” (p. 209). In terms of vocabulary learning strategies, the term is defined as “Vocabulary learning strategies constitute knowledge about what students do to find out the meaning of new words, retain them in long-term memory, recall them when needed in comprehension, and use them in language production” (Catalan 2003, cited in Ruutemets, 2005).

Literature presents different categorizations of language learning strategies (LLS). To the best of my knowledge, the first study into LLS was conducted by Aron Carton in 1966 (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 149), however, the real onset of the domain was in the 1990s. In 1978 Dansereau categorised LLS into two main categories: Primary strategies and supporting strategies. Rubin’s (1987) classification involves more strategies. She classified LLS into three categories:

1. Learning strategies. This category is further sub-classified into two categories: Cognitive learning strategies (clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring) and Metacognitive learning strategies (planning, prioritising, setting goals and self-management);

2. Communication strategies;
3. Social strategies.

Rubin's considered Cognitive learning strategies and Metacognitive learning strategies subcategories while Chamot (1987) classified them as one main category. Chamot's classified detailing different LLS within three main categories:

1. Metacognitive strategies. These strategies sub-grouped into advance organisation, direct attention, selective attention, self-management, advance preparation, self-monitoring, delayed production and self-evaluation;
2. Cognitive strategies. These strategies sub-grouped into repetition, resourcing, direct physical respond, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer and inferencing;
3. Social strategies. These strategies sub-grouped into cooperation and question for clarification.

Among the most comprehensive and crucial LLS taxonomies is Oxford's (1990) scheme which contains two main categories: direct strategies and indirect each of them was sub-classified into three

categories that further sub-categorized into 62 language learning strategies.

1. Direct strategies: These strategies include into memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies;
2. Indirect strategies: These strategies include into metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

Concerning vocabulary learning strategies (VLS), Chamot (1987) stated that the learners in his study used more strategies for vocabulary learning than the other language learning activities. Gu and Johnson (1996); Schmitt (1997) and Nation (2001) provide detailed categories of VLS the first two are considered the largest studies in the field of VLS. Schmitt's (1997) scheme is based on Oxford's (1990) taxonomy; however, he argues that Oxford's taxonomy is unsatisfactory in categorizing vocabulary specific strategies and that some strategies could easily fit into two or more groups. He added that it is unclear whether some of her strategies should be classified as memory strategies or cognitive strategies. Consequently, he shifted some strategies from a group to another and added a new strategy, determination strategies, to his taxonomy. Schmitt's (1997) vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) taxonomy consists of 58 individual strategies within two main categories:

1. Discovery strategies. These strategies sub-categorised into:
 - Determination strategies (includes: analysing affix and roots, checking for L1 cognates, analysing pictures/gestures, guessing from context, consulting bilingual/monolingual dictionary and using word list/flash cards);
 - Social strategies (includes: asking someone who knows, asking teacher for L1 translation, asking the teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word, asking teacher for a sentence including new word, asking classmate for meaning, and discover new meaning through group work activity).
2. Consolidation strategies. These strategies sub-categorised into:
 - Social strategies (include: study and practice meaning in a group, teacher checking students' flash cards and word lists for accuracy, interaction with native speakers);
 - Memory strategies. (include: studying words with pictorial presentation of its meaning, creating image of a word's meaning connecting words to its synonyms and antonyms, using semantic maps, using scale for gradable adjectives, grouping words together to study them, group words together spatially on a page, using new words in a sentence, grouping words together within a storyline, studying the spelling of a word, studying the sound of new word saying new word aloud when studying, creating

images word form, underlining the initial letter of the word, configuration, using the keyword method, removing/adding affixes and roots, part of speech (remembering), paraphrasing word's meaning, using cognates, learning the words of an idiom together, use physical action when learning a word, use semantic grids);

- Cognitive strategies. (Include: written repetition, use of wordlists, flash cards, note taking in class, putting English labels on physical objects, keeping a vocabulary notebook)
- Metacognitive strategies. (include: using English language media, testing oneself with word tests, using spaced word practice, skipping or passing new words, continuing to study words over time).

Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy was applied by different studies three of them (Al-Fuhaid, 2000; Mutalib, 2002 and Alahirsh, 2006) targeted Arab learners of English. For the purpose of this study the same questionnaire used by Mutalib (2002) was used to examine the extent to which participants of this study used to acquire new vocabulary.

I do believe that the language acquirer/learner who has more techniques in manipulating new words is more capable of improving

his vocabulary. Literature (Ritter et al, 1973; O'Malley, 1987; Wendin and Rubin, 1987; Dansereau, 1978; Ahmed, 1988; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Stern, 1992; Gu, 1996, 2003; Kojic- Hismonoglu, 1997; Sabo and Lightbown, 1999; Moir and Nation, 2002; Fan, 2003; Ghazal, 2007; Ahri, et al., 2012) assures the effect of learning strategies for FL/L2 learners in acquiring new words. Dansereau (1978) goes further and argues that language tutors should redirect their effort to train their students on learning strategies. For that purpose he formulated an approach, involving six activities, to train learning strategies. Brown (2001, pp. 306-311) suggested ten strategies for L2 learners to become efficient readers among which 'analyse vocabulary' which includes five strategies: analysing prefixes, suffixes, roots that are familiar, grammatical context that may signal information, and the semantic context for clues. Brown (Ibid, p. 259) also encouraged language teachers to consider eight listening strategies to be presented to language learners. Those strategies are:

1. Looking for key words;
2. Looking for nonverbal cues to meaning;
3. Predicting a speaker's purpose by the context of the spoken discourse;

4. Associating information with one's existing cognitive structure (activating background information);
5. Guessing meanings;
6. Seeking clarification;
7. Listening for the general gist;
8. Various test-taking strategies for listening comprehension.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) found that learners who had satisfactory strategy training do eventually learn better. Accordingly, Oxford suggests another eight step approach to implement the LLS training model. Two empirical studies explored the effect of vocabulary learning strategies on vocabulary learning. The first was conducted by Tassana-ngam (2004) who allocated seven and half hours to train 69 Thai EFL undergraduates on five vocabulary learning strategies: dictionary work, keyword method, semantic context, grouping and semantic mapping. The second was conducted by Ahari, et al., (2012) who targeted 60 Iranian pre-university students to conduct an experiment investigating "The effect of explicit metacognitive strategies instruction on the lexical knowledge development of Iranian EFL learners". Ahari, et al., allocated the subjects of their experiment into experimental group and control group. The two studies concluded that subjects from the

experimental group significantly outperformed subjects from the control group in learning new vocabulary.

2.7. Summary

Research into the effect of L2 vocabulary incidental learning from listening is still ‘narrowly focused’. The previous research only provides us with the number of words that can be learnt from listening to English as a foreign language. Many issues that may enhance our understanding of this phenomenon have not been covered yet. The main aim of this chapter was to focus on two main themes. The first part of the chapter reviewed some issues that may help in designing the experiment and choosing the appropriate oral text. Those issues are contextualized in the following questions:

- What do we mean by vocabulary knowledge?
- What number of words should be in the text?
- What is the appropriate speech speed rate of the targeted oral texts to be comprehended by the target samples?
- How many times should a word be repeated in a text?

The second part of this literature review discussed a large amount of the existing research on more general L2 acquisition that is needed to support the choice of the factors hypothesized, by the researcher, to

have effects on L2 vocabulary incidental learning from listening to English as a foreign language.

Chapter Three:

Incidental vocabulary

research

Chapter Three: Incidental vocabulary research

3.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the previous research that investigated incidental vocabulary acquisition and learning through listening to English. The studies are separated into four groups as follows:

1. Incidental L1 vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories;
2. Incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories;
3. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening to songs;
4. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through watching films.

The chapter ends with a summary in which the researcher refers to some limitations of previous research that the current study will aim to avoid repeating. Additionally, the summary ends with a table summarising previous studies that have investigated incidental vocabulary acquisition through listening to audio and audio-visual materials.

3.2. Reviewing previous studies

Much of the early incidental vocabulary acquisition research has examined learners' acquisition through reading. In contrast, little research has been focused on incidental vocabulary acquisition through listening. Therefore,

the researcher will frequently refer to some studies that deal with vocabulary acquisition through reading.

Many studies that have investigated incidental language learning through reading have focused on examining word meaning acquisition. Only two of them have dealt with different aspects of lexical knowledge. The first was conducted by Schmitt (1998); this study investigated four kinds of lexical knowledge: spelling, associations, grammatical information and meaning. Pigada and Schmitt (2006) was the second study to investigate different kinds of lexical knowledge: meaning, spelling and grammar simultaneously. In terms of methodology, studies which deal with vocabulary acquisition through reading have some constraints as well as advantages, which are beyond the scope of this study, but which can be utilized in enriching the literature review and in designing the methodology of the proposed study.

3.2.1. Incidental L1 vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories

Concerning incidental vocabulary learning through listening to stories, the greater portion of research has focused on L1 learners (Elley, 1989; Brett, et al., 1996; Saffran et al, 1997; Penno, et al., 2002). Although research on incidental L1 vocabulary learning is thin, compared with those through reading, there is strong evidence that vocabulary can be acquired incidentally from listening.

Elley (1989) conducted two experiments investigating incidental vocabulary learning through listening. The results of the first experiment indicated that: the overall mean was improved from 45.9 in the pre-test to 61.3 in the post-test. In terms of group levels, the ratio of the improvement from the pre-test to post-test was as follows: the high level, high medium level and low medium level groups achieved from 15 to 15.8% improvement, and the low level group achieved 22.6% improvement. In addition to that, the study showed that three types of words were easy to learn: words that emerged in an easy context, the more frequent words in context, and the illustrated words.

The results of the second experiment showed that:

- The gains were enhanced from pre-test to post-test after three readings. Children gained higher scores from hearing with explanation mode (explanations of the targeted words): group (A) gained 39.9% and group (B) gained 17.1%. On the other hand group (A) could only gain 4.4% from hearing without explanation mode while group (B) gained 14.8%;
- Based on the pre-test results children were divided, as in the first experiment, into four groups: high, high medium, low medium, and low. The ratio of improvements from the pre-test to post-test was as follows: the high level group achieved 15.4% improvement, the high medium level group achieved 19% improvement, the low medium

level group achieved 19.4% improvement, and the low level group achieved 22.9% improvement. The results also showed that children of low achievement could develop their vocabulary more than any of the other level groups;

- Nouns are easier to be learnt from the context than adjectives and verbs. The study concluded that children could improve an average of 24.2% in learning nouns from both stories while their improvement on adjectives and verbs was 5.9%;
- In terms of retention, the results of the delayed-post-test showed a drop of 0.70 from the first story “Rascalion Jones” while the drop from the second story “The White Crane” was 0.40.

Elley (1989) argued, based on the pilot study, that the more the words were repeated, the more likely they were to be learnt and memorised from listening to stories. The pilot study showed that children, 9-11 years old, could learn 19% of the target words when they listen to a story, with explanation, for the first time; this gain increased to 20% the second time and reached 33% when they listened to the same story for the third time.

Brett, et al’s (1996) study aimed to investigate the vocabulary acquisition of three different groups of subjects: two experimental groups and one control group. The first experimental group was assigned to listen to a story, “Bunnacula”, with an explanation of unknown words. The second

experimental group was assigned to listen to a story, “The Reluctant Dragon”, without any explanation of the target words. The third group was a control group which was not required to listen to any of the target stories.

Brett, et al’s (1996). study indicates that listening with explanation of the target words is more beneficial in learning and remembering vocabulary. The means of vocabulary test scores improved significantly when words were explained. The means were improved from “Bunnicula” as follows: pre-test 2.06, post-test 5.54, and delayed post-test 5.55. The means were changed from “The Reluctant Dragon” as follows; pre-test 2.80 post-test 5.84 delayed post-test 5.57. In terms of listening only mode, the means of “Bunnicula” were as follows: pre-test 2.16, post-test 2.37 and delayed post-test 2.48. The means of “The Reluctant Dragon” were as follows: pre-test 3.62, post-test 3.30 delayed and post-test 3.36. The control group did not make any improvement.

Brett, et al.,’s (Ibid). results are consistent with those of Elley (1989), both studies provided evidence that listening to stories leads to incidental vocabulary learning and the gains were enhanced when listening was accompanied with word explanation.

Brett, et al’s (Ibid). results, which were obtained from the listening, without explanation, showed marginal improvement which agrees with Brown et al. (2008) and Nation (2001). In terms of learning from listening with

explanation, I think the main reason beyond the significant improvement that subjects' attentions and interests were aroused towards the targeted words. Consequently, subjects could intentionally learn and retain them.

Saffran, et al., (1997) and Ellis (1999) considered age variable in their studies. Saffran, et al., (1997) compared the gains of children with those of adults. The results of the first experiment showed that 21.1 out of 36 (58.6%) of the target words were learnt by adults while children could learn 21.3 (59.2%). In the second experiment adults could learn 26.3 out of 36 (73.1%) of the target words while children could learn 24.6 (68%). Although Saffran, et al.'s results of this study supported those of the previous two studies mentioned above, Elley (1989) and Brett, Brett, et al., (1996), provide strong evidence that vocabulary can be recognised and learnt incidentally. In addition to that, the study proves that there is no advantage of age in learning vocabulary; both children and adults can recognise similar amounts of vocabulary.

To summarise, research in incidental L1 vocabulary acquisition reveals that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from spoken context and even one exposure to new words may lead to acquisition. Moreover, the gains can be enhanced when language learners listen to the spoken context more than once. Some studies did not provide detailed information about the control of the texts and target words which may be the primary reason why participants of those studies underachieved.

3.2.2. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning from listening stories

Research into incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition from listening is very limited. Among those studies which will be reviewed in this section are: Al-Homoud (2007), Brown, et al., (2008) and Zeeland and Schmitt (2013). The first study investigated vocabulary incidental learning from two types of inputs (reading and listening) while the second explored three modes of inputs (reading stories, reading-while-listening and listening to stories). The third study investigated vocabulary incidental learning through solely listening.

Al-Homoud (2007) conducted a study to investigate whether vocabulary can be learnt incidentally through extensive reading and extensive listening. In addition to that, the study examined the effect of frequency on learning new vocabulary. The study tried to answer research questions that investigated three different issues:

- a) The amount of vocabulary that can be learnt incidentally from extensive reading and extensive listening;
- b) Which of the two inputs, written or spoken texts, is more beneficial for incidental vocabulary learning; and
- c) The effect of word frequency on vocabulary learning from the two inputs.

The study targeted 24 Arab ESL learners who were studying in the UK at the time of the study. The learners were divided into two groups: a reading group and a listening group. The first consisted of 13 participants and the latter consisted of 11. Language proficiency levels of the participants were not highly controlled i.e., their English levels were significantly different.

For the purpose of the study, 12 topics were selected from the BBC, CNN or News Week websites; each of those topics consisted of 2-4 texts. The total length of the reading texts was 12,148 words, and 11,841 words for the listening texts. Recorded listening texts were 12 minutes in length and the speech rate was 135 words per minute.

Al-Homoud (2007) employed the vocabulary level test of Schmitt, et al., (2001) to identify participants' vocabulary knowledge. This test was considered as a pre-test of the study. He admitted that the test was a "burden". He added that only three of the subjects could answer some of the items in the 10,000 word section while most of them were more successful in the 2000 word section. To distract the attention of participants from vocabulary, they were required to write a piece of writing of 250 words immediately after the pre-test. The pre-test showed that 78 words in the spoken texts and 128 words in the written texts were unknown to most of the students. These words were reduced to 40 words from each input which were unknown to all of the participants.

The forty written words and forty spoken ones were targeted in the study. The targeted words occurred between 1 and 15 times in the texts. The target words were classified into five categories: one occurrence, 3-4 occurrences, 6-7 occurrences, 9-10 occurrences, and 13-15 occurrences. To design the post-test, the researcher has modified Schmitt and Zimmerman's (cited in Al-Homoud, 2007) test of academic lexicon in which they presented a targeted word with four options:

“1) I do not know the word; 2) I have seen the word before but I am not sure of the meaning; 3) I understand the word when I see or hear it in a sentence, but I do not know how to use it in my own speaking or writing; and 4) I know the word and can use it in my own speaking and writing [please write a sentence which uses the word and show its meaning]”.

Al-Hmoud (2007) asked the participants to translate the target words into Arabic if they respond positively to the third and fourth options.

Concerning marking, Al-Homoud (Ibid) modified Schmitt and Zimmerman's (Op) four point scale which gives zero to the first option, one to the second, two to the third, and three to the fourth. Al-Homoud (Ibid) used a three point scale: he gives zero for the first option (no Knowledge), one mark to the second and third option (partial knowledge), and two marks for the fourth option (productive knowledge).

An immediate post-test was conducted at the end of the treatment. Both of the targeted groups were tested. With regards to the listening test, the audio software, from the Longman dictionary, was used to pronounce the target words. Two sets of vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) tests were given: a reading group was required to read written texts then to be tested on the 40 target words that occurred in the written text then to be tested on those that occurred in the audio text whereas the listening group were required to do the opposite.

Al-Homoud's (2007) study concluded that participants learnt 14 words out of 80 (17.45%) from reading and 6.15 words (7.68%) from listening. The maximum individual gain was 77.5% in reading and 45% in listening. Al-Homoud (Ibid, p. 229) presumed that "if this study was conducted with longer texts and for a longer period of time, the speculation would be that the results might be more positive" Answering the second research question, Al-Homoud's (Ibid) study showed that there was not any significant difference between the two modes of incidental learning i.e., the two inputs relatively leads to close outcomes. Concerning the third research question, the study's results showed no solid evidence for the frequency effect on incidental learning.

Al-Homoud' study showed some outliers vocabulary gained from listening. The large gain might be due to using long texts. Nation (2001, p. 238) argues that "small gains become large gains if learners do a large quantity of

reading” or it may be due to using comprehensible texts. Hulstijn (1998, p. 52) argued that “Subjects who had been administered compatible learning and retention [...] achieved higher retention scores than subjects who were given incompatible learning and retention tasks”. Moreover, Al-Homoud considered some factors, in choosing the texts which lead to higher gains, which was neglected in some other studies (Brett, et al., 1996; and Medina, 1993) such as: length of the texts, repetitions of the target words in the texts, the duration of the listening, and speech speed rate.

The main methodological limitation of Al-Homoud’s study is his choice of participants. Participants were not highly controlled i.e., their English levels were significantly different. Participants’ levels of English proficiency should be considered in choosing the used text; it is not logical that learners of intermediate level of English should be engaged with advanced ones in doing the same language task. Consequently, I think that it would be better to give a careful thought before engaging participants of different language levels in the same tasks.

The other study that investigated the effect of the incidental vocabulary learning from reading and listening inputs is Brown, et al., (2008). This study investigated incidental vocabulary acquisition from three types of

inputs: reading stories, reading-while-listening, and listening to stories. The study dealt with five issues:

- 1) Which of the three inputs may help learners to gain more vocabulary;
- 2) The rate at which vocabulary can be learnt and may then decay;
- 3) The effect of word repetition on learning;
- 4) Comparing acquisition rates gained from multiple-choice tests and meaning-translation tests; and
- 5) Which of the three types was preferred by the subjects of the study.

The study targeted 35 first year undergraduate Japanese students of English literature. The subjects were: 32 females and three males. The subjects were divided into three experimental groups from different classes. The level of English proficiency of the subjects varied from pre-intermediate to intermediate.

Three graded readers, each of them containing more than 5000 words, were used in the study: *The Elephant Man*, *One Way Ticket*, and *The Witches of Pendle*. Twenty eight target words, nouns and adjectives, were chosen from each graded reader. To control the study, all of the target words were manipulated, their spellings were changed, and named as '*substitute words*' e.g., *happy* was changed to *mird* and *day* to *sall*. Moreover, all the written copies and audio recordings of the three graded readers were taken out from

the university library so that subjects could not utilize them before the end of the study. Word-frequency was considered in choosing the target words. Seven words were repeated between 15-20 times, seven words were repeated between 10-13 times, seven words were repeated between seven-nine times and seven words were repeated between two-three times. The three graded readers were recorded, approximately 63 minutes with a rate of 93 words per minute, for the listening mode.

Three instruments were used in the study: a questionnaire, multiple-choice (MC) test and meaning-translation (MT) test. The two tests were piloted with a control group of 40 subjects. Each item in the multiple-choice test had a correct answer, three distracters and an 'I do not know' option. The meaning-translation test required subjects to give the meaning of the substitute-words in Japanese. A near synonym of the Japanese translation was considered a partial knowledge of the substitute-words and awarded a half mark. Subjects were informed that some words in both the written and audio texts were changed. Subjects were asked to do the reading and listening tasks and enjoy them. For the purpose of the study, three post-tests were administered: immediately after the exposure, one week later, and after three months. The immediate post-tests were planned so that meaning-translation tests preceded multiple-choice ones.

The study showed that subjects gained more vocabulary knowledge from the reading-while-listening mode, than the other two modes. The two tests

used in the study, multiple-choice (MC) and meaning-translation (MT), showed different results. In terms of the MC, results showed that reading while listening is the best mode for learning vocabulary. In terms of reading while listening, the MC tests, across all texts, showed that subjects gained 13.31(48%) out of the 28 substitute words while they could only gain 4.39 (16%) out of the 28 in MT tests. A subjects' achievement in the reading only mode was relatively lower; they gained 12.54 (45%) out of the 28 substitute words whilst gaining only 4.10 (15%) out of the 28 in MT tests. In terms of the listening only mode, tests showed a dramatic decline in scores; subjects gained (29%) 8.20 out of the 28 substitute words, while they could only gain (2%) 0.56 out of the 28 in MT tests.

In terms of the effect of word frequency, Al-Homoud's (2007) study concluded that there was no effect of the word frequency on incidental vocabulary learning. Brown, et al., (2008) showed that the results of both types of tests, multiple-choice and meaning-translation, indicated that word frequency led to an increase in vocabulary acquisition from reading only and reading-while-listening modes if they occurred more often in the text. By contrast, for words from listening only mode to be gained, they should occur more than 20 times. The authors added that even 100 occurrences in an aural text may not lead to incidental vocabulary acquisition.

Although a spoken context is generally rich and helpful in providing information about the meaning of new words, Brown's, et al., (2008) results

show that second language vocabulary can hardly be learnt incidentally from listening. This matches with the disappointed and frustrated argument of Nation who claimed that “it is likely that for extensive listening the ratio of unknown words to known should be around one in 100” (Nation, 2001, p. 118). In contrast, earlier studies, for example, Elley’s pilot study (1989) and Al-Homoud (2007) show higher gains. The differences among the results of those studies pose some pertinent questions:

- Which of the studies’ results are more reliable?
- Are the differences among studies caused by using different methodologies?
- Are the differences among studies’ results caused by using different ethnic groups?
- Will a replication of any of these studies lead to the same findings?

The main reasons for the small gain in Brown, Waring and Donkaewbua (2008) study, might be due to the fact that the texts were “not interesting”. Nation (2001) argued that interest is a very crucial requirement for incidental learning. Moreover, uninteresting texts are less conducive to incidental learning (Hunckin, & Coady, 1999). Brown, et al., (2008) illogically, asked the subjects to pretend that they enjoy the texts. It is expected that persons may deceive one another but not themselves. This methodological constraint was plausibly solved in Horst (2005) and Pigada

and Schmitt (2006) studies. Horst allowed the participants to choose their preferred reader among 70 titles. Pegada and Schmitt (2006) gave the subject the right to choose the most interesting texts among 17 different texts. Although this technique requires extra effort in preparing for an experiment, it helps in imitating the real learning situation in which L2 acquirer chooses his preferred spoken or written material which in turn leads to more reliable results. So, this technique, using many texts, is recommended for further research.

Brown, et al. (2008) and Waring and Takaki (2003) have enhanced my scepticism of the results of some previous studies [Saragi, Nation & Meister 1978, and Horst, et al., 1998] that only used an MC test in investigating incidental vocabulary acquisition; in such methods a subject who is incapable of answering a particular question can simply select a random answer and still have a chance to get it correct. In addition to that “the analysis of only (MC) tests items cannot tell us much about the extent of knowledge about word meaning that the item required” (Curtis, 1987, p. 42). Moreover, both Brown, et al., (2008) and Waring and Takaki (2003) show that results of meaning-translation tests, which are considered more valid and reliable test, differ from those of MC. Consequently, I agree with Kweon and Kim (2008) who claim that “Other methodologies [rather than MC] such as self-report checklist measures, meaning-translation tests, or word-form recognition tests can be used to overcome the shortcomings of

multiple-choice tests and to measure more precisely learners' vocabulary knowledge"(pp. 194-195).

3.2. 3. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through listening to songs

Only a few studies, for example Medina (1993) and Milton (2008), investigated incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition from listening to music. Medina (1993) conducted a study to investigate incidental vocabulary learning through listening to songs and stories with/without illustration. The study targeted 48 Spanish elementary students, whose English proficiency was limited, in Los Angeles.

The material used in the study was a book "A Surprise for Benjamin Bear" by J. Nelson (1989), and tape cassettes containing songs and spoken versions of the book. The students were randomly allocated into four treatment groups: the first group (n=11) was required to listen to the story without illustration of the target words. The second group (n=13) was required to listen to a story with illustration whilst the third group (n=12) were required to listen to songs without illustrations of the target words. Finally, the fourth group (n=12) were required to listen to songs with illustrations. All students heard the audio tape over a period of four days.

For the purpose of the study, 20 multiple-choice test items were given as a pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test. The pre-test was given immediately before the treatment, the post-test given immediately after the treatment,

whilst the delayed post-test was given one and a half weeks after the treatment. The subjects were required to listen to the target words three times then choose the most appropriate illustration among four options.

The study showed that incidental vocabulary learning from listening was insignificant. The researcher claimed that the gains were low because the treatment period was short, the participants' number was small, and the spoken texts were not chosen properly. The results of the study showed that listening to songs with illustration is the most beneficial, among the four treatment conditions, in learning vocabulary. The study indicated that the highest mean vocabulary gain of the four groups was 1.5 out of 20 (7.5%) in song with illustration mode, 0.83 out of 20 (4.15%) in song without illustration mode, one out of 20 (5%) in story with illustration mode, and 0.73 out of 20 (3.65%) in story without illustration mode.

The study showed that subjects could hardly remember the words after one and a half weeks of the treatment. The subjects of three of the four groups could not remember any of the words in the delayed-post-test. The fourth group gained 0.5 out of the 20 (2.5%) words. Consequently, the results of this study supported those of Nation (2001) and Brown, et al., (2008).

Although the vast majority of non-native speakers of English listen to English songs and many English language courses use songs still, there is insufficient research explaining to what extent can songs be crucial in

learning and teaching English. Medina's (1993) study, to a certain extent, contributes by exploring and explaining incidental vocabulary learning from songs. However, the study does not provide us with some details such as: length of the texts, repetitions of the target words in the texts, the duration of the listening and speech speed rates. I think that low gains in this study are due to the absence of these factors. The other reason for the low achievement is that the participants were non-native speakers and did not have enough language strategies that may help them in guessing the meaning from a context. I presume that a replication of this study with older and a higher level of English proficiency subjects might lead to higher gains if the above mentioned details were incorporated.

Milton (2008) studied the effect of songs on a native English speaker who was learning Greek as a foreign language at the time of the study being carried out. The subject was required to listen to 23 Greek songs. The duration of the songs was one hour. The songs contained 2225 tokens and 574 types. A pre-test showed that the subject knew 1765 (79%) of the tokens and 260 (45%) of the types. For the purpose of the study the scale of vocabulary knowledge VKS was used to assess the degree of vocabulary knowledge held by the learner. The scale contained four options: I definitely don't know this word (= zero mark), I am not really sure what this word means (= one mark), I think I know what it means (= two marks), and I definitely know what this word means (= 3 marks).

Based on the pre-test which contained all the types, 314 types were unknown by the subject. These words were used in three different tests. One hundred types were used in VKS tests (test battery), another 100 words used in a translation test, and the rest were used in the fifth week to examine the effect of repetition on incidental learning. After the pre-test the subject listened to the songs once a week over a period of eight weeks. Eight post-tests were given every week after listening. In the fourth week the subject was asked to translate the target words, and finally, a delayed-post-test was given three months after the eighth post-test.

Unlike Brown, et al., (2008) and Nation (2001), Milton's study showed very high gains. The study concluded that the subject could, absolutely, learn 77 out of the 100 words after eight weeks. In other words, the subject could learn more than 30 words per hour. This clear-cut result, according to the researcher, illustrates that learning was enhanced gradually from week one to week eight as follows: the first post-test showed that the subject could learn 15 out of 100 types, this gain was enhanced in the second post-test to 22 types, the third post-test showed a gain of 34, the gain increased in the fourth post-test to reach 49 whilst the fifth post-test showed that the subject's learning was improved up to 53. The sixth post-test shows a gain increased to 56 of which was then raised to 64 in the seventh post-test, and finally reached 77 in the last post-test.

In terms of translation tests, the subject could present a correct translation for 90% of those 77 learnt types. This means that only seven out of the 77 words were mistranslated. Concerning the retention of the types, the delayed-post-test showed that the subject could remember 60% of the types (46.2 out of the 77 words).

The study revealed positive results, 30 words per hour from the initial exposure to the spoken target texts were learnt. A simple calculation shows that a learner can gain 10950 words a year if s/he devoted to one hour of her/his time listening to the target language every day. Or at least 1564 words a year in case that someone listen to songs for one hour a week.

Milton's (2008). study matched with those of Elley (1989); both studies indicate that "the more a word was repeated in the text, the more likely it was to be recognised and learnt" and memorized from listening to the target language. In addition to that, the results of Milton's study support those of Al-Homoud (2007) which shows that one of the participants gained 45 % of the target words from listening. Consequently, based on these two studies it can be said that listening to songs appears to lead to remarkable vocabulary learning.

3.2.4. Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through watching films

This section is devoted to review variety of research that investigated the effect of watching films on learning L2 vocabulary. Some of those studies

(Garza, 1991; Markham, 1999; Huang & Eskey, 2000; Markham & Peter, 2003; Raine, 2012; Perez, 2014) dealt with the effect of captioned or subtitled films on listening comprehension in general. Other studies (Koskinen et al., 1985; Bean and Wilson, 1989; Neuman, 1990; Danan, 1992; Ellsworth, 1992; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; Goldman & Goldman, 1988; Koskinen, et al., 1995; Baltova, 1999; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Markham & Peter, 2003; Danan, 2004; Yuksel, & Tanriverdi, 2009; Harji et al., 2010; Karakas & Saricoban, 2012) focused on vocabulary learning from watching films.

Yuksel, and Tanriverdi's (2009) study was designed to investigate the "effect of watching captioned movie clips on vocabulary development of EFL learners". The study targeted 104 male and female Turkish undergraduates. All of the participants were at intermediate level of English proficiency at the time of the study. Participants were allocated into two groups captioned group (N=53) and non-captioned group (N=51). Both groups were required to watch 9.14 minutes of an episode of an American TV series. Twenty words, all of them were nouns, were targeted for the post-test. Students were tested one month after the exposure to the episode by means of vocabulary knowledge scale. The study concluded that watching the episode facilitated vocabulary learning by both groups. According to the results of the study, captioned group gained $M = 0.91$ and non-captioned group $M = 0.82$, the authors demonstrated that "watching the

movie clips facilitated the development of the vocabulary knowledge of the students regardless of the captions” (p. 52).

One of the few studies that dealt with learning vocabulary from watching videos is Harji, et al., (2010). The study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of subtitled videos in learning English vocabulary. The study targeted 92 Iranian undergraduates who were studying translation at an Iranian university. All of the participants had the same level of English proficiency. The participants of the study were randomly assigned into experimental and control groups. The first group consisted of 45 students while the control group consisted of 47 students. The study was designed to present videos with English subtitles for the treatment group while the control group viewed the same video without subtitle. Participants’ vocabulary gains were tested by means of ‘Content Specific Test’ (CST). The study demonstrated that vocabulary can be learnt from watching videos. The study concluded that the treatment group (mean= 46.20) outperformed the control group (mean= 31.79).

Karakas, and Saricoban’s (2012) study provides insights into the impact of watching subtitled animated cartoons on incidental vocabulary learning of Turkish undergraduates. The study targeted 42 male (13) and female (29) students. All of the students were at upper-intermediate English proficiency level. The students were randomly allocated into subtitle group and no-

subtitle group. Eighteen words from two American episodes of Family Guy, were targeted for the VKS post-tests. The videos used in the experiment lasted for 40 minutes. The study concluded that viewing the film clip helped the participants develop their vocabulary knowledge regardless of the absence or presence of captions.

Although, the above three mentioned studies Yuksel, and Tanriverdi's (2009); Harji, et al., (2010) and Karakas, and Saricoban's (2012) provide unclear methodological details they agree that watching videos with or without subtitles/captions enhances vocabulary learning.

Rodgers' (2013) study provides insight into four different issues:

- 1) The effect of television on learning vocabulary incidentally;
- 2) The effect of L2 previous vocabulary knowledge on learning new words;
- 3) The effect of word repetition on incidental vocabulary learning; and
- 4) The effect of the occurrence of the target words across a greater range of episodes of a television program leads to better learning than their occurrence in a single program.

Rodgers' (2013) study targeted 289 Japanese undergraduates (229 male and 60 female) but some of them (N=115) were excluded for being absent from some exposures or tests. The participants of the study were assigned into experimental (N=178) group and control group (N=73). The researcher did

not examine the participants' English proficiency; however, he expected them, based on the university's classification, to be at pre-intermediate to intermediate English proficiency. All of the participants had studied English for a minimum of seven years before the study took place.

The materials used for the experiment were 10 episodes of the TV series called "Chuck". The overall recorded running time of all episodes was 425 minutes. The exposure to the target material took place once a week. Sixty words were chosen for pre/post-tests. Rodgers assessed his participants' incidental vocabulary gains by means of two multiple choice pre/post-tests (sensitive test and tough test) each of which consisted of six multiple choices options. The MC tests consisted of a correct answer, four distracters and an '*I don't know this word*' option. The post-test was conducted one week after the last exposure.

Rodgers' study supported previous research that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally through watching videos. The study concluded that participants learnt 23.03% on the tough test and 29.61% on the sensitive test. Additionally, the study demonstrated that word repetitions within the spoken texts have no effect on vocabulary incidental learning. Moreover, the study concluded that there is no significant correlation between the participants' previous vocabulary knowledge and incidental vocabulary learning of the target words.

Vidal's (2003, 2011) two studies investigated incidental vocabulary learning from watching video presenting academic lectures. The first study investigated the effect of participants' English proficiencies and lecture comprehension on vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, the study examined the effect of the following factors on incidental vocabulary learning:

1. Word repetitions;
2. Type of word elaboration and;
3. Predictability from word form and parts.

Vidal (2003) targeted 116 Spanish undergraduates whose English proficiency ranged from 387 (= 2-2.5 in ITELS = elementary level) to 661 (=7.5 – 9.0 in IELTS = proficient level) in TOEFL. The participants viewed three video tabbed lectures (45 minutes length) in four weeks. The audio-visual texts, which were manipulated to avoid ambiguity, contained 5387 tokens. Thirty six technical, academic and low frequency words were selected for the pre/post/delayed-post tests. To assess the effect of word repetition on incidental vocabulary learning, the target words used in the study were categorized into six group of occurrence: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 occurrences. The post-test was administrated immediately after viewing the videos. Vocabulary gain was measured by means of a vocabulary knowledge scale test (VKS). Three post-tests were administrated

immediately after the lectures then the delayed-post-test was administrated a month later.

Vidal (2003) concluded that the participants developed their vocabulary knowledge from 1.41 words (3.91%) in the pre-test to 30.41 words (84.47%) in the post-test which means that the immediate incidental learning of the target words was 29 words (80.55%). Vidal's study also concluded that participants retained 16.38 words (45%) after a month of viewing the lectures. Additionally, the study demonstrated that participants whose English proficiencies were higher learnt more than weaker ones; however, weaker recorded more incidental vocabulary gain after a month of the exposure.

A pre-test is crucial for knowing the participants' pre vocabulary knowledge. However it should be administrated prior to the experiment taking place. In Vidal's study, the pre-test was given some days before viewing the videos. This period of time presumably was enough to flush the target words from participants' memories. Swanborn and De Glopper (1999) argue that a pre-test leads to enhanced learning of new words unless they were given some time in advance of the treatment.

I think that, Vidal's, (2003) study shows high gain due to two main reasons: firstly, the texts were treated to avoid vague words; secondly the post-test was administrated immediately after each exposure which may attract the

attention of the students to deliberately learn vocabulary from the coming sessions and tests. Accordingly, I think that the high gain recorded in Vidal's study due, to some extent, to the testing phenomenon¹. Additionally, students were allowed to take notes during the exposure which means that they may contain the target words that appeared during the four weeks of the experiment and so may lead to intentional focus on some words.

Vidal (2011) targeted more students 230 Spanish undergraduates to investigate and compare the effects of academic lectures and reading on L2 vocabulary learning, word retention, the effect of language proficiency on vocabulary learning and finally correlating vocabulary and four factors (frequency of occurrence, type of word, type of elaboration, and predictability from word form and parts). The participants' English proficiencies were close to those of her previous study. The students' English proficiencies ranged from 328 (= 1 - 1.5 in ITELS = beginner level) to 661 (= 7.5 - 9 in IELTS = proficient level). The participants were assigned into three groups: a listening group (No= 112), reading group (No= 80) and control group (No= 38). Vidal (2011) used the same videos in her (2003) study for both reading and listening tasks. Moreover, she used the same number of the target words (36). Vidal (2011) concluded that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from both listening and reading. The

¹ Testing phenomenon "refers to exposure in the immediate post-test positively affecting participants' scores on the delayed post-test" (Glover, 1989)

study demonstrated that students' immediate learning from reading was 22.7% which declined to 10.6% of the target words on the delayed-post-test. In contrast the study concluded that the mean gain of the students was 15.5% of the target words which also declined to 7.8% from watching the lectures.

Vidal applied the same methodology in both of her studies. The same materials, the same instruments of measurement, the same level of participant at the same university and the similar number of the target words, however the results were extremely varied. Due to the level of the students' English proficiency, Vidal's second study seems to have more acceptable results. However her samples consisted of some students whose English proficiencies, beginner and elementary, were not adequate for learning vocabulary incidentally from listening. Nation's (2006) argued that vocabulary learning is only adequate for advanced learners who have a large range of vocabulary.

Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) conducted a study exploring three vocabulary knowledge dimensions, form recognition, grammar recognition and meaning recall, from 'narrow listening'² to various TV programmes that shared the same genre "crime": talk shows, interviews and informal lectures. The material used in the study contains 4441 words, lexical

² Narrow listening is to expose to multiple audio or audio-visual sources focusing on the same topic.

coverage 95%, which contains 216 non-words. 24 of those non-words were targeted for post and delayed-post-tests. The targeted words were classified into four word frequencies: 3, 7, 11 and 15. Each band of those frequency contained 2 nouns, 2 verbs and 2 adjectives. The overall recording time of the passages was 21.09 minutes.

The study targeted 30 L2 postgraduates from different gender and different nationalities who studied at a British university. Their average age was 27, nineteen of the participants were PhD candidates and 11 of them were MA students. Their English proficiencies were ‘expected’ to be higher intermediate or advanced. The participants were divided into two groups. The first group consists of 20 participants who were required to listen to the spoken texts then were set an immediate post-test. The second group consisted of 10 participants who were required to listen to the material then do the delayed-post-test. The reason beyond that technique was “to avoid any risk of the so-called ‘testing phenomenon’³, which refers to exposure in the immediate post-test positively affecting participants’ scores on the delayed post-test (Glover, 1989 cited in Zeeland and Schmitt (2013). Participants’ form and grammar recognition knowledge were measured with multiple choice tests; the former contains four alternatives and ‘I don’t

³Testing phenomenon “refers to exposure in the immediate post-test positively affecting participants’ scores on the delayed post-test” (Glover, 1989)

remember any of these' and the later consists of three alternatives and 'I don't know. The meaning knowledge was measured with meaning translation test (test recall).

Zeeland and Schmitt's (2013) study generated three research questions to explore: 1) the extent to which the three vocabulary knowledge types, form recognition; grammar recognition and meaning recall, are enhanced from listening to an L2 video, 2) vocabulary attrition of the learnt words at two weeks after the exposure, and 3) the effect of word repetitions occurrences in the texts.

The study concluded that participants as a group gained 29.2% which means 7.05 out of 24 of the study's target words in the post-test. These gains dropped to 19% = 4.56 out of 24 words in the delayed-post-test. The study also showed that participants' three vocabulary knowledge dimensions were developed. The most obvious development occurred in form recognition then grammar knowledge while meaning recall gains were the least aspect to be developed from listening to the target materials.

Four issues have attracted my attention in this study. The first issue is that the researchers were not sure of the participants' language proficiency; simply because they did not test them. Accordingly, it was not possible to

compare the result of this study with those that did precisely assess participants' language proficiency. Secondly, the authors claimed that learning 29.2% = 7.05 out of 24 targeted word is a modest gain. Based on the fact that vocabulary is learnt cumulatively I, as a non-native speaker of English and as one who has been teaching English as a foreign language since 1994, think that unintentional learning of 7.05 words in about twenty minutes which means about 21 words in an hour is not small or modest. Claiming that a gain is small requires to be compared to different gains under other conditions. Mason's et al. (2009) study, to my best of knowledge, is the only study that has compared between intentional and unintentional vocabulary learning. The study concluded that "It appears to be the case that students acquire six words per hour when they hear stories, while they learn 2.4 words per hour in traditional classes". Thirdly, the authors used a non-parametric tool to analyse their data, the MWW test as their data were not normally distributed which means that the participants' occupy points at values that are not close to the mean (29.2%) i.e., data may involve some outliers or an individual may have gained higher scores which has not been referred to in the study.

Fourthly, I am not convinced about the value of the vocabulary test in this study. Regarding form and grammar recognition test, the researchers used multiple choice tests to examine participations' vocabulary knowledge. I do

believe that MC test (according to my teaching experience) is not the appropriate method to examine learning gains; that is due to the fact that test-takers may randomly choose an item or reduce the choices by eliminating a known item or two then guess among the remaining items. Brown, et al., (2008) enhanced my scepticism towards the MC in measuring vocabulary knowledge. The study concluded significant differences between the vocabulary gains from MC (45% in reading, 48% in reading while listening, 29% in listening) and from MT (15% in reading, 16% in reading while listening, 2% in listening). Concerning the meaning recall test, I think that this technique as used is not appropriate as the outcomes suggested that the participants may extract the meaning from the sentence rather than from the exposure to the target materials. So I think that this test is not highly valid to examine incidental vocabulary gains but to examine the effect of context in learning new vocabulary.

3.3.Summary

To sum up, the above mentioned studies (which have been summarised in table 3-1), have looked at the amount of vocabulary that can be learnt incidentally from listening and the effect of frequency occurrence on incidental learning but they do not address factors that may increase the likelihood of learning vocabulary incidentally. The advantages of the above mentioned studies were utilized and weaknesses were avoided in designing

the current study in investigating the amount of vocabulary can be learnt from listening and the effect of frequency occurrence on incidental learning. The limitations of previous research which were avoided in the current study are:

1. Some of the previous studies used inappropriate sampling methods. Some of them targeted low language level participants and others targeted whoever individuals were available at the time being of study. To avoid this limitation, the researcher did his best, as it would be explained in the Methodology chapter of this study, to choose adequate samples for the current study;
2. Participants' interests were not considered in choosing the spoken texts in previous studies. Accordingly, Subjects' interests would be considered in choosing the audio and audio-visual materials;
3. Length and richness of the texts, repetitions of the target words in the texts, the duration of the listening and speech rate were not controlled in some previous research. For the purpose of the current study, the researcher has considered all the above mentioned factors in choosing the audio and audio-visual materials;
4. Some of previous studies' measuring instruments were not sensitive enough to measure vocabulary incidental learning. For instance, multiple choices test is not adequate to measure vocabulary incidental learning. Instead of that, I recommend Vocabulary

Knowledge Scale (VKS) and meaning translation (MT) tests to be used in this study.

Table 3-1: Summary of previous studies investigating incidental vocabulary acquisition through listening to audio and audio-visual materials									
	Study	Subjects	Text length	Duration	Unknown words	Repetition	Instrument	Gain Post-test	Delayed-post-test
1.	Medina, 1993	48 Spanish			20	--	MC	7.5% songs with illustration 4.15% songs without illustration 5% stories with illustration 3.65% stories without illustration	
2.	Vidal 2003	116 FL	5387	45	36	1-6	True-false test & cloze test VKS	30= 80.55%	16.38=45.5%
3.	Al-Homod 2007	24 Arab learners SLL	R. 12148 L. 11841	25	40 reading 40 listening	1-15	VKS	5.0375%	
4.	Milton (2008)	A native speaker of English	23 Greek songs=222 5 tokens	60	314	--	VKS Translation test	77% after 8 weeks	

5.	Brown, et al (2008)	35 undergraduate Japanese	(5415) (5522), and (5765).	63	28,28,28 substitute	2-20	MC,	29%= 8.20	
							MTr	2% (0.56)	
6.	Mason et al. 2009 2 nd ex	7		20 M	103	--	MC	35%	16%
7.	Mason, et al., 2009 1st be x	7		20 M	36	--	MC	36% story 65% list	13.2% 13.6%
8.	Vidal 2011	116 FL	5387	45	36	1-6	VKS	15.5%	7.8%
9.	Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013	30 L2 from different nationalities	4441	21.9	24	3, 7, 11, 15	MC, MTr	29.2%	19%
10.	Yuksel, and Tanriverdi	104		9.14	20		VKS	0.91 captioned 0.82 non-	

	's (2009)							captioned	
11.	Harji, et al., (2010).	92 Iranian					Content Specific Test'	mean= 46.20	
12.	Karakas, and Saricoban' s (2012)	42 Turkish		40 minutes					
13.	Rodgers' (2013	289 Japanese		425 minutes	60		MC tests consisted	23.03% on the tough test and 29.61% on the sensitive test.	

Chapter 4:

Methodology

Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1. Introductions

This study set out to contribute to work in the field of second/foreign language acquisition, by investigating incidental vocabulary learning through exposure to foreign language (English) in a spoken text. This chapter presents the methodology used to collect and analyse the data from the study. I firstly restate the aim, objective, hypotheses and the research questions. After that, I chronologically explain the three phases of the study:

- 1) Preparation of the experiment;
- 2) Piloting the measurement tools and materials; and
- 3) Conducting the experiment.

Then, I briefly refer to the ethical considerations considered in the study. Finally, I briefly explain the data analysis procedure.

4.1.1. Aim of the study

This study was carried out in an English Department at a Libyan University. The aim of the study is to investigate to what extent second language (L2) vocabulary can be acquired incidentally through extensive exposure to spoken texts and to

what extent it leads to acquiring or enhancing lexical knowledge, in terms of meaning, grammatical behaviour and use. In addition to that, it aims to uncover the main conditions required for such acquisition.

This study further aims to offer some pedagogical proposals that may help in enhancing the awareness of the importance of listening to the acquisition of the target language, which may help Libyan course designers and EFL teachers to refocus their pedagogical tasks.

4.1.2. Hypotheses

Based on an observation, mentioned in the rationale section above (in section 1.4.), this study hypothesizes that:

H1. Vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language.

H2. Incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language may be enhanced by:

- (1) Word repetitions within the spoken texts;
- (2) Participants' language proficiency in that language;
- (3) Participants' previous vocabulary knowledge;
- (4) Participants' vocabulary language strategies;
- (5) Participants' learning styles.

4.1.3. Research questions

This study was designed to seek answers to two core questions, which build on previous contested evidence of the importance of incidental vocabulary learning (as reviewed in section 1.2.). In addition, it looks for an in-depth explanation and understanding of some gaps related to the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary learning through listening. Six issues were considered in formulating the research questions:

- Questions have to be as clear as possible;
- Questions have to be researchable;
- Questions have to be connected to established theory;
- Questions have to be linked to each other;
- Questions have to make an original contribution to the topic;
- Questions have to be neither too broad nor too narrow.

(Bryman, 2008, p. 74)

Accordingly, the research questions are:

1. To what extent can English vocabulary be incidentally learnt by Libyan students of English from spoken input of the target language?

2. What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being incidentally learnt from spoken input?

The answer to the first question will enable the researcher to know how much English vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from spoken input and to know the extent to which this type of learning helps to enhance lexical knowledge (form recognition, extracting meaning from context, grammatical behaviour and usage). In addition, it will provide data concerning whether the learnt vocabulary can be retained in the long-term memory or not. This will be explored by means of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) and the vocabulary productive tests.

Initially, I hypothesised that five factors may increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input of the target language:

- 1) Word repetition in the texts;
- 2) Participants' language proficiency in that language;
- 3) Participants' previous vocabulary knowledge;
- 4) Participants' vocabulary learning strategies; and
- 5) Participants' learning styles.

Accordingly, to answer the second question, I carried out two tests: the first was a language proficiency test and the second was a vocabulary knowledge test. In addition to that, I used two questionnaires: the first was to explore language

strategies used by participants to learn new vocabulary. The second questionnaire was to investigate participants' learning styles. The outcomes of these two tests and two questionnaires will be compared with the participants' gains to evaluate the second hypothesis and to answer the second question.

4.2. Theoretical framework of the Study

This study, as I have mentioned in a previous chapter, aims to contribute to work in the field of second/foreign language acquisition/learning, with a particular focus on incidental vocabulary learning through exposure to second/foreign language spoken texts. Accordingly, this study proposes to address people who are majoring in the field of S/F language learning and seeks to investigate my hypotheses through practical demonstration, rather than simply through argument. For that reason, I planned to evaluate my earlier observations by conducting an experiment.

Relying on experiment as a source of knowledge is somewhat contentious among some scholars and philosophers who claim that “no one does know, because no one can know [...] to know you must be certain, but [that] one can never be really certain and hence one can never really know”. (Dancy, 1994, pp. 7-9). Some other philosophical schools accept experiment as a source of gaining knowledge, but they differ in terms of its priority in proving knowledge. For example, Rationalists, such as Descartes, 1596-1650; Spinoza 1632-1677; Leibniz 1646- and Kant 1724-1804 (Fraenkle, Smith, and Perinetti, 2011), believe that knowledge is innate and it

exists in the mind before being experienced in the real world. They argue that sensory knowledge cannot be accepted as true knowledge, simply because our senses sometimes deceive us.

Empiricism comes as a reaction against the rationalists' argument. Empiricists, such as Locke 1632-1704; Berkeley, 1685-1753 and Hume, 1711-1776 (Fraenkle, et al., 2011), reject any knowledge based upon non-empirical assertion. It is true that empiricists argue that experience is the main source of knowledge, but at the same time they do not deny the role of mind. Lock (1632-1704) describes the human mind as a "tabula rasa", "blank tablet", or "white paper" upon which knowledge is written through interaction with the external world. The role of the mind, according to empiricists, is to receive knowledge, process, organise it and then use it to contemplate new knowledge. Empiricists believe that knowledge can be gained in one of two ways: through the senses or by reflection. The first refers to the substantive knowledge that can be acquired through one of sensory perceptions interacting with the external world. The latter, 'reflection', which is sometimes referred to as 'contemplation', is based on the argument that all substantive knowledge comes from interaction with the external world through the senses, as well as interaction with the contents of the mind by means of contemplation . According to this classification of the ways of acquiring knowledge, Lock (1996) states that only when there are ideas of sensation can

there be ideas of reflection. It is only then that we can turn our minds' eye inwards and obtain knowledge from our thoughts (Kaufman, 2013).

4.2.1. Merits and shortcomings of positivism

Positivism, as any other philosophical theory, has its own merits and shortcomings. In terms of the limitations of positivism, positivism has been criticized by some scholars who associated it with a set of shortcomings, for the purpose of the short discussion, can be summarized as follows:

1. Non-positivists dispute that any research can be objective because knowledge is not fixed;
2. The Positivist approach has been criticized that it seeks to explain phenomena, but without necessarily understanding them;
3. Knowledge gained from positivist research is “only descriptive, thus [it] lack insights into in-depth issues” (Dudovisky, 2019);
4. “Positivism relies on experience as a valid source of knowledge. However, a wide range of basic and important concepts such as cause, time and space are not based on experience” (Ibid);
5. Positivism has been criticized that it assumes that all types of processes can be perceived as a certain variation of actions of individuals or relationships between individuals (Ibid);

6. The Positivist approach has been criticised of being "falsely represented human social action" (Horkheimer as cited in Fragan, unknown);

7. Positivism has been criticised for ignoring "the role of the 'observer' in the constitution of social reality and thereby failing to consider the historical and social conditions affecting the representation of social ideas" (Ibid);

8. Positivism is disputed because 'the phenomena studied in the social and behavioural sciences are essentially unpredictable and indeterminate ', thus leading to a rejection of ever finding universal laws, a belief. (Cziko 1989: 17);

9. Positivism is considered 'formulaic' and 'follows a predictable rut and often leads to uninteresting findings' (Thomas, 1998: 141).

Regardless of all the criticism, the literature shows that positivism as a research paradigm is considered to be the most variable as well as an alternative to many other epistemologies. Positivism has a set of merits that, for the purpose of the short discussion, can be summarized as follows:

1. The Positivist approach aims to test theories specified at the start of a study;
2. Positivism is an approach to social research which aims to be as close to the natural science as possible;
3. The Positivist approach focuses on empirical facts rather than on personal feelings, or attitudes;

4. The Positivist approach allows collecting data in highly controlled ways;
5. The Positivist approach excludes metaphysics from their theories. Accordingly, true knowledge is usually observable and quantifiable;
6. Within the positivist approach researchers are independent of their research and because their mission is merely collecting and interpreting data, as well as the knowledge gained from research based on empirical facts, accordingly the knowledge gained from research is purely objective;
7. Positivism tends to look for correlations among different variables. This advantage services my research that tries to find out the relationships among different variables.

4.2.2. Rationale for using positivism as a premise for the current study

The current study, as stated in the introduction, aims to contribute to work in the field of second/foreign language acquisition by investigating the extent to which foreign language (FL) vocabulary can be acquired incidentally through extensive exposure to authentic (songs and films) and non-authentic (simplified stories) spoken texts. Moreover, it will investigate the extent to which it enables the acquisition or the enhancement of vocabulary knowledge in terms of form recognition, meaning, grammatical behaviour and use. Based on the results, the two modes of spoken inputs (authentic and non-authentic) are compared to identify which is more appropriate for L2 vocabulary incidental learning. In

addition to that, it aims to uncover the main conditions required for such acquisition. The incidental FL vocabulary learning was measured through an experiment in which Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) tests (pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test) was used to gain true knowledge about this phenomenon.

To achieve the research's aims, the positivist approach is used as a premise for my research. Positivism is a premise to social research that aims to be as close to natural science as possible. It aims to understand the natural phenomena, based on empirical evidence gained from experimentation. Accordingly, positivism is the best premise for the current study. The current experimental study, as mentioned in sections 4.2. and 4.5.1, was designed to simulate a real and natural situation in which language learners are exposed to second language naturally. Accordingly, I believe that taking empirical evidence into consideration would stimulates the researcher to design and collect data in highly controlled ways.

The Positivist approach is also used as a premise of the current experimental study due to the fact that positivism is way of trying to make sense of human life based on empirical facts not on abstract ideas, personal feelings, or attitudes. The Positivist approach excludes any metaphysical explanation of any social phenomenon. The approach is also used because it based on seeking particular details that can only be achieved through empirical study. The current study deals with incidental learning which occurs unintentionally, accordingly and logically, the attempts to identify reasons/answers that the participants themselves may be

oblivious to, i.e., the required detailed data needed for the study, cannot be collected by surveying the participants' attitude through the use of interviews or questionnaires. This is due to the fact that none of the participants are aware of how much vocabulary (breadth knowledge) they gained from the exposure to the targeted materials of the study. That is also due to the fact that they would underestimate the extent (depth knowledge) to which they have learnt the vocabulary. Not one of the participants would be conscious of how much partial information (as: recognition, meaning, use or function of the word) has been learnt through listening to the target materials. Accordingly, the best way to gain true knowledge is to investigate incidental learning by means of an empirical study.

Another reason for adopting positivism as a premise for the current study is that it tends to look for correlations between different variables. As has been mentioned in the introduction, one of the current study's aims is to find out the effect of five factors on incidental vocabulary learning. This is considered an important part of understanding the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary learning through listening to foreign language. The factors are:

- 1) Word repetitions within the spoken texts;
- (2) Participants' language proficiencies of L2;
- (3) Participants' previous vocabulary knowledge;
- (4) Participants' vocabulary language strategies;

(5) Participants' learning styles.

Accordingly, the purpose for using the positivist paradigm in the current study is to gain a better understanding of the correlation between incidental learning of L2 vocabulary and the above mentioned five factors and assessing to what extent they may affect incidental learning of L2 vocabulary through listening. Moreover, the use of positivism as a premise for the current study helps to examine the second research hypothesis and answer the second research question that cannot otherwise be answered. As proponent of positivism, I believe that the effect of those factors on incidental vocabulary learning would better measured scientifically without any interfering with the phenomena being studied and should better be described objectively.

For the above mentioned reasons, I tend to agree with empiricists in emphasising the role of experience, especially experience based on perceptual observation which can be examined via scientific methods. Therefore, I looked to Positivism for the premise of my research, and take the perspective of a positivist who believes that knowledge is primarily acquired via experience. The paradigm of my research is quantitative research, which emphasizes the use of scientific methods through the empirical test of a hypothesis. According to the pre-planned linear sequence of my study outlined below, the orientation of my study can be classified as deductive in nature:

Observation (*some Libyan English Language learners who extensively listen to English are more fluent than their classmates*) ➔ **identifying scope of research** (*Incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language*) ➔ **deducing a hypothesis** (*Vocabulary can be learned incidentally from listening to the target language, and advanced learners can gain more vocabulary from incidental learning than lower levels learners can*) ➔ **planning the experiment** ➔ **piloting the experiment** ➔ **collecting data** (*quantitative data*) ➔ **analysing data** ➔ **evaluating the hypothesis** ➔ **reporting the outcomes.**

Figure 1: Outline sequence of the study

Having stated my main stance, I cannot deny; however, that it would have been useful to follow a mixed method approach, in terms of using both qualitative and quantitative methods, and it would have been interesting to interview some students to seek additional data that may have enriched the study. However, I was only able to employ a quantitative research methodology because of the situation in Libya at the time of the study, as explained in the limitations section. Because of this, it was not feasible to employ any qualitative methods.

4.3. Research design

This study is then based on a hypothesis, which claims that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language. Accordingly, an experimental research was designed to examine the effect of this type of learning

on EFL participants. A multiple research design format was used in the study: single group design (one-shot design), control group design, separate sample design (cf. Seliger & Shohamy, 2003, Cook & Campbell, 1979), and an explanatory mixed method design (cf. Bryman, 2008; and Invakova & Creswell, 2009). The single group design is recommended for pilot studies. This design is chosen to examine treatments and/or methods used in research that targets a small group or a subject.

The control group design was used to ensure that the treatment, rather than any other effects of the surrounding educational environment, caused the learning gain. For ethical reasons (as will be discussed more fully later) which centred on entitlement to equal learning opportunities, both control and experimental groups had lessons centred on listening to songs, stories and on watching films. Therefore, for the purposes of the research which sought to be precise in highlighting the differences in learning which occurred between groups was contained in the actual content of the materials used. The materials exposed to the treatment group contain the target words used in the pre/post/delayed tests while the materials exposed to the control group did not contain any of the target words. Thus there was an established level of knowledge of that vocabulary before the experiment and if the post-test revealed any gains by the treatment group but none by the control group, it would indicate that it was the materials which had enabled the learning and that therefore this was done incidentally through listening. If the

control group had made parallel gains then it would indicate that the vocabulary could have been learnt through other means, e.g. reading, grammar lessons etc. Thus the rationale behind the researcher's decision not to expose the two groups to the same materials was to ensure ethical treatment of two groups of learners in terms of pedagogical practice but to maintain proper experimental conditions. Separate design helps in widening the scope of the study by means of using as large number of subjects as possible. These design types will be referred to below in different sections.

For the purpose of the study, an experiment was designed to simulate a real situation in which language learners are exposed to language naturally. The literature indicates some disadvantages of experimental studies which were avoided in this study. For example, Sapsford and Jupp (2006) referred to some weaknesses and disadvantages of experimental studies; two of them related to this type of study.

“1) It is not possible, even in principle, to guarantee that no factor other than the treatment could have produced the effect. 2) If people know they are in a research situation, this in itself can change their behaviour or attitudes”. Sapsford and Jupp (2006, pp. 18 ff).

To avoid the first potential weakness mentioned above, and to examine the effect of any factor other than the treatment, a 'control group design' was implemented in the study. A control group was involved in the experiment, this group was tested

but was not exposed to the spoken texts provided for the treatment groups. This helped in exploring whether the treatment groups learnt the targeted words in any way other than the treatment. Concerning the second potential weakness, the study was designed as follows: the study took place during Oral Skills classes in which the treatment groups watched and listened to the materials containing the target words and then were asked to answer some comprehension questions, write a critique or to imagine the end of a story they listened to or watched. Such in-class activities were used to detract students' attention from focusing primarily on vocabulary. Subjects were required to listen to the target stories and songs and to watch films without any explanation or any sort of focusing on vocabulary. At the same time, they were allowed to behave freely during the treatment. No restrictions were employed, i. e., students were allowed to use their dictionaries, negotiate meaning etc. By implementing this, I could ensure that participants in this study would not change their behaviours to suit the research aims, i. e., they would not focus on vocabulary, rather than the task they were required to do. In addition, more data from observing students' behaviours could be gathered. The observation might also highlight some language learning strategies that students used to learn new vocabulary.

Incidental vocabulary learning was measured by means of a vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS), a pen and paper test which was given before and after the exposure, as explained below, in class. To ensure that the learning occurred incidentally,

participants had not been informed about the exact procedures, the aim of the experiment nor about the post-test [see ethical considerations below]. Although, the students' English levels were sufficient to enable them to understand what they were required to do, the instructions for the tests were "given in the first language of the learners in order to minimize the possibility of confusion" (Brindley, 1998. p. 176).

4.4. Process

The study, as shown in the chart 2 below, consists of three phases: the pre-experimental phase, the experimental phase and the post-experimental phase. For the purpose of the study, the treatment group participated in all the phases while the control group only took part in the pre- and post- tests. The study was conducted according to the chronological order shown in table 4-1.

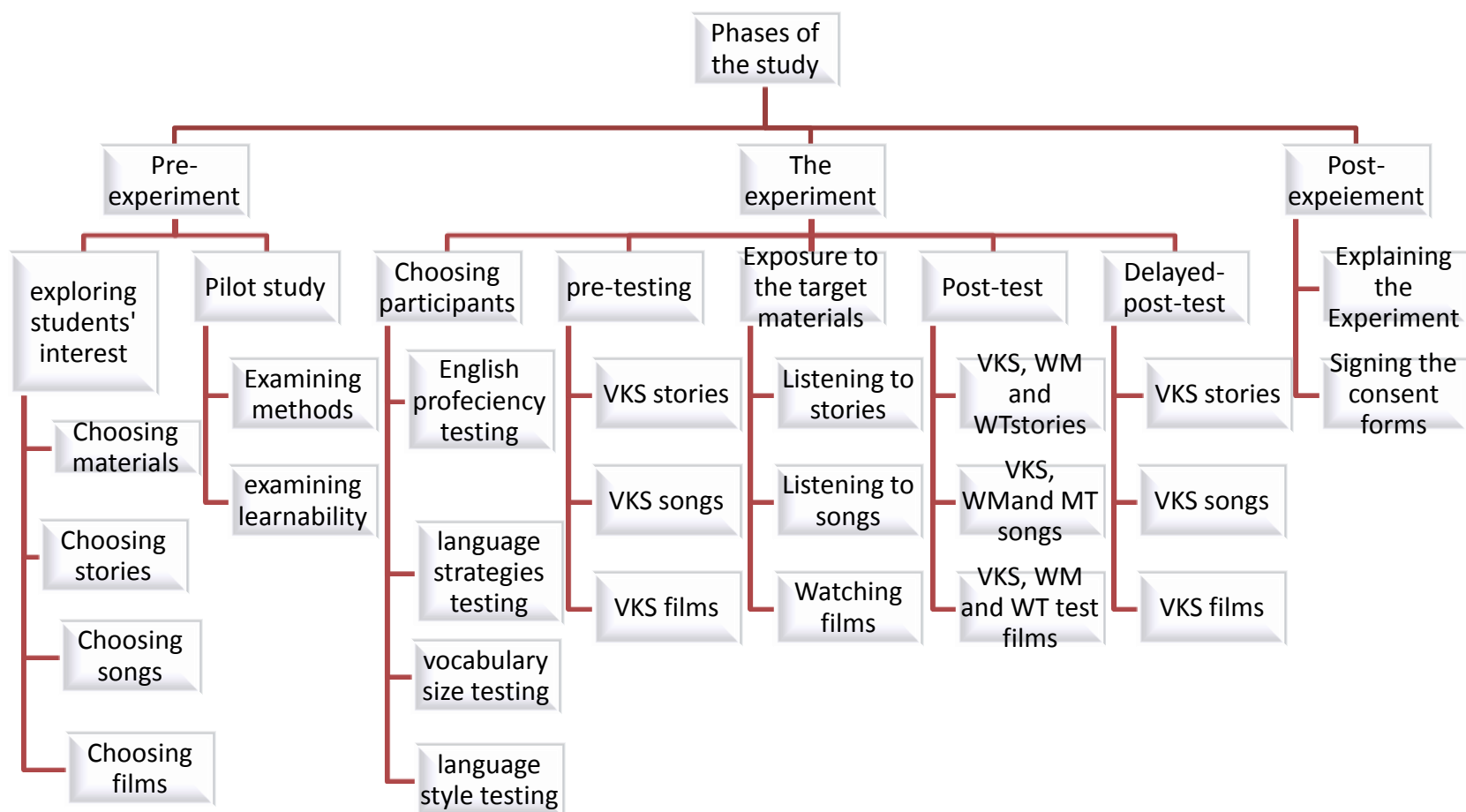


Figure 2: Processes of the

Table 4-1: Chronological presentation of the stages of the research (2010-2011)

Phase	Stage	Mission	Groups participating in each stage	Date
Phase 1	Stage 1	Surveying students' topic interests	9 randomly selected groups from the English department	May 2010
	Stage 2	Collecting and evaluating the material & choosing target words	-----	May to November 2010
	Stage 3	Pilot study	Five volunteers from the first semester and ten volunteers from the fifth semester	January 2011
Phase 2	Stage 4	Main study:		February to June 2011
		Pre-test	Second Semester Groups A, B and C	
		Exposure	Second Semester Groups B and C	
		Post test	Second Semester Groups A, B and C	
	Stage 5	Delayed-post-test	Second Semester Groups B and C	December 2011
Phase 3	Stage 6	Post-experimental (informing participants about the study & signing consents)	Second Semester Groups A, B and C	December 2011

4.4.1. Pre-experimental stage

In this stage of the study, I devoted my efforts to planning and preparing for the study. My main concern was to choose appropriate materials to be used in the study and the best methods of examining the participants' vocabulary learning. Consequently, four procedures were conducted at this stage:

1. Exploring students' interests (Questionnaire);
2. Choosing Spoken Texts;
3. Choosing Target Words; and
4. Pilot study.

4.4.1.1. Exploring students' interests (Questionnaire)

Investigating incidental vocabulary language learning requires the selection of interesting materials. Therefore, a seven-item survey questionnaire was prepared, randomly distributed and collected prior to the experiment (see Appendix 1). At that time of the study I had no knowledge of the target students' English proficiency level or whether they could fill the questionnaire in English or not. For this reason, the questionnaire was written in Arabic. The questionnaire was introduced to the subjects by an introductory letter in which I

explained the aim of the questionnaire and how the subjects should respond to it. Two crucial issues were taken into account when preparing the questionnaire. Firstly, readability: I did my best to ensure that the questionnaire was as easy as possible to read. Secondly, to avoid ‘boredom’ associated with filling in forms, the questionnaire asked a limited number of questions as was possible while still obtaining the necessary data.

185 male and female students who were studying in nine groups of four different semesters in an English Department at a Libyan University answered the questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to determine the topics that interested the students, and verify who was interested in listening to English during their leisure time. Based on the results of the questionnaire, I could select materials to be used in the experiment. Table 4-2 below shows the number of students who filled in the questionnaire and returned it, their groups and their academic semesters. The first row in the table shows that five groups from the second semester filled in the questionnaire: the first and the second group each consisted of 24 students, the third contained of 28, ten students in the fourth group and 18 students in the fifth group.

Table 4-2: Details of the students who participated in answering the questionnaire

Number of groups	Semester	No of students in each group
5	2 nd	24
		24
		28
		10
		18
2	3 rd	25
		11
1	4 th	18
1	6 th	27
Total 9	4	185

The questionnaire uncovered some crucial issues that helped in controlling the procedures of the experiment. The questionnaire revealed that the vast majority of students, namely 96.22%, were in the habit of listening to the target language from different sources: watching TV, listening to music...etc., during their leisure time. 16.3% of the students claimed that they were addicted to listening to English; they claimed that they listened to the target language every day. The remaining students reported that they were less interested in exposure to English through the media. This indicated to me that the experiment would not be disliked and that the students might be enthusiastic about participating in it.

From the responses to the fifth item of the questionnaire, it became clear that films and songs are among the most three enjoyable materials (films, songs and stories) for the students. This outcome enhanced the presumption that this study would be interesting for them. Table 4-3 below provides details of the audio-visual materials interesting to the students.

Table 4-3: Students' preferred audio sources

Audio-visual material sources	Numbers of mentions
Films	122
Religious programmes	101
Songs	92
Scientific programmes	83
Series	76
News	65
Documentary	52
Debates	42

The questionnaire also showed that Action, Horror and Animation films are the most preferred genres for students. Accordingly, these three genres were considered in choosing the target material for both the pilot and actual studies. I selected fifteen audio stories and 44 films for the study. At the end of the study, students reported the materials used in the study to be full of suspense and very

interesting. The table beneath shows the numbers of students and which film genres they were most interested in.

Table 4-4: Students' preferred audio genre

Genre	Numbers of mentions
Action	125
Horror	114
Animation	74
Romance	62
Police	60
Science fiction	53
Historical	34
Classic	30

4.4.1.2. Choosing spoken materials

Based on the outcomes of the above mentioned questionnaire in (4.4.1.1) section, I focused on the students' most preferred audio and audio-visual material genres in choosing the material to be used in the study. These genres were: horror, animation and action. The rationale for this is due to the argument raised by Nation (2002) and Elley (1989) which states that learners' interests and choices of the materials they read or listen to is very crucial to learning in general and to incidental learning in particular.

Unlike some of the previous studies into incidental vocabulary learning, and in order to avoid some limitations of previous studies, this study highly controls the targeted spoken texts. For the purpose of the study, I have used both authentic and non-authentic (simplified) spoken materials. The simplified audio materials were enclosed within some graded reader packages, while the sources of the authentic ones were songs and films.

Spoken materials were transcribed then analysed, as explained in the next section, via specific software. To avoid some methodological constraints of some previous studies as mentioned in the literature review earlier, some issues have been considered in choosing spoken texts:

1. Spoken texts were chosen to be entertaining and satisfying participants' interests;
2. Audio sources with unfamiliar accents for non-native speakers were avoided. Some authentic films were targeted but, later, rejected due to accent difficulties; a good example for that is “Brassed Off” in which a South Yorkshire accent was used;
3. Transcribing the spoken texts is time-consuming, so only songs and films that had transcripts available via the Internet were chosen for the study;

4. Word repetitions within the spoken texts were considered in choosing spoken texts;
5. It was decided that simplified texts should contain at least 95% of the known word families, which made the spoken texts relatively understandable for the majority of subjects;
6. Graded spoken texts were chosen to be appropriate to the participants' English proficiency;
7. The length of the spoken texts and sentences, complexity of vocabulary and grammar were considered when choosing the audio spoken text;
8. The speech rate was considered. The literature (Rubin, 1994) shows that 124-127 words per-minute is adequate for intermediate and 145-185 for advanced;
9. Participants' culture, tradition and beliefs were considered in choosing the audio and audio-visual materials. Films that might offend participants one way or another were excluded.

Concerning the fifth condition, the analysis of the texts indicated that all the chosen simplified readers contained more than 96% of the K1 (the most frequent 1000 words) and K2 (the most frequent 2000 words) lists of the most common words used in English. The vocabulary size test, explained below, showed that the vast majority of the target students knew more than 2000

words. This suggests that the students know at least 96% of the running words in the simplified texts. Consequently, the chosen stories were strongly believed to be adequate for this study. Sixteen audio graded readers were selected from which to choose the most appropriate required for the study (see appendix 2). In terms of the chosen films, I watched and evaluated 44 DVDs (see appendix 3) in order to select the most suitable ones among them for the study. Stories, DVDs and songs, later on, were examined by means of a pilot study (as explained below) before using them in the main study.

Based on the pilot study and the conditions mentioned above, 4 films, 4 stories and 14 songs (see appendix 4) were chosen for the main study. Tables 4-5 and 4-6 below present details of the chosen materials. It illustrates the number of the word families (WF), types and tokens in the text. It also shows the duration of the audio and audio-visual materials. Moreover, it gives details of the speed of utterance of words per minute. In addition to that the table shows the percentage of the most frequent 1000 words (K1) and the most frequent 2000 words (K2) in English. As regards the stories, four simplified horror stories from pre-intermediate stage, which has 1200 words, were selected for this study. The stories were published in one reader, which included audiocassettes. The chosen simplified readers were among the Penguin Readers series that were published by Pearson Education Limited. The series is published at Easy-

starter (200 words) and six levels of difficulties: Beginner (300 words), Elementary (600 words), pre-intermediate (1200 words), Intermediate (1700 words), Upper-intermediate (2300 words) and Advanced (3000 words).

Table 4-5: Details of audio & audio-visual materials selected							
Source	Details						
	Title	No of Word Family	No of Types	No of Token	% of 1K+2K	Duration of audio material	No of Words per-minute
Films	Lord of The Flies	425	684	3699	91.35%	87 minutes	
	Johnny English	790	1431	6427	89.56%	84 minutes	
	Aladdin: King of Thieves	754	1446	7850	89.56%	78 minutes	
	Aladdin: The Return of Jafar	453	1200	5986	88.1%	87 minutes	
Stories	The Black Cat	399	539	2369	98.48%	18 minutes	131
	Berenice	382	536	2128	97.65%	17 minutes	123
	The Mask of the Red Death	342	464	1858	95.86%	12 minutes	149
	The Oval Portrait	270	345	1162	97.59%	9 minutes	129
Songs	15 Different songs by different singers	492	763	4523	91.55%	51. 12 minutes	

Table 4-6: Titles of the songs and their duration			
	Song	Singer	Duration
1.	I'm walking away	Craig David	3.34
2.	Don't be stupid	Shania Twain	3.33
3.	Candle in the wind	Elton john	3.58
4.	Hotel California	Eagles	6.25
5.	Father and son	Cat Steven	3.31
6.	Please forgive me	Bryan Adams	5.46
7.	Last night	Craig David	4.33
8.	Coat of many colours	Dolly Parton	4.18
9.	Fall and rise	Craig David	4.52
10.	She is not just a pretty face	Shania Twain	3.48
11.	Lean on me	Michael Bolton	3.56
12.	Rendezvous	Craig David	4.38
13.	When you love some one	Bryan Adams	3.37
14.	Behind the wall	Tracy Chapman	1.49

To be sure that participants were not exposed to the target materials before the study and nothing other than the experiment had an effect on their gains, I searched the university's library, the faculty of Arts' library and the University' language centre to find out if they contained any of the audio material. None of

the chosen graded readers was found in these libraries. Moreover, at the first meeting, I asked the students in the three groups if they had read or listened to any of the targeted stories. All of the participants reported that they had not been exposed to any of the stories. Concerning the films and songs, I read out the two lists of titles to the participants at our first meeting to determine if they had been exposed to any of the films or songs in the past. The participants said that they had not heard of any of the songs' titles, but they affirmed that they had watched some of the films. Those who had watched the films were then excluded from the experiment.

Chance played a crucial role in restricting exposure of the targeted material to the participants outside the classes. One of the Qaddafi regime's policies to restrict the scope of the public revolution of his opponents was to limit individuals' access to Internet. Doing that, Qaddafi thought that he could deprive people of their rights to express their opinions and publish daily news of the revolution. Before the revolution, Qaddafi's government permitted only a few hours of access of a low speed Internet service a day. Then, as it was reported a newspaper (Unknown, 2012), "only 5.5 percent of the Libyan people have Internet access" before 2011. On February 19th 2011, the third day of the revolution, Al-Arabiya TV reported that access to the Internet had been entirely cut off all throughout Libya. This restriction of Internet use positively affected

the design of the study. Under normal circumstances, some of the participants explained that they normally used to search the Internet for transcriptions of the songs to support their understanding and learning, but due to the restriction applied by the regime this was not possible. Being unable to access the Internet enhances the possibility that the target words were learnt incidentally through exposure to them from the one and only medium which is the audio materials used in the current study.

The current study was designed to find out which of the three types of the audio texts (stories, songs or films) are most appropriate for incidental vocabulary learning. So, one of the considered issues was the ease of text comprehension. Accordingly, the researcher applied Flesch-Kincaid (F_K) Reading Ease programme to measure the difficulty of the target texts. The test is available online on <https://readability-score.com>. The programme processes English texts through 5 readability formulas. The programme analyses the number of words and sentences per a text as well as the number of words per a sentence and syllables per a word. It also counts the number of characters in word and in the whole text. The programme is scored from 00 to 100. The lower score means more difficult readability vice versa.

4.4.1.3. Choosing target words

The literature shows different techniques that were used by different researchers to ensure that the targeted words are unknown to the participants. Some studies (Saragi, Nation & Meister 1978; and Pitts et al., 1989) used texts, which included Russian words called Nadsat (e. g., *veck* & *tolchok*). Brown et al., (2008); Chern (1993); Shokouhi & Maniati (2009); Pulido (2003); Waring & Takaki (2003) used substitutes. “Words were constructed to look like plausible English words and take on English spelling conventions, e.g., *windle* for *house*, *yoot* for *yes*” Waring & Takaki (2003, p. 136). I think, ethically, that these techniques are not ideal in testing incidental vocabulary learning. Such techniques may deceive students who are exposed to these materials and consider the target words as actual English. In this study, real words were targeted for the experiment. Two crucial issues, as explained above, have to be considered in selecting the target words: participants’ level of English proficiency and their vocabulary knowledge.

My first mission in choosing the target words was to transcribe the spoken texts into written texts. Transcribing all of the targeted spoken texts is time consuming, so only songs and films which had transcriptions available via the

Internet were chosen for the study. I was able to obtain the transcriptions, which were not accessible to the participants, of all songs and films needed for the study. Stories used in the study were not available via the Internet. Accordingly, they were scanned and saved as soft documents principally to be used in the ensuing procedure of selecting the target words for the study.

After I acquired the transcriptions of the required spoken materials, a computer programme (VocabProfilers) was used to analyse the texts and classify words according to the levels and frequency. The programme classifies words (as shown in figure 3, 4 and 5) into four vocabulary frequency levels: the most frequent being 1-1000 words (K1) of English; the second most frequent being 1001- 2000 words (K2) of English; academic words (AWL) in English, and the ‘off-list’ which are words not found in any of the other lists. The programme is available online on “<http://www.lex tutor.ca /vp/eng/>”.

3 Figure

EDIT-TO-A-PROFILE SPACE

WEB VP OUTPUT FOR FILE: Untitled (24. 21 kb)

Words recategorized by user as 1k items (proper nouns etc): NONE (total 0 tokens)

	Families	Types	Tokens	Percent	
K1 Words (1-1000):	410	558	4376	88.08%	
Function:	(2745)	(55.25%)	Words in text (tokens): 4968
Content:	(1631)	(32.83%)	Different words (types): 882
> Anglo-Sax					Type-token ratio: 0. 18
=Not	(1194)	(24.03%)	Tokens per type: 5. 63
Greco-Lat/Fr Cog:					Lex density (content words/total) 0. 45
K2 Words (1001-2000):	109	117	224	4. 51%	
> Anglo-Sax:	(154)	(3.10%)	<i>Pertaining to onlist only</i>
1k+2k		(92.59%)	Tokens: 4633
AWL Words (academic):	21	22	33	0. 66%	Types: 697
> Anglo-Sax:	(1)	(0.02%)	Families: 540
Off-List Words:	?	185	335	6. 74%	Tokens per family: 8. 58
	540+?	882	4968	100%	Types per family: 1. 29

Current profile	
%	Cumul.
88.08	88.08
4.51	92.59
0.66	93.25
6.74	100.00

Words in text (tokens): 4968
Different words (types): 882
Type-token ratio: 0. 18
Tokens per type: 5. 63
Lex density (content words/total) 0. 45

Pertaining to onlist only

Tokens: 4633
Types: 697
Families: 540
Tokens per family: 8. 58
Types per family: 1. 29
Anglo-Sax Index: (A-Sax tokens + functors / % onlist tokens)
Greco-Lat/Fr-Cognate Index: (Inverse of above) %

For easy editing as MS Word or Excel table - Edit/print-friendly table

Page menu: Tokens (With shorter texts; includes AWL subs) Types Families (With VP negative + Anglo-Saxons) Colour-Coded Text

Figure 3: Sample (A) of the output of the VocabProfile programme

you are so complicated you hang over my shoulder
 when i read my mail
 i do not appreciate it
 when i talk to other guys
 you think they are on my tail
 i get so aggravated when i get off the phone
 and i get the third degree
 i am really feelin frustrated
 why do not you take a pill and put a little trust in me
 and you will see
 do not freak out until you know the facts
 relax
 do not be stupid you know i love you
 do not be ridiculous you know i need you
 do not be absurd you know i want you
 do not be impossible
 i am mad about you i am mad about you
 can not live without you can not live without you
 i am crazy bout you i am crazy bout you
 so do not be stupid you know i love you
 stop overreacting
 you even get suspicious when i paint my nails
 it is definitely distracting
 the way you dramatize every little small detail
 do not freak out until you know the facts
 relax max
 do not be stupid you know i love you
 do not be ridiculous you know i need you
 do not be absurd you know i want you
 do not be impossible
 i am mad about you i am mad about you
 can not live without you can not live without you
 i am crazy bout you i am crazy bout you
 do not be stupid you know i love you
 do not be stupid you are my baby
 i am mad about you i am mad about you
 can not live without you can not live without you
 i am crazy bout you i am crazy bout you
 do not be stupid you know i love you
 do not be ridiculous you know i need you
 do not be absurd you know i want you
 do not be impossible

Figure 4: Sample (B) of the output of the VocabProfile programme

Type	List
type_[number of tokens] [↑]	
1k types: [families 53 : types 58 : tokens 273]	a_[2] about_[6] am_[13] and_[3] are_[3] be_[15] can_[6] degree_[1] detail_[1] do_[19] even_[1] every_[1] facts_[2] get_[4] hang_[1] i_[31] impossible_[3] in_[1] is_[1] it_[2] know_[13] little_[2] live_[6] love_[5] me_[1] my_[5] need_[3] not_[25] off_[1] on_[1] other_[1] out_[2] over_[1] paint_[1] put_[1] read_[1] really_[1] see_[1] shoulder_[1] small_[1] so_[3] stop_[1] take_[1] talk_[1] the_[5] they_[1] think_[1] third_[1] to_[1] trust_[1] until_[2] want_[3] way_[1] when_[4] why_[1] will_[1] without_[6] you_[50]
2k types: [9: 9: 19]	baby_[1] complicated_[1] mad_[6] mail_[1] nails_[1] phone_[1] stupid_[6] suspicious_[1] tail_[1]
AWL types: [5: 5: 6]	appreciate_[1] definitely_[1] dramatize_[1] max_[1] relax_[2]
OFF types: [?: 12: 27]	absurd_[3] aggravated_[1] bout_[6] crazy_[6] distracting_[1] feelin_[1] freak_[2] frustrated_[1] guys_[1] overreacting_[1] pill_[1] ridiculous_[3]

Figure 5: Sample (C) of the output of the VocabProfile programme

Based on my experience as a teacher and resident of Libya, words that were expected to be unknown by the participants were chosen. The word lists were long, so the vast majority of the items that occurred only once in the texts were excluded. The rationale behind neglecting this category was due to the reported outcomes of some studies that claimed that words that occur once in a text cannot be learnt incidentally. The number of items in the target word lists was as shown in the table below. The longest vocabulary list was that containing items chosen from films, which consisted of 241 words. The other two lists were much shorter; they consisted of 126 items from stories and 68 words from songs. Target words varied in terms of phonological difficulty, length, number

of syllables and number of repetitions within a text. Considering these issues in the analysis may show which category of the target words is more easily learnt.

Table 4-7: Numbers of targeted words in the main study

Source	Number of the target words in the pre-test of the main study
Films	241
Stories	126
Songs	68

4.4.2. Pilot Study

4.4.2.1. Aim of the Pilot Study

The final step before conducting the experiment was a pilot study. The pilot study was designed to evaluate the effectiveness of the materials, tests and procedures to be used in the main study. This technique enabled me to examine the comprehensibility of the chosen materials and helped in choosing the unknown words. Accordingly, I was able to choose other spoken texts, or manipulate them in terms of speaking speed, text length, voice clarity, and interest. Concerning the tests, the pilot study was used to examine whether they were easy to deal with and that the test procedures were acceptable to the participants.

4.4.2.2. Participants in the pilot study

Using the same criteria for choosing the appropriate participants for the main study, as explained in section 4.5.1, I targeted the first and the fifth semester students, of the academic year 2010-2011, to participate in the pilot study. I met them in their classes to invite them to participate in my pilot study. After that, I briefly explained the nature of the study to be conducted, but I did not mention anything about the focus on vocabulary development or, at this point, the post-test. Ten students from two groups in the first semester and five students from the fifth semester volunteered for the pilot study, all with six years of pre-university English language study. The two groups in the first semester participated only in part of the pilot study. This was due to my initial decision to target them, for the reasons mentioned in 4.5.1., for the main study. In addition to their participation in the pre-test, the first semester students were exposed to some scenes from the selected films and listened to some of the songs. This process enabled me to examine whether the tests were easy to complete and that the test procedures, as well as chosen material, were enjoyed by the participants. In contrast, all of the fifth semester volunteers attended all of the tasks and tests. Consequently, only the results of their tests were considered in the pilot study.

4.4.2.3. Procedures of the pilot study

Responding to my request, the Faculty of Arts at the University assigned me a large room, which was suitable for storing in my private equipment [a data show, home-theatre kit, multimedia speakers, recorder player and laptop] that were required for the study. The room was quite large so that I could use part of it for providing refreshments [mineral water, tea, coffee, coffee-mate, juice, cookies]. Daily refreshments and sometimes lunch if the task was at the lunch time were supplied to encourage students to attend all the sessions of the pilot study.

The pilot study lasted for four weeks. The Pre-test and Vocabulary Size Test were piloted in the first week. The pre-tests, as shown in the table below, contained 241 words from films, 126 from stories and 68 words from songs. The analyses of the tests showed that 79 words from films, 34 words from stories and 24 words from the songs were unknown by all of the participants. These words were selected for the post-test of the pilot study and pre-test of the main study.

Table 4-8: Numbers of pilot study's targeted words

Source	Targeted words for the pre-test	Unknown words
Films	241	79
Stories	126	34
Songs	68	24

For the purpose of the study and as explained above, transcriptions of 44 films were analysed for use in the pilot study. Four of the films were used as a basis for the pre-test and the post-test of the pilot study. Students reported that the first three films were understandable and interesting, but not the fourth “Sense and Sensibility” (1995), which they said was not easy to comprehend. This film’s sound was not clear when it was displayed in the home theatre to the first group, so I used multimedia speakers for the second group. The speakers were better than the previous ones and the sound became clearer; however, students still claimed that they could not understand it well, perhaps because the language stemmed from Jane Austen’s early 19th Century novel and is somewhat different from current, popular English use. Accordingly, I decided to exclude this film from the main study and substituted it with “Lord of the Flies” (1990). Towards the end of the pilot study, a few scenes from each of the rest films were shown in order to examine students’ interest and their comprehensibility.

The films that were used in the pilot study varied in terms of duration and number of words: Johnny English (6,323 words/ 84 minutes), Aladdin: the Return of Jafar (8169 words / 87 minutes), Aladdin: King of Thieves (7,254, words/ 78 minutes) and Sense and Sensibility (9,745 words/ 131 minutes). According to the design of the study, the VKS post-test was carried out two days after the exposure of the last film. The decision of giving the post-test after two days was based on the outcomes of research (Davvis, Di Betta, 2003; Dummy, Gaskell, and Feng, 2004. as cited in Schmitt 2010) which suggested that post-test “must be a minimum of two days after the treatment” (Ibd: 156).

4.4.2.4. Results of the pilot study

The result of the post-test showed that all participants from the fifth semester had learnt new words from this type of learning. The analysis of the pilot study’s data shows that some participants gained more than 72% of the stories’ target words. As a group, they gained up to 51.8% of the unknown words from stories, and almost close gains from films (=27.8%) and songs (=29.6%). These results pointed to the fact that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally and retained, at least in the relative short term, from listening to the target language. The table below shows the mean scores for the gains from the three types of listening inputs.

Table 4-9: Lexical knowledge gained by pilot group from the three type of listening

Gains from VKS tests			
Participants	Stories	Films	Songs
Case 1	72.3%	40.75%	48.9%
Case 2	72.8%	30.7%	44.64%
Case 3	68.5%	34.23%	33.7%
Case 4	24%	16.14%	10.9%
Case 5	21.7%	17.4%	9.8%
Group mean	51.8%	27.8%	29.6%

The results of the pilot study showed that the participants scored significantly higher in word recognition than any other type of lexical knowledge that was examined in the pilot study. The group could recognise 53.94% of the target words from the songs. An individual gain analysis demonstrated that one of the participants reported that she had recognised 78.3% of the words. In terms of meaning, the group learnt 23.5% of the meaning of the target words while the highest individual gain was achieved by a student who could successfully extract the meaning of 39.1% of the target words from the context. The pilot's data shows almost the same portions of gains in grammar (=20.9%) and usage (=20%). The table below gives more details of the lexical knowledge gained from songs.

Table 4-10: Different lexical gains from songs

Gains percentage				
Participants	Recognition	Meaning	Grammar	Use
Case 1	26%	4.4%	4.4%	4.4%
Case 2	34.8%	4.4%	4.4%	00%
Case 3	78.3%	34.8%	39.1%	43.5%
Case 4	74%	39.1%	30.5%	34.8%
Case 5	56.5%	34.8%	26%	17.4%
				%
Group mean	53.94%	23.5%	20.9%	20%

The results indicate that simplified stories lead to higher portions of incidental learning. The group could recognise 80% of the target words. They had learnt the meaning of 47% of the words. Concerning grammar, students could identify the grammatical function of 50% of the target words. The analysed data also showed that students could use 32.2% of the target words in complete and correct sentences. Individual analyses showed even more promising results. One of the students could recognise 95.6% of the target words. She could extract 74% of the words' meanings, identify 82.6% of the grammatical functions of the words and use 39.1% of the words in sentences. The table below shows more details of the lexical knowledge learnt from stories.

Table 4-11: Different lexical gains from stories

Gains percentage				
Participant	Recognition	Meaning	Grammar	Use
Case 1	69.6%	8.7%	8.7%	00%
Case 2	56.5%	17.4%	17.4%	4.4%
Case 3	91.3%	60.9%	65.3%	74%
Case 4	95.6%	74%	82.6%	39.1%
Case 5	87%	74%	78.3%	43.5%
Group mean	80%	47%	50%	32.2%

As in the other two previous types of audio materials, watching films leads to a high score in recognising the target words. In contrast to songs and stories, the mean gain for meaning, grammar and usage are considerably lower. The results showed that students, as group, could learn 15.56% of the target words' meanings while the highest individual gain was 30.14%. The pilot data shows that the group almost gained similar word knowledge in grammar (=13.7%) and usage (=12.66%). The best individual result in grammar and usage was 27.4% in each. The table below gives more details of the lexical knowledge gained from films.

Table 4-12: Different lexical gains from films

Gains percentage				
Participant	Recognition	Meaning	Grammar	Use
Case 1	50.6%	5%	5%	5%
Case 2	55.7%	3.8%	1.3%	3.8%
Case 3	78%	30.14%	27.4%	27.4%
Case 4	80%	14.7%	13.3%	13.3%
Case 5	80%	24.6%	21.5%	13.8%
Group	68.86%	15.65%	13.7%	12.66%

To sum up, the pilot study has highlighted several crucial issues which influenced the main study:

1. The pilot study shed light on which texts the students disliked or found difficult. These were then excluded or exchanged for other materials;
2. Tests were confirmed as understandable and easy to demonstrate;
3. Vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from the three types of inputs: watching films, listening to simplified stories and listening to songs;
4. Simplified stories seemed to be the easiest and led to more incidental vocabulary gains. That is probably due to the fact that they were well-edited to match the participants' English proficiency;

5. Words that were exposed more frequently in the audio texts were the most likely to be learnt;
6. Context seemed to play a crucial role in how easily words can be learnt.
7. Higher-level students learnt more vocabulary incidentally from listening;
8. When a word is correlated with an image, context seemed to be more important than repetition in incidental learning;
9. Visual hints supplied additional information that seemed to help listeners to comprehend the meaning of previously unknown vocabulary from the spoken context;
10. The results of the pilot study support the outcomes of previous research, which argue that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from spoken context and even one exposure to a new word may lead to acquisition.

4.5. Main study

4.5.1. Selecting the target participants for the main study

As a member of staff in the English Department, of a Libyan University who has been teaching English since 1994 in different departments at the university I can honestly say, that according to my experience, the vast majority of the best undergraduates who study English for specific purposes in other departments are at starter level. Based on my evaluation, and the results from

the pilot study, I think that samples from any other department than those of the English Department, where language proficiency is generally higher (as mentioned below), are not suitable for this type of research. This is due to the fact that incidental language learning requires adequate prior knowledge of the target language. Accordingly, it would be quite difficult for beginner students either to understand the targeted authentic audio materials or to deal with this study's tests. For the above-mentioned reasons, I have decided to conduct purposive sampling techniques in choosing the target participants, which requires having a purpose in mind when targeting participants. Therefore, I initially targeted students from the English department. To gain access to the English department in order to conduct the research, I met the department's director who was very happy to grant me an access to the department.

To gain an overview of the students' abilities and preferences ...etc., I informally interviewed five lecturers who were teaching in the Department of English. Based on the information gained from those interviews and from the piloting, I had three conditions in mind for selecting the appropriate participants for this study:

1. Students were to be in the same academic semester. This is due to the fact that students in the same semester generally seem to have the same level of English proficiency, or at least a similar level. In addition to

that, it would be easier to deal with the large number of targeted samples;

2. A large number of students in the same semester were preferred. The rationale behind this condition is due to the argument stated that “the bigger the sample, the more representative it is likely to be” Bryman (2008, p. 180). In additions to that some researchers (Brown, et al., 2008) suggested that “in order to collect more reliable data, it is important to ensure that there is a large cohort of subjects”;
3. Students needed to be motivated and have an adequate level of English proficiency.

The lecturers at the department of English were in accordance in nominating three groups: first, fifth and seventh semester students. Accordingly, I attended some lectures with those groups to have an initial impression about their language levels and their motivation. The fifth semester was excluded simply because the number of students was very limited and did not fit my requirements for the study. Concerning the seventh semester students, they were not targeted because they would have graduated at the time of the delayed-post-test. Accordingly, students from the first semester, which would be the second semester at the time of the study, were chosen. All of the lecturers claimed that the majority of those students were highly motivated and

had a good level of English. Moreover, the number of this group (107) was adequate for this study.

Participants in this study, then, were chosen from Libyan undergraduates who were majoring in linguistic studies in the department of English at a Libyan University. These students had experience of studying English for six years before starting their undergraduate studies. At the time of the study being carried out, the students had been attending Grammar, Listening comprehension, Conversational & pronunciation, Writing & punctuation, Reading comprehension classes (see section 1.3. a brief Review of Education in Libya above). Students were attending 120 minutes of oral class twice a week.

The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 20 years at the time of the study. One hundred and seven participants, from three large and heterogeneous groups (A, B and C) of the second semester, were targeted for the experimental study. Nine of them were males and the rest, namely 98, were females. Group A was randomly nominated to be the control group while B and C were assigned to be treatment groups. Only twenty nine students of the experimental groups attended all classes as well as pre-tests and post-tests. The reason for the dramatic decrease in the number of participants was due to the war which had broken out in Libya at the time of the study (see limitations section 7.4).

A preliminary diagnostic test, as explained below, was conducted to evaluate the students' English proficiency level. However, despite all the participants being in the same semester (second semester), their English proficiency levels ranged from lower intermediate to advanced, as shown in the four columns to the right of the table below, in contrast to my earlier assumption of a shared level of proficiency.

Table 4-13: Numbers, gender and levels of the targeted samples							
Group	Total No	Male No	Female No	Proficiency Level			
				Lower intermediate	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate	Advanced
A	40	1	39	17	13	4	
B	35	6	29	7	6	11	3
C	32	2	30	11	8	8	2

The heterogeneity of the participants, in terms of gender and English level proficiency, has its advantage for this study. It helps in evaluating the second hypothesis of this study, which states that: higher level learners can gain more benefits from incidental learning from listening.

One of the participants was a native speaker of English. She had accompanied her father who was studying and later working in the UK. She came to live in the UK when she was an infant and went back home to Libya when she was

eighteen. The pre-test showed that this student knew almost all the target words and her level of English, according to the level test, was advanced. She was sometimes unable to translate some words, in the pre-test, into Arabic however she was able to paraphrase the meaning of the words in English or drew them. Thus, I decided to discount her results from the analysis. Despite this decision, this student's participation in the experiment had; however, dual advantages: the first advantage was to be sure that I had pronounced the target words properly in the tests, i.e., if I dictated a word and she wrote another one, this meant that I had uttered it inappropriately. In the event that this occurred, I would exclude any mispronounced word from the analysis. Secondly, observing her interactions with the other students during the exposure to the target material offered extra information about strategies used by students to learn new vocabulary.

4.5.1.1. Testing students' language proficiency

This study hypothesises that advanced learners of English can learn more from incidental learning than lower level learners. Studying this hypothesis requires examining students' proficiency levels. For this purpose, I utilized a 'English Diagnostic Test', which was designed by the English Department at the Maastricht University Language Centre (2002). The test is available online on <https://www.maastrichtuniversity.nl/sites/default/files/englishtest.pdf>. The test

contains 99 multiple-choice items; each of them has a correct answer and three distracters. The test sheet was included with typical answers and an assessment scale to be used by an examiner. The test was designed to classify students into five levels: elementary, lower intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. The test was administered to the targeted participants (No: 107) of the study who were studying in the second semester at the Department of English in the academic year 2010. An oral introduction was delivered, explaining the aim of the test and how to address it.

4.5.1.2. Testing students' existing knowledge of L2 vocabulary

Incidental vocabulary learning requires an adequate pre-knowledge of vocabulary. Research shows, as stated in the literature review chapter, that 2000 to 3000 WF covers 92% of the WF of authentic materials and reaches up to 96% in some genres in English. Accordingly, one of my priorities was to measure participants' vocabulary knowledge. These measurements assisted me in selecting the most appropriate texts to be used in the study. I did not need to devise a new measuring tool to assess vocabulary knowledge as one already exists, namely the Vocabulary Size Test, developed by Nation and Beglar's (2007) to measure previous vocabulary knowledge. Findings of the VST to be credible must be based on reliable and valid instruments. Literature (Read, 2000, Schmitt, 2010; and Tan, et al., 2016) demonstrates that the test "was

developed to be a reliable, accurate and comprehensive measure of a learner's receptive vocabulary" (Schmitt, 2010, p. 293). Moreover, the VST is considered the most wide used to measure of L2 lexical knowledge (Read, 2000). The VST was recently pilot-tested by Tan, et al., (2016) on 28 (two groups A and B) Malaysian undergraduate and was analysed for 'reliability as stability over similar samples. The study demonstrates the test to be reliable. The studies demonstrated, 73%, which indicating adequate reliability. Accordingly, the VST is trusted to provide valid conclusions and predictions about participants' previous vocabulary knowledge based on their test scores.

The Vocabulary Size Test is used in the current study to measure learners' vocabulary knowledge. It consists of 140 multiple-choice questions, which measure the knowledge of the most frequent 14,000 words. The test designers have permitted researchers to use the test without any pre-written permission. The test is online at: [<http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/publications/paul-nation/Vocabulary-Size-Test-14000.pdf>]

The participants' scores in the current study range from 1100 words to 5400 words (see appendix 5). The outcomes of the test indicate that the average knowledge of the treatment participants as a group is 3033 words. Accordingly, I could feel assured that the chosen audio materials were adequate for the study. This is due to the aforementioned fact that "that 2000 to 3000 WF covers 92%

of the WF of authentic materials and reaches up to 96 % in some genres”. The vocabulary knowledge of the participants is summarized in the following table.

Table 4-14: The vocabulary knowledge of the treatment participants of the pilot study	
Number of students	Vocabulary knowledge
Five participants	From 1100 to 2000 words
Eight participants	From 2100 to 3000 words
Seven participants	From 3100 to 4000 words
Seven participants	From 4100 to 5400 words

4.5.1.3. Testing students' vocabulary learning strategies

I think as some researchers do (Ritter et al, 1973; Dansereau, 1978; O'Malley, 1987; Wendin and Rubin, 1987; Ahmed, 1988; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Stern, 1992; Gu, 1996, 2003; Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown, 1999; Hismonoglu, 1997; Moir and Nation, 2002; Fan, 2003) that a student's knowledge of language learning strategies plays a crucial role in learning SL/FL in general and I think it helps in incidental language learning. Accordingly, I presume that exploring this issue will shed light on one of the factors that may affect this type of learning and address the second question of

the research which states: “What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input?”

For this purpose, a selected-response questionnaire, from which respondents select from three options, was designed and used by the researcher to identify what strategies that treatment group students generally used to learn vocabulary (see appendix 6). This technique was used to enhance consistency of response across respondents; in addition to that, it is less time-consuming than an open-ended questionnaire. The questionnaire addresses the use of 27 strategies. It was designed with three response options: ‘Always’, ‘Sometimes’ or ‘Never’. The questionnaire consists of two main strategies: vocabulary discovery strategies and vocabulary meaning consolidation. The first group (1 to 5) was concerned with discovery strategies; the second group (6 to 27) investigated the consolidation strategies.

The questionnaire was introduced to the subjects by an introductory letter in which I explained the aim of the questionnaire and how the subjects should respond to the questionnaire. Two crucial issues were taken into account when preparing the questionnaire. Firstly, readability: I needed to ensure that the questionnaire was accessible to the students. Secondly, length: to avoid the ‘boredom’ associated with filling in the form, the questionnaire asked as limited number of questions as was possible. The questionnaire was distributed in the

academic year 2010 to the second semester students in the Department of English who attended all classes.

4.5.1.4. Testing students' learning styles

It is known in the field of learning styles that every student has his/her way of processing new information. The literature (Soloman and Felder, 1988) shows that learners' learning styles can be classified, according to the way they prefer to deal with new information, into four different types:

1. Active and Reflective learners;
2. Sensing and Intuitive learners;
3. Visual and Verbal learners;
4. Sequential and Global learners.

Knowing the learning style of the targeted samples may shed light on who can benefit the most from incidental language learning through listening. Furthermore, it may contribute to answering the second question of the research which states: "What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input?". For this purpose, the researcher used a questionnaire designed by Soloman and Felder (1988). The questionnaire is online at <http://www.engr.ncsu.edu/learningstyles/ilsweb.html>. It was claimed

(Felder and Spurlin, 2005 and Al-Tamimi and Shuib, 2009) to be valid, reliable and suitable for identifying learners' styles.

The questionnaire contains 44 items, it was only given to the experimental groups who attended all classes as well as pre-tests and post-tests in the academic year 2011. The oral introduction was delivered explaining the aim of the questionnaire and how to respond to it. The questionnaire was filled under the researcher's supervision so that participants could ask for explanation of any unclear item.

The questionnaire was, initially, converted to a Microsoft document then was given to the participants to complete. The response from each of the participants was submitted onto an online version of the questionnaire to be analysed. The website analyses the questionnaire and classifies participants into four groups as mentioned above. Figure (6) shows an example of the output of the analyses.

Results for:

ACT X REF
 11 9 7 5 3 1 1 3 5 7 9 11
 <--->
SEN X INT
 11 9 7 5 3 1 1 3 5 7 9 11
 <--->
VIS X VRB
 11 9 7 5 3 1 1 3 5 7 9 11
 <--->
SEQ X GLO
 11 9 7 5 3 1 1 3 5 7 9 11
 <--->

- If your score on a scale is 1-3, you are fairly well balanced on the two dimensions of that scale.
- If your score on a scale is 5-7, you have a moderate preference for one dimension of the scale and will learn more easily in a teaching environment which favors that dimension.
- If your score on a scale is 9-11, you have a very strong preference for one dimension of the scale. You may have real difficulty learning in an environment which does not support that preference.

For more information about learning styles or to take the test again, click on Learning Style Page.

Learning Styles Results

153

4. 5. 2. Exposure to the target audio material

Four films, four stories and fourteen songs were selected to be used in the experiment. Films and stories were played at one of three non-working labs at the department of English. The language labs were fitted in the department in the early 1980's to accommodate thirty students in each. As well as being out of date, they have only been maintained twice. At the time of the study, there was no more than one lab, of which the only advantage was that its walls were covered with wooden panels that prevented the intensity of echo inside the labs and reduced the background noise from outside. For these reasons I planned in advanced to use my own equipment [a data show, home-theatre kit, multimedia speakers, recorder player and laptop] to facilitate my research.

The exposure to the films and stories took place in the oral skills class. According to the department's curriculum, this course aims to develop two skills: listening and speaking. This matches with the study's design, which planned to play audio materials then ask students to answer comprehension questions, write a critique or think of an end to a story. The films were shown first and the remaining time of the lectures were allocated for the comprehension questions. By doing that the researcher could distract the students' attention away from vocabulary.

In terms of the stories, the pilot study showed that students could not comprehend the stories when they were played in full. In contrast, the students could understand all the details of the stories when they were played one paragraph after another. The pauses among paragraphs lasted for few seconds. This technique was used to avoid comprehension gaps. I followed the same procedures of the main study; students listened to the whole story first then they listened to it in chunks twice. Although the speed ratio of the stories was in the required range, a specific recorder player that controls the speed ratio was used after being connected to multimedia speakers. Follow the listening tasks, students were asked some comprehension questions and required to summarize or criticize the story they listened to. During the watching and the listening period I sat at my desk in front of the classroom observing students' behaviours. No other means of control was applied to students' behaviours in order to identify the strategies they used, if any, to learn new vocabulary.

To simulate a real situation in which listeners learn new vocabulary incidentally, I chose fourteen songs to be used in the study. Students were required to listen to the songs in their leisure time as many times as they wanted to. To distract students' attention away from the vocabulary, the only task they were required to do was to determine what the themes of the songs were, so that we could discuss them later in the speaking class. To make the students' task

clear I played one of the target songs in the lab, which all of the students listened to, and I then asked them to answer the following questions:

1. What is the theme of the song? What is it about?
2. Do you like the song? Why?
3. Do you stand for or against the singer's attitude s/he exposes?

In this introductory session the song was 3.35 minutes long; however, the discussion of those three questions lasted more than an hour.

4.5.3. Tests

To answer the research questions, three tests were given to the participants: pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test. The three tests contained all of the target words. The researcher used a *separate sample pre-test and post-test design* which helps in testing many groups, under the same conditions, by giving the same tests separately but analysing them as one group (Seliger & Shohamy, 2003). This design “allows a larger population to be treated and overcomes the problem of lack of access to large enough groups at any one time. This design could be continued to include several groups and would be useful for investigating variables over a long period of time” (Seliger & Shohamy, op. cit 150).

4.5.3.1. Testing word knowledge

The current study, as explained above, aimed to examine the extent to which vocabulary can be learnt from listening to stories, songs as well as watching movies. For the purpose of this study, the vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) was used in this experimental study to measure the participants' partial (recognition, meaning, grammar function and the word use) vocabulary learning. Essentially, the findings of the VKS test to be credible must be based on reliable and valid instruments. Reliability and validity are very important issues when tests are to be administered; however, reliability can be estimated through the previous study. In academia, it is recommended that established tests can be used if they are proved to be reliable and valid (Schmitt, 2010)

The VKS test was developed by Wesche and Paribakht (1996) who argued that it is a valid and a reliable tool to measure vocabulary partial knowledge. Moreover, the VKS test is a well-established test. Its internal consistency reliability as well as interrater reliability have been examined, analyzed, and interpreted in different studies. Thus, the test has been extensively used in previous studies (Waring, 2002; Host, 2005; Rosszell, 2007; Kweon, & Kim, 2008; Bruton, 2009; Stewart et al. 2012; Ehsanzadeh, 2012) and has been rigorously reported that it has a good validity. Wesche and Paribakht's (1996) as well as Rosszell's (2007, cited in Tan, et al., 2016) studies demonstrated

excellent, more than 0.9 (90%), internal reliability coefficients between learners' self-report of word knowledge and actual score for demonstrated knowledge of the VKS. Rosszell also reported that the interrater reliability rates of the VKS in his study is more than 0.9 (90%) agreement, indicating reliability of the scoring/marking scheme. Considering Schmitt's (2010) argument which states that "no test will be able to deliver 100% reliability"(p.183), it can be agreed that the VKS, which delivered 90% of reliability, is highly reliable and valid tool in measuring incidental vocabulary learning through listening to the foreign language. This percentile (90%) demonstrates the greatest likelihood that the VKS accurately reflects my expectations in measuring what I purported to measure as well as producing consistent results. For the purpose of the study, it was also intended to distract the participants' attention away from vocabulary. I felt that examining the reliability and validity of the VKS myself may negatively affect the experimental design of the current study by attracting the participants' attention tawdry vocabulary. Based on the above argument, I think it is wise to trust on previous considerable empirical research outcomes concerning validity and reliability of the VKS. Accordingly, I believe that the test can be trusted to provide solid conclusions and predictions about participants' incidental learning of L2 vocabulary through listening based on their test scores.

A vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) test was used to examine students' vocabulary gains. The VKS measures both breadth (vocabulary size) and depth aspects (recognition, meaning, grammar and use) of vocabulary knowledge. Subjects were required to hear the target words one at a time, and then they had to identify the extent to which they knew the words. The VKS paper (see appendix 7) contained three options:

1. I do not know this word nor have I heard it before;
2. I've heard it before but I do not know the meaning; or
3. I know this word.

If the subjects had chosen the third option they would have been required to give the meanings, identify the parts of speech and use the words in sentences.

I applied the same strategy used by Al_homoud (2007) in which he used audio software, from the Longman dictionary, to pronounce the target words. Unfortunately, this technique was not ideal due to the poor quality of sound produced by various softwares. Therefore, I decided to read the target words myself. I was lucky that one of the participants was a native speaker of English. I utilized her being in the group to check my pronunciation (as explained in section 4.5.1.) in dictating the target words.

To examine the productive knowledge of the target words (usage), the VKS was used as explained above. In addition to that, the participants were given a list of Arabic translations of the target words and were asked to translate them into English. The idea of this test was inspired by Nation's productive test (Nation, 2001) in which he gave the meanings or showed pictures of the target words to the test takers and required them to write the missing word. In that test he provided the initial letters of the target words. Nation's (Ibid) test was designed to measure reading and writing productivity. For the purpose of the study, I designed a similar test to measure word productivity. Students were given a list of Arabic meanings of the target words and required to translate them into English. The initial letters were given to limit the choices when producing the required word.

4.5.3.2. Pre-test

My first task was to be sure that students had not been exposed to the chosen materials in the past. So, I asked the participants [as explained above] about the materials to be used in the study. They reported that they had not watched the films, and neither had they listened to the stories nor the songs. After that, participants were informed about the procedures of the experiment but they were not informed about the post-test or the delayed-post-test.

Based on the findings of the pilot study, I substituted one of the films and modified the list of the target words. I omitted some words and added others to the list. Accordingly, the pre-test of the main study contained 116 words from films, 32 from stories and 79 from songs. Participants had to listen to the target words one at a time, then they had to tick one of the three options mentioned above identifying to what extent they knew the target words. Dictating the targeted words multiple times was avoided to limiting multiple exposures to the target words during the tests and to restrict vocabulary learning through the tests. The pre-test was given two weeks before the treatment. This period of time presumably is enough to flush the target words from participants' memories. Swanborn and De Glopper (1999) argue that a pre-test leads to enhanced learning of new words. So they recommend that a pre-test be given some time in advance of the treatment.

4.5.3.3. Post-test

The post-test was given, as planned, a few days after the exposure for both treatment and control groups. The literature shows different perspectives in terms of the length of delay, e.g., Yuksel, and Tanriverdi's (2009) in their study administered the post-test one month after the exposure to the spoken material, and Brown, et al., (2008) administered three post-tests: immediately after the exposure, one week later, and after three months. The decision of giving the

post-test after two days was based on the outcomes of research (Davvis, Di Betta, 2003; Dummy, Gaskell, and Feng, 2004. as cited in Schmitt 2010) which suggested that post-test “must be a minimum of two days after the treatment” (Ibid: 156).

This test was based on the pre-test in which I omitted only those words known by the majority of the participants. Words that were known by a few of the participants were included in the list of target words. Accordingly, I decided to analyse the participants’ gains individually, i.e., I calculated the gain improvement of each participant. Based on the results of the pre-test, the post-test contained 71 words from films, 30 from stories and 67 from songs.

Table 4-15: Numbers of targeted words

Source	Targeted words for the pre-test	Unknown words for the post-test
Films	116	71
Stories	32	30
Songs	79	67

4.5.3.4. Delayed-post-test

It was planned to give the delayed post-tests three months after the experiment. Due to the events in Libya, which were mentioned in the limitation section, the delayed post-test was given six months after the treatment. The delayed-post-

test was postponed to be given to the participants six months after the post-test, however, the postponement accords with literature, e.g. Campbell and Stanley (1963).who recommended that post-test periods such as one month, six months, and one year be included in research planning. Three delayed post-tests were given: the first had exactly the same form as the post-test (VKS). In the second delayed post-test, target words were produced in a written context. This test was used to examine the effect of the text in remembering the target words. The third test was designed to examine the participants' productivity (as shown above).

4.6. Scoring

Participants' lexical knowledge was examined by means of the VKS, which examines four types of lexical knowledge: recognition, meaning, grammar and usage. So, each word was evaluated out of five marks as shown in the table below.

Table 4-16: Criteria of evaluation

Recognition	1 point	Is given when a participant claims that s/he heard the target word but does not recognise its meaning.
	0 point	Is awarded if a participant reported that s/he did not hear the target word.
Meaning	1 point	Is awarded if a participant could identify the exact meaning of the target word.
	½ point	Is given if the student was able to paraphrase the word or could provide a close meaning, e. g. , the word “epilepsy” is worth ½ mark when it is translated into “ mental disease”
	0 point	Is given if the translation was wrong or when its space was left blank.
Grammar	1 point	Is given when participant could identify the exact part of speech of the target word.
	0 point	Is given if the participant could not identify the grammatical function of the word or left the space blank.
Usage	1 point	A correct written use of the target word deserves 1 mark.
	0 point	Is given if word was wrongly used in a written sentence.

4.7. Data analysis

After all the tests have been demonstrated and gathered, the researcher marked them then calculated the gain percentages of tests. All data was entered into the software Statistic Package of Social Science (SPSS version 21) to be analyzed subsequently. There are various ways of analysing experimental research data which, based on the nature of the experiment design that can be deployed. The first procedure of dealing with the data was to decide what types of tests should be used to analyze the data. For this purpose a Kolmogorov-Smirnova test and a Shapiro-Wilk's test was used to examine the normality of the data. The tests showed that data deviated from normality i.e., data were not normally distributed. Accordingly, the nonparametric "Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon (MWW) test" was carried out rather than a t-test to compare the performance of the treatment group and control group who participated in the experiments. This type of analysis helps in determining whether the learning occurred through the exposure to the audio/audio-visual materials or from any other factor rather than the treatment.

After these two tests had been done a descriptive analysis was used to find out the how much vocabulary was incidentally learnt from the treatment. The descriptive test presents mean gains, minimum and maximum scores, standard error and standard deviation of the VKS tests scores. Kendall's tau_b was used to explore the correlations between vocabulary incidental learning (from stories and songs and from watching films) and the factors presumed to affect this type of learning. The test is said to “deal with ties in better ways than spearman rho” (Morgan & Giego, 1998, P. 97). The value of Kendall’s Tau-b ranges from -1(=100 percent negative association) to +1 (=100 per cent positive association). A value zero indicates the absence of association. Coolican’s (2005) categorisation was used to evaluate the strength of correlation as shown in the table below:

Table 4-17 Values of the correlation coefficient and their strengths

Value of the Correlation Coefficient	Strength of Correlation
1	Perfect
0.7 - 0.9	Strong
0.4 - 0.6	Moderate
0.1 - 0.3	Weak
0	No relationship

The non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was also used to examine the extent to which incidental vocabulary learning can be retained. The test is usually used for comparing repeated measurement on a same population.

4.8. Ethical Considerations

This study was planned and conducted to be submitted to the University of Nottingham for the degree of doctorate of philosophy. Nottingham University is one of those educational institutions that highly considers ethical considerations. The university specifies it as one of the most important part of a research. In this regard, British Educational Research Association (BERA)

guidelines, which has been adopted by the University of Nottingham, were considered in conducting this study.

Before conducting the study, I and my main supervisor discussed the 'Statement of Research Ethics' form, together with a draft information sheet and consent form (which is available at the university's web site) that would be used in my study. The research plan and ethical issues were approved by the supervisor. After that, I contacted the School of Education seeking approval of the ethical consideration proposal. The School approved the plan and ethical considerations met its high research quality.

The literature on ethical considerations in research shows different stances in terms of the extent to which researchers must commit themselves. Some researchers, as cited in Bryman 2008, (Erikson, 1967; Dingwall, 1980; Bulmer 1982; and Seliger and Shohamy, 2003) believe that ethical considerations should be strictly considered. On the other hand, others such as Gans (1962 cited in Bryman, 2008, p. 116) argue that “the researcher must be dishonest to get honest data”. The researcher tends to agree with the first group, so that I act in accordance with ethical codes of British Educational Research Association (BERA) guidelines.

The initial step to conduct my research was to gain a permission from the educational institution in which the study took place. Accordingly, I met the head of the English Department and discussed with him the necessary procedures of my research. Responding to my request, the head of the English Department permitted me to conduct the experiment at the department and assigned me a large room, which was suitable for storing in my private equipment that were required for the study (as explained in 4.4.2.3). The room was quite large so that I could use it for the pilot study. For the main study and according to the plan of the study, the head of the English Department allowed me to conduct my experimental study in one of the department's labs.

After I gained access to the research site, I met the participants of the pilot study to explain, partially, the process of my study in Arabic. That was due to the fact that given instruction “in the first language of the learners in order to minimize the possibility of confusion” (Brindley, 1998. p. 176). Understanding the exact procedures of the study gives assurance that participants were aware of what are they expected to do during the experiment, and later on make sense of the consent form to be signed at the end of the experiment.

For both the pilot and main experiment samples, the control and treatment groups, had not been informed at the forefront of the experiment about the

whole procedures of the study nor about the post-test or delayed- post-test. Participants were only informed that they would listen to songs and stories as well as watching films in the lessons then comprehension questions would be asked. This was due to the fact that "If people know they are in a research situation, this in itself can change their behavior or attitudes". Sapsford and Jupp (2006, pp. 18 ff). This is in the same vein of the BERA (2011) guideline, that states that " if it is possible to [avoid non-disclosure], researchers must seek consent on a post-hoc basis in cases where it was not desirable to seek it before undertaking the research". Furthermore, non-disclosure would affect the validation of the measuring instruments used in the field of incidental learning. By disclosing some details of the experiment, I could ensure that participants in this study would not change their behaviors to suit the research aims. However, at the end of the study I met the participants and explained the whole research processes and procedures. Firstly, I assured them of the importance of their participation in my study, and how the collected data would be used as well as how and to whom it would be reported. Then, I justified the reasons why I delayed the full explanation of the study's procedures till then.

To be sure that subjects participated completely voluntarily in my experiment, I clearly informed them that the collected data would kept securely, and would not be used unless they allowed me to utilize the data collected during the

experiment. They were informed that they had the right to withdraw from the experiment for any or no reason. Participants were also informed that they would not be required to justify the reasons for their withdrawal. All of the samples felt happy that they participated and interacted in my study, and all of them had signed consent forms without any type of duress.

Another very crucial ethical issue to be considered was to protect the dignity of the participants and to avoid any type of harm. Participants' cultural identity, tradition, political belief, and religious faith were considered in choosing the audio and audio-visual materials to be used in the experiment. Films that might offend participants one way or another and those exposed to cultural conflict were excluded from the current study.

An additional ethical issue to be considered in the experiment were the incentives used in encouraging sample, much thought was undertaken in the planning of the current experiment. In this instance was, a suitable room with a relaxing atmosphere which was large enough so that I could use part of it for providing refreshments [mineral water, tea, coffee, coffee-mate, juice, cookies] during the pilot study. Daily refreshments and sometimes lunch - if the task was at the lunch time- were supplied to encourage students to attend all the sessions of the pilot study. These incentives were used as a powerful way to help participants to maintain enthusiasm throughout the experiment.

Chapter 5:

Data Analysis

Chapter Five: Data Analysis

5.1. Introduction

This study aims to contribute to work in the field of second/foreign language acquisition, by investigating to what extent second language (L2) vocabulary can be acquired incidentally through extensive exposure to spoken texts and to what extent it leads to acquiring or enhancing word knowledge, in terms of form recognition, deducing meaning from spoken context, grammatical function recognition and word use. In addition to that, it aims to uncover the main conditions required for such acquisition.

This chapter reports the results gained from the VKS, Vocabulary Productive, Translation, English proficiency and Vocabulary Size tests; and from vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire and learning style questionnaire (explained in the methodology chapter) to test the research hypotheses:

H1. Vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language;

H2. Incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language is affected by five factors.

1) Word repetition in the spoken texts;

- 2) Participants' language proficiency in that language;
- 3) Participants' vocabulary knowledge;
- 4) Participants' vocabulary language strategies;
- 5) Participants' learning styles.

And to answer the research questions:

1. To what extent can English vocabulary be incidentally learnt by Libyan students of English from spoken input of the target language?
2. What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being incidentally learnt from spoken input?

The answer to the first question enables the researcher to know how much English vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from spoken input and to know the extent to which this type of learning helps to enhance word knowledge (form recognition, deducing meaning from spoken context, grammatical function recognition and word use). In addition, it will show whether the learnt vocabulary can be retained in the long-term memory or not. This will be explored by means of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) and the vocabulary productive tests. It will be important to demonstrate the range of effective learning which different participants exhibited.

The researcher initially hypothesised that five factors, mentioned above in this section, may increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken

input of the target language. Accordingly, to answer the second research question, the researcher carried out two tests: the first was a language proficiency test and the second was a vocabulary knowledge test. In addition to that, I used two questionnaires: the first was to explore language strategies used by participants to learn new vocabulary. The second questionnaire was to investigate participants' learning styles. The outcomes of these two tests and two questionnaires were compared with the participants' vocabulary gains to evaluate the second hypothesis and to answer the second research question.

This chapter has been organized into five sections as follows:

1. Sample characteristic. In this section the researcher explains the procedures he deployed to choose the appropriate tests to be used in analysing the obtained data;
2. Vocabulary gains and their origins. This section was devoted to determining whether vocabulary learnt incidentally through the exposure to the audio/audio-visual materials or from any other factor rather than the treatment;
3. Incidental Vocabulary gains from listening. Section three was subdivided into two subsections as follows:
 - I) Absolute Incidental Vocabulary gains from the three modes of listening (listening to stories, listening to songs and watching films);

II) Degree of word acquisition from the three modes of listening (listening to stories, listening to songs and watching films).

4. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the three modes. The subsequent section has been divided into five sub-sections as follows:

- I) The effect of word repetitions on vocabulary incidental learning;
- II) The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary learning from listening;
- III) The Effect of language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening;
- IV) The effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from listening;
- V) The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening.

5. Vocabulary retention. This section explores whether learnt vocabulary can be remain in the long term memory for future use or not;

6. Productive vocabulary from the three modes. This section investigates whether vocabulary can only be learnt receptively or also can be learnt for productive use;

7. Contrasting the three modes of input. This section is devoted to exploring which of the three modes leads to higher vocabulary gains.

5.2. Sample characteristic

To decide what type of tests should be used to analyse the data, a Shapiro-Wilk test was used to examine the normality of the data. The descriptive analysis of the test, histograms and the Q-Q plots showed that some data are little skewed and kurtotic and other data differed significantly from normality because their values were above 1.96. Accordingly, the researcher presumed that the data are approximately not normally distributed in terms of Skewness and Kurtosis. Based on the above result of Shapiro-Wilk test the data would be analysed by means of non-parametric tests.

5.3. Vocabulary gains and their origins

The data from the study indicated that the treatment group was more successful in incidental vocabulary learning than the control group. According to the research design, the first task for the researcher was to be sure that incidental vocabulary learning occurred through the exposure to the materials used in the experiments. For that purpose a control group design was used to ensure that the treatment, rather than any other effects of the surrounding educational environment, caused the learning. Table 5-1 presents the percentage gains of

the treatment and control groups, which will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

Table 5-1: Comparison of means % gains between experimental group and control group

	Experimental and control groups					
	Experimental group			Control group		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from STORIES' post test	47.38	27	20.81	9.40	29	3.05
Mean gain of the word knowledge from SONGS' post test	34.96	28	19.54	8.25	29	4.16
Mean gain of the word knowledge from FILMS' post test	32.39	29	9.89	12.46	29	4.10

The table demonstrates that the treatment group outperformed the control group in all of the VKS tests. Due to the fact that the research data were not normally distributed, the nonparametric “Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon (MWW) test” was carried out rather than a t-test. The MWW test was conducted to discover whether the two groups had gained the same scores or whether one of them

significantly gained more than the other. Table 5-2 shows the results of the MWW Test.

Table 5-2: Shows results of Mann-Whitney Test

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	.000	435.00	-6.421	.00
Mean gain of the words form recognition from stories post test	14.00	449.00	-6.19	.00
Mean gain of the words meaning from stories' post test	34.00	469.00	-5.89	.00
Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from stories' post test	62.00	497.00	-5.73	.00
Mean gain of the word usage from stories' post test	122.00	557.00	-5.15	.00
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	31.00	466.00	-5.98	.00
mean gain of the words form recognition from songs' post test	40.00	475.00	-5.84	.00
Mean gain of the words meaning from songs' post test	97.00	532.00	-4.95	.00
Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from songs' post test	43.50	478.50	-6.37	.00
Mean gain of the word usage from songs' post test	87.00	522.00	-5.80	.00

Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	6.00	441.00	-6.44	.00
Mean gain of the words form recognition from films' post test	43.00	478.00	-5.87	.00
Mean gain of the words meaning from films' post test	130.50	565.50	-4.51	.00
Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from films' post test	24.00	459.00	-6.36	.00
Mean gain of the word usage from films' post test	58.00	493.00	-5.98	.00

Table 5-2 shows that the MWW test revealed, across the four vocabulary knowledge dimensions between experimental and control groups, that the p-values are statistically significant. P values for all tests was $< .001$ which is less than $\alpha = 0.05$. This implies that the variances cannot be assumed to be equal. Accordingly, the null hypothesis can strongly be rejected and the research hypotheses are accepted. The researcher concludes that vocabulary learning occurred incidentally during the exposure to the material used in the experiments due to the fact that the bigger the critical value of U and W, the less likely it is that incidental learning occurred by chance.

5.4. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains.

5.4.1. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains from stories.

The analyses of the data showed that incidental vocabulary learning from extensive listening occurred during listening to simplified stories and songs as well as watching films. Table 5-3 shows a descriptive analysis of the VKS tests of the stories.

Table 5-3: % Gains of the target word knowledge from stories' post test						
	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	27	70.55	15.70	86.25	47.38	20.81

The above table presents the number of the participants, range of percentages gains, minimum and maximum scores, percentage of the mean gain and standard deviation of the VKS tests scores. Concerning the vocabulary incidental learning from stories, the results demonstrate that the aggregate mean score of the VKS tests of the treatment group was 47.38% of the unknown words (SD = 20.81). In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the VKS tests, the analysis showed encouraging results. One of the participants

learnt 86.25% of the target words while the lowest individual gain from the stories' VKS test among the participants was 15.7%. This individual achievement shows the extent to which vocabulary can be learnt incidentally. Table 5-4 demonstrates that 12 out of the 27 of the participants learnt more than 50% of the target words from listening to stories.

Table 5-4: Participants' % gains from stories' targeted

Case No	Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test
1	15.70
2	54.80
3	29.63
4	33.65
5	82.40
6	48.39
7	41.96
8	28.26
9	43.00
10	28.22
11	58.93
12	86.25
13	50.84
14	20.97
15	70.20
16	57.50
17	17.50
18	62.50
19	16.67
20	69.92
21	41.70
22	41.30
23	70.80
24	32.70
25	75.00
26	33.93
27	66.67

5.4. 2. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains from songs

In terms of incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the songs, the results indicated that listening to foreign (English) songs lead to incidental vocabulary learning. Table 5-5 shows that the overall mean score of the VKS tests of the treatment group was 34.96% of the target words (SD = 19.54). In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the VKS tests, the analysis showed encouraging results. One of the participants acquired 77.32% of the target words, while the minimum gain from the stories' VKS test among the participants was 7.35%. Table 5-6 shows that seven out of the 28 participants learnt more than 50% of the target words from listening to songs.

Table 5-5: % Gains of the target word knowledge from songs post- test						
	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	28	69.97	7.35	77.32	34.96	19.54

Table 5-6: Participants' % gains from songs' targeted words

	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test
1	21.60
2	58.50
3	20.17
4	33.17
5	77.32
6	25.80
7	10.71
8	43.27
9	73.30
10	27.27
11	27.34
12	52.78
13	29.41
14	12.18
15	29.31
16	25.75
17	7.35
18	25.00
19	14.42
20	57.50
21	31.66
22	32.72
23	39.58
24	31.35
25	54.54
26	25.00
27	16.93
28	75.00

5.4.3. Absolute incidental vocabulary gains from films.

The results indicate that watching films leads to a substantial amount of incidental vocabulary learning. Table 5-7 shows that the aggregate mean score of the VKS tests of the treatment group was 32.39% of the target words (SD = 9.89). In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the VKS tests, the analysis show rather encouraging results. One of the participants achieved a maximum gain of 60.41% of the target words, while the minimum gain from the films' VKS test among the participants was 17.25%. Table 5- 8 gives more details about Vocabulary gains from films. The table shows that only two participants learnt more than 50% of the target words from watching the films.

Table 5-7: % Gains of the target word knowledge from films post test						
	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post	29	43.16	17.25	60.41	32.39	9.89

Table 5-8: Participants' % gains from films' targeted words

	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
1	20.14
2	36.76
3	23.21
4	19.45
5	36.00
6	44.17
7	19.62
8	50.00
9	31.00
10	27.59
11	32.63
12	43.93
13	60.41
14	29.22
15	22.80
16	30.79
17	34.67
18	22.46
19	34.28
20	17.25
21	36.43
22	31.52
23	25.34
24	32.35
25	25.35
26	31.34
27	42.62
28	39.00
29	39.00
Total	N 29

According to the data presented in tables (5: 3, 5: 4, 5: 5, 5: 6, 5: 7 and 5: 8) above, it can be argued that vocabulary can incidentally be learnt from listening to stories and songs, and from watching films. The best mode that led to higher incidental vocabulary gain was stories then songs while films are in third place.

5. 5. Degree of word acquisition

5.5.1. Degree of word acquisition from stories

Knowing a word requires awareness of many facets of it (see literature review). According to the research design, this study investigates the likelihood of incidental learning of only four vocabulary knowledge dimensions: form recognition, deducing meaning from spoken context, grammatical function recognition and word use. Table 5-9 presents statistic results of the percent gains of the four word knowledge from listening to stories.

Table 5-9: % Gains of the four word knowledge gained from stories

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Mean gain of the words <i>form recognition</i> from stories post test	27	66.66	33.34	100.00	82.5759	16.87
Mean gain of the words <i>meaning</i> from stories' post test	27	75.65	4.35	80.00	42.29	22.24
Mean gain of the <i>grammatical function</i> of the words from stories' post test	27	88.30	.00	88.30	37.61	28.76
Mean gain of the word <i>usage</i> from stories' post test	27	85.00	.00	85.00	27.69	25.99

The table above showed that the participants as a group reported that they heard 82.57% (SD=16.87) of the target words from the stories. The individual scores of the word form recognition ranged from 33.34% to 100% of the target words. The individual analysis showed that three of the participants claimed that they heard all of the targeted words whilst listening to the stories. In terms of meaning knowledge of the target words, participants had inferred the meaning of 42.29% (SD=22.24) of the target words from listening to the stories. Nine of the participants extracted the meaning of more than 50% of the target words

from listening to stories. The minimum score in meaning identification was 4.35% and the maximum was 80%. Concerning grammar, participants could identify the grammatical function of 37.61% (SD=28.76) of the target words. The range among participants' grammatical functions recognition was high. It ranges from 00% to 88.3%. The analysed data also showed that participants, as a group, could only use 27.69% (SD=25.99) of the target words in complete and correct sentences. The individual analyses also showed a high range of the participants' ability of using the new words in full and correct sentences. Their usage scores vary from 00% to 85%. More details of the word knowledge gains were presented in table 5-8.

Table 5-10: Participants' %gains of the four word knowledge gained from stories

	Mean gain of the words form recognition from stories post test	Mean gain of the words meaning from stories' post test	Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from stories' post test	Mean gain of the word usage from stories' post test
1	48.20	14.80	.00	.00
2	90.40	42.80	38.00	47.60
3	81.40	26.00	11.10	.00
4	65.35	19.23	27.00	23.00
5	100.00	76.50	88.30	64.70
6	90.32	45.16	25.80	32.26
7	85.71	28.57	17.86	35.71
8	100.00	4.35	6.25	.00
9	94.45	38.89	38.89	.00
10	67.74	16.13	29.00	.00
11	71.43	57.43	53.57	53.57
12	95.00	80.00	85.00	85.00
13	90.00	36.67	50.00	26.67
14	76.74	16.13	.00	.00
15	100.00	61.54	86.96	42.30
16	93.55	48.39	54.87	25.80
17	50.00	10.00	10.00	.00
18	96.43	57.14	53.57	42.86
19	33.34	25.93	7.40	.00
20	84.61	61.54	69.23	61.54
21	89.00	44.40	5.50	27.80
22	87.00	39.10	34.80	4.30
23	94.40	70.60	70.60	58.80
24	80.80	42.30	.00	7.70
25	88.20	76.50	70.60	64.70
26	82.14	28.57	21.43	3.57
27	93.34	73.34	60.00	40.00

Table 5-10 shows individual scores of VKS tests. The table shows that the vast majority, namely 25 out of 27 of the participants, recognised more than 50% of the target words. The table also demonstrates that nine participants were able to infer more than 50% of the target words' meanings from the spoken context. Eleven participants successfully identified more than 50% of the function of the target words. Six participants used more than 50% of the target words in correct and full sentences.

5.5.2. Degree of word acquisition from songs.

Table 5-11 presents details of the incidental vocabulary learning knowledge gains from listening to English songs.

Table 5-11: Gains% of the four word knowledge gained from songs

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Mean gain of the words <i>form</i> recognition from songs' post test	28	73.73	26.27	100.00	69.13	19.17
Mean gain of the words <i>meaning</i> from songs' post test	28	76.74	.00	76.74	26.91	20.29
Mean gain of the words <i>grammatical function</i> of the words from songs' post test	28	72.09	.00	72.09	24.84	21.19
Mean gain of the words <i>usage</i> from songs' post test	28	67.44	.00	67.44	16.29	19.07
Valid N (listwise)	28					

The above table shows that the participants as a group reported that they heard 69.13% (SD=19.17) of the target words from the songs. The individual scores of the word form recognition ranges from 26.27% to 100% of the target words; namely two of the participants claimed that they had heard all of the target words while listening to the songs. In terms of meaning knowledge of the target words, participants identified the meaning of 26.91% of the words (SD=20.29). Four of the participants could extract more than 50% of the target words' meanings from listening to the songs. The minimum score in meaning

identification was 00% and the maximum score was 76.74%. Concerning grammar, participants could identify the grammatical function of 24.84% of the target words ($SD=21.19$). The range of the participants' grammatical function identification was high. It ranged from 00% to 72.09%. The analysed data also showed that participants, as a group, could only use 16.29% ($SD=19.07$) of the target words in complete and correct sentences. The individual analysis also illustrated quite a high range of the participants' ability of using the new words in full and correct sentences. Their usage scores varied from 00% to 67.44%. Table 5-12 gives more details about the word knowledge gains from listening to the songs.

Table 5-12: Participants gains % of the four word knowledge gained from songs

	mean gain of the words form recognition from songs' post test		mean gain of the words meaning from songs' post test	mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from songs' post test	mean gain of the word usage from songs' post test
1	63.46		15.38	7.69	.00
2	88.00		48.00	52.00	45.00
3	59.65		14.00	5.26	1.75
4	65.38		25.00	25.00	17.30
5	93.02		76.74	72.09	67.44
6	61.29		16.13	16.13	9.68
7	42.85		.00	.00	.00
8	84.61		38.46	50.00	3.85
9	100.00		52.38	40.47	30.95
10	72.72		12.12	21.21	3.00
11	71.87		25.00	6.25	6.25
12	100.00		38.39	50.00	22.23
13	58.22		26.47	26.47	5.88
14	51.43		.00	.00	.00
15	58.62		20.69	20.69	17.24
16	57.57		12.12	27.27	6.00
17	26.27		.00	2.94	.00
18	56.66		20.00	13.33	10.00
19	38.46		9.61	9.61	.00
20	82.50		55.00	52.50	40.00
21	68.33		25.00	16.66	16.66
22	81.81		32.72	9.10	7.27
23	64.58		27.00	31.25	35.41
24	72.22		29.63	.00	11.11
25	97.72		40.90	45.45	34.00
26	75.00		12.50	15.62	.00
27	48.38		6.45	9.67	3.22
28	95.24		73.81	69.00	61.90
Total	N	28	28	28	28

The above table shows that the vast majority, namely 24 out of 28 of the participants, claimed that they heard more than 50% of the target words from the songs. The table also demonstrates that four participants were able to extract more than 50% of the target words' meanings from the songs. Six participants successfully identified more than 50% of the function of the target words. Two participants used more than 50% of the target words in correct and full sentences.

5.5.3. Degree of word acquisition from films

Table 5-13 presents descriptive Statistics of the of the word knowledge gains from films.

Table 5-13: Descriptive Statistics of the word knowledge gained from films

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the <i>words form recognition</i> from films' post test	29	56.96	41.67	98.63	74.79	14.91
Mean gain of the <i>words meaning</i> from films' post test	29	47.86	7.14	55.00	21.21	11.20
Mean gain of the <i>grammatical function</i> of the words from films' post test	29	56.25	3.75	60.00	21.28	12.78
Mean gain of the word <i>usage</i> from films' post test	29	51.67	.00	51.67	12.42	10.90
Valid N	29					

The above table shows that the participants, as a group, reported that they heard 74.79% (SD=14.91) of the target words from the films. The individual scores of the word form recognition ranges from 41.67% to 98.63% of the target words, i.e., one of the participants claimed that she heard 98.63% of the targeted words during listening to the films. In terms of inferring the meaning of the target words, participants could identify the meaning of 21.21% (SD=11.20) of the words. The minimum score in meaning identification was 7.14% and the maximum was 55%. Concerning grammar learning, participants identified the grammatical function of 21.28% (SD=12.78) of the target words. The range

among participants' grammatical function identification is high. It ranges from 3.75% to 60%. The analysed data also demonstrated that participants, as a group, used only 12.42% (SD=10.90) of the target words in complete and correct sentences. The individual analysis also showed a high range of the participants' ability of using the new words in full and correct sentences. Their usage scores vary from 00% to 51.67%. Table 5-14 shows individual scores of VKS tests.

Table 5-14: Participants % gains of the four word knowledge gained from films

	Mean gain of the words form recognition from films' post test		Mean gain of the words meaning from films' post test	Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from films' post test	Mean gain of the word usage from films' post test
1	61.11		9.72	9.27	1.39
2	70.59		20.58	29.41	26.47
3	70.00		7.14	10.00	5.70
4	41.67		12.50	13.90	9.72
5	61.00		20.34	33.90	28.81
6	98.63		32.87	24.65	20.54
7	56.96		11.39	3.79	6.33
8	98.57		42.85	34.28	24.28
9	85.70		18.57	12.85	7.40
10	93.50		11.69	3.89	1.30
11	95.83		13.89	18.00	2.78
12	87.14		34.28	35.70	18.57
13	75.00		55.00	60.00	51.67
14	69.00		21.12	22.53	4.22
15	73.75		10.00	3.75	3.75
16	59.42		24.63	21.74	17.39
17	86.67		16.00	25.34	10.67
18	68.35		10.13	11.39	.00
19	74.28		21.43	30.00	11.42
20	46.47		16.90	5.63	.00
21	78.57		21.42	31.43	14.28
22	88.40		17.39	11.59	8.69
23	62.50		11.12	18.00	9.73
24	79.40		17.65	17.65	14.70
25	58.57		18.57	12.85	11.43
26	76.12		17.91	17.91	13.43
27	89.74		34.61	32.00	16.67
28	79.69		37.50	35.93	3.12
29	82.45		28.00	29.82	15.79
Total	N	29	29	29	29

The above table shows that the vast majority, namely 27 out of 29 of the participants, recognised more than 50% of the target words. The table also demonstrates that only one participant was able to identify more than 50% of the target words' meanings from the spoken context. One participant successfully identified more than 50% of the function of the target words. One participant used more than 50% of the target words in correct and full sentences.

To sum-up, the results confirmed that the four investigated vocabulary knowledge dimensions of target words (form recognition, deducing meaning from spoken context, grammatical function recognition and word use) can incidentally be acquired from listening to stories and songs and from watching films. The analysis of the results from stories and songs showed that participants gained the highest scores on form recognition, followed by meaning recall, then on grammar function and the lowest gain was on the word usage. The dataset also shows that participants almost gain the same mean gains in grammar and meaning from films. It is true that the mean gain of the group was moderate; however, the analysis of the data showed that some participants achieved encouraging scores which indicates that listening to stories and songs as well as watching films can lead to successful partially incidental vocabulary learning.

5.6. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning from listening.

5.6.1. The effect of word repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning.

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, section 4.5.3., that for the purpose of the current study, a vocabulary knowledge scale (pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test) test was used to investigate the vocabulary already known by the participants and those were gained through the exposure to the target material. The VKS measures both breadth (vocabulary size) and depth aspects (recognition, meaning, grammar and use) of vocabulary knowledge. A pre-test was used to ensure that the target words used in the pot-test were totally unknown.

5.6.1.1. The effect of words repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from stories.

The obtained data as presented in tables (5-15, 5-16 and 5-17) show the effect of word occurrences on the incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the stories. They present the target words, their number of occurrences and their percent gains. The tables are sorted to presenting gains from higher to lower scores.

Table 5-15: Shows the extent to which each word was gained from stories

NO	Target words from stories	No. of exposures	% Gain
1.	Epilepsy	15	73.08
2.	Decorated	9	68.27
3.	Evil	39	66.67
4.	Warn	3	63.10
5.	Purple	6	62.50
6.	Bury	15	59.00
7.	Oval	9	57.14
8.	Cupboards	3	52.27
9.	Monomania	9	51.92
10.	Plaster	27	51.85
11.	Roof	3	51.32
12.	Dentist	3	48.00
13.	Chest	3	47.22
14.	Straight	9	46.74
15.	Mystery	3	46.00
16.	Clang	9	44.57
17.	Bloodless	6	44.32
18.	Plenty	3	43.27
19.	Narrow	3	43.06
20.	Portrait	39	42.71
21.	Waste	6	38.33
22.	Pick	3	36.54
23.	Gallows	6	27.88
24.	Leaf	3	27.88
25.	Thick	3	26.79
26.	Plague	9	25.93
27.	Cellar	15	25.00
28.	Probable	3	23.96
29.	Tire	6	12.50
30.	Tut	3	7.14

The table shows that some words were exposed three times while listening to stories (e.g., Warn, Cupboard, Roof, Dentist, Chest, Mystery, Plenty and Narrow) have been recorded higher gains in percentages than some words that occurred more frequently in the texts such as; cellar, plague and even more than

the word ‘portrait’ which had been exposed thirty-nine times during the narration of the stories.

5.6.1.2. The effect of words repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from songs

Table 5-16 presents the target words from songs, their repetitions and their participants’ main gains from the target words.

Table 5-16: Shows the extent to which each word was gained from songs			
	Target words	Frequency	% gain
.1	Rise	11	68.75
.2	Reacting	1	66.66
.3	Pain	5	62.5
.4	Sorrow	1	61.53
.5	Spreading	1	57.69
.6	Season	1	56.66
.7	Realise	6	56.25
.8	Hell	1	55.76
.9	Scarifies	1	55
10	Partner	1	54.54
11	Race	1	54.54
12	Judge	1	54.16
13	Claim	1	53.7
14	Ignore	1	53.57

15	Legend	1	53.57
16	Appreciated	1	52.77
17	Prisoner	2	52.5
18	Swallow	1	51.92
19	Complicated	1	50
20	Happiness	1	50
21	Highways	1	50
22	Rag	6	50
23	Sleepless	5	50
24	Tears	1	50
25	Whispered	1	50
26	Lean	4	49.03
27	Ridiculous	3	48.86
28	Ordinary	1	46.67
29	Senorita	1	45.19
30	Settle	2	44.23
31	Distance	2	43.33
32	Deny	6	42.85
33	Patches	1	42.59
34	Geologist	1	40.27
35	Compromise	1	37.5
36	Grace	1	35.57
37	Youth	1	35.57

38	Beast	1	35.29
39	Aggravated	1	34.26
40	Corridor	1	33.82
41	Forgive	13	33.33
42	Waitress	1	30.20
43	Entwined	1	28.70
44	Domestic	1	28.57
45	Integrity	1	26.92
46	Ceiling	1	26.04
47	Damn	2	26.04
48	Wipe	1	25.96
49	Praise	1	25
50	Pretend	1	25
51	Sewed	4	25
52	Status	1	24.23
53	Chamber	1	22.36
54	Affairs	1	22.22
55	Band	1	20
56	Astronaut	1	19.23
57	Fan	2	18.75
58	Enterprise	1	18.10
59	Materialised	1	16.07
60	Fantasise	3	15.51

61	Blink	1	15
62	Casualties	1	14.81
63	Fault	2	13.88
64	Bass	1	13.46
65	Maroon	1	13.46
66	Foreseeable	1	12.03
67	Irresistible	1	10.22
68	Giggle	3	9.48
69	Fading	1	8.62

The above table was organized to present the words that have recorded higher gains from the treatment group. The analysis shows that some words that occurred once in the songs recorded higher gains than those that were repeated five, six or even thirteen times in the text. Which indicate that repetitions of the target words in the chosen texts does not have a strong effect on learning words incidentally from songs.

5.6.1.3. The effect of words repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from films

Table 5-17 presents the target words from films, their repetitions and their participants' main gains of the target words.

Table 5-17: Shows the extent to which each word was gained from films

	Target words	Frequency	% gain
1.	Lamp	23	70.19
2.	Genie	65	69.44
3.	Sultan	31	62.50
4.	Sorcerer	3	60.19
5.	Laser	3	59.48
6.	Orical	9	59.48
7.	Marketplace	5	55.60
8.	Hears	3	51.72
9.	Host	2	49.11
10.	staff	4	49.11
11.	Punch	3	48.28
12.	Piggy	39	44.64
13.	Prime	7	42.59
14.	Loyal	3	42.24
15.	Kitty	3	42.24
16.	Bow	4	41.35
17.	Colonel	17	41.25
18.	Damn	1	40.38
19.	Conch	14	39.66
20.	Beheaded	3	37.07
21.	Splash	1	37.04
22.	Spear	2	35.71
23.	Grant	2	35.30
24.	Sleeve	3	35.19
25.	Rescue	5	35.00
26.	Cheer	4	34.26
27.	Magnificent	3	33.62
28.	Loot	5	32.41
29.	Turban	3	32.14
30.	Dare	5	32.00
31.	Release	4	31.58
32.	Rub	10	31.25
33.	Assembly	2	30.36
34.	Panic	4	29.63
35.	Punctual	3	28.45
36.	Dungeon	5	28.45
37.	Squeeze	3	27.78
38.	Giant	3	27.58
39.	Desperate	5	25.93
40.	Duplicate	10	25.89
41.	Sire	3	25.86
42.	Splendid	3	25.86
43.	Instant	3	25.86
44.	Pants	3	25.00
45.	Blow	4	25.00
46.	Cracker	5	25.00

47.	Intruder	3	24.14
48.	Abdicate	4	24.11
49.	Spear	3	23.20
50.	Afford	9	22.41
51.	Esteem	4	22.22
52.	Marching	3	22.00
53.	Parish	7	21.55
54.	Blast	3	20.69
55.	Claws	1	20.54
56.	Restoration	3	20.54
57.	Snatch	4	20.37
58.	Grip	3	19.83
59.	Whack	3	19.64
60.	Assailant	3	18.97
61.	Athlete	1	18.27
62.	Pathetic	3	17.24
63.	Archbishop	8	17.24
64.	Hullo	27	16.70
65.	Defector	1	16.67
66.	Tickle	3	16.38
67.	Merit	2	15.51
68.	Devine	4	14.29
69.	Villain	5	14.29
70.	Privilege	3	12.06
71.	Demerits	4	1.67

The above table shows no strong effect of the word repetitions on learning vocabulary incidentally from films. The words lamp, genie and sultan in the above table were acquired more than the rest of the words in the table; however, the reason was not merely their repetitions in the text as will be explored in the discussion chapter. With exception of these three words table 5-17 shows that some words which occurred two or three times while watching the films recorded higher gains in percentages than those occurred 17 times , 27 times or even 39 times in the text.

A Kendall's tau_b test was used to test whether incidental vocabulary learning

was acquired by the effect of word repetitions in the text or not. Table 5-18 shows the correlation between the mean gain from VKS post-test and words occurrences in the text.

Table 5-18: Correlations between word percent gains word occurrences in the texts

			word percent gains from stories	word occurrences in stories	word percent gains from songs	word occurrences in songs	word percent gains from films	word occurrences films
Kendall's tau_b	word percent gains from stories	Correlation Coefficient	1. 000	. 231	. 184	. 241	. 380**	-. 720-**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	. 102	. 157	. 119	. 003	. 000
		N	30	30	30	30	30	30
	word occurrences in stories	Correlation Coefficient	. 231	1. 000	-. 089-	. 123	-. 042-	-. 357-*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 102	.	. 533	. 466	. 763	. 028
		N	30	30	30	30	30	30
	word percent gains from songs	Correlation Coefficient	. 184	-. 089-	1. 000	. 102	. 242**	-. 056-
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 157	. 533	.	. 292	. 004	. 532
		N	30	30	69	69	69	69
	word occurrences in songs	Correlation Coefficient	. 241	. 123	. 102	1. 000	. 084	. 648**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 119	. 466	. 292	.	. 384	. 000
		N	30	30	69	69	69	69
	word percent gains from films	Correlation Coefficient	. 380**	-. 042-	. 242**	. 084	1. 000	. 154
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 003	. 763	. 004	. 384	.	. 076
		N	30	30	69	69	72	72
	word occurrences films	Correlation Coefficient	-. 720-**	-. 357-*	-. 056-	. 648**	. 154	1. 000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 000	. 028	. 532	. 000	. 076	.
		N	30	30	69	69	72	72

** . Correlation is significant at the 0. 01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0. 05 level (2-tailed).

The above table showed that the correlation between the two variables is positively weak (stories = 0.231; songs = 0.102; films = 0.154) but not significant that the p-values are not statistically significant. P values for all modes were $> \alpha=0.05$. Accordingly, the obtained data reveals that vocabulary learning occurred incidentally during listening to the stories, the songs and from watching the films; however, word repetitions were neither the main reason nor a strong factor that caused incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories, songs nor films.

5.6.2. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening.

5.6.2.1. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening to stories.

One of the factors that the researcher hypothesized to have an effect on incidental vocabulary learning is learners' vocabulary learning strategies. For that purpose, the researcher has investigated the participants' VLS by means of a questionnaire, as mentioned in the methodology chapter section 4.5.1.3. Based on the results of the questionnaire, participants were classified into three groups: participants who slightly use VLS, participants who moderately use VLS and participants who considerably use VLS. Table 5-19 contrasts the absolute and partial knowledge gains of incidental vocabulary learning of the three groups from listening to stories.

Table 5-19: The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary learning from stories

	participants' vocabulary learning strategies score								
	participants who slightly use VLS			participants who moderately use VLS			participants who considerably use VLS		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	28.50	5	12.16	49.62	9	19.94	51.62	12	21.11
Mean gain of the words form recognition from stories post test	73.62	5	25.69	81.39	9	14.53	86.20	12	14.65
Mean gain of the words meaning from stories' post test	21.54	5	15.25	42.93	9	23.89	48.11	12	19.08
Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from stories' post test	13.69	5	12.87	39.85	9	24.52	43.16	12	32.57
Mean gain of the word usage from stories' post test	6.45	5	14.42	33.15	9	23.50	29.87	12	28.24

The results, as shown on table 5-19, demonstrated that the more vocabulary learning strategies applied in processing new words, the more vocabulary can incidentally be learnt. The results show that participants who extensively used vocabulary learning strategies in manipulating new vocabulary learnt 51.62% (SD=21.11) of the targeted words. Those who only sometimes used vocabulary learning strategies learnt 49.62% (SD=19.94) of the unknown words, but those who reported that they rarely use VLS gained the lowest scores, namely 28.50% (SD=12.16) of the target words, among the participants. Therefore, it can be argued that the extensive implementation of vocabulary learning strategies supports the learning of vocabulary incidentally. The table also presents more details of the vocabulary knowledge learning. It showed that all of the three groups of participants could recognise from 73.62% to 86.20% of the words. Participants who slightly used VLS were less capable of enhancing their vocabulary knowledge (form recognition, deducing meaning from spoken context, grammatical function recognition and word use). Participants who slightly used VLS scored the lowest gains in all aspects of the examined word knowledge. Consequently, being well acquainted with and implementing VLS offers a greater chance of learning vocabulary incidentally. The data shown in the table above proved that participants who use more VLS were more capable of learning vocabulary incidentally from stories.

5.6.2.2. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening to songs.

Table 5-20 shows the absolute and partial knowledge gains of incidental vocabulary learning of the three groups from listening to songs.

Table 5-20: The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary learning from songs

	participants' vocabulary learning strategies score								
	participants who slightly use VLS			participants who moderately use VLS			participants who considerably use VLS		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std.Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	24.58	5	12.39	38.07	9	24.02	36.44	13	19.15
Mean gain of the words form recognition from songs' post test	61.70	5	17.97	68.35	9	24.47	72.89	13	16.71
Mean gain of the words meaning from songs' post test	15.26	5	14.26	29.87	9	25.95	29.33	13	18.44
Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from songs' post test	19.39	5	18.85	31.04	9	25.04	22.15	13	20.52

Table 5-20 demonstrates that participants who extensively use vocabulary learning strategies in manipulating new vocabulary learnt 36.44% (CD=19.15) of the targeted words. Those who only sometimes get advantage of vocabulary learning strategies learnt 38.07% (CD=24.02) of the unknown words, but those who reported that they rarely use VLS gained the lowest scores, namely 24.58% (CD=12.39) of the target words, among the participants. On that account, it can be argued that the more vocabulary learning strategies applied in processing new words, the more vocabulary can incidentally be learnt. The table also presents more details of the word knowledge enhancement. It shows that all three categories of the participants recognised an adequate number of the target words range from 61.70% to 72.89%. Participants who moderately use VLS were the most capable of enhancing their word knowledge in terms of meaning, grammar and word usage. Participants who slightly use VLS achieved inefficient gains in all aspects of the examined word knowledge. Consequently, participants who moderately use VLS and those who considerably use VLS were the more capable of learning vocabulary incidentally. So, one can argue that knowing more vocabulary learning strategies plays a crucial role in learning new vocabulary incidentally from songs.

5.6.2.3. The effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary leaning from watching films

Table 5-21 summarises absolute and partial knowledge gains of incidental vocabulary learning of the three groups from watching the films.

Table 5-21: Effect of VLS on Incidental Vocabulary Learning from films

	participants' vocabulary learning strategies score								
	participants who slightly use VLS			participants who moderately use VLS			participants who considerably use VLS		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	32.40	6	12.59	29.21	9	7.96	34.58	13	10.34
Mean gain of the words form recognition from films' post test	84.45	6	20.82	70.15	9	13.78	73.19	13	12.01
Mean gain of the words meaning from films' post test	21.36	6	13.36	16.11	9	6.56	24.94	13	12.41
Mean gain of the grammatical function of the words from films' post test	15.03	6	12.74	19.22	9	10.10	25.87	13	14.11
Mean gain of the word usage from films' post test	8.77	6	10.70	11.37	9	7.50	14.65	13	13.38

The table demonstrates that the more vocabulary learning strategies applied in processing new words, the more vocabulary can incidentally be learnt. The results show that participants who extensively use vocabulary learning strategies in manipulating new vocabulary could learn 34.58% (SD=10.34) of the targeted words. Those who only sometimes take advantage of vocabulary learning strategies gained the lowest scores, namely 29.21% (SD=7.96) of the unknown words, and those who reported that they rarely use VLS gained 32.40% (SD=12.59) of the target words, among the participants. Therefore, it can be argued that the extensive implementation of vocabulary learning strategies offers great opportunities to learn vocabulary incidentally. The table also shows that the participants who slightly use VLS recognized more vocabulary than the other two groups; however, they could not enhance their word knowledge of meaning, grammar and word usage as much as the participants who extensively use VLS.

To examine the effect of VLS on incidental vocabulary learning from extensive listening, the researcher compared the mean gains of the incidental vocabulary learning with the Participants' VLS by means of a Kendall's tau_b test. Table 5-22 shows correlations between mean gains of the word knowledge from listening to stories and songs and from watching the films and participants' previous vocabulary knowledge.

Table 5- 22: Correlations

			participants' vocabulary learning strategies score	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
Kendall's tau_b	participants' vocabulary learning strategies score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.293	.131	.104
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.	.065	.399	.492
		N	28	26	27	28
	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	Correlation Coefficient	.293	1.000	.407**	.425**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.065	.	.004	.002
		N	26	27	26	27
	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	Correlation Coefficient	.131	.407**	1.000	.281*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.399	.004	.	.036
		N	27	26	28	28
	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	Correlation Coefficient	.104	.425**	.281*	1.000
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.492	.002	.036	.
		N	28	27	28	29
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

The above table shows that correlations between the mean gains of the word knowledge from the three modes and the participants' previous vocabulary knowledge are positively weak (stories=0.293, songs=0.131 and films=0.104) but not significant in that the p-values are not statistically significant. The p values for all modes were $> \alpha=0.05$. Accordingly, the obtained data reveals that vocabulary learning occurred incidentally during the listening to the stories and the songs and from watching the films; however, participants' vocabulary learning strategies do not seem to have a strong effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories, songs nor films.

5.6.3. The effect of language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening

5.6.3.1. The effect of language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories

The researcher hypothesized that advanced learners gained more vocabulary incidentally than lower level participants. In order to investigate the effect of language proficiency level on incidental vocabulary learning, participants were classified, as explained in section (4.5.1.1.), into four levels: Lower-intermediate, Intermediate, Upper-intermediate and Advanced. Table 5-23 presents the absolute mean gains of the incidental vocabulary acquisition of the four different language proficient groups from listening to stories.

Table 5- 23: The effect of Language proficiency on incidental vocabulary acquisition from stories			
Participants' English language proficiency level	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Advanced	60.73	2	8.39
Upper intermediate	57.64	11	21.76
Intermediate	46.50	7	12.26
Lower intermediate	28.32	7	15.79
Total	47.38	27	20.81

The results, summarised in table 5-23, indicate that participants' language level played a crucial role in incidental vocabulary learning. The highest mean gain is 60.73% (SD=8.39) was achieved by the advanced group of the participants, while upper-intermediate participants gained 57.64% (SD=21.76), intermediate participants gained 46.50% (SD=12.26) and the lower-intermediate participants' gain was 28.32% (SD=15.79). The results shown in the above table uphold the second research hypothesis which states: advanced learners can incidentally learn more vocabulary from listening to stories than lower proficiency learners.

5.6.3.2. The effect of Language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs

Table 5-24 presents the absolute mean gains of the incidental vocabulary acquisition of the four different language proficient groups from listening to songs.

Table 5-24: Report			
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test			
Participants' English language proficiency level	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Advanced	66.75	2	11.66
Upper intermediate	43.31	12	20.64
Intermediate	26.58	8	3.65
Lower intermediate	18.82	6	9.11
Total	34.96	28	19.54

The results presented in table 5-24 indicate that participants' language level plays a crucial role in incidental vocabulary learning. The table shows that the highest mean gain (=66.75 %) (SD=11.66) was achieved by the advanced group of the participants. Upper-intermediate participants gained 43.31% (SD=20.64), intermediate participants gained 26.58% (SD=3.65) and the lower-intermediate participants' gain was 18.82% (SD=9.11). Accordingly, the results of the data demonstrate convincingly that advanced participants learnt more vocabulary than upper-intermediate learners, who, in turn, do better than the intermediate

learners. In contrast, lower intermediate students appear to be less likely to benefit from incidental vocabulary learning.

5.6.3.3. The effect of Language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to films

Table 5-25: presents the absolute mean gains of the vocabulary incidental acquisition of the four different language proficient groups from watching the films.

Table 5-25: The effect of language proficiency on incidental vocabulary learning			
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test			
Participants' English language proficiency level	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
advanced	37.88	2	1.583
upper intermediate	34.31	12	11.71
intermediate	34.42	8	8.37
lower intermediate	25.20	7	6.29
Total	32.39	29	9.89

The results, summarised in table 5-25, indicate that participants' language level played a crucial role in incidental vocabulary learning from watching films. The highest mean gain (=37.88%) (SD=1.58) was achieved by the advanced group of the participants, while upper-intermediate participants gained 34.31% (SD=11.71), intermediate participants gained 34.42% (SD=8.37) and the lower-intermediate participants' gain was 25.20% (SD=6.29). The results shown in

table 5-25 uphold the second research hypothesis which states: advanced learners can incidentally learn more vocabulary from watching films than lower proficiency learners. Both upper intermediate and intermediate participants had almost the same mean gain percentages but different standard deviations. Upper-intermediate group has higher standard deviation which means that some gains have affected the group mean gain. A depth look at the data reveals that three scores in the upper-intermediate group negatively affected the mean gain of the group. Accordingly, the more proficient the participants are the more capable they are to learn vocabulary incidentally from stories.

Table 5-26 shows the degree of correlations between participants' English language proficiency level and absolute mean gains from listening to stories, songs and watching the film.

Table 5- 26: Correlations

			participants' English language proficiency level	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
Kendall's tau_b	participants' English language proficiency level	Correlation Coefficient	1. 000	. 460**	. 573**	. 295*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	. 002	. 000	. 044
		N	29	27	28	29
	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	Correlation Coefficient	. 460**	1. 000	. 407**	. 425**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 002	.	. 004	. 002
		N	27	27	26	27
	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	Correlation Coefficient	. 573**	. 407**	1. 000	. 281*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 000	. 004	.	. 036
		N	28	26	28	28
	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	Correlation Coefficient	. 295*	. 425**	. 281*	1. 000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 044	. 002	. 036	.
		N	29	27	28	29
**. Correlation is significant at the 0. 01 level (2-tailed).						
*. Correlation is significant at the 0. 05 level (2-tailed).						

Table 5-26 shows that correlations between the absolute mean gains of the word knowledge from the three modes of listening and participants' English language proficiency levels are positively moderate for stories and songs (stories 0.460; songs = 0.573) while the correlation between the absolute gains from films is weak (= 0.295). The p values of the three modes are statistically significant. The p values for all modes less than $\alpha=0.05$. The Kendall's tau_b reveals that increase of one variable leads to increase the other. Accordingly, the obtained data confirm that language proficiency plays a crucial role in learning vocabulary incidentally from listening to the stories, the songs and from watching the films.

5.6.4. The effect of Participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from listening.

5.6.4.1. The Effect of Participants' Vocabulary Size on Vocabulary Learning from listening to stories

Another factor that the researcher hypothesized would have an effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories was participants' prior vocabulary knowledge. To examine this factor, the researcher investigated the participants' vocabulary size by means of Nation and Beglar's (2007) vocabulary-size-test (see section 4.5.1.2. above). According to the results of the

test participants were classified into four groups: the first group consisted of participants who knew 1000 to 2000 words. The second group consisted of participants who knew 2100 to 3000 words, the third group consisted of participants who knew 3100 to 4000 words and the fourth group consisted of participants who knew 4100 to 5400 words before the experiment took place. Table 5-27 presents the effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary acquisition from stories. The table describes the number of participants in each group, their mean gains and standard deviations

Table 5-27: The effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary acquisition from stories		
participants' vocabulary knowledge before experiment	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	
students know 1000-2000 words	Mean	33.51
	N	5
	Std. Deviation	17.02
students know 2100-3000 words	Mean	58.05
	N	7
	Std. Deviation	14.93
students know 3100-4000 words	Mean	38.65
	N	6
	Std. Deviation	17.85
students know 4100-5400 words	Mean	59.25
	N	7
	Std. Deviation	22.18
Total	Mean	48.82
	N	25
	Std. Deviation	20.60

The above table shows that participants who knew 1000-2000 English words gained the lowest mean (=33.51%) (SD=17.02), the mean score for participants

who knew 2001-3000 English words was 58.05% (SD=14.93). Participants who knew 3001-4000 English words gained 38.65% (SD=17.85), and participants who knew 4001-5400 English words gained the highest mean, which was 59.25% (SD=22.18). Accordingly, vocabulary from listening to stories was incidentally acquired more, to some extent, by participants with larger L2 vocabulary storages than those with smaller ones.

5.6.4.2. The effect of Participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from listening to songs

Table 5-28 shows the effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary acquisition from songs. The table describes the number of participants in each group, their mean gains and standard deviations.

Table 5-28: Mean % gains of the word knowledge from songs' post test		
Participants' vocabulary knowledge		Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test
Students knew 1000-2000 words	Mean	14.3950
	N	4
	Std. Deviation	8.86
Students knew 2100-3000 words	Mean	33.10
	N	8
	Std. Deviation	9.79
Students knew 3100-4000 words	Mean	29.25
	N	7
	Std. Deviation	14.57
Students knew 4100-5400 words	Mean	50.98
	N	7
	Std. Deviation	21.36
Total	Mean	34.001
	N	26
	Std. Deviation	18.59

Table 5-28 shows that the more vocabulary participants already knew, the more new vocabulary could be learnt. The results showed that participants who knew only 1000-2000 words gained the lowest mean ($=14.39\%$) ($SD=8.86$). The mean score for participants who knew 2100-3000 words is 33.1038% ($SD=9.79$). Participants who knew 3100-4000 words gained 29.25% ($SD=14.57$). Participants who knew 5100-5400 words gained the highest mean was 50.98% ($SD=21.36$). Accordingly, participants who knew more vocabulary, to some extent, incidentally learnt more vocabulary from listening to the songs.

5.6.4.3. The effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary learning from watching to films

Table 5-29 presents the effect of participants' vocabulary size on vocabulary acquisition from films. The table describes the number of participants in each group, their mean gains and standard deviations.

Table 5-29: The effect of previous vocabulary knowledge

Participants' vocabulary knowledge		Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
students knew 1000-2000 words	Mean	27.28
	N	5
	Std. Deviation	9.73
students knew 2100-3000 words	Mean	31.82
	N	8
	Std. Deviation	6.78
students knew 3100-4000 words	Mean	28.30
	N	7
	Std. Deviation	7.70
students knew 4100-5400 words	Mean	42.72
	N	7
	Std. Deviation	9.41
Total	Mean	32.89
	N	27
	Std. Deviation	9.96

Table 5-29 shows that the more vocabulary known by participants the more new vocabulary can be learnt. The results showed that the participants who knew 1000-2000 words gained the lowest mean (27.28%), the mean score for the participants who knew 2001-3000 words was 31.82%, the participants who knew 3001-4000 words gained 28.30%, the mean score for the participants who knew 4001-5000 words was 40.91%, and the participants who knew 5001-5400 words gained the highest mean of 45.13%. Thus the obtained data reveals that participants who knew more vocabulary, to some extent, incidentally learnt more new vocabulary from watching the films.

Table 5-30 shows degree of correlations between the participants' previous vocabulary knowledge and absolute vocabulary mean gains from listening to stories, songs and watching the films.

Table 5-30: Correlations between participants' previous vocabulary knowledge and mean vocabulary gain

			participants' vocabulary knowledge	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
Kendall's tau_b	participants' vocabulary knowledge	Correlation Coefficient	1. 000	. 178	. 391*	. 383*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	. 254	. 011	. 011
		N	27	25	26	27
	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	Correlation Coefficient	. 178	1. 000	. 407**	. 425**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 254	.	. 004	. 002
		N	25	27	26	27
	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	Correlation Coefficient	. 391*	. 407**	1. 000	. 281*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 011	. 004	.	. 036
		N	26	26	28	28
	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	Correlation Coefficient	. 383*	. 425**	. 281*	1. 000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	. 011	. 002	. 036	.
		N	27	27	28	29
*. Correlation is significant at the 0. 05 level (2-tailed).						
**. Correlation is significant at the 0. 01 level (2-tailed).						

The above table shows that correlation between the mean gain of the word knowledge from the stories' post-test and participants' previous vocabulary knowledge (which was measured by Nation and Beglar's (2007) Vocabulary Size test) is positively weak for stories (stories = 0.178 p = 0.254) and statistically not significant. The correlation between the absolute gains from songs and films are positively weak (songs= 0. 391 p=0.011 and films = 0.383 p= 0.011). The p value for songs and films are statistically significant $p < \alpha = 0.05$. The Kendall's tau_b test reveals that increase of one variable leads to increase the other. Accordingly, the obtained data confirm that participants' previous vocabulary knowledge positively affect learning vocabulary incidentally from listening to the songs, from watching the films and relatively from listening to the stories.

5.6.5. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening

5.6.5.1. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories

Table 5-31 describes language learner styles and the mean and the number of participants in each group, their mean gains, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores of their incidental vocabulary learning from stories' post test.

Table 5-31: Language learners styles and the mean % scores of their incidental vocabulary gains from stories' post test

participants' learning style	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Active	70.20	1	.	70.20	70.20	.00
Reflective	53.12	4	22.42	33.65	75.00	41.35
Sensing	36.5433	3	23.28	17.50	62.50	45.00
Visual	61.17	4	28.09	20.97	86.25	65.28
Verbal	58.93	1	.	58.93	58.93	.00
Sequential	57.50	1	.	57.50	57.50	.00
Global	37.85	2	7.28	32.70	43.00	10.30
Total	51.82	16	21.41	17.50	86.25	68.75

The table above shows that one participant who was classified as an Active Learner learnt 70.2% of the stories' target words. Four of the participants were classified as Reflective Learners and, as a group, they gained 53.125% (SD=22.42) of the target words, with their scores ranging from 33.65% to 75% of the target words. Three of the participants were classified as Sensing Learners; their cumulated score was 36.54% (SD=23.28) of the target words and their scores as individuals ranged from 17.5% to 62.5%. Four of the participants were classified as Visual Learners. They learnt 61.17% (SD=28.09) and their scores ranged from 20.97% to 86.25%. One participant was classified as a Verbal Learner and his score was 58.93%. One participant was classified as a Sequential Learner and gained 57.5%. Two of the participants were classified as Global Learners. They, as a group, learnt 37.85% (SD=7.28) and

their scores ranged from 32.7% to 43%. Table 5-29 gives more details about the learning style of each individual participant and his/her score.

Table 5-32: Shows individual scores of each participant in each learners styles group

				mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test
participants' learning style	Active	1		70.20
		Total	N	1
	Reflective	1		33.65
		2		69.92
		3		75.00
		4		33.93
		Total	N	4
		Sensing	1	
	2		17.50	
	3		62.50	
	Total		N	3
	Visual	1		86.25
		2		20.97
		3		70.80
		4		66.67
		Total	N	4
	Verbal	1		58.93
		Total	N	1
	Sequential	1		57.50
		Total	N	1
	Global	1		43.00
		2		32.70
		Total	N	2
	Total	N		16
a. Limited to first 100 cases.				

Table 5-32 shows the individuals' learning styles and their score gains from the stories target words. The table shows that the highest scores were achieved by visual learners group. Three out of four participants of the visual learners learnt

more than 65% of the target words from the stories. Reflective learners are in second place since two out of three participants learnt more than 65% of the stories' target words. In terms of the individual scores, the analysis demonstrates that the best achievement (mean=86.25%) was gained by a Visual learner.

5.6.5.2. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs

Table 5-33 describes language learner styles and the mean and the number of participants in each group, their mean gains, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores of their incidental vocabulary learning from songs' post-test.

Table 5-33: language learners styles and the mean % scores of their incidental vocabulary gains from songs' post test						
Mean % gains of the word knowledge from songs' post test						
participants' learning style	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Active	29.31	1	.	29.31	29.31	.00
Reflective	37.42	5	17.94	16.93	57.50	40.57
Sensing	19.94	4	8.90	7.35	27.27	19.92
Visual	44.88	4	26.24	12.18	75.00	62.82
Verbal	27.34	1	.	27.34	27.34	.00
Sequential	25.75	1	.	25.75	25.75	.00
Global	52.32	2	29.66	31.35	73.30	41.95
Total	35.19	18	19.66	7.35	75.00	67.65

Table 5-33 below shows that participants differed in the way they process new information. One participant, who was classified as an Active learner learnt 29.3% of the songs' target words. Five of the participants were classified as Reflective learners and they, as a group, gained 37.4280% (SD=17.94756) of the target words, with their scores ranging from 16.93% to 57.5% of the target words. Four of the participants were classified as Sensing learners and their cumulated score was 19.9475% (SD=8.90493) of the target words, with their scores as individuals ranging from 7.35% to 27.27%. Four of the participants were classified as Visual learners. They learnt 44.8850% (SD=26.24884) and their scores ranged from 12.18% to 75%. One participant was classified as a Verbal learner and his score was 27.34%. One participant was classified as a Sequential learner and gained 25.75%. Two of the participants were classified as Global learners. They, as a group, learnt 52.325% (SD=29.66313) and their scores ranged from 31.25% and 73.3%. Table 5-34 gives more details about the learning style of each individual participant and his/her score.

Table 5-34: Shows individual scores of each participant in each learners styles group

			mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test
participants' learning style	Active	1	29.31
		Total N	1
	Reflective	1	33.17
		2	57.50
		3	54.54
		4	25.00
		5	16.93
		Total N	5
	Sensing	1	20.17
		2	27.27
		3	7.35
		4	25.00
		Total N	4
	Visual	1	52.78
		2	12.18
		3	39.58
		4	75.00
		Total N	4
	Verbal	1	27.34
		Total N	1
	Sequential	1	25.75
		Total N	1
	Global	1	73.30
		2	31.35
		Total N	2
	Total	N	18
a. Limited to first 100 cases.			

The above table shows that the best gains were achieved by Visual Learners. Two out of four such participants learnt more than 50% of the target words from songs. Reflective learners came second, as a group, since two out of five of them learnt more than 50% of the stories target words. In terms of the individuals scores, the analysis demonstrates that the best achievement from songs among all the participants (mean=75%) was gained by a Visual learner.

5.6.5.3. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to films.

Table 5-35 describes language learner styles, the mean and the number of participants in each group, their mean gains, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores of their incidental vocabulary learning from the films post-test.

Table 5-35: Language learners styles and the mean % scores of their incidental vocabulary gains from films' post test						
mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test						
participants' learning style	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Active	30.79	1	.	30.79	30.79	.00
Reflective	33.76	5	8.99	19.45	42.62	23.17
Sensing	28.14	4	6.17	22.46	34.28	11.82
Visual	38.64	4	15.96	22.80	60.41	37.61
Verbal	43.93	1	.	43.93	43.93	.00
Sequential	34.67	1	.	34.67	34.67	.00
Global	28.17	2	3.99	25.35	31.00	5.65
Total	33.42	18	9.74	19.45	60.41	40.96

The table above shows that participants differed in the way they processed the new information. The table shows that one participant who was classified as an Active learner learnt 30.79% of the films' target words. Five of the participants were classified Reflective learners and they, as a group, gained 33. % (SD=8.99) of the target words, with their scores ranging from 19.45% to 42.62% of the target words. Four of the participants were classified as Sensing learners. Their cumulated score was 28.14% (SD=6.17) of the target words and their scores as individuals ranged from 22.46% to 34.28%. Four of the participants were classified as Visual learners. They learnt 38.64% (SD=15.96) and their scores ranged from 22.8% to 60.41%. One participant was classified as a Verbal learner and his score was 43.93%. One participant was classified as a Sequential learner and gained 34.67%. Two of the participants were classified as Global learners. They, as group, learnt 28.17% (SD=3.99) and their scores were 25.35% and 31%. Table 5-36 gives more details about the learning style of each individual participant and his/her score.

Table 5-36: Individual scores of each participant in each learners styles group

				mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
participants' learning style	Active	1		30.79
		Total	N	1
	Reflective	1		19.45
		2		36.43
		3		31.34
		4		42.62
		5		39.00
		Total	N	5
	Sensing	1		23.21
		2		32.63
		3		22.46
		4		34.28
		Total	N	4
	Visual	1		60.41
		2		22.80
		3		32.35
		4		39.00
		Total	N	4
	Verbal	1		43.93
		Total	N	1
	Sequential	1		34.67
		Total	N	1
	Global	1		31.00
		2		25.35
		Total	N	2
	Total	N		18

The table demonstrates that Reflective and Visual learners achieved the best scores. Four out of the participants who had been classified as Reflective

learners were among the best ten participants while three of out of the four Active learners were among the best ten participants who learnt vocabulary incidentally from films. In terms of the individuals' scores, unlike the two other modes (stories and songs), only one participant scored more than 50%. The analysis demonstrates that the best achievement was gained by a Visual learner who learnt more than half (mean=60.41%) of the target words from films. This participant has also achieved the highest gain score from listening to stories.

Table 5-37 shows degree of correlations between the participants' learning styles and absolute vocabulary mean gains from listening to stories, songs and watching the films.

Table 5-37: Correlations between participants' learning styles and mean vocabulary gain

			participants' learning style	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test
Kendall's tau_b	participants' learning style	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.179-	.107	.050
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.	.357	.560	.785
		N	18	16	18	18
	mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	Correlation Coefficient	-.179-	1.000	.407**	.425**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.357	.	.004	.002
		N	16	27	26	27
	mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	Correlation Coefficient	.107	.407**	1.000	.281*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.560	.004	.	.036
		N	18	26	28	28
	mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	Correlation Coefficient	.050	.425**	.281*	1.000
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.785	.002	.036	.
		N	18	27	28	29
**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

The correlation between participants' incidental vocabulary learning from stories and participants' learning styles is a weak negative correlation (-0.179 $p=0.357$) which means that if one variable increases the other decreases. The table also shows that the correlation between participants' incidental vocabulary learning from songs' and films' and participants' learning styles are weakly positive (songs= 0.107 $p=0.560$ and films= 0.050 $p=0.785$). The p value of the three mode of listening are not statistically significant $p > \alpha=0.05$. The results obtained from Kendall's tau_b test confirm that learners' learning styles have no effect on learning vocabulary incidentally.

5.7. Vocabulary retention from listening.

As it has been mentioned earlier (in section 4.4.1.2.), none of the chosen graded readers songs nor films were found in the university's libraries. Moreover, participants reported that they had neither read nor listened to any of the targeted stories, songs nor films. Chance played a crucial role in restricting the exposure of the targeted materials to the participants outside the classes. This is due to the fact that the Qaddafi regime's policies were to limit individuals' access to Internet. Later on, during the course of the study, for the reasons mentioned above,, access to the Internet and electricity had been entirely cut off all throughout Libya. The cessation of the electricity and Internet positively affected the current study. Being unable to access the media and Internet

enhances the possibility that the target words were learnt incidentally through exposure to them from the one and only medium which is the materials used in the current study.

5.7.1. Vocabulary retention from listening to stories

To investigate the extent to which incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories can be retained in mind, a six month delayed-post-test was carried out. A T-Test was carried out to investigate the retention of the target words by means of comparing the scores of the VKS post-test and VKS delayed-post-test. Table 5-38 presents mean gain, standard deviation and standard error means of the 27 participants who attended the post-test and the 25 participants who attended the delayed-post tests.

Table 5-38: Vocabulary retention						
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	27	15.70	86.25	47.38	4.006	20.81
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test	25	22.32	100.00	49.10	4.36	21.82
Valid N (listwise)	23					

Table 5-38 shows that overall, the minimum and the maximum scores have increased. The overall gain percentage had increased from 47.38% (SD=20.81) to 49.10 % (SD=21.82). The lowest gain among the group was 15.70% in the post-test and became 22.32% in the delayed-post-test. The maximum gain was achieved by the same participant whose gain was increased from 86.25% on the post-test to 100% on the delayed-post-test. Table 5-39 presents means scores and standard deviation of the 23 participants who listened to the stories and attended both delayed and post-delayed tests.

Table 5-39: Paired Samples Statistics			
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	51.46	23	19.58
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test	50.78	23	21.89

Table 5-40: Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post-test - mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed-post-test	-.68	12.43	2.59	-4.69-	6.05	.26	22	.795

A further look at the obtained data as presented in table 5-39 shows that the absolute mean gain on the VKS delayed-post-tests' of the group appeared to have negligibly decayed from 51.46% (SD=19.58) on the post-test to 50.78% (SD=21.89) on the delayed-post-test. The overall decrease, as presented in table 5-40, was -0.68% (SD=12.43) in the mean gains of the treatment group (23 participants) with the test being conducted six months after the exposure.

Table 5-41: Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post-test –	Negative Ranks	9 ^a	15.39	138.50
	Positive Ranks	14 ^b	9.82	137.50
	Ties	0 ^c		
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	Total	23		
a. mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post-test < mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test				
b. mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post-test > mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test				
c. mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post-test = mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test				

The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test showed, as presented in table 5- 41, that only nine scores appeared to decrease over the interval time. In contrast, 14 participants gained higher scores in the post-delayed-test. Accordingly, it became clear from the obtained data that vocabulary immediately learnt incidentally from listening to stories can be transferred to long-term memory for future use.

5.7.2. Vocabulary retention from listening to songs

To investigate the extent to which incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs can be retained in mind, a delayed-post-test was carried out after six months. The comparison presents a small improvement over the six months period in the scores for the post-test and the delayed-post tests. Table 5-42 presents descriptive of mean gain, minimum and maximum percent gains and standard deviation of the 28 participants who attended the post-test and the 25 participants who attended the delayed-post tests.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	28	7.35	77.32	34.96	19.54
mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test	25	14.28	81.95	45.71	18.20
Valid N (listwise)	24				

Table 5-42 shows that the delayed-post-test mean gain for the VKS tests of the treatment group increased from 34.96% (SD=19.54) to 45.71% (SD=18.20) of the unknown words. The lowest gain among the group was 7.35% in the post-test which increased to 14.28% in the delayed-post-test. The maximum gain was increased from 77.32% on the post-test to 81.95% on the delayed-post-test. These results reveal that incidental vocabulary learning can be retained for a substantial period of time. Moreover, the gains increased over time. A paired

Sample Test was carried out to investigate the retention of the target words by means of comparing the scores of the VKS post-test and VKS delayed-post-test. Table 5-43 presents scores, means, standard deviation and standard error means of the 24 participants who attended both delayed and post-delayed tests.

Table 5-43: Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	37.3746	24	20.07581
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test	46.6108	24	18.02581

Table 5-44: Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post-test - mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	9.23	12.14	2.47	4.10	14.36	3.72	23	.001

The obtained data as presented in table 5-43 shows that the absolute mean gain on the VKS delayed-post-tests' of the group appeared to have remarkably increased from 37.37% (SD=20.07) on the post-test to 46.61% (SD=18.02) on the delayed-post-test. Table 5-44 shows that there was enhancement (=9.23%) in the mean gain of the treatment group over the six month period after the exposure to the songs. Although the descriptive analysis showed an increase over the six month period on the mean gains of the delayed-post-test, as shown in table 5-45, some of participants' scores had decreased.

Table 5-45: Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test				
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	Negative Ranks	4 ^a	8.75	35.00
	Positive Ranks	19 ^b	12.68	241.00
	Ties	1 ^c		
	Total	24		
a. mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test < mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test				
b. mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test > mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test				
c. mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test = mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test				

A Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test showed, as presented in table 5- 45 that only four scores appeared to decrease over the six months of the interval time. In

contrast, 19 participants gained higher scores in the post-delayed-test. From the data presented in the tables (5: 42, 5: 43, 5: 44 and 5: 45), it can be argued that exposure to English songs can lead to incidental vocabulary learning. Moreover, the learnt vocabulary can be transferred from short term memory to the long term memory and be stored for future use.

5.7.3. Vocabulary retention from watching films

Table 5-46 presents descriptive figures of mean gain, minimum and maximum percent gains and standard deviation of the 29 participants who attended the post-test and the 25 participants who attended the delayed-post tests. The analysis presents little improvement over the six months of the interval period in the scores between the post-test and the delayed-post-tests.

Table 5- 46: % Gains of post-& delayed-post-tests					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post-test	29	17.25	60.41	32.39	9.89
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post-test	25	16.93	89.73	39.86	16.26
Valid N (listwise)	25				

Table 5-46 shows that the overall mean gain and the maximum scores have increased but the minimum score is marginally decreased. The overall gain percentage had increased from 32.39% (SD=9.89) to 39.86% (SD=16.26). The lowest gain among the group was 17.25% in the post-test and became 16.93% in the delayed-post-test. The maximum gain developed from 60.41% on the post-test to 89.73% on the delayed-post-test. Table 5-47 presents means scores and standard deviation of the participants who watched all the films and attended both delayed and post-delayed tests.

Table 5- 47: Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	34.37	25	9.15
Mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test	39.86	25	16.26

Table 5- 48: Vocabulary retention

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post-test - Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	5.49	10.41	2.08	1.19	9.79	2.63	24	.014

Table 5-47 shows that from the post-test to the delayed-post-test six months later, the mean for the VKS tests of the group increased from 34.37% (SD = 9.15) to 39.86% (SD = 16.26) of the unknown words. In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the VKS tests, the analysis also showed significant score increases for some participants. The maximum gain in an individual's score, as seen in table 5-46, showed an increase from 60.41% to 89.73%, while the lowest individual score from the films VKS test among the participants dropped from 17.25% to 16.93%. These results demonstrate that incidental vocabulary learning can be retained for a substantial period of time. Moreover, some gains had increased over time. A T-Test was carried out to investigate the retention of the target words by means of comparing the scores of the VKS post-test and VKS delayed-post-test. Table 5-48 shows that there was an enhancement (=5.49%) in the mean of the treatment group during the six month period after the exposure. Although the descriptive analysis showed a remarkable growth over a six month period in the mean gains of the delayed – post-test, as shown in table 5-49, some participants' scores have decreased.

Table 5-49: Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed- post- test - mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	Negative Ranks	8 ^a	10.50	84.00
	Positive Ranks	17 ^b	14.18	241.00
	Ties	0 ^c		
	Total	25		
a. mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed- post- test < mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test				
b. mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed- post- test > mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test				
c. mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post- test = mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test				

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test showed, as presented in table 5-49, that only eight scores appeared to decrease over the six months of the interval time. In contrast, 17 participants gained higher scores in the delayed post-test. Accordingly, the obtained data confirm that vocabulary is learnt incidentally from watching the films and transferred to long-term memories for future use.

5.8. Productive vocabulary from listening

It is wise here to restate that participants had no chance in accessing to the target words due to the reasons mentioned above (in section 4.4.1.2.) in the methodology chapter. To investigate the productive knowledge of the stories' target words, the researcher designed (as explained above in section 4.5.3.1.) a

test to measure word productivity. The test was given six months after the exposure to the target materials. Participants were given a list of Arabic meanings of the target words and required to translate them into English.

5.8.1. Productive vocabulary from listening to stories

Table 5-50 shows a descriptive analysis of the results of the productive vocabulary test, i.e., meaning translation (MT), of the stories.

Table 5- 50: Mean % gain of productive vocabulary test					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the delayed post translation test from stories	25	6.90	90.00	43.94	26.80

Table 5-50 shows a descriptive analysis of the results of the productive vocabulary test, i.e., meaning translation (MT), of the stories. The table presents the number of the participants, minimum and maximum scores, mean, and standard deviation of the MT test scores. The results demonstrate that the aggregate mean score of the MT of the treatment group was 43.94% of the target words (SD = 26.80). In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the MT tests, the analyses show encouraging results. One of the participants acquired 90% of the target words while the minimum mean of the stories'

productive test among the participants was 6.9%. Accordingly, it can be argued that vocabulary can incidentally be learnt from listening to stories and can be used productively.

5.8.2. Productive vocabulary from listening to songs

Table 5-51 shows a descriptive analysis of the results of the productive vocabulary test, i.e., meaning translation (MT), of the songs.

Table 5-51: Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the delayed post translation test from songs	27	1.54	88.37	41.65	26.99

The table presents the number of the participants, minimum and maximum scores, mean, and standard deviation of the MT test scores. The results demonstrate that the aggregate mean score of the MT of the treatment group was 41.65% of the target words ($SD = 26.99$). In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the MT tests, the analysis shows encouraging results. One of the participants acquired 88.37% of the target words, while the minimum mean of the songs' productive test among the participants was 1.54%. Accordingly, it can be argued that vocabulary can incidentally be learnt from listening to songs and can be used productively.

5.8.3. Productive vocabulary from listening to films.

Table 5-52 shows a descriptive analysis of the results of the productive vocabulary test, Meaning translation (MT), of the films.

Table 5-52: % Gains of vocabulary productive knowledge					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the delayed post translation test from films	26	3.23	78.18	27.29	19.19
Valid N	25				

The table presents the number of the participants, minimum and maximum scores, mean, and standard deviation of the MT test scores. The results demonstrate that the aggregate mean score of the MT of the treatment group was 27.29% of the target words (SD = 19.19). In terms of the analysis of the individuals' scores of the MT tests, the analysis shows encouraging results. One of the participants could acquire 78.18% of the target words while the minimum mean of the films productive test among the participants was 3.23%. Accordingly, it can be argued that vocabulary can incidentally be learnt from listening to films and can be used productively.

5.9. Contrasting gains of the three types of inputs

Table 5-53 reveals that the contrasting the three types of inputs (stories, songs and films). The comparison between the three different modes of learning indicate that simplified material of graded reader “simplified stories” was the most appropriate mode for vocabulary incidental learning.

Table 5-53: % Gains of the three mode of listening							
	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
mean gain of the word knowledge from STORIES' post test	27	70.55	15.70	86.25	47.38	4.00	20.81
mean gain of the word knowledge from SONGS' post test	28	69.97	7.35	77.32	34.96	3.69	19.54
mean gain of the word knowledge from FILMS' post test	29	43.16	17.25	60.41	32.39	1.83	9.89
Valid N (listwise)	26						

The analysis of the stories VKS tests presented in table 5-53 shows that the treatment group learnt 47.38% (SD=20.81) of the targeted words from listening to stories. The analysis demonstrates a lower proportion of vocabulary learnt incidentally from listening to English songs (= 34.96% SD=19.54). In contrast, participants learnt the lowest proportion of the targeted words from watching the films. Participants only learnt 32.39% (SD=9.89) of the targeted words from watching the films. The individual analysis showed the same order of achievements: stories, songs then films. One of the participants learnt 86.25% of the target words from listening to stories. The analysis also shows that the percentage of words which were learnt from songs reached a maximum of 77.32% of the target words. The analysis of the individual scores also showed the lowest gain from films. The best achievement of the participants was scored by an individual who learnt 60.41% of the target words in films.

Table 5-54: Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
mean gain of the word knowledge from STORIES' post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from STORIES' delayed post test	.68	12.43	2.59	-4.69-	6.05	.263	22	.795
mean gain of the word knowledge from SONGS' post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from SONGS' delayed post test	-9.23	12.14	2.47	-14.36	-4.10	-3.72	23	.001
mean gain of the word knowledge from FILMS' post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from FILMS' delayed post test	-5.49	10.41	2.08	-9.79	-1.19	-2.63	24	.014

The analysis did not only show that vocabulary learnt from the three inputs (stories, songs and films) was retained for over six months but it also showed different percentages of growth over the mentioned period of time. The delayed-post-test scores show that participants learning of the target words was decreased from of songs by -9.23625% and -5.4964% from the films, while the score increased (. 6813%) from stories.

Table 5-55 presents more details about the treatment group's achievements as revealed from the Wilcoxon Sign Ranks test that was administered to compare the scores of post-test and the delayed-post-test.

Table 5-55: Wilcoxon Sign Ranks test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test	Negative Ranks	9 ^a	15.39	138.50
	Positive Ranks	14 ^b	9.82	137.50
	Ties	0 ^c		
	Total	23		
mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test	Negative Ranks	4 ^d	8.75	35.00
	Positive Ranks	19 ^e	12.68	241.00
	Ties	1 ^f		
	Total	24		
mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post test - mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test	Negative Ranks	8 ^g	10.50	84.00
	Positive Ranks	17 ^h	14.18	241.00
	Ties	0 ⁱ		
	Total	25		
a. mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test < mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test				
b. mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test > mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test				
c. mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' delayed post test = mean gain of the word knowledge from stories' post test				
d. mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test < mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test				
e. mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test > mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test				
f. mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' delayed post test = mean gain of the word knowledge from songs' post test				
g. mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post test < mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test				
h. mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post test > mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test				
i. mean gain of the word knowledge from films' delayed post test = mean gain of the word knowledge from films' post test				

The table 5-55 shows that 23 participants have done both the post-test and the delayed-post-test. Fourteen participants gained higher scores in the stories VKS delayed-post-test, while the scores of nine participants decayed after six months after the exposure to the stories. Concerning words learnt from exposure to the songs, the table shows that one out of the 24 participants (who had done both the post-test and the delayed-post-test) had the same score for both tests, four of the participants gained lower scores, while 19 of them gained higher scores from the delayed-post-test. In terms of words learnt from films, the table shows that 25 participants had done both tests. The table demonstrates that the scores of 17 participants increased, while the scores of eight participants decayed after six months.

5.10. The effect of context in identifying the meaning of the target words

According to the design of the study, the researcher planned to examine the effect of context in understanding the meaning of the targeted words. The results, as explained above, demonstrated that participants could identify the meaning of some of the targeted words relatively well when they came across them out of the context. Two questions arise at this stage of the study; firstly, were participants completely unaware of the meaning of the words they claimed that they did not know? Secondly, did the context help in remembering the words which had been heard before? To answer these two questions,

participants were given a set of sentences including the target words. This test was used to examine the effect of the texts in remembering the target words. Table 5-56 presents the results of the treatment group's words in contexts tests (WinC).

Table 5-56 Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from STORIES	27	3.70	100.00	53.1237	29.69543
Mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from SONGS	24	4.76	91.30	45.2744	24.24275
Mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from FILMS	26	5.00	89.10	29.4673	19.60970

The table shows that participants identified 53.12% of the targeted words in stories, 45.2744% of the targeted words in songs and 29.46% of the targeted words in films when they were presented within the original contexts. The above mentioned results are slightly different from those of VKS post-delayed-tests. Table 5-57 compares the scores of the word meanings scores of the VKS

post-delayed-tests and the words in context tests of the three sources of listening (stories, songs and films).

Table 5-57: Paired Samples Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from stories - mean gain of the words meaning from VKS stories' delayed-post-test test	Negative Ranks	4a	5.75	23.00
	Positive Ranks	19b	13.32	253.00
	Ties	2c		
	Total	25		
Mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from songs - mean gain of the words meaning from VKS songs' delayed-post-test test	Negative Ranks	3d	9.00	27.00
	Positive Ranks	18e	11.33	204.00
	Ties	0f		
	Total	21		
Mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from films - mean gain of the words meaning from VKS films' delayed-post-test test	Negative Ranks	5g	13.80	69.00
	Positive Ranks	20h	12.80	256.00
	Ties	0i		
	Total	25		
a. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from stories < mean gain of the words meaning from stories' delayed-post-test test				
b. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from stories > mean gain of the words meaning from stories' delayed-post-test test				
c. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from stories = mean gain of the words meaning from stories' delayed-post-test test				
d. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from songs < mean gain of the words meaning from songs' delayed-post-test test				
e. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from songs > mean gain of the words meaning from songs' delayed-post-test test				
f. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from songs = mean gain of the words meaning from songs' delayed-post-test test				
g. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from films < mean gain of the words meaning from films' delayed-post-test test				
h. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from films > mean gain of the words meaning from films' delayed-post-test test				
i. mean gain of the delayed-post-test words in context from films = mean gain of the words meaning from films' delayed-post-test test				

The table above shows that most of the participants could infer the meanings of more words when those words were presented in contexts. Comparing the results of incidental vocabulary learning of the meaning from stories' VKS and the results of WinC, the analysis showed that two of the participants had the same scores in both tests. Four participants gained lower scores with words presented in context while 19 participants gained higher scores with words presented in context. Comparing the mean gain of the delayed-post-test WnC from songs with mean gain of the words meaning from the VKS songs delayed-post-test test, the analysis showed that only three participants gained a lower score in the word in context tests while the rest of the participants, namely 18 participants, gained higher scores in the words in context tests. Concerning films, the scores of 20 participants show that those participants could identify meanings of more words that they heard in the target films when they come across them in contexts. In contrast only five participants gained lower scores in films WinC tests.

The analysis of the WinC and its comparison with the meaning scores of the VKS delayed-post-test offers an answer to the two questions posed at the introduction of this section. It can be argued that the meanings of the targeted words that participants claimed that they had heard but did not know the meanings of, after the exposure to the target materials, are not completely

unknown by all participants. This is due to the fact that participants could identify more meanings of the target words when those words were presented within contexts. This suggests that those words, which were claimed by participants to be unknown, were receptively acquired from the exposure to the targeted materials.

5.11. Summary

The results showed that vocabulary can incidentally be learnt from listening to both authentic (songs and films) and non-authentic (graded readers) spoken sources. Furthermore, it became clear from the comparison of the outcomes of the three modes of listening (stories, songs and films) that non-authentic materials (simplified stories) lead to the highest gains in learning English vocabulary incidentally from listening. Concerning authentic listening sources, it became clear from the analysis that listening to songs leads to higher gains than watching films. Moreover, the results demonstrate that incidentally learnt vocabulary can be retained receptively and productively over a six month time span. The result also demonstrates that incidental vocabulary learning is affected positively by participants' English language levels, previous L2 vocabulary knowledge and to some extent by vocabulary learning strategies used by the participants in manipulating the new vocabulary. Word repetitions and learning style do not play a crucial role in incidental vocabulary learning.

Another important outcome of the experiment is that what has been receptively acquired from listening can be productively used in communication.

Chapter 6:

Discussion

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the current study and how far they corroborate the answers for the research questions posed in the introduction and restated below. The chapter is organized into four sections: the first section is this introduction in which the researcher restates the research questions and the research hypotheses. The second section discusses the main findings and compares the incidental learning of vocabulary among the three modes of listening (stories, songs and films). The third section explains how the findings obtained from the current research relate to the research literature in terms of both methodology and results. This third section discusses whether the results reinforce or challenge existing perspectives as well as shed light on any anomalies or unexpected results of the present study. The fourth section is devoted to discussing the different factors that the thesis hypothesized might affect the incidental learning of vocabulary from listening to English.

This study, as mentioned previously, was carried out in an English Department at a Libyan University to contribute to work in the field of second/foreign language acquisition, by investigating incidental vocabulary learning through

exposure to English as a foreign language through listening to stories and songs as well as watching films. The study hypothesizes that:

H 1. Vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language.

H 2. Incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language may be enhanced by the five factors listed below or at least some of them:

- (1) Word repetitions within the spoken texts;
- (2) Participants' language proficiency in that language;
- (3) Participants' previous vocabulary knowledge;
- (4) Participants' vocabulary language strategies;
- (5) Participants' learning styles.

The current study was designed to answer the following two core research questions:

Q1. To what extent can English vocabulary be learnt by Libyan students of English from spoken input of the target language?

Q2. What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input in this context?

The answer to the first question will enable the researcher to know how much English vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from three different spoken inputs

(stories, songs and films) as well as to know the extent to which this type of learning helps in enhancing lexical knowledge (form recognition, extracting meaning from context, grammatical behaviour and word usage). In addition, it will provide data concerning whether the learnt vocabulary can be retained in the long-term memory or not.

6.2. Discussion of the results

This study is based on an intervention across a long period of time (one year) which demonstrated that language acquirers/learners can incidentally learn much vocabulary from listening to the target language. I admitted earlier (see section 4.2. in the methodology chapter) that merely anecdotal observations cannot prove a hypothesis. Accordingly, the current study was carefully designed to overcome some methodological limitations of previous studies which were discussed in section 3.3 in the literature review chapter. Thus, it is hoped that the results of this study may be more valid and reliable than similar studies within this field

The first research question of this study asks: To what extent can English vocabulary be learnt incidentally by Libyan students of English from spoken inputs of the target language? The concrete answer to this question will involve results gained from the data analysis which reveal the extent to which this type of learning helps to enhance lexical knowledge (form recognition, extracting

meaning from context, grammatical behaviour and usage). In addition, it will provide data concerning whether the learnt vocabulary can be retained in the long-term memory or not.

The first research question cannot be answered unless the first research hypothesis (H1), which states that ‘vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language’, is proved. To demonstrate the first research hypothesis, it was essential to find out whether learning has occurred through the exposure to the materials used in the experiments or by chance. Accordingly, as was mentioned earlier (in section 5.2.), due to the fact that the research data was not normally distributed, a nonparametric “Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon (MWW) test” was used to find out whether the experimental group and control group had the same scores or whether one of them significantly gained more than the other. The test demonstrates, across the four vocabulary knowledge dimensions between experimental and control groups, that the p-values are statistically significant. P values for all tests were $< .001$ which is less than $\alpha=0.05$. This implies that the variances cannot be assumed to be equal. Additionally, the mean scores of the treatment group (stories=47.38%, songs=34.96% & films =32.39 %) are much higher than the control group (stories=9.4%, songs=8.25% & films =12.46 %). The mean alone cannot provide a complete picture as combining it with the standard deviation (O) can

do. The mean scores show how much vocabulary was learnt incidentally while the standard deviation provides more detail about the extent to which this type of learning occurs, in other words it shows whether participants have learnt the same, close or different amounts of incidental vocabulary. The standard deviations of the experimental group are very large (Stories \bar{O} =20.81, songs \bar{O} =19.54, Films \bar{O} =9.89).

The dataset shows three outliers; however, the outliers alone are not responsible for a higher standard deviation; the cause of the high standard deviation is the fact that the participants' gains are spread out over a wide range of values. This means that some people learnt vocabulary incidentally more than others and some did not. Controversially, the control group's standard deviations are very small (Stories \bar{O} =3.05, songs \bar{O} =4.16, Films \bar{O} =4.10) which indicates that the gains of the participants in the post-test are tightly close to the mean score of the pre-test. Accordingly, the null hypothesis can strongly be rejected and the research hypothesis (H1) is accepted. The researcher concludes that vocabulary learning occurred incidentally through the exposure to the materials used in the experiments.

The results of the vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) tests, of the experimental group indicate that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language. The data shows that the treatment group learnt about half of the

target words from stories, and more than one third of the target words from songs and films. The analysis show high standard deviation (stories' $O = 20.81$, songs' $O = 19.54$ and films' $O = 9.89$) among the participants' gains. The ranges of the distribution between the upper and lower limits of the scores are as well very wide (stories = 70.55, songs = 69.97 and films = 43.16). This indicates that the group gains were not due to the effect of one or two outliers; but it was due to the fact that several participants gained much better than the overall mean. The data show that thirteen of the participants have scored higher than the overall mean (47.38%) from stories. Furthermore, the data demonstrates that about 44% of the participants learnt more than 50% of the target words from stories. Two of them learnt more than 80% of the target words in stories. In terms of incidental vocabulary learning from songs, the data reveal that nine of the participants have scored higher than the overall mean (34.96%) from songs. One fourth of them learnt more than 50% of the target words and that the highest performing participant learnt more than 77% of the target word. The data also show thirteen of the participants have scored higher than the overall mean (32.39%) from films; however, in this case the results are less impressive as only about 7% of the participants learnt above 50% of the target words from the films. Accordingly, I can argue, based on the results, that listening to simplified stories and authentic songs as well as watching authentic

films leads to learning more than one third of the target words incidentally which is believed to be quite a good amount of learning. Considering some individuals' achievements (86.25% & 82.40% stories, 77.32% & 73.30% songs and 60.41film), it can be argued that incidental vocabulary learning leads to encouraging achievement.

6.3. Contrasting the three modes

I had anticipated before conducting this study, that watching films may lead to the highest gains due to the fact that watching films pairs L2 verbal information with visual, non-linguistic, information which leads to better understanding and enhances the probability of learning vocabulary incidentally. My expectation was grounded upon theoretical and upon previous experimental research outcomes. Theoretically, my presumption based on Krashen's (1985) Comprehension Hypothesis and others (Goodman and Goodman, 1979; Winitz, 1981; Asher, 2000; Smith, 2004, as cited in Krashen, 2009, p. 82) who argue that language gain is based on comprehension of the message. Furthermore, the outcomes of previous research was the second pillar upon which my assumption was based. Kopstein and Roshal, 1954; Webber, 1978; Steingart and Glock, 1979; Saltz and Donnenwerth-Nolan, 198, (cited in Schmitt, 2008. p. 212) argued that bridging verbal information with visible objects leads to better word acquisition than bridging them with their L1 translation.

It was also expected that songs would be the least effective among the three modes. However, the results demonstrated that the best mode that led to higher incidental vocabulary gain was stories (47.38%) followed by songs (34.96%) while watching films (32.39%) led to the lowest gain. The high scores gained from non-authentic material (simplified stories) could be due to the fact that stories were manipulated by the publishers to meet certain levels of English proficiencies of the language acquirers. In addition to that, qualities of the texts in the simplified stories were carefully considered to present new and difficult words within comprehensive surrounding text. The analysis of the difficulties of the ‘written’ texts, as included in the analysis chapter, showed that the easiest texts to be comprehended are the target songs then the stories while films are the most difficult among the three types of texts. This, as explained below, does not necessarily mean that the ‘audio’ texts of songs are the most appropriate for incidental vocabulary learning.

The stories’ texts led to higher gains because they were easy, in that they contained fewer words, shorter sentences, fewer syllables within a word and fewer characters per word. Additionally, the targeted words in the simplified stories of the current study are significant in the contexts, as explained below, by means of their repetitions, emphatic stress and being key words which make them easy to be recognized, understood and learnt incidentally. In terms of the

form recognition the current study concludes that participants recognized more words from stories (82.57%) than those from films (74.79%) or from songs (69%). The data also indicated that some participants achieved high scores on word recognition which reached up to 100% on stories and songs and up to 98.63% on films. Vocabulary is not easy to recognise from songs for two reasons: firstly the speech rate in songs is faster than those in films or in the simplified stories. Secondly, the phonological adjustment (deletion⁴, insertion⁵, assimilation⁶, dissimilation⁷, linking⁸, and naturalization⁹) in songs occurs more frequently than in films or in stories. A month after the delayed-post-test I played a song for the participants and asked them to tell what every verse in the song says. I found out that they were unable to recognise simple sentence and

⁴ Deletion/elision: A term used to refer to the loss (elision) of a segment or syllable. (Carr, 2008)

⁵ Insertion: sounds have been inserted into a sequence of segments, as in the case of the Intrusive ‘r’ in sequences such as law and order when pronounced as [lɔ: ɹəʊɔ: də]. (Op. cit.)

⁶ Assimilation: A process whereby two, normally adjacent, sounds become more similar to each other. (Op. cit.)

⁷ Dissimilation: The opposite of assimilation. It is a process whereby two adjacent sounds become less similar. (Op. cit.)

⁸ Linking is the process when “the connecting of the final sound of one word or syllable to the initial sound of the next” (Murcia, et al. , 1996)

⁹ Naturalization: With some pairs of sounds, it is not always clear which of the two sounds is being articulated. It is as if it lay between the two distinct sounds. This intermediate sound is known as neutralization. (Salmani & Birjandi, 2005)

phrases; however, the songs were replayed more than ten times. For instance they did not recognise the following phrases: “when I read my mail” which is pronounced in the song as / wen ai ri'ma'meiəl/, and “put little trust on me” which is pronounced in the song as /pʊʔ'liʔl trʌst ə'mi/. These phrases were difficult to be recognised from the audio texts because of the elision, linking or deletion of some phonemes and vowels in some words like ‘read’, ‘my’, ‘put’ and ‘on’ when they occurred in the songs. In fact, participants’ inability to recognise the above mentioned words and some other words phrases and sentences was due to their ignorance, as they told me, of phonological processes. All except three of the students, claimed that they were not aware of the above mentioned phonological processes. The three participants who claimed that they knew some of the phonological processes roles achieved the highest scores in word recognition. This finding stimulates the researcher to recommend FL/L2 educators to pay more attention to exposing language acquirers/learners to the above-mentioned phonological processes.

In terms of word recognition, the outcomes also showed that stories are the best mode for incidental vocabulary learning then films and lastly songs. In depth analysis of the data showed that participants as a group recognized 82.57% of the target words that were uttered in the stories. The VKS test showed that the participants gave the correct meanings of 51.22% and identified 45.55% of the

grammar function of the recognized words and in addition they could use 33.54% of them in complete and correct sentences. In terms of in depth incidental vocabulary learning from songs, the participants recognized 69.13% of the target words which occurred in the stories among which they extracted the meanings of 38.92% of the target words and identified 35.93% of the grammar function of the recognized words. They could also use 23.56% of them in complete and correct sentences. As regards the in depth knowledge gained from films, the data showed that participants recognized 74.79% of the target words which occurred in the films. The VKS test showed that the participants gave the correct meanings of 28.36% and identified 28.45% of the grammar function of the recognized words as well as being able to use 16.6% of them in complete and correct sentences. Contrasting the three modes of inputs (stories, songs and films) indicates that stories are the best mode for meaning extraction from context, grammar part identification and word use. Songs take the second place then films. The results demonstrated that stories were the most effective mode for incidental vocabulary learning. This is simply because, as explained below in more details in section 6.3, some of the target words in stories are:

- Key words in the spoken texts;
- Supported by some contextual cues;

- Easy to be recognised due to the lower speed of utterance;
- Some of the words were sometimes followed by explanations;
- The phonological form of the target words in the entire stories are easy to be pronounced.

Both the current and previously published studies are in the same vein that vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening; however, they present different percentage gains. This is due to different reasons as explained below. The current study reported the second highest gain of incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English. In terms of listening to stories, the highest incidental vocabulary learning was reported in Saffran's, et al. (1997) who found that their participants learnt 73.1% of the target words. The results of the current study demonstrated that the participants learnt 47.3848% of the target words from listening to stories. The best achievement among the group was 86.25% while the lowest gain was 15.7% of the target words. The present study's mean gain is higher than the results reported in some previous research (Medina, 1993; Al-Homoud, 2007; Brown, et al., 2008; Mason, et al. 2009). The closest gains to the current study are Mason et al., (mean =36%). Medina, Al-Homoud and Brown, et al., studies reported further lower gains than the current study. Al-Homoud found that his participants acquired 7.68% of the

target words which is considered higher than Medina's study (mean gain=3.65%) and Brown, et al.'s study (mean gain=2%).

Concerning incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs, the current study and the reviewed studies reported different results. Milton's (2008) study which targeted only one participant reported the highest gain 77% of the target words. The results of the current study demonstrated that the participants, as a group, learnt 34.96% of the target words from listening to songs; however, the best achievement among the individuals was 77.32% which is almost the same result as Milton's participant. Another subject who participated in the current study gained a very close percentage (75%) to those of Milton's participant. Accordingly, the finding of the current study and Milton's (2008) study suggested that songs give some language acquirers a chance to learn a high number of new words incidentally. Moreover, the current study demonstrates (and contributes to the literature) that those who learnt more than 75% of the target words from songs are at upper-intermediate and advanced level of English proficiencies and prior knowledge of more than 5000 of the most frequent words in English. Additionally they have some knowledge of vocabulary learning strategies.

In contrast, the present study's mean gain is much higher than the results reported in Medina (1993) who reported that his participants learnt only 4.15%

of the target words. The low gain reported in Medina could be due to the fact that his participants' English proficiencies were very limited and they did not have enough language strategies that may have helped them to infer meaning from a context. As it was mentioned earlier in the literature review, section 3.2.2, that a replication of Medina's study may lead to higher gains if participants' English proficiency, period of the exposure, number of the target words in the text, participants' impression about the texts and type of the tests are considered in the design of a follow-up study. Accordingly, the design of the current study considered the above-mentioned factors and this has apparently led to higher gains. In general the two studies demonstrate different outcomes; however, the findings of Medina's (1993) study and the current study (which showed that the lower intermediate learners gained 18.82% as group and had the lowest gain among the whole group of 7.35%) lead to the same conclusion that lower level language acquirers are not able to gain enough vocabulary incidentally from songs.

Concerning watching films, the current study reported the second highest gain of incidental vocabulary learning was from watching films. The highest incidental vocabulary learning gain was reported in Vidal's (2003) study in which participants gained 80.55% of the target words. The results of the current study demonstrated that the participants learnt 32.39% of the target

words from watching films. The best achievement among the group was 60.41% while the lowest gain was 17.25% of the target words. The present study's mean gain is higher than the results reported in some previous studies (Vidal, 2011; Harji et al., 2010; Rodgers, 2013 and Zeeland and Schmitt's, 2013). Incidental vocabulary gains reported in Harji's et al, study (31.79%) is the closest result to the current study. Rodgers (mean=29.6 % & 23.03%) Zeeland and Schmitt's (mean=29.2%) results are also close to the current study's results; however, there was not enough information about their participant's exact English proficiency nor about their vocabulary size that may help contrasts in their results when compared with those of the current study. Zeeland and Schmitt did not report that they had measured the participants' English proficiencies; however, they expected them to be higher intermediate or advanced.

It can be argued that the high mean gains of the current study from the films is due to two facts. Firstly, the material used in the current study was popular with the participants. Secondly, the plots of some of the films used in the current study, Aladdin the Return of Jafar and Aladdin King of Thieves are familiar from the participants' culture. Being familiar, films leads to better incidental vocabulary learning. This appears to be in consensus with the finding of some studies of incidental vocabulary learning from reading, as cited in Pulido (2004)

, (Ellis, 1994; Hulstijn, 2001, 2003; Sternberg, 1987; Chern, 1993; De Bot et al. , 1997; Haastrup, 1989; Lee & Wolf, 1997; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Parry, 1993, 1997; Rott, 2000; Pulido, 2002) which argued that the background knowledge of the target text led to learning of the meaning of new words incidentally from reading input.

The dissimilarity between the results of the current study and previous incidental vocabulary acquisition research may be due to different research methodologies and designs used, as explained in the literature review, which include: participants' English proficiency, types of texts (authentic or non-authentic), period of the exposure, number of the target words in the text, participants' impression about the texts and type of the tests. Al-Homoud (2007) discussed some reasons that explain why Vidal's (2003) study reported higher results than his own study. Two of them may explain the reasons for the difference between Vidal's results and the current study:

- “Vidal's texts are manipulated to eliminate any ambiguity for participants;
- Vidal's study showed high results because the post test was demonstrated immediately after the lectures” (AL- Homoud, 2007, p. 215)

In depth review of the literature (Safran, et al., 1997; Nation, 2001; Al-Homoud, 2007; Vidal, 2011) demonstrates that the longer the period of exposure to L2 the more vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from both reading and oral inputs. Nation (2001, p. 238) argues that “small gains become large gains if learners do a large quantity of reading”. Vidal (2011) contested that the gains reported in her study “would probably have been greater if the exposure had extended over time”. Al-Homoud (2007: 229) presumed that if his study “was conducted with longer texts and for a longer period of time, the speculation would be that the results might be more positive”. Al-Homoud’s assumption has been confirmed by Safran, et al. (1997) who experimentally demonstrated that the longer the period of the exposure to spoken texts the more words can be learnt incidentally. Al-Homoud’s argument and Safran et al’s conclusion were considered in planning for the current study. Al-Homoud’s chosen spoken materials lasted for about 25 minutes, Brown, et al. lasted for 63, Zeeland and Schmitt lasted for 21.7 minutes while the participants of the current study listened to longer spoken texts, namely 168 minutes. Accordingly, it can be argued that the current study’s higher gains may be due to the longer period of exposure to spoken texts than previous studies. The results obtained from listening to songs and from watching the films leads to the same conclusion of those from listening to stories which demonstrate that the longer

the period of exposure to the spoken texts the more vocabulary can be learnt incidentally. For gains obtained from listening to songs, Milton's participant listened to songs for 60 minutes and gained 77% of the target words, the current study's participants listened to songs for 51 minutes and gained 34.96 and Medina's participants listened to songs for 20 minutes and gained only 4.15 of the target words.

With regard to film watching, Yuksel, and Tanriverdi's (2009) participants learnt 0.91% and 0.82% of the target words when they watched 9.14 minutes, Rodgers's (2013) chosen texts lasted for 425 minutes and led to the gain of 23.03% and 29.61% of the target words. The current study's participants watched four full films which lasted for 336 minutes and gained 32.39% of the target words.

Another reason for the gains differences between the current and previous studies are due to the methodology of choosing the target texts. Unlike the current study, none of the previous studies considered the participants' interests in choosing the spoken texts. Brown, et al., (2008) illogically, asked the subjects to "pretend" that they enjoyed the texts. It is expected that a person may deceive someone else but not himself by pretending that he enjoys what is not pleasurable. Accordingly, and as mentioned in the methodology chapter (section 4.4.1.2.) the targeted audio texts of the current study were carefully

chosen to meet the participants' interests. Moreover, participants reported that all the targeted materials were interesting and enjoyable. Accordingly, I tend to agree with Nation (2001) and Hunckin & Coady (1999) that interest is a very crucial requirement for incidental learning and that uninteresting texts are less conducive to incidental learning.

The higher gains reported in the current study may also be due to the fact that target words differ in terms of parts of speech used in previous research. Unlike Al-Homoud (2007) and Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) who used verbs, nouns and adjectives, the targeted words of the stories of the present study were two verbs and the rest of them were nouns. Literature (Yoshida, 1978; Felix, 1978; Rodgers, 1969; Elley 1989; Nation 2001, as cited in Ellis, 1994) shows that nouns are the easiest part of speech to be learnt then adjective and verbs next in general and the meaning of nouns is easier to be extracted from context than the meaning of verbs and adjectives. Accordingly, the high gains reported in the current study may be due to the fact that the majority of the target words were nouns which are considered the easiest part of speech to be learnt from context and from which meaning can be easily deduced.

Answering the first research question (To what extent can English vocabulary be learnt by Libyan students of English from spoken input of the target language?), it can be argued that listening to stories and songs as well as

watching films certainly enables some incidental vocabulary learning. The current study demonstrates that a language acquirer can partially learn vocabulary incidentally up to 86% of the unknown words from listening to stories, 77.32% from listening to songs and 60.41% from watching films. The best mode that led to the highest gains was non-authentic stories, then authentic songs and in the third place were the authentic films. The current study also demonstrated that participants scored highest on the form recognition, then meaning, followed by grammar parts recognition, and lastly on word use. Additionally, the study demonstrates that vocabulary which has been learnt incidentally, receptively and productively, can be retained for six months.

6.4. Factors affecting incidental vocabulary learning from listening

The non-parametric Kendall's Tau-b test, as mentioned in the methodology chapter, was applied to measure the correlations between incidental vocabulary learning (from stories and songs as well as from watching films) and the factors presumed to affect this type of learning. The test is said to "deal with ties in better way than spearman rho" (Morgan & Giego, 1998, P. 97). The value of Kendall's Tau-b ranges from -1(=100 percent negative association) to +1 (=100 per cent positive association). A value zero indicates the absence of association.

6.4.1. The effect of word repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from listening

Results obtained from the current study demonstrated that word repetitions have no effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language. A Kendall's tau_b test of correlation shows weak positive correlation between incidental vocabulary learning and word repetitions in (stories $\tau=0.231$, $P>0.05$), (songs $\tau=0.104$ $P>0.05$) and (films $\tau=-0.154$ $P>0.05$) but did not show any statistical significance between the two variables which means that the relation occurred by chance. Accordingly, it cannot be argued that word repetitions within the oral texts (stories, songs and films) have an effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening. These results lead one to ask: Does this mean we should completely disregard the role of repetition within the oral text?

Literature in fact shows different suggestions concerning the number of word repetitions that lead to incidental vocabulary learning from written and oral inputs. According to the results obtained from data, the current study found consensus with some previous research (Nation, 2001; Vidal, 2003; Tekmen and Daloglu, 2006; Alhomoud, 2007; Brown, et al., 2008; Zeeland and Schmitt 2013; and Rodgers, 2013) which reported that there was no clear effect of frequency of word occurrences on incidental vocabulary learning from

listening. Tekmen and Daloglu (2006) concluded that “frequency did not play a greater role in the vocabulary acquisition of lower level learners than in that of higher level learners. Brown, et al., (2008) claimed that even 100 occurrences in an oral text may not cause incidental vocabulary acquisition from a listening only mode. The present study is directed in the opposite direction to Brown, et al’s absolute statement and tends to agree with Rodgers’ (2013, P. 100) argument which states that “vocabulary learning occurred [through viewing TV] with a relatively few exposures to the target words”. Rodgers’ argument finds consensus with the results of the current study which demonstrates that even one exposure may ‘relatively’ lead to partial incidental vocabulary learning if some conditions exist in a spoken text.

Analysing the gains of the current study’s target words demonstrated that repetitions have a weak impact unless they were supported by some factors which played crucial roles in learning vocabulary incidentally from listening to the EFL. The results of the present study are entirely consistent with the Webb and Zeeland (2008) and Nation (2001) studies which claim that the correlation between repetitions and learning generally is not strong. Nation (2001, p. 81) put forward that “repetition is only one of a number of factors affecting vocabulary learning and the correlation between repetitions and learning generally are only moderate”. Webb and Zeeland (2008) referred to one of the

above factors, asserting that “the qualities of the context rather than the number of encounters with target words may have a greater effect on gaining knowledge of the meaning”. Additionally, Ellis (1999) referred to three factors arguing that a word can be significant in a spoken context by means of its repetition, emphatic stress and being a key word. He added that these three factors may attract the learners’ attention and lead to learning new words. Moreover, Ellis referred to some studies (Brown, 1993; Watanabe, 1997; Elley, 1989) that found that key words which were supported by some contextual cues were easy to be recognized, understood and learnt incidentally.

Other research, (Ellis, 1999 and Pinner, 2009) reveals that word form plays an important role in learning new vocabulary. They claim that words that have various derivational forms and that polysyllabic words tend to be more difficult than those of one syllable (monosyllabic). In terms of the word form, all except two of the stories’ target words are simplex words¹⁰. This means that language acquirers need no extra mental efforts to implement complex language strategies in processing the new words. The phonological form of all of the stories’ target words (that they are easy to pronounce) may affect both learners’

¹⁰ Simplex words are those that “cannot be decomposed any further into smaller meaningful units, only into sound segments” (Booi, 2005: 7)

perception and production of the new words and lead to higher gains than those reported in previous research.

6.4.2. The effect of participants' language proficiencies on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening

Results obtained from the current study demonstrate that participants' language proficiencies have an effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language. A Kendall's tau_b test of correlation shows moderate positive correlation and statistical significance between vocabulary gains and participants' language proficiencies in stories ($\tau=0.46$, $P<0.05$) and songs ($\tau=0.57$, $P<0.05$) whereas the results show weak positive correlation and statistical significance between vocabulary gains and participants' language proficiencies in films ($\tau= 0.29$, $P<0.05$). Accordingly, it can be argued that participants' language proficiencies have an effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories and songs and from watching films.

As was mentioned earlier in this study this research is the first empirical study to contrast the achievements of participants from different levels of proficiency, although, research into incidental learning from reading came to a similar conclusion. The results of the current study are in the same direction of Nation's (2006) study which concluded that incidental vocabulary learning is only effective for advanced learners who have a large size of vocabulary.

Tekmen and Daloglu (2006) also found that “The higher proficiency groups were able to acquire more words than lower level groups”.

Unlike the previous research the current study has precisely identified the participants’ English proficiencies, moreover, it investigated its effects on incidental vocabulary learning. Al-Homoud (2007, p. 186) states that the participants of his study “had a wide range of different language proficiency levels ranging from language learning level up to PhD in different fields of study”. This statement reveals that there were significant differences of English levels among the participants which may negatively affect the mean gains of the group. Moreover, this indicates that he used ‘convenience sampling methods’ which means that he targeted any individuals that were available. Blankenship (2010) claims that convenience sampling method “should be avoided if possible because the results of the study are not valid beyond the people who complete the survey” (p. 87). The effect of participants’ language proficiency on the mean gain is clearer in Brown, et al., (2008) in which the participants’ English level differed from pre-intermediate to intermediate. Nation (2006) argues that incidental vocabulary learning is only effective for advanced learners who have a large size of vocabulary. Nation’s statement concurs with the finding of the current study which reveals that advanced learners learnt more vocabulary from listening than those with lower proficiency levels. Consequently, studies that

targeted lower proficiency learners (Al-Homoud; 2007 and Brown et al., 2008) reported lower gains because, as I have explained in the literature chapter, they have a common limitation which is targeting low proficiency subjects for their studies.

6.4.3. The effect of participants' vocabulary size on incidental vocabulary learning from listening

A Kendall's tau_b test of correlation shows weak positive correlation between the mean gains and the participants' previous vocabulary knowledge capacity in stories ($\tau=0.17$, $P>0.05$), but did not show any statistical significance between vocabulary gains and participants' previous vocabulary knowledge capacity. Conversely, the results show weak positive correlation and statistical significance in both songs ($\tau=0.39$ $P<0.05$) and films ($\tau=0.38$ $P<0.05$). Accordingly, the results demonstrate that the more vocabulary previously known the more new vocabulary can be learnt from songs and films. These results lead one to ask: why does this factor not have a positive effect on the learnability from stories? A tentative answer to this question may relate to the position of the target words within the text, i.e., the context might be comprehensible even if the target words were not understandable. Accordingly, participants did not pay attention to the target words.

Studies by Al-Homoud (2007) and Peters et al, (2014) considered the participants' previous vocabulary knowledge in designing their studies. Peters et al., demonstrated that his "participants' vocabulary size correlated significantly with their comprehension scores as well as with their vocabulary scores". Al-Homoud said that most of his study's participants were more successful in the most frequent 2000 word section, which research shows is inadequate for either understanding spoken texts or learning vocabulary from context, while only three of them could answer some of the items in the 10,000 word section. Webb and Rodgers (2009) argue that the 1,001-2000 WF covers 90, 67% of the most frequent spoken words which is not sufficient vocabulary knowledge to help learners to acquire vocabulary incidentally. Nation (2006) argues that the first 3000 word families cover 92. 52 % of a written text. However, knowing that size of vocabulary does not mean that the EFL/ESL learner can understand them when they are uttered, this is due to the fact that the EFL/ESL learners have been exposed to the vast majority of vocabulary from written texts sources. As mentioned in the literature chapter it appears that knowing 95-98 % of the words in the spoken text is required for incidental vocabulary learning through listening. Consequently, the low gains reported in Al-Homoud's study may be due to the fact that most of the participants were exposed to spoken text which was incompatible with their level. Hulstijn

(1998, p. 52) argued that “Subjects who had been administered compatible learning and retention [...] achieved higher retention scores than subjects who were given incompatible learning and retention tasks”. Unlike Al-Homoud’s study, most of the participants in the current study (namely, 22 out of the 27 participants who have finished the vocabulary level test) knew more than 3000 words of the most common words in English before participating in the present study. This number of words covers 96% in horror which was the genre of the chosen stories for the current study. Accordingly, the participants of the current study are more capable of learning English vocabulary incidentally than Al-Homoud’s participants.

6.4.4. The effect of vocabulary learning strategies on incidental vocabulary leaning from listening

Unlike the previous studies in which the participants “were not allowed to use a dictionary, nor was there any negotiation of vocabulary during the treatment.”, the current study, as mentioned in the methodology chapter in the research design section, allowed subjects to behave freely during the treatment. No restrictions were employed, i.e., students were allowed to use their dictionaries, negotiate meaning,... etc. The observation showed that most of the participants did not use any noticeable learning strategies. Some of the participants consulted the researcher about some words uttered in the stories but for the

purpose of the study the researcher did his best to avoid dealing with the target words. Two of them were observed negotiating during the exposure period; one of them was excluded from the analysis for the reason mentioned in the methodology chapter that “she was a native English speaker”. Two other participants wrote down some of the new words so that they might deal with them later on. Acting freely and allowing participants to implement learning strategies during the exposure might be among the reasons for the reasonable gains of those three participants; however, their gains did not affect the group's mean gains simply because their gains cannot be considered as outliers.

The descriptive analysis of the data shows that VLS has no influence in learning English vocabulary incidentally from stories and songs for the three groups (participants who slightly use VLS intermediate, participants who moderately use VLS and participants who considerably use VLS). Unlikely, the descriptive analysis demonstrates that the more vocabulary learning strategies known and used the more words can be learnt from watching films. However, the correlation tests did not show any statistically significant differences among the three groups of participants and the vocabulary learning strategies they know and use. This means that even whilst watching films the correlation between the two variables has occurred by chance. A Kendall's tau_b test of correlation shows weak positive correlation between the mean

gains and vocabulary learning strategies in stories ($\tau=0.293$, $P>0.05$), songs ($\tau=0.131$ $P>0.05$) and films ($\tau=0.104$ $P>0.05$) but did not show any statistically significance between vocabulary gains and vocabulary learning strategies. Accordingly, it cannot be argued that vocabulary learning strategies reported to be known by the participants have an effect on vocabulary incidental learning.

Literature reveals that vocabulary learning strategies have an obvious effect on FL/L2 vocabulary intentional learning. Tassana-ngam (2004) and Ahari et al., (2012) as explained in the literature chapter in section 3.1.3., found that learners who trained in the use of learning strategies significantly outperformed subjects from a control group in learning new vocabulary. In terms of incidental vocabulary learning, Schwarz (2012) is the only study that investigated the effect of vocabulary learning strategies on incidental vocabulary learning from songs. Schwarz's study is in the same vein of the current study that vocabulary learning strategies do not have statistical significant influence on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English. Consequently, it cannot be argued that acquaintance or implementation of vocabulary learning strategies helps in facilitation and acceleration of acquiring new vocabulary either from listening to stories and songs or from watching films. However, it is still early to decide whether vocabulary learning strategies have any effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening or not. It is recommended that this study

ought to be replicated considering two crucial factors in designing future research: 1) The number of participants should be equal in each group; 2) participants should be at the same level of language proficiency.

6.4.5. The effect of learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening

A Kendall's tau_b test of correlation shows weak positive correlation for learning styles in songs ($\tau=0.10$ $P>0.05$) and films ($\tau=0.05$ $P>0.05$) but did not show any statistical significance between vocabulary gains and learning styles. Conversely, findings show weak negative correlation between vocabulary gains from stories and learning styles ($\tau= -0.17$, $P>0.05$) and statistically no significance between variables. Accordingly, it cannot be argued that learning styles make any difference in learning vocabulary incidentally from listening.

This thesis is the first experimental study that investigates which type of learners can learn more vocabulary incidentally from listening to English. However, literature refers to considerable amount of research that examines the effect of learning styles on intentional learning. The results of the current study correlate with those of some other researchers (Pashler et al; 2008 and Marshik, 2015) who argue that many studies have been conducted by different researchers in many different contexts with many different people of all ages and still no evidence has emerged that learning styles make a significant

difference. Based on the results of the current study and previous research it can be argued that learning styles have no effect either in incidental or in intentional learning. However, much research could still be done to determine the effect of this factor on incidental vocabulary learning from spoken inputs. Given that learning styles is itself a contested area (Coffield 2004) this finding is not problematic to the overall contribution of the study,

Answering the second research question (What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input in this context?), it can be argued that listening to stories and songs as well as watching films leads to at least quite good (more than one-third from songs and films, and almost half from stories) incidental vocabulary learning. Moreover, incidental learning of vocabulary is affected positively by two factors:

1. The language acquirer/learner's foreign language proficiency; and
2. The language acquirer/learner's previous vocabulary knowledge.

It also becomes clear from the current experimental study that word repetitions within the spoken texts, learning styles and vocabulary learning strategies have no effect on incidental vocabulary learning. This study was based on self-report, questionnaires, to explore the participants' vocabulary learning strategies and learning styles. The outcomes of the questionnaires were compared with the participants' vocabulary incidental gains to indicate the

effects of these two factors on vocabulary incidental learning through listening. It seems that questionnaire as a research method is questionable or at least is insufficiently valid to explore vocabulary learning strategies and learning styles of the L2 learners. This is due to some validity limitations; among which are:

- The low English proficiency of the samples may negatively affect the outcomes of the questionnaire. Bryman (2008) argues that “respondents whose literacy is limited or whose facility with English is restricted will not be able to answer the questionnaire” (p.219);
- When participants report what they do, they might be completely inaccurate about what they actually do.

These limitations can be avoided by implementing interviews and observation as an additional method to investigate vocabulary learning strategies and learning styles. Using interviews and observation, in future research, may give more accurate results about these two factors.

Chapter 7:

Conclusion

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1. Introduction

The current study set out to investigate to what extent second language (L2) vocabulary can be acquired incidentally through extensive exposure to spoken texts and to what extent it leads to acquiring or enhancing lexical knowledge, in terms of meaning, grammatical behaviour and use. In addition to that, it aims to uncover the main conditions required for such acquisition.

The study hypothesizes that:

H1. Vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from listening to the target language;

H2. Incidental vocabulary learning from listening to the target language may be enhanced by:

- (1) The effect of word repetitions within authentic and non-authentic spoken texts;
- (2) The effect of participants' L2 language proficiency;
- (3) The effect of participants' L2 previous vocabulary knowledge;
- (4) The effect of participants' vocabulary language strategies;

(5) The effect of participants' learning styles.

This study was designed to seek answers to two core research questions:

Q1. To what extent can English vocabulary be learnt by Libyan students of English from spoken input of the target language?

The answer to the first question enabled the researcher to know how much English vocabulary can be learnt incidentally from spoken input and to know the extent to which this type of learning helps to enhance lexical knowledge (meaning, grammatical behaviour and usage). In addition, it provided data concerning whether the learnt vocabulary can be retained in the long-term memory or not.

Q2. What factors increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input in this context?

As explained in the methodology chapter, section 4.1.2., it was hypothesised that five factors may increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input of the target language:

- 1) Word repetitions in the texts;
- 2) Participants' L2 language proficiency;
- 3) Participants' L2 previous vocabulary knowledge;

4) Participants' vocabulary learning strategies;

5) Participants' learning styles.

This chapter presents a short conclusion which has been organized into six sections. The first section is this introduction in which the aim, hypotheses and research questions of the study have been restated. The second section has been devoted to summarise the findings of the thesis. The third section makes claim of contributions of the current study to the field of SLA. The fourth section identifies the limitations of the study. The fifth section recommends some pedagogical recommendations and suggests some implications for learners, teachers and course designers. The sixth section offers suggestions for further research in the domain of incidental vocabulary learning through listening to an L2. And lastly the seventh section presents the main conclusion of the study.

7.2. Summary of the findings

According to the complicated and strict procedures employed in the current study, as mentioned in the methodology chapter, the researcher holds strongly the view that listening classes were the only medium through which the experimental group of this study had been exposed to the target audio and audio-visual materials used in the current study. Additionally, the Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon (MWW) test revealed that incidental vocabulary learning

scores of the experimental and control groups are significantly different. Accordingly, the researcher concludes with minimal doubt that incidental vocabulary learning occurred during the exposure to the materials used in the three experiments rather than through any other effects of the surrounding educational environment.

The analysis of this study's data demonstrates that vocabulary can, receptively and productively, be learnt incidentally from listening to both authentic (songs and films) and non-authentic (graded readers) audio/audio-visual inputs. Contrasting the three types of inputs (stories, songs and films) the results showed that simplified stories (non-authentic) lead to higher incidental vocabulary learning than authentic materials. As for the authentic materials, the results demonstrate that participants learnt more vocabulary from songs than from films. The study concluded that most obvious vocabulary development occurred from stories then songs while films were the mode that may least help learners to acquire vocabulary from listening to spoken English.

The results showed that the mean gains of the group (more than one-third of the target words from songs and films, and almost half from stories) were moderately good for a small majority although varied in terms of the different individuals involved. However, the individual analysis of the data showed that listening to stories, songs and films is highly propitious for incidental

vocabulary learning. In terms of the four investigated knowledge aspects of target words (If the subjects more than recognised the word, ie., they identified the word meaning then they also had to identify the part of speech and use the word in a sentence), the results demonstrated that these four capabilities were acquired from listening to stories and songs, as well as from watching films. The most obvious learning gains were in simple word recognition (which relied on their honesty) then in an additional method to investigate vocabulary learning the meaning, then the grammar functional identification of the new words while word use was the least competently acquired skill from listening to English. The results also demonstrated that the incidental vocabulary learnt was retained for more than six months although the amount marginally decreased.

This study, as previously mentioned, investigated the effects of five factors that may increase the likelihood of vocabulary being learnt from spoken input. The results can be summarised as follows:

1. It appears from the results that the repetition of the target words in the spoken text does not have a strong affect in learning vocabulary incidentally from the spoken inputs;
2. Concerning the effect of the English proficiency level, the results revealed that the more proficient the participants were the more capable they were to learn vocabulary incidentally from spoken inputs;

3. As for the size of previous knowledge of vocabulary, the results showed that participants who had large size storages of L2 vocabulary learnt more new vocabulary from the spoken inputs than those who had smaller ones;
4. In terms of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS), the results demonstrated that participants' vocabulary learning strategies do not seem to have a strong effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories, songs nor films;
5. Concerning language learning style, the data were not statistically significant, although, the best achievement was recorded by the active learners group while the least was recorded for the global learners group. The individual analysis showed that a visual learner had recorded the highest gain among all the participants but we know we should treat the learning styles attribution with care.

7.3. Contribution to the research

This study adds to the small amount of research done on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English stories, songs and films. The findings of the current study confirm the importance of incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English. It is hoped that this study will be a reference for researchers in the future for the following reasons:

1. The current study is the second experimental study investigating incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories by Arabic learners of English. The first was conducted by Al-Homoud who targeted Saudi L2 learners of English. The current study avoided some methodological limitations of Al-Homoud's study. Al-Homoud's participants were not highly controlled due to the fact that he used 'convenience sampling methods' which, as explained in a previous chapter, means that he targeted any individuals that were available from Saudi students at the time of his experiment. The current study gave careful thought to engaging participants of different language levels in the same tasks. Accordingly, the current study used purposive sampling method, as presented in methodology chapter section 4.5.1 , in choosing the target participants which I think is more appropriate for this type of research;
2. The current study is the first experimental study that targeted Libyan Arabic learners of English in learning vocabulary incidentally from listening to English. This is an area that has been neglected by Arab researchers, teachers and course designers so far. I think that if we (in Libya) are to contribute in developing English as a foreign language (EFL) learning, we need to focus more on incidental language learning alongside intentional learning. Accordingly, I have taken the very first step in conducting an

experimental study investigating incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English. Not only that, the current study is also: The first experimental study that targeted Libyan Arabic learners of English in learning vocabulary incidentally from listening to English songs, to stories and from watching films;

3. The current study is the first experimental study investigating incidental vocabulary learning from listening to songs by Arabic learners of English;
4. The current study is the first experimental study investigating incidental vocabulary learning from watching films by Arabic learners of English;
5. Previous research has not considered the notion of authentic and non-authentic spoken texts in exploring incidental vocabulary learning either from reading or from listening. Thus, the current study was designed to be the first experimental study comparing incidental vocabulary learning from authentic texts and non-authentic spoken texts;
6. The literature has not previously actually compared different types of listening input. Accordingly, the current study is the first experimental study comparing incidental vocabulary learning from three different spoken inputs (stories, songs and films);
7. The vast majority of incidental vocabulary learning research looked at the amount of vocabulary that can be learnt incidentally from listening to a

second/foreign language. Ellis (1994) hypothesized, as explained in the literature review, that incidental L2 vocabulary learning from a spoken context is influenced by four main factors: intrinsic word properties, input factors, international factors and learner factors. Little empirical research, to the best of my knowledge, reported the effect of repetition (Brown et al., 2008 and Milton, 2008) or vocabulary learning strategies (Schwarz, 2012)) on incidental vocabulary learning from listening. The current study also investigated the effect of five factors that were hypothesized to increase the likelihood of learning vocabulary incidentally from extensive listening to English:

- I. The first investigated factor was the effect of word repetition on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to authentic and non-authentic spoken texts. The current study confirms previous research outcomes that there was no clear effect of word repetitions on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to English stories, songs and films.
- II. The second factor examined was the effect of participants' language proficiency in that language on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to authentic and non-authentic spoken texts. The current study contrasted the gains of participants from four different groups of language proficiencies (Lower intermediate, Intermediate, Upper

intermediate and Advanced). Accordingly, the current experimental study contributes, to the literature, that the higher the level of language proficiency the more vocabulary can be learnt incidentally.

- III. The present study is the first study correlating between the effect of participants' previous vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary incidental learning from listening to authentic and non-authentic spoken texts. The current study provides evidence that knowing more vocabulary may lead to acquiring more new words incidentally.
- IV. The current study is the first experimental study investigating the effect of participants' vocabulary language strategies (VLS) on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories and watching films, and is the second research examining this issue on songs. The current study made a contribution to the literature showing that VLS has no statistical significant influence on incidental vocabulary learning from listening either to authentic or non-authentic English spoken inputs.
- V. The fifth factor examined in the current study was the effect of participants' learning styles on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to authentic and non-authentic spoken texts. This experimental research is the first study examining this factor. Accordingly, it made an obvious contribution in the domain which claims that learning style has

no effect on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories and songs or from watching films.

7.4. Limitations of the Study

The researcher has frequently claimed that he did his best to avoid some limitations of previous research; however, it is not easy to claim that this work is perfect. This is due to the fact that the current study has been conducted in a Libyan university in the academic year of 2011 during the public revolution against Gadhafi's regime. Due to the events of the revolution the current study has the following limitations:

1. One of the limitations of the present study was the difficulty of maintaining the number of participants targeted for the study. The treatment group of the study, as planned, was sixty seven students, but unfortunately only twenty nine students of the experimental groups attended all classes as well as pre-tests and post-tests. The reason for the dramatic decrease in the number of the participants was due to the war which had broken out in Libya during the time that the study was being conducted. The city had been bombarded by NATO air forces during the experiment. In addition to that, some rebel activities were carried out by some civil protesters against Gaddafi's dictatorial regime. These

events affected the study in terms of the number of the lectures delivered and the presence of students at those lectures.

The situation in the city during the experiment was extremely difficult. Among the reasons for the decreased number of participants was transportation. The only means of transportation within the city was private cars, i.e., neither government nor the university provided any other alternative services like trams or public buses that facilitate people's mobility within the city. Consequently, transportation was exceedingly expensive due to the incredible increase in fuel costs which were raised from 0.12 Libyan Dinar (LD) up to 6 LD per litre. In calculation, this meant that the fuel price was increased 5000% per-litre which meant that the cost of filling a car tank with fuel was equal to the average salary for a Libyan employee at that time. Due to the fuel price increasing, the majority of students and lecturers were unable to use their own cars to go to the university. Only the highly motivated students struggled to make the long daily journey to the university in order to attend lectures.

2. I cannot deny that it would have been useful to follow a mixed methods approach, in terms of using both qualitative and quantitative methods, and it would have been interesting to interview some students to seek additional data that may have enriched the study and offered a comprehensive picture of the research problem. However, I was only able to employ a quantitative research

methodology because of the situation in Libya at the time being of the study. Accordingly, it was not feasible to employ any qualitative methods.

3. The present study examined the effects of five different factors which hypothesized to have effects on incidental vocabulary learning through English spoken inputs. However carefully designed the current experimental study was and even though it reached its aims, the researcher is still aware of some unavoidable limitations. Therefore, it is recommended that this study ought to be replicated to explore those factors taking into consideration two crucial issues in designing for future research:

- 1) The number of participants should be equal in each group;
- 2) Participants should be at the same level of language proficiency in each group;

4. I have done my best, as it mentioned in the Methodology chapter of this study, to design and conduct a high qualified experimental study. However, there is still some unavoidable limitations related to the experimental procedures. For the purpose of this study, the vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) was used in this experimental study to measure the participants' partial (recognition, meaning, grammar function and the word use) vocabulary learning. The VKS test, as demonstrated in the methodology chapter, is highly

reliable and a valid tool to measure incidental vocabulary learning through listening to the foreign language. However, the Paired Sample Test analysis of the VKS post-test and delayed-post-test demonstrated higher learning gains from listening to the target songs and watching films in the delayed-post-test. This, unexpected, result may be due to the frequent exposure of the participants to the VKS test. Participants, according to the design of the experiment, had to take the VKS test three times (pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test). Consequently, the testing may enhance the participants' attention towards the target word as well as stimulate their ability to recognise some particular words. The assumption of stimulating recognition may be due to the possibility of participant error, i.e., giving the same test to the same participant more than once but under different conditions may affect their performance. The different conditions might be motivation, mood, fatigue, health, or performance. The possibility of participant error, if it is the reason, would threaten the post-delayed VKS test's reliability. Consequently, researchers have to consider this bias of reliability in further studies. If the coming studies can present a better substitute measurement to investigate permanent learning (long term memory), rather than the VKS delayed-post-test, research may demonstrate different results.

5. It is not only that the current study could answer the research questions raised by the researcher, but it also adds a new dimension to extensive listening

research by examining different types of word knowledge other than meaning as well as exploring some factors that may enhance vocabulary learning from listening to English. However, the results of the current study cannot safely be generalized. This is due to the fact that all participants are highly motivated students. It was not planned, as mentioned in the methodology chapter, to target highly motivated students, the plan was to target homogeneous student but due to the civil war took place in the city only motivated students could participate in all stages of the current study. Accordingly, the findings of this study need to be verified by further experimental research targeting homogeneous participants, not only motivated ones, before any generalizations are made

7.5. Pedagogical recommendation and implications for learners, teachers and course designers

It becomes clear from the three experiments of the current study and previous research reviewed earlier that language acquirers/learners can develop their vocabulary incidentally while they entertain themselves listening to English stories and songs as well as when watching English films. Accordingly, three main recommendations have been drawn from the findings of the current experimental study.

7.5.1. Recommendations for learners

The present study and previous research so far proved that incidental vocabulary learning is a useful method of learning vocabulary through listening to authentic (films and songs) and non-authentic (simplified audio stories) materials. Incidental vocabulary learning leads to better language learning for three reasons:

1. Language learners/acquirers themselves decide what suits their levels, interests, language needs;
2. Language learners/acquirers themselves decide how much time to spend on listening; and
3. Language learners/acquirers themselves decide the degree of importance of what they want to learn first.

Accordingly, ambitious language learners/acquirers who aim to develop their language are advised to invest their leisure time listening to the target language. Listening can be a daily routine activity that leads to incidental language learning in general and vocabulary in particular as well as helping in uplifting one's mood. Consequently, it is recommended for beginner language learners to start listening to simplified or graded readers of their choices that match their levels of language proficiencies. Additionally, language learners can routinely

watch films or listen to songs intensively or extensively. Extensive listening helps in developing language through exposing language acquirers/learners to as many different genres or subjects as possible whereas intensive listening fulfils the language acquirers'/learners' need to develop their language in one particular subject through watching or listening to different sources dealing with that target subject.

7.5.2. Recommendation for teachers and course designers

1. The majority of Libyan learners of English as a foreign/second language are struggling to comprehend some native speakers' English because they are unable to recognize 'even' some simple words when they occur within a spoken text. This is due to their ignorance of and lack of exposure to the vocabulary as well as a failure to practise some phonological processes such as: deletion¹¹, insertion¹², assimilation¹³, dissimilation¹⁴, linking¹⁵, and

¹¹ Deletion/elision: A term used to refer to the loss (elision) of a segment or syllable. (Carr, 2008)

¹² Insertion: sounds have been inserted into a sequence of segments, as in the case of the Intrusive 'r' in sequences such as law and order when pronounced as [lɔ: ɹəʊɔ: də]. (Op. cit.)

¹³ Assimilation: A process whereby two, normally adjacent, sounds become more similar to each other. (Op. cit.)

¹⁴ Dissimilation: The opposite of assimilation. It is a process whereby two adjacent sounds become less similar. (Op. cit.)

naturalization. Accordingly, I recommend that it would be valuable for course designers and English language teachers, in Libya, to focus more on these processes in designing materials for listening classes and to seek examples from authentic materials (songs and films) which contains interesting and enjoyable examples that help to develop listening comprehension in general as well as facilitate recognition of vocabulary within a spoken text.

2. The real challenge for any L2 language acquirer/learner is to communicate without any difficulty with native speakers and deals easily with written or spoken authentic message. The Libyan curriculum for English is incapable of achieving this goal. That is due to the fact that Received Pronunciation (RP) dominates English teaching in Libyan curricula. So, many L2 speakers of English encounter many difficulties in comprehending other accents of English rather than RP. Accordingly, it will be valuable if the language teachers of English put more emphasis on presenting different accents and varieties of English when teaching English.
3. Teachers can help their students to increase their vocabulary knowledge incidentally by stimulating their students to practise listening out of school through listening and watching English TV programs, films, news, ... etc.

¹⁵ Linking is the process when “the connecting of the final sound of one word or syllable to the initial sound of the next” (Murcia, et al. , 1996)

This can be done by dual tasks activities, i.e., students may be required to listen to a specific program; or to identify a specific time in which students can watch a TV show, films, ... etc. then either to:

- Write a summary for 'writing classes' reported what they have listened to or watched;
- Write examples that reflect their understanding of the above mentioned phonological processes to be discussed in 'phonology and pronunciation classes'; or
- Deliver presentations in the 'spoken classes' summarizing what they have listened to or watched.

7.5.3. Recommendations for decision makers in education institutions in Libya

It is recommended that educational authorities work to develop new approaches to teach English in Libya. As shown in the introduction that the courses taught in the English departments in Libyan universities are inadequate to qualify graduates for the labour markets. Libyan educational authorities have to reconsider their philosophies, teaching methods and practices of English language teaching. This may be done through staged development programs:

1. Reconsidering the concern of human resources developments.

In 2015 the Minister of High Education in Libya stated that there were 12256 postgraduate Libyan students who had been pursuing their postgraduate studies for the degree of Masters and Doctorates in different fields of studies in different overseas countries. This number means 0.25% of Libyan population. It would be wise for the progress of the state if those postgraduates are asked to gain specific knowledge for pre-identified future roles in the state rather than simply offering scholarships to study without conditions. In this way the Ministry of High Education in Libya should decide in advance what every individual candidate will study. In terms of those who specialized in linguistics, students have to be stimulated to conduct research exploring the best ways to overcome the dilemma of inadequacies of teaching FL/SL.

2. Workshops and conferences

The government could support and stimulate institutions to host national and international workshop, conferences and forums to review and discuss educational issues that may develop approaches for teaching English as a foreign (TEFL) language in general and incidental learning in particular in Libya. Those workshops, conferences and forums play an important role in spreading thoughts and ideas among the Libyan academia. Moreover, they may increase the motivation of specialists to contribute in reviewing the national curricula of teaching English as a foreign language in Libya. This study has

shed light on the need to explore the importance of incidental vocabulary learning among the Libyan students. We also need to provide suggestions for bridging intentional and incidental learning into a unified approach.

It would be helpful for language learners if the Ministry of Education in Libya provides schools and universities with audio and audio-visual libraries. These libraries are recommended to be easy to access, free or low cost to access, to contain pleasurable entertaining spoken materials that may improve language proficiencies. Frequenting audio and audio-visual libraries will maximize FL/L2 learners' exposure to the target language. Add to this and based on the argument that vocabulary is learnt incrementally and most of L2 is learnt incidentally from oral input (Ellis, 1999), frequenting audio and audio-visual libraries will lead to learning more vocabulary incidentally while language acquirers entertain themselves.

To guarantee the best outcomes of these libraries, it is recommended that these libraries remain open for as long as possible with better facilities, equipped with modern technologies such as:

1. Clusters of computers that learner can access;
2. Clusters of TVs;

3. Clusters of Video, DVD, CD, cassette plyers;
4. High speed internet access;
5. Electronic libraries that contain as large number as possible of e-books and videos of different genres;
6. private places for individual and small group watching, listening and discussion; and
7. Wireless network access points (WI FI) that allow private equipment such as laptops, tablets, smartphones and other private electronic devices to connect to free internet.

7.6. Further research

Research on incidental vocabulary learning from listening to stories, songs and from watching films is focused on learning word meanings. The current study is the first study that that has investigated learnability specifically on four aspects of word knowledge (recognition, meaning, grammar and use). I have observed through the experiment that some participants developed their pronunciation and orthographic (writing) aspects of word knowledge, which were out of the scope of the present study, through listening to the stories and songs as well as watching the films. Accordingly, I suggest that a further research is therefore necessary to determine the extent to which those aspects of word knowledge can be acquired from listening to stories, songs and watching films.

7.6.1. Developing pronunciation through listening to English stories and songs and from watching films

Learners who learn English as a foreign language usually have some difficulties in pronouncing the target language. These difficulties are due to the lack of exposure to the native spoken English. Most of the foreign vocabulary gains are acquired from reading and few from non-native teachers. Accordingly, a study can be conducted to examine the extent to which listening to English stories, songs and watching films may lead to improve pronunciation. This follow-up study could be designed as follows:

7.6.1.1. Aim of the research

The aim of the research would be to examine the influence of listening to stories and songs and watching films in developing the participants' pronunciations.

7.6.1.2. Participants

Participants of similar English proficiency levels should be randomly assigned to two groups: control group and experimental group.

7.6.1.3. Procedures

The participants of the control group would not be exposed to the target materials. They would only be required to participate in the pre- and post-test. The experimental group would be required to pronounce a list of the target unknown words before (pre-test) and after (post-test) the exposure to the chosen materials. Both pre-tests and post-test would be recorded in order to allow the researcher to evaluate the participants' pronunciations according to pre-prepared criteria.

7.6.2. Developing orthographic knowledge through listening to English stories and songs and from watching films.

7.6.2.1. Aim of the research

A further potential study could examine the extent to which listening to stories and songs and watching films may lead to developing the participants' word orthographic knowledge. This investigation would look at the social and determination strategies used by students such as consulting others or dictionaries.

7.6.2.2. Participants

Participants of similar English proficiency levels would be randomly assigned into two groups: a control group and experimental group.

The methodology of my study could be replicated with some changes in the samples. Samples can be divided into two groups: a control group who is required to do the pre- and post-test without being exposed to the material used in the experiment and an experimental group who is required to do the pre-test, exposed to the materials and do the post-test. The researcher would dictate the target words pre and post the exposure to the spoken materials then the outcomes of the two tests to be compared to find out to what extent the orthographic knowledge of the new words is developed.

7.6.3. Comparative experimental study comparing between intentional and unintentional vocabulary learning from listening to stories and songs and from watching films

7.6. 3.1. Aim of the research

The aim of the research would be to explore which would cause more and better L2 vocabulary learning through listening to stories and songs as well as watching films

7.6.3.2. Participants

Participants of similar English proficiency levels would be randomly assigned into two groups: an intentional learning group and an incidental learning group.

7.6.3.3. Procedures

The participants of the intentional learning group would be taught the target vocabulary intentionally in class while the incidental learning group would be exposed to the target vocabulary through listening to stories, songs or through watching films. Both groups would be required to do a pre- and post-test. Then the outcomes of both tests would be compared to reveal which group and what extent, note under what circumstances will they learn more vocabulary.

7.6.4. A replication study of Incidental Learning of Second Language Vocabulary Through Extensive Listening to the Graded Stories and Authentic Songs as well as Watching Authentic Films".

Since the current research is based on quantitative methods a further experimental study may replicate the current study employing (mixed methods) quantitative and qualitative methods to find out more detailed explanation about the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary learning and the factors affecting this type of learning.

7.7. Conclusion

This thesis has been devoted to an experimental investigation focusing on the extent to which extensive exposure to spoken English through listening to simplified stories and authentic songs as well as watching authentic films leads to acquire vocabulary incidentally. The experiment was designed to avoid some methodological weaknesses of previous research. The findings of this thesis demonstrated that vocabulary can incidentally be learnt from listening to both authentic (songs and films) and non-authentic (graded readers) spoken inputs. Moreover, listening to the three types of inputs leads to acquiring a considerable amount of incidental vocabulary learning. Considering the individual achievement, it can be argued that incidental vocabulary learning leads to encouraging levels of achievement. Furthermore, it became clear from the comparison of the outcomes of the three modes (stories, songs and films) that listening to non-authentic materials (simplified stories) led to the highest gains in learning English vocabulary incidentally through listening. Songs are in second place while watching films led to the lowest gains among the three modes. In terms of vocabulary, four knowledge aspects, the current study concludes that participants scored highest on the form recognition, then meaning, followed by grammar parts recognition, and lastly on word use. Moreover, the results demonstrate that incidentally learnt vocabulary can be

retained receptively and productively over a period of six months of time span. Additionally, the findings of the current study conclude that lower level language acquirers are not able to gain as much vocabulary incidentally from listening as those with higher levels of knowledge/competence.

Moreover, the results of the present study demonstrate that incidental vocabulary learning is affected positively by three factors:

- Participants' English language levels i. e. advanced learners learnt more vocabulary from listening than lower proficiency levels;
- Participants' previous L2 vocabulary knowledge; and
- Participants', to some extent, vocabulary learning strategies used by the participants in manipulating the new vocabulary.

The current study demonstrates that even one exposure may 'relatively' lead to partial incidental vocabulary learning if some conditions exist in a spoken text; however, word repetitions do not play a significant role in incidental vocabulary learning. Additionally, learning styles also do not play any significant role in incidental vocabulary learning.

References

- Abushafa, M. (2014). *Changing practice in a developing country: The issues of teaching English in Libyan higher education*. PhD Thesis, De Montfort University.
- AfDB. (2012). *Libya 2012. African Economic Outlook*. [Online]. Retrieved January 24, 2018 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/Libya%20Full%20PDF%20Country%20Note.pdf>.
- Ahari, N. (2012). The effect of explicit metacognitive strategies instruction on the lexical knowledge development of Iranian EFL learners International. *Journal of Basic & Applied Sciences*.12(02), 129-143.
- Ahari, N., Sheshkelani, A. and Aidinlou N. (2012). The effect of explicit metacognitive strategies instruction on the lexica, knowledge development of Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of Basic & Applied Sciences*, 12(02), 129-143.
- Ahmed, M. (1988) Vocabulary learning strategies: a case study of Sudanese learners of English. PhD Thesis, University College of North Wales.

- Alahirsh, H. (2006). *Exploring vocabulary learning strategies in the Libyan EFL classroom*. MA dissertation. University of Nottingham.
- Alahirsh, H. (2014). *Exploring the effectiveness of extensive reading on incidental acquisition by EFL learners: an experimental case study in a Libyan university*. PhD, Thesis, University of Nottingham.
- Albargothi, A. (1971). التاريخ الليبي القديم: من أقدم العصور حتى الفتح الاسلام [Libyan ancient hisrory from the eldest ages till the Islamic conquest]. Beirut. Dar Sader.
- Alexander, R. (1982). What's in a four-letter word? Word meaning in English and second language learning. *Die Neueren Sprachen*, 81, 219-224.
- Al-Fuhaid, M (2000). *Vocabulary learning strategies employed by Saudi postgraduate students at the University of Newcastle Upon Tyne*. MA dissertation, University of Newcastle Upon Tyne.
- Alhawat, A. and Ashour, A. J. (unknown). تطور التعليم الجامعي في الجماهيرية الليبية و متطلبات العصر [Development of university education in Libya and requirements of era. Retrieved April, 10, 2010 from world wide web: <http://www.ncrss.com/books/30-1-08-4.pdf>.
- Alhawat, A. (2004). تفعيل بنيات التعليم العالي: نموذج الجماهيرية الليبية [Activation of infrastructures of higher education: Libyan Jamahiriya's model].

Retrieved April, 10, 2010 from world wide web < <http://www.ncrss.com/books/30-1-08-3.pdf>.

Al-homoud, F. (2007). *Vocabulary acquisition via extensive input*. PhD, Thesis. University of Nottingham.

Al-Gaddafi, M. (1975). *The green book*. Tripoli,Libya. World Centre for Research and Studies of The Green Book.

Al Moghani, HM. (2003). *Students' Perceptions of Motivation in English Language Learning in Libya*. (Unpublished) PhD Thesis, School of Education, Durham University.

Almosrati, N. (2010). [Al-Fakhiri يؤكد قرار تقليص الجامعات الليبية إلى عشر] confirms the decision of reducing the Libyan universities to ten]. *Qorina*, Retrieved April 18, 2010 from world wide web: http://www.quryna.com/detail.php?a_idx=5082.

Anderson. J. R. (2000). *Learning and memory: An integrated approach*. USA. NY: John Wiley and Sons.

Baltova, I. (1999). Multisensory language teaching in a multidimensional curriculum: The use of authentic bimodal video in core French. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 56(1), 32-48.

- Blankenship, D. (2010). *Applied Research and Evaluation Methods in Recreation*. Leeds: Human Kinetics.
- Blum-Kulka, S. (1981). Learning to use words: Acquiring semantic competence in second language. In: M. Nahir, (Ed.), *Hebrew teaching and applied linguistics* (pp. 229-243). Washington, DC. University Press of America.
- Bonk, W. (2000). Second language lexical knowledge and listening comprehension. *International Journal of Listening*, 14(1), 14-31.
- Botagga, M. F. (1991). *A generative phonetic feature analysis of the vowel development of native Arabic speakers learning English as a second language*. (Unpublished) PhD Thesis, University of Wales.
- Brett, A.; Rothlein, L. and Hurley, M. (1996). Vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories and explanation of target words. *The Elementary School Journal*, 96(4) 415-422.
- Brindley, G. (1998). Assessing listening abilities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 171-191.
- Brindley, G. (1998). Outcomes-based assessment and reporting in language learning programmes: a review of the Issues. *Language Testing* 15(1) 45-85.

British Council. Libyan English teaching in university project (LETUP).

Retrieved April 12, 2010 from world wide web: <http://www.k7lk.com/get-17604.html>.

British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2011) Ethical guidelines for educational research. 4th edn. Available at: <https://www.bera.ac.uk/publication/bera-ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2011>.

Brown, H. Douglas. (2001). *Teaching by principals: an interactive applied to language pedagogy* (2nd ed). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Brown, R.; Waring, R. and Donkaewbua, S. (2008). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading, reading-while-listening, and listening to stories. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 20 (2), 136-163. Retrieved from <https://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/October2008/brown/brown.pdf>.

Bruton, A. (2009). The vocabulary knowledge scale: A critical analysis. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 6 (4), 288-297. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15434300902801909>.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (2nd ed). Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Buck, G (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

- Cabmpbell, D. T. and Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company.
- Carr, P. (2008). *A Glossary of phonology*. Edinburgh. Edinburgh University Press Ltd.
- Chamot, A. U. (1987). The learning stratehies of ESL students. In A.Wenden, and Rubin, J. (Eds) *Learner Strategies in Language learning*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Chapelle, C. A. (1998). Construct definition and validity inquiry in SLA research. In: Bachman, L. F. and. A. D. Cohen, (Eds.) *Interface between language acquisition and language testing research*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press pp. 32-70
- Chern, C. L. (1993). Chinese students' word-solving strategies in reading in English. In: Huckin, T.;M. Haynes, and J. Coady (Eds). *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary learning* Norwood. NJ: Ablex, pp. 263-284.
- Cobb,T. Web Vocabprofile [accessed 20th September 2010 from <http://www.lex tutor.ca/vp/>], an adaptation of Heatley, Nation and Coxhead's (2002). Range.

- Cook, T. D. and Campbell, D. T. (1979). *Quasi-Experimentation design and analysis issues for field settings*. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Coolican, H. (2005). *Research methods and statistics in psychology* (3rd ed). London. Hodder & Stoughton.
- Curtis, M. (1987). Vocabulary testing and vocabulary instruction. In: M. McKeown, and M. Curtis, (Eds). *The Nature of Vocabulary Acquisition*, USA. NJ. Lawrence Erlbaum Association, Publishers.
- Cziko, G. A. (1989). Unpredictability and indeterminism in human behaviour: Arguments and implications for educational research. *Educational Research*, 18(3), 17-25.
- Danan, M. (1992). Reversed subtitling and dual coding theory: New directions for foreign language instruction. *Language Learning*. 42 (4), 497-527.
- Danan, M. (2004). Captioning and subtitling: undervalued language learning strategies. *Meta*: 49 (1), 67-77. Retrived from <https://www.erudit.org/en/journals/meta/2004-v49-n1-meta733/009021ar/>.
- Dancey, C., and Reidy, J. (2004). *Statistics without Maths for Psychology: using SPSS for Windows*. London: Prentice Hall.

- Dansereau, D. (1985). Learning strategies. In J. W. Segal,;S. F. Chipman, and R. Glaser, (Ed). *Thinking and Learning Skills: Relating Learning to Basic Research*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, pp 209-240.
- Dansereau, D. (1978). The Development of a Learning Strategy Curriculum. In H. F. O'Neil, Jr. (Ed.) *Learning Strategies*. New York. Academic Press, pp1-29.
- Day, C.; Sammons, P. and Gu, Q. (2008). Combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies in research teachers' live, work, and effectiveness: From integration to synergy. *Educational Researcher*. 37(6), 330-342.
- Day, R. ; Omura, C. and Hiramatsu, M. (1991). Incidental vocabulary and reading. *Reading Foreign Language*. 7(2), 541-551.
- Derwing, T. M. (1989). Information type and its relation to non-native speaker comprehension. *Language Learning*. 39 (2), 157-172.
- Dickinson, D. K. and Smith, M. W. (1994). Long-term effects of pre-school teachers' book readings on low-income children's vocabulary and story comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*. 29(1), 104-122.
- Dhaimish, S. (2012). *Recent English Proficiency Index shows Libya as lowest*. [Online]. Retrieved January 2018 from the World Wide Web:

<http://libya.tv/en/recent-english-proficiency-index-shows-libya-as-lowest/> (Accessed: 15/11/2017).

- Ehsanzadeh, S.J. (2012). Depth versus breadth of lexical repertoire: Assessing their roles in EFL students' incidental vocabulary acquisition. *TESL Canada Journal*, 29(2), 24-41.
- Elabbar. AA. (2011). *An Investigation of Influences Affecting Libyan English as a Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), Teaching Approaches in the Language Classrooms*. (Unpublished) PhD Thesis, School of Education, University of Glasgow.
- Elley, W. B. (1989). Vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. *Reading Research Quarterly* 24(2), 174-187.
- Ellis, R. and He X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 21(2), 285-301.
- Ellis, R. and Heimbach, R. (1997). Bugs and birds: children's acquisition of second language vocabulary through interaction. *System* 25(2), 247-259.
- Ellis, R. (1994). Factors in the incidental acquisition of second language vocabulary from oral input: a review essay. *Applied Language Learning*. 5(1), 1-32.

- Ellis, R. (1995). Modified oral input and the acquisition of word meanings. *Applied Linguistics*. 16(4), 409-441.
- Ellis, R. (1999). Modified input the acquisition of word meaning by children and adults. In: R. Ellis,(ed). *Learning a second language through Interaction*. Amsterdam. John Benjamin Publishing Company.
- Ellis, R. , Tanaka, Y. and Yamazaki, A. (1994). Classroom interaction, comprehension and the acquisition of L2 word meanings. *Language Learning* 44(3), 449-491.
- Ellis. R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*. (2nd ed). Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- English Department at the Maastricht University Language Centre. English Diagnostic Test [online], 2002 [reviewed May 2010 from the World WideWeb:<https://www.maastrichtuniversity.nl/sites/default/files/englishitest.pdf>].
- Fagan, A. (unknown). Theodor Adorno, The Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy. Available from <https://www.iep.utm.edu/adorno/#H6> [accessed 22nd August, 2018].
- Fatemeh, A. M, Youhanaee, M. and Barati, H. (2015). Intentional vs. incidental vocabulary learning through games by young EFL Persian

- speakers. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education Technology*. 4(1), 23-34.
- Felder, R. and Henriques, E. (1995). Learning and teaching styles in foreign and second language education. *Foreign Language Annals*. 28(1), 21-31.
- Felder, R. and Silverman, L. (1988). Learning styles and teaching styles in engineering education. *Engineering Education*. 78(7), 674-681.
- Felder, R. and Soloman, B. (2004). Index of Learning Styles. Available from <http://www.ncsu.edu/felderpublic/ILSpag.html>. [accessed 22nd August, 2010].
- Felder, R. and Soloman, B. (1998). Learning styles and strategies. Available from <http://www.ncsu.edu/felder-public/ILSdir/styles.html>. [accessed 25th August, 2010].
- Felder, R. and Spurlin, J. (2005). Application, reliability and validity of the index of learning styles. *International Journal of Engineering Education*. 21(1), 103-112.
- Flowerdew, J. and Miller, L. (2005). *Second language listening: Theory and practice*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Fraenkle, C.; Smith, E.H;and Perinetti, D. (2011) *The Rationalists: between tradition and innovation*. London. Springer.

- Gary, J. D. and Gary N. G. (1981). Caution: talking may be dangerous for your linguistic health. *IRAL* 19(1), 1-13.
- Garza, T. J. (2008). Evaluating the use of captioned video materials in advanced foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*. 24(3), 239-258.
- Gazal, L. (2007). Learning vocabulary in EFL contexts through vocabulary learning strategies. *Novitas Royal*. 1(2), 84-91.
- Glover, J. A. (1989). The testing phenomenon: not gone but nearly forgotten. *Educational Psychology*. 81(3), 392-399.
- Goldman, M., and Goldman, S. (1988). Reading with closed-captioned TV. *Journal of Reading*. 31(5), 458-461.
- Gu, Y. (2010). Learning strategies for vocabulary development. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*. 9(2), 105–118
- Gu, Y. and Johnson, R. K. (1996). Vocabulary learning strategies and language learning outcomes. *Language Learning*. 46 (4), 643 –79.
- Harji, M. et al., (2010). The effect of viewing subtitled videos on vocabulary learning. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*. 7(9), 37-42.
- Heatley, A. , Nation, I. S. P. and Coxhead, A. (2002). *RANGE and FREQUENCY program*. Available from: <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx>

- Henriksen, B. (1999). Three dimensions of vocabulary development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), 303-317.
- Hismanoglu, M. (2008). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. *The Internet TESL Journal*. Available from: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Hismanoglu-Strategies.html> [accessed 21st May 2010].
- Horst, M. (2005). Learning L2 vocabulary through extensive reading: a measurement study. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 61(3), 355-382.
- Horst, M., Cobb, T. and Meara, P. (1998). Beyond a clockwork orange: Acquisition second language vocabulary through reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 11(2), 207-223.
- Hu, M. and Nation, I. S. P. (2000). Vocabulary density and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 13(1), 403-430.
- Huang, H., and Eskey, D. (2000). The effects of closed-captioned television on the listening comprehension of intermediate English as a second language students. *Educational Technology Systems*, 28(1), 75-96.
- Huckin, T. and Coady, J. (1999). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language: a review. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), 181-193.

- Hulstijn, J. H. (1998). Implicit and incidental second language learning: experiments in processing of natural and partly artificial input. In: H. W. Dechert, and M. Raupach, (Eds). *Interlingua processes (language in performance)*. Tübingen: Narr. pp. 49-73.
- Issariva Tassana-ngam (2004). The Effect of vocabulary learning strategies training on Thai university students' word retention in the second language classroom. PhD Thesis, University of Essex.
- Ivankova, N. V. and Creswell, J. W. (2009). Mixed methods. In: J. Heigham, and R. Croker, (Eds.) *Qualitative research method in applied linguistics: A practical introduction*. London. Palgrave Macmillan
- Jackson (1988) *Words and their Meaning*. London: Longman.
- Jones, L. C. (2003). Supporting listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition with multimedia annotations: The Students' Voice. *CALICO Journal*. 21(1), 41-65
- Karakas, A and Saricoban, A. (2012). The impact of watching subtitled animated cartoons on incidental vocabulary learning of ELT students. *Teaching English with Technology*. 12(4), 3-15.
- Kelly, P. (1991). Lexical ignorance: the main obstacle to listening comprehension with advanced foreign language learners. *IRAL*, 29(2), 135-149.

- Kojic-Sabo, I., & Lightbown, P. M. (1999). Students' approaches to vocabulary learning and their relationship to success. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(2), 176-192.
- Koolstra, C. and Beentjes, W. (1999). Children's vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language through watching subtitled television at home. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 47(1), 51-60.
- Koskinen, P.; Knable, J.; Markham, P.; Jensema, C. , and Kane, K. (1996). Captioned television and the vocabulary acquisition of adult second language correctional facility residents. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 24(4), 359-373.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*, New York: Longman
- Krashen, S. D. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the Input Hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*. 73(4), 440-464.
- Krashen, S. D. (2009). The comprehension hypothesis extended. In: T. Piske, and M.Young-Scholten, (Eds) *Input Matters in SLA* (pp. 81-94). Bristol. Multilingual Matters.
- Kreiba, H. (2012). Learning English in Libya: A Long-Suppressed Ambition. *Tripoli Post* 25, 9-12.

- Kweon, S. and Kim, H. (2008). Beyond raw frequency: Incidental vocabulary acquisition in extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 20(2), 191-215.
- Lagga, B.; AbuGhenia, A., El-Hawat, A., Al-Mahgoubi, G., AbuSalum, A., Al-Abid, A., Al-Magdoub, G., Al-Kouga, S., Al-Tagouri, A., Dhegdagh, M. and Ghiblawi, S. (2004) The development of education in the great Jamahiriya. In: *The International conference on education quality education for young people: challenges, trends and priorities*. Available from <http://www.oalibya.com/front-page/local-news/8689-----2009----->> [accessed 17th April, 2010].
- Laufer, B. (1997). What's in a word that makes it hard or easy: Some intralexical factors that affect the learning of words. In: N. Schmitt, and M. McCarthy, (Eds.) *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition, and pedagogy* (pp. 140-155). Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Laufer, B. and Rozovski-roitblat, B. (2011). Incidental vocabulary acquisition: The effects of task type, word occurrence and their combination. *Language Teaching Research* 15(4), 391-411.

- Levesque, M (2013). Incidental vocabulary acquisition through aural means: what do English programs have to offer? MA Dissertation. Concordia University.
- Lund, R. J. (1991). A comparison of second language listening and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75 (2), 196-204.
- Markham, P. L. (1993). Captioned television videotapes: Effects of visual support on second language comprehension. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 21 (3), 183-191.
- Markham, P. L. (1999). Captioned videotapes and second-language listeni word recognition. *Foreign Language Annals*, 32 (3), 321-328.
- Markham, P., and Peter, L. (2003) The influence of English language and Spanish language captions on foreign language listening/ reading comprehension. *Educational Technology Systems* 31(3), 331-341.
- Marshik, T. (2015). *Learning styles and the importance of critical self-reflection*. [online video] Available from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=855Now8h5Rs> [accessed 18th February 2016].
- Mason, B.; Vanata, M.; Jander, K.; Borsch, R.; and Krashen, S. (2009). The effects and efficiency of hearing stories on vocabulary acquisition

- by students of German as a second foreign language in Japan. *The International Journal of English language Teaching*, 5(1), 1-14.
- Meara, P. (1996). The dimension of lexical competence. In: G. Brown; K. Malmkjar and J. Williams, (Eds.) *Competence and Performance in Language Learning*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Medina, S. L. (1993). The effect of music on second language vocabulary acquisition. *National Network for Early Language learning*. Available from <https://www.scribd.com/document/48534976/The-Effect-of-Music-on-Second-Language-Vocabulary-Acquisition> [accessed 21st January 2010].
- Milton, J. (2008). Vocabulary uptake from informal learning tasks. *Language Learning Journal* 36(2), 227-237.
- Milton, J. and Fitzpatrick, T. (2014). Dimensions of vocabulary knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 36(4), 757-758.
- Mitchell, R. and Myles, F. (2004) *Second language learning theories (2nd Ed)* London. Hodder Arnold.
- Morgan, G. A. and Giego, O. V. (1998). *Easy use and interpretation of SPSS for Windows: Answering research questions with statistics*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Murcia, M., Brinton, D. M. and Goodwin, J. M. (1996) *Teaching pronunciation. A reference for teachers of English to speakers of other language*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Mutalib, A. (2002) Vocabulary learning strategies: A case study of Libyan learners of English. (Unpublished) M A. dissertation. University of Newcastle Upon Tyne.
- Mutalib, A (2003). *The relationship between the European Union and South Mediterranean Countries*. (Unpublished) MA. dissertation. Northumbria University.
- Nagy, W. E and Herman, P. A. (1987). Breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge: Implication for acquisition and instruction. In: M. McKeown, and M. Curtis. (Eds.) *The nature of vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 19-35). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Nation, P. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York. Newbury House.
- Kweon, S.O. & Kim, H.R. (2008). Beyond raw frequency: Incidental vocabulary acquisition in extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 20(2),191–215. Retrieved from <http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/>.

- Host, M. (2005). Learning L2 vocabulary through extensive reading: A measurement study. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 61(3), 355–382.
- Bruton, A. (2009). The vocabulary knowledge scale: A critical analysis. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 6(4), 288-297.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15434300902801909>
- Stewart, J., Batty, A. O. B., & Bovee, N. (2012). Comparing multidimensional and continuum models of vocabulary acquisition: An empirical examination of the vocabulary knowledge scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(4), 695-721. .
- Ehsanzadeh, S.J. (2012). Depth versus breadth of lexical repertoire: Assessing their roles in EFL students' incidental vocabulary acquisition. *TESL Canada Journal*, 29(2), 24-41.
- Nation, P. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening?. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 63(1), 59-82.
- Nation, I. S. P. and Beglar, D. (2007). A vocabulary size test. *The Language Teacher*. 31(7), 9-13.

- Neuman, S. B. and Koskinen, P. (1992) Captioned television as comprehensible input: Effects of incidental word learning from context for language minority students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27(1), 94-106.
- O'Mally, J. and Chamot, A. (1990), *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Orafi, S. & Borg, S. (2009). Intentions and realities in implementing communicative curriculum reform. *System*. 37, 243-253.
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies what every teacher should know*. USA: Heinle and Heinle Publisher.
- Pashler, H., McDaniel, M., Rohrer, D., and Bjork, R. (2008). Learning styles: Concepts and evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*. 9(3), 105–119.
- Penno, J.; Wilkinson, I. and Moore, D. (2002). Vocabulary acquisition from teacher explanation and repeated listening to stories: Do they overcome the Matthew Effect?. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 94(1), 23-33.
- Perez, M., Peters, E., Clarebout, G. and Desmet, P. (2014). Effect of captioning on video comprehension and incidental vocabulary learning. *Language Learning and Teaching* 18 (1), 118-141.

- Pigada, M. and Schmitt, N. (2006). Vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading: A case study. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 18, 1-28.
- Pitts, M., White, H. and Krashen, S. (1989) Acquiring second language vocabulary through reading: A replication of the Clockwork Orange study using second language acquirers. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 5(2), 271-275.
- Pulido, D. (2003). Modelling the role of second language proficiency and topic familiarity in second language incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. *Language Learning*, 53(2), 233-284.
- Qian, D. D. (2002). Investigating the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and academic reading performance: an assessment perspective. *Language Learning*, 52(3), 513-536.
- Raine, P. (2012). Incidental learning of vocabulary through subtitled authentic videos. MA dissertation. University of Birmingham.
- Rajendran, S (2010). ELT in Libyan universities a pragmatic approach. *Language in India*, 9(63) Retrived from <http://languageinindia.com/sep2010/v10i9sep2010.pdf#page=66>.
- Read, J. (2009). *Assessing vocabulary*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

- Rice, M. L. and Woodsmall, L. (1988). Lessons from television: Children's word learning when viewing. *Child Development* 59(2), 420-429.
- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2007) *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. (2nd Ed.). Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* 10(1), 77-89.
- Rieder, A. (2003). Implicit and explicit learning in incidental vocabulary acquisition. *Views*, 12(2), 24-39.
- Ritter, K., Kaprove, B. H., Fitch, J. P., & Flavell, J. H. (1973). The development of retrieval strategies in young children. *Cognitive Psychology*. 5(3), 310-321.
- Rodgers, M. P. (2013). *English language learning through viewing television: An investigation of comprehension, incidental vocabulary aquisitio, lexical coverage, attitude, and captions*. PhD Theses, Victoria University Wellington.
- Rubin, J. (1994). A review of second language listening comprehension research. *Modern Language Journal*, 78 (2), 199-221

- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. L. Wenden and J. Rubin(Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning*. 15-30. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-hall.
- Rumelhart, D. E. (1980). Schemata: the building blocks of cognition. In Spiro, J. R. J., Bruce, B. C. and Brewer, W. F. (Eds.). *Theoretical Issues in Reading Comprehension* (pp. 33–58). USA, NJ. Lawrence Erlbaum Association.
- Ruutemets, K. (2005). Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Studying English as a Foreign Language. Master's thesis. [online]. Available: [http://www. utlib. ee/ekollekt/diss/mag/2005/b17557100/ruutemets.pdf](http://www.utlib.ee/ekollekt/diss/mag/2005/b17557100/ruutemets.pdf) [axxessed 30th January 2014].
- Saffran, J. R., Newport, E. L., Aslin, R. N., Tunick, R. A and Barrueco, S. (1997). Incidental language learning: listening (and Learning). out of the corner of your ear. *Psychology Science*, 8(2), 101-105.
- Salem, S. (1991). The development of some English consonants: A longitudinal study. (Unpublished) PhD Theses, University of Leeds.
- Salmani, M. A. and Birjandi, P. (2005). *An introduction to phonetics*. Iran. Zabankadeh Publications.

- Salomon, G. and Leigh, T. (1984). Predispositions about learning from print and television. *Journal of Communication*, 34(2), 119-135.
- Salomon, G. (1984). Television is easy and print is tough: the differential investment of mental effort in learning as a function of perceptions and attribution. *Journal of Education Psychology* 76 (4), 647-658.
- Sapsford, R. and Jupp, V. (2006). Validating evidence. In: R. Sapsford, and V. Jupp, (Ed.). *Data Collection and Analysis (pp.-23)*. London. SAGE Publication Ltd.
- Saragi, T., Nation, I. S. P. and Meister G. F. (1978). Vocabulary learning and reading. *System* 6(2), 72-78.
- Schmitt, N. (1998). Tracking the incremental acquisition of second language vocabulary: A longitudinal study. *Language Learning*. 48(2) 281-317.
- Schmitt, N. (2008). *Teaching vocabulary*. Available from <http://www.longmanhomeusa.com/content/FINAL-HIGH%20RES-SchmittVocabulary%20Monograph%20.pdf>. [accessed 10th April 2010].
- Schmitt, N. (2008). Vocabulary learning strategies. In N. Norbert, and M. Michael, (Eds.) *Vocabulary description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 199-227). Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

- Schmitt, N. and Meara, P. (1997). Researching vocabulary through a word knowledge framework: word association and verbal suffix. *Studies in Second Language acquisition*, 19(1), 17-36.
- Shmitt, N., Schmitt, D and Clapham, C. (2001). Developping and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the vocabulary level test. *Language Testing*, 18(1), 55-88.
- Seliger, H. W. and Shohamy, E. (2003). *Second language research methods*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Senechal, M., Thomas, E., and Monker, J. (1995). Individual differences in 4 year-old children's acquisition of vocabulary during schoolbook reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(2), 218-229.
- Shokouhi, H. and Maniati, M. (2009). Learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition: A case study on narrative and expository text. *English Language Teaching* 2(1), 13-23.
- Soloman, B. And Felder. R. (n.d.) *Index of Learning Styles Questionnaire*, Available from <https://www.webtools.ncsu.edu/learningstyles/> [accessed 10th May 2010].
- Stahl, S. A. and Clark, C. H. (1987). The effects of participatory expectations in classroom discussion on the learning of science vocabulary. *American Educational Research Journal* 24(4), 541-545.

- Stern, H.H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Stewart, J., Batty, A. O. B., & Bovee, N. (2012). Comparing multidimensional and continuum models of vocabulary acquisition: An empirical examination of the vocabulary knowledge scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(4), 695-721. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tesq.35>.
- Swanborn, M. and Glopper, K. (1999). Incidental Word Learning While Reading: A Meta-Analysis. *Review of Educational Research*. 69(3), 261-285
- Tan, D.; Pandian, A. and Jaganathan, P (2016). Lexical Testing and the Reliability of the Modified Vocabulary Knowledge Scale. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 7(5). 91-96 available from: URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.v.7n.5p.91>.
- Tassana-ngam, I. (2004). *The Effect of Vocabulary Learning Strategies Training on Thai University Students' Word Retention in the Second Language Classroom*. PhD Thesis. University of Essex.
- Tekmen, E. A. F. and Daloglu, A. (2006). An investigation of incidental vocabulary acquisition in relation to learner proficiency level and word frequency. *Foreign language Annals*. 39(2), 220-243.

- Thomas, G. The Myth of Rational Research. *British Educational Research Journal*, 24(2), 141-161.
- Unknown, (2012). Beyond LTT: The State of Libya's Internet. *Kifah Libya*. Available from <http://www.kifahlibya.com/2012/05/20/tech-beyond-ltt-the-state-of-libyas-internet/> [accessed 15th August 2013]
- Vidal, K. (2003). Academic listening: A source of vocabulary acquisition?. *Applied Linguistics*. 24(1), 56-89.
- Vidal, K. (2011). A comparison of the effects of reading and listening on incidental vocabulary acquisition. *Language Learning*, 61(1), 219-258, available from . <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00593.x>. [accessed 22nd August, 2010]
- Waring, R. (2002). Scales of vocabulary knowledge in second language vocabulary assessment. Appeared in Kiyo: The Occasional Papers of Notre Dame Seishin University, Retrieved from <http://www.robwaring.org/papers/various/scales.htm>.
- Waring, R. and Takaki, M. (2003). At what rate do learners learn and retain new vocabulary from reading a graded reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language*. 15(2), 130-163.
- Webb, S.and Rodgers, M. P. H. (2009). The lexical coverage of movies. *Applied Linguistics*. 30(3), 407-427.

- Webb, S. and Rodgers, M. P. H. (2009, a). Vocabulary demands of television program. *Language Learning*, 59(2), 335-366.
- Wenden, A. L. and Rubin, J. (1987). *Learner Strategies in Language Learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Wei, W. and Hong, X. (2007). Incidental vocabulary acquisition and foreign language vocabulary teaching. *CELEA Journal* 30(3), 64-70.
- West, M. (1953). The technique of reading aloud to a class. *ELT Journal* 8(1) 21-24.
- William E. Nagy. Patricia A. Herman and Richard C Anderson (1985). Learning words from context in reading. *Research Quarterly*, 20(2), 233-253.
- Yuksel, D. and Tanrıverdi, B. (2009). Effects of watching captioned movie clip on vocabulary development of EFL learners. *Journal of Educational Technology*. 8(2), 48-54.
- Van Zeeland, H., and Schmitt, N. (2013). Lexical coverage in L1 and L2 listening comprehension: The same or different from reading comprehension? *Applied Linguistics*, 34(4), 457–479.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Exploring students' interests (Questionnaire)

1. هل تستمع الي او تشاهد القنوات الناطقة باللغة الانجليزية؟

☐ لا

☐ نعم

2. هل تستمع الي او تشاهد القنوات الناطقة باللغة الانجليزية باستمرار؟

☐ مرة في الاسبوع

☐ عدة مرات في الاسبوع

☐ يوميا

3. هل تتابع برنامج او مسلسل معين ؟ الرجاء ذكر اسم البرنامج او المسلسل.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

4. كم المدة التي تقضيها في الاستماع الي او مشاهدة القنوات الناطقة باللغة الانجليزية؟. (مثلا, ساعة يوميا الخ)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

5. ما هي البرامج التي تفضل الاستماع اليها او مشاهدتها؟

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> الافلام | <input type="checkbox"/> المسلسلات | <input type="checkbox"/> الاغاني |
| <input type="checkbox"/> البرامج الدينية | <input type="checkbox"/> الاخبار | <input type="checkbox"/> البرامج العلمية |
| <input type="checkbox"/> البرامج الوثائقية | <input type="checkbox"/> البرامج الحوارية او المناضرات | |

6. ما هي الافلام التي تفضل مشاهدتها؟

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> الافلام البوليسية | <input type="checkbox"/> الافلام الرومانسية | <input type="checkbox"/> التاريخية |
| <input type="checkbox"/> افلام الخيال العلمي | <input type="checkbox"/> افلام الكرتون | <input type="checkbox"/> افلام الاكشن |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> افلام الرعب | <input type="checkbox"/> الافلام الكلاسيكية |

7. ما هي الاغاني التي تفضل الاستماع اليها؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Translation of the questionnaire

Dear student

I have been working in a project that may lead to improve listening teaching methods and overcome the limitations of this methods. Your participation in filling this questionnaire will help in getting better understanding of the students' need from this course.

I will be grateful if you kindly allocate some of you voluble time to fill in and bring this questionnaire back to me as soon as possible.

For any clarification, please do not hesitate to meet me at the Department of English or contact me at my e-mail address or mobile as soon in this introductory letter.

Thanks in advance for your participation

Kind regards

Exploring students' interests (Questionnaire)

1. Do you watch English TV channels?

Yes ☐

No ☐

2. How often do watch TV?

Every day

☐

Many times a week

☐

Once a week

☐

3. Do you watch any specific Programme? If your answer is yes, Please name it?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

4. For how many hours do you watch English TV channels? (e.g., one hour
... etc.)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

5. What are your favourite programmes?

Films ☐ Soap opera ☐ Songs ☐ Religious ☐ News ☐
Educational ☐ Documentary ☐ Debates ☐

6. What are your favourite films?

Historical ☐ Romance ☐ Police ☐ Action ☐ Cartoons ☐ Science
fiction ☐ Classic ☐ Horror ☐

7. What are your favourite songs?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 2: List of stories used in the study.

No	Stories' Titles	Level
1.	The Black Cat	Pre-Intermediate
2.	Berenice	Pre-Intermediate
3.	The Mask of the Red Death	Pre-Intermediate
4.	The Oval Portrait	Pre-Intermediate
5.	The picture of Dorian Gray	Intermediate
6.	Sense and Sensibility	Pre-Intermediate
7.	Sherlock Holmes and the Mystery of Boscombe Pool	Pre-Intermediate
8.	The Winter's Tale	Upper-Intermediate
9.	King Lear	Upper-Intermediate
10.	The Taming of the Shrew	Upper-Intermediate
11.	Romeo and Juliet	Upper-Intermediate
12.	Hamlet, Prince of Denmark	Upper-Intermediate
13.	Othello	Upper-Intermediate
14.	The Room in the Tower	Elementary
15.	The Woman in the Black Coat	Elementary
16.	Imray Came Back	Elementary

Appendix 3: List of films used in the experiment.

N o	Film		Duratio n
1.	Above the Law	Film	95 MIN
2.	Aladdin and The King of Thieves	Animation	78 MIN
3.	Aladdin Musical Masterpiece	Animation	87 MIN
4.	Around the World in 80 Days	Film	120 MIN
5.	Around the World in 80 Days	Film	280 MIN
6.	Bend it Like Beckham	Film	108 MIN
7.	Braveheart	Film	
8.	Bruce Almighty	Film	96 MIN
9.	Crocodile2 Death Roll	Film	89 MIN
10.	Cyber Tracher	Film	127 MIN
11.	Die Hard	Film	127 MIN
12.	Die Hard 2	Film	123 MIN
13.	Die Hard 4	Film	123 MIN
14.	Die Hard with Vengeance	Film	123 MIN
15.	Dracula	Film	85 MIN
16.	Evil Dead 2	Film	82 MIN
17.	Ghost Ship	Film	87 MIN
18.	Gladiator	Film	149 MIN
19.	Great Expectation	Film	106 MIN
20.	Halloween 2	Film	101 MIN
21.	House of Wax	Film	108 MIN
22.	Johnny English	Film	84 MIN
23.	Lord of the Flies	Film	130 MIN
24.	Lord of the Rings: The Two Towers	Film	172 MIN
25.	Lord of the Rings:The Fellowship of the Ring	Film	171 MIN
26.	Pirates of the Caribbean: At World's End.	Film	161 MIN
27.	Pirates of the Caribbean: Dead Man's Chest	Film	145 MIN
28.	Private War	Film	88 MIN
29.	Robin Hood	Film	149 MIN
30.	Robin Hood	Animation	70 MIN
31.	RoboCop Meltdown	Film	72 MIN
32.	Sense and Sensibility	Film	131 MIN
33.	Slumdog Millionaire	Film	115 MIN
34.	Street Crimes	Film	94 MIN
35.	Terminator Woman	Film	105 MIN

36.	The Lord of the Rings	Animation	128 MIN
37.	The Lord of the Rings: The Return of the King	Film	192 MIN
38.	The Pirates of the Caribbean: The Curse of the Black Pearl	Film	137 MIN
39.	The Princess Bride	Film	94 MIN
40.	The Return of Jafar	Animation	66 MIN
41.	The Sixth Sense	Film	107 MIN
42.	The Tuxedo	Film	95 MIN
43.	Treasure Island	Animation	48 MIN
44.	Treasure Island	Film	

Appendix 4: List of songs used in the experiment.

Table: Shows title of the songs and their duration			
	Song	Singer	Duration
1.	I'm walking away	Craig David	
2.	Don't be stupid	Shania Twain	3. 33
3.	Candle in the wind	Elton john	3. 58
4.	Hotel in California	Eagles	6. 25
5.	Father and son	Cat Steven	3. 31
6.	Please forgive me	Bryan Adams	5. 46
7.	Last night	Craig David	
8.	Coat of many color	Dolly Parton	4. 18
9.	Fall and rise	Craig David	
10.	She is not just a pretty face	Shania Twain	3. 48
11.	Lean on me	Michael Bolton	3. 56
12.	Rendezvous	Craig David	
13.	When you love some one	Bryan Adams	3. 37
14.	Behind the wall	Tracy Chapman	1. 49

Appendix 5: Participants' English level & vocabulary knowledge of the main study

No	Name	Language level	Vocabulary knowledge
1.	Case 1	LI	3100
2.	Case 2	ADV	2000
3.	Case 3	I	5100
4.	Case 4	UI	2100
5.	Case 5	UI	1400
6.	Case 6	I	4800
7.	Case 7	UI	
8.	Case 8	UI	1700
9.	Case 9	UI	2300
10.	Case 10	LI	1800
11.	Case 11	I	5200
12.	Case 12	I	2700
13.	Case 13	UI	1300
14.	Case 14	I	2800
15.	Case 15	LI	2400
16.	Case 16	LI	2100
17.	Case 17	UI	1100
18.	Case 18	LI	4600
19.	Case 19	LI	3200
20.	Case 20	I	
21.	Case 21	LI	3000
22.	Case 22	UI	3200
23.	Case 23	LI	2600
24.	Case 24	I	3300
25.	Case 25	UI	2700
26.	Case 26	UI	4100
27.	Case 27	UI	3000
28.	Case 28	I	5400
29.	Case 29	UI	3000
30.	Case 30	ADV	5400

Appendix 6: Vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire (VKS)

Dear student

I have been working in a project that may lead to improve listening teaching methods and overcome the limitations of this methods. Your participation in filling this questionnaire will help in getting better understanding of the students' need from this course.

I will be grateful if you kindly allocate some of you voluble time to fill in and bring this questionnaire back to me as soon as possible.

For any clarification, please do not hesitate to meet me at the Department of English or contact me at my e-mail address or mobile as soon in this introductory letter.

Thanks in advance for your participation.

Kind regards

Q 1. When I listen to English stories or songs or watch films:

A) I guess the meaning of new words from context.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

B) I write new words down on a sheet of paper or on a notebook to check their meaning later in an Arabic-English dictionary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

C) I write new words down on a sheet of paper or on a notebook to check their meaning later in an English-English dictionary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

D) I write new words down on a sheet of paper or on a notebook to check their meaning later in an electronic dictionary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 2. When I check the meaning of a new word in a dictionary I usually check the meaning of new words in the same page.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 3. I add an affix to words to get the meaning of new words (e.g. regular and irregular or friend and friendless).

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 4. I omit the affix to find the meaning of new words (e.g., dislike and like or help and helpless).

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 5. When I check the meaning of a new word I check its derivation (e.g. development comes from develop).

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 6. When I check the meaning of a new word I check its parts of speech (e.g. verb, noun, adjective...etc.).

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 7. I ask my teacher for the meaning of new words.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 8. I ask my classmate for the meaning of new words.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 9. When I check the meaning of a new word in my dictionary or by asking my teacher, I check for its synonym (i.e. if the new word is different I think of some words such as dissimilar, unlike, contrastive, divergent...etc.)

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 10. When I check the meaning of a new word in my dictionary or by asking my teacher, I check for its anatomy (e.g., small and large or high and low...etc.).

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 11. I speak to non-Arabic speakers of English to develop my language.

Q 12. I speak to non-Arabic speakers of English to practice my new acquired words.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 13. I practice new words in sentences.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 14. When I learn a new word I think of words that are related to it (e.g. what propositions are used with the verb live : in, on or at).

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 15. I listen to the radio to develop my vocabulary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 16. I listen to songs to develop my vocabulary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 17. I watch TV to develop my vocabulary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 18. I read newspapers or magazine to develop my vocabulary.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 19. I write words many times to memorize them.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 20. I write letters or diaries to practice my new words.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 21. I repeat the words verbally many times to memorize them.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q 22. I make word lists to revise the meaning of the new words.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Q23. I organize my word lists alphabetically.

Always ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

Thanks so much for your cooperation

Appendix 7: Vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS)

Target word	I do not know this word nor hear it before	I heard it before but I do not know it is meaning	I know this word			
				What does it mean in Arabic?	Identify the parts of speech; Is it a verb, noun, adjective, adverb	Use it in a sentence.
1.			√	كتاب	noun	This is a book
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						
7.						
8.						

Appendix 8: Target word from stories..

31.	Epilepsy
32.	Decorated
33.	Evil
34.	Warn
35.	Purple
36.	Bury
37.	Oval
38.	Cupboards
39.	Monomania
40.	Plaster
41.	Roof
42.	Dentist
43.	Chest
44.	Straight
45.	Mystery
46.	Clang
47.	Bloodless
48.	Plenty
49.	Narrow
50.	Portrait
51.	Waste
52.	Pick
53.	Gallows
54.	Leaf
55.	Thick
56.	Plague
57.	Cellar
58.	Probable
59.	Tire
60.	Tut

Appendix 9: Target words from songs.

1.	Rise
2.	Reacting
3.	Pain
4.	Sorrow
5.	Spreading
6.	Season
7.	Realise
8.	Hell
9.	Scarifies
10.	Partner
11.	Race
12.	Judge
13.	Ignore
14.	Legend
15.	Appreciated
16.	Prisoner
17.	Swallow
18.	Complicated
19.	Happiness
20.	Highways
21.	Rag
22.	Sleepless
23.	Tears
24.	Whispered
25.	Lean
26.	Ridiculous
27.	Ordinary
28.	Senorita
29.	Settle
30.	Deny
31.	Patches
32.	Geologist
33.	Compromise
34.	Grace

35.	Youth
36.	Beast
37.	Aggravated
38.	Corridor
39.	Forgive
40.	Waitress
41.	Entwined
42.	Domestic
43.	Integrity
44.	Ceiling
45.	Damn
46.	Wipe
47.	Praise
48.	Pretend
49.	Sewed
50.	Status
51.	Chamber
52.	Affairs
53.	Band
54.	Astronaut
55.	Fan
56.	Enterprise
57.	Materialised
58.	Fantasise
59.	Blink
60.	Casualties
61.	Fault
62.	Bass
63.	Maroon
64.	Foreseeable
65.	Irresistible
66.	Giggle
67.	Fading

Appendix 10: Target word from films.

	Lamp
72.	Genie
73.	Sultan
74.	Sorcerer
75.	Laser
76.	Orical
77.	Marketplace
78.	Hearse
79.	Host
80.	staff
81.	Punch
82.	Piggy
83.	Prime
84.	Loyal
85.	Kitty
86.	Bow
87.	Colonel
88.	Damn
89.	Conch
90.	Beheaded
91.	Splash
92.	Spear
93.	Grant
94.	Sleeve
95.	Rescue
96.	Cheer
97.	Magnificent
98.	Loot
99.	Turban
100.	Dare
101.	Release
102.	Rub
103.	Assembly
104.	Panic
105.	Punctual
106.	Dungeon
107.	Squeeze
108.	Giant
109.	Desperate
110.	Duplicate

111.	Sire
112.	Splendid
113.	Instant
114.	Pants
115.	Blow
116.	Cracker
117.	Intruder
118.	Abdicate
119.	Spear
120.	Afford
121.	Esteem
122.	Marching
123.	Parish
124.	Blast
125.	Claws
126.	Restoration
127.	Snatch
128.	Grip
129.	Whack
130.	Assailant
131.	Athlete
132.	Pathetic
133.	Archbishop
134.	Hullo
135.	Defector
136.	Tickle
137.	Merit
138.	Devine
139.	Villain
140.	Privilege
141.	Demerits

Appendix 11: Consent form.

The University of Nottingham

School of Education

Project title: *Incidental Learning of Second Language Vocabulary Through Extensive Listening to the Graded Stories and Authentic Songs as well as Watching Authentic Films*

Researcher's name: Alarabi Abdelsalam Mutalib

Supervisors' names: Dr. Richard Pemberton
Dr. Barbara Sinclair

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project have been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential
- I understand that data will be stored in a safe place and no one other than the researcher and his supervisors will be able to access these data.
- I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Research Ethics Coordinator of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement the research.

Signed

Printed Name.....

Contact details

Researcher contact details: Alarabi Mutalib

UK address
 Postal address:
 School of Education, University of
 Nottingham, Wollaton Road
 Nottingham
 NG81BB
 Tel: 00218925133410
 e-mail: ttxam33@nottingham. ac. uk
 rbmutalib@yahoo. co. uk

Libyan address
 Postal address: University of Sebha
 Sebha, Libya
 P. O. Box 19222
 Tel: 00447881883628
 e-mail: ttxam33@nottingham. ac. uk
 rbmutalib@yahoo. co. uk

Supervisors contact details:

Dr. Richard Pemberton
 Postal address:
 School of Education, University of
 Nottingham, Wollaton Road
 Nottingham
 NG81BB
 Tel: 00441159514437
 email: Richard.
 Pemberton@nottingham. ac. uk

Dr. Barbara Sinclair
 Postal address:
 School of Education, University of
 Nottingham, Wollaton Road
 Nottingham
 NG81BB
 Tel: 00441159514513
 email: Barbara.
 Sinclair@nottingham. ac. uk

Researcher Ethic Coordinator

e-mail: educationresearchethic@nottingham. ac. uk

Appendix 12: Vocabulary Size Test

Dear student

I have been working in a project that may lead to improve listening teaching methods and overcome the limitations of this methods. Your participation in filling this questionnaire will help in getting better understanding of the students' need from this course.

I will be grateful if you kindly allocate some of you voluble time to fill in and bring this questionnaire back to me as soon as possible.

For any clarification, please do not hesitate to meet me at the Department of English or contact me at my e-mail address or mobile as soon in this introductory letter.

Thanks in advance for your participation

Kind regards

Vocabulary Size Test

Circle the letter a-d with the closest meaning to the key word in the question.

1. SEE: They **saw** it.
 - a. cut
 - b. waited for
 - c. looked at
 - d. started
2. TIME: They have a lot of **time**.
 - a. money
 - b. food
 - c. hours
 - d. friends
3. PERIOD: It was a difficult **period**.
 - a. question
 - b. time
 - c. thing to do
 - d. book
4. FIGURE: Is this the right **figure**?
 - a. answer
 - b. place
 - c. time
 - d. number
5. POOR: We are **poor**.
 - a. have no money
 - b. feel happy
 - c. are very interested
 - d. do not like to work hard
6. DRIVE: He **drives** fast.
 - a. swims
 - b. learns
 - c. throws balls
 - d. uses a car
7. JUMP: She tried to **jump**.
 - a. lie on top of the water
 - b. get off the ground suddenly
 - c. stop the car at the edge of the road
 - d. move very fast
8. SHOE: Where is your **shoe**?
 - a. the person who looks after you
 - b. the thing you keep your money in
 - c. the thing you use for writing
 - d. the thing you wear on your foot
9. STANDARD: Her **standards** are very high.
 - a. the bits at the back under her shoes
 - b. the marks she gets in school
 - c. the money she asks for
 - d. the levels she reaches in everything

10. BASIS: This was used as the **basis**.

- a. answer
- b. place to take a rest
- c. next step
- d. main part

Second 1000

1. MAINTAIN: Can they **maintain** it?

- a. keep it as it is
- b. make it larger
- c. get a better one than it
- d. get it

2. STONE: He sat on a **stone**.

- a. hard thing
- b. kind of chair
- c. soft thing on the floor
- d. part of a tree

3. UPSET: I am **upset**.

- a. tired
- b. famous
- c. rich
- d. unhappy

4. DRAWER: The **drawer** was empty.

- a. sliding box
- b. place where cars are kept
- c. cupboard to keep things cold
- d. animal house

5. PATIENCE: He has no **patience**.

- a. will not wait happily
- b. has no free time
- c. has no faith
- d. does not know what is fair

6. NIL: His mark for that question was **nil**.

- a. very bad
- b. nothing
- c. very good
- d. in the middle

7. PUB: They went to the **pub**.

- a. place where people drink and talk
- b. place that looks after money
- c. large building with many shops
- d. building for swimming

8. CIRCLE: Make a **circle**.

- a. rough picture
- b. space with nothing in it
- c. round shape
- d. large hole

9. MICROPONE: Please use the **microphone**.

- a. machine for making food hot
 - b. machine that makes sounds louder
 - c. machine that makes things look bigger
 - d. small telephone that can be carried around
10. PRO: He's a **pro**.
- a. someone who is employed to find out important secrets
 - b. a stupid person
 - c. someone who writes for a newspaper
- someone **Third 1000**
1. SOLDIER: He is a **soldier**.
- a. person in a business
 - b. student
 - c. person who uses metal
 - d. person in the army
2. RESTORE: It has been **restored**.
- a. said again
 - b. given to a different person
 - c. given a lower price
 - d. made like new again
3. JUG: He was holding a **jug**.
- a. A container for pouring liquids
 - b. an informal discussion
 - c. A soft cap
 - d. A weapon that explodes
4. SCRUB: He is **scrubbing** it.
- a. cutting shallow lines into it
 - b. repairing it
 - c. rubbing it hard to clean it
 - d. drawing simple pictures of it
5. DINOSAUR: The children were pretending to be **dinosaurs**.
- a. robbers who work at sea
 - b. very small creatures with human form but with wings
 - c. large creatures with wings that breathe fire
 - d. animals that lived a long time ago
6. STRAP: He broke the **strap**.
- a. promise
 - b. top cover
 - c. shallow dish for food
 - d. strip of material for holding things together
7. PAVE: It was **paved**.
- a. prevented from going through
 - b. divided
 - c. given gold edges
 - d. covered with a hard surface
8. DASH: They **dashed** over it.
- a. moved quickly
 - b. moved slowly
 - c. fought
 - d. looked quickly

9. ROVE: He couldn't stop **roving**.
- a. getting drunk
 - b. travelling around
 - c. making a musical sound through closed lips
 - d. working hard

10. LONESOME: He felt **lonesome**.
- a. ungrateful
 - b. very tired
 - c. lonely
 - d. full of energy

Fourth 1000

1. COMPOUND: They made a new **compound**.
- a. agreement
 - b. thing made of two or more parts
 - c. group of people forming a business
 - d. guess based on past experience
2. LATTER: I agree with the **latter**.
- a. man from the church
 - b. reason given
 - c. last one
 - d. answer
3. CANDID: Please be **candid**.
- a. be careful
 - b. show sympathy
 - c. show fairness to both sides
 - d. say what you really think
4. TUMMY: Look at my **tummy**.
- a. cloth to cover the head
 - b. stomach
 - c. small furry animal
 - d. thumb
5. QUIZ: We made a **quiz**.
- a. thing to hold arrows
 - b. serious mistake
 - c. set of questions
 - d. box for birds to make nests in
6. INPUT: We need more **input**.
- a. information, power, etc. put into something
 - b. workers
 - c. artificial filling for a hole in wood
 - d. money
7. CRAB: Do you like **crabs**?
- a. sea creatures that walk sideways
 - b. very thin small cakes
 - c. tight, hard collars
 - d. large black insects that sing at night
8. VOCABULARY: You will need more **vocabulary**.
- a. words
 - b. skill

- c. money
- d. guns

9. REMEDY: We found a good **remedy**.

- a. way to fix a problem
- b. place to eat in public
- c. way to prepare food
- d. rule about numbers

10. ALLEGE: They **alleged** it.

- a. claimed it without proof
- d. provided facts to prove it
- b. argued against the facts that supported it

Fifth 1000

1. DEFICIT: The company had a large **deficit**.

- a. spent a lot more money than it earned
- b. went down a lot in value
- c. had a plan for its spending that used a lot of money
- d. had a lot of money in the bank

2. WEEP: He **wept**.

- a. finished his course
- b. cried
- c. died
- d. worried

3. NUN: We saw a **nun**.

- a. long thin creature that lives in the earth
- b. terrible accident
- c. woman following a strict religious life
- d. unexplained bright light in the sky

4. HAUNT: The house is **haunted**.

- a. full of ornaments
- b. rented
- c. empty
- d. full of ghosts

5. COMPOST: We need some **compost**.

- a. strong support
- b. help to feel better
- c. hard stuff made of stones and sand stuck together
- d. rotted plant material

6. CUBE: I need one more **cube**.

- a. sharp thing used for joining things
- b. solid square block
- c. tall cup with no saucer
- d. piece of stiff paper folded in half

7. MINIATURE: It is a **miniature**.

- a. a very small thing of its kind
- b. an instrument to look at small objects
- c. a very small living creature
- d. a small line to join letters in handwriting

8. PEEL: Shall I **peel** it?

- a. let it sit in water for a long time
- b. take the skin off it
- c. make it white
- d. cut it into thin pieces

9. FRACTURE: They found a **fracture**.

- a. break
- b. small piece
- c. short coat
- d. rare jewel

10. BACTERIUM: They didn't find a single **bacterium**.

- a. small living thing causing disease
- b. plant with red or orange flowers
- c. animal that carries water on its back
- d. thing that has been stolen and sold to a shop
stole the ideas

Sixth 1000

1. DEVIOUS: Your plans are **devious**.

- a. tricky
- b. well-developed
- c. not well thought out
- d. more expensive than necessary

2. PREMIER: The **premier** spoke for an hour.

- a. person who works in a law court
- b. university teacher
- c. adventurer
- d. head of the government

3. BUTLER: They have a **butler**.

- a. man servant
- b. machine for cutting up trees
- c. private teacher
- d. cool dark room under the house

4. ACCESSORY: They gave us some **accessories**.

- a. papers allowing us to enter a country
- b. official orders
- c. ideas to choose between
- d. extra pieces

5. THRESHOLD: They raised the **threshold**.

- a. flag
- b. point or line where something changes
- c. roof inside a building
- d. cost of borrowing money

6. THESIS: She has completed her **thesis**.

- a. long written report of study carried out for a university degree
- b. talk given by a judge at the end of a trial
- c. first year of employment after becoming a teacher
- d. extended course of hospital treatment

7. STRANGLE: He **strangled** her.

- a. killed her by pressing her throat

- b. gave her all the things she wanted
 - c. took her away by force
 - d. admired her greatly
- 8. CAVALIER: He treated her in a **cavalier** manner.
 - a. without care
 - b. politely
 - c. awkwardly
 - d. as a brother would
- 9. MALIGN: His **malign** influence is still felt.
 - a. evil
 - b. good
 - c. very important
 - d. secret
- 10. VEER: The car **veered**.
 - a. went suddenly in another direction
 - b. moved shakily
 - c. made a very loud noise for it from someone else
 - d. slid sideways without the wheels turning

Seventh 1000

- 1. OLIVE: We bought **olives**.
 - a. oily fruit
 - b. scented pink or red flowers
 - c. men's clothes for swimming
 - d. tools for digging up weeds
- 2. QUILT: They made a **quilt**.
 - a. statement about who should get their property when they die
 - b. firm agreement
 - c. thick warm cover for a bed
 - d. feather pen
- 3. STEALTH: They did it by **stealth**.
 - a. spending a large amount of money
 - b. hurting someone so much that they agreed to their demands
 - c. moving secretly with extreme care and quietness
 - d. taking no notice of problems they met
- 4. SHUDDER: The boy **shuddered**.
 - a. spoke with a low voice
 - b. almost fell
 - c. shook
 - d. called out loudly
- 5. BRISTLE: The **bristles** are too hard.
 - a. questions
 - b. short stiff hairs
 - c. folding beds
 - d. bottoms of the shoes
- 6. BLOC: They have joined this **bloc**.
 - a. musical group
 - b. band of thieves
 - c. small group of soldiers who are sent ahead of others
 - d. group of countries sharing a purpose

7. DEMOGRAPHY: This book is about **demography**.
 - a. the study of patterns of land use
 - b. the study of the use of pictures to show facts about numbers
 - c. the study of the movement of water
 - d. the study of population
8. GIMMICK: That's a good **gimmick**.
 - a. thing for standing on to work high above the ground
 - b. small thing with pockets to hold money
 - c. attention-getting action or thing
 - d. clever plan or trick
9. AZALEA: This **azalea** is very pretty.
 - a. small tree with many flowers growing in groups
 - b. light material made from natural threads
 - c. long piece of material worn by women in India
 - d. sea shell shaped like a fan
10. YOGHURT: This **yoghurt** is disgusting.
 - a. grey mud found at the bottom of rivers
 - b. unhealthy, open sore
 - c. thick, soured milk, often with sugar and flavouring
 - d. large purple fruit with soft flesh

Eighth 1000

1. ERRATIC: He was **erratic**.
 - a. without fault
 - b. very bad
 - c. very polite
 - d. unsteady
2. PALETTE: He lost his **palette**.
 - a. basket for carrying fish
 - b. wish to eat food
 - c. young female companion
 - d. artist's board for mixing paints
3. NULL: His influence was **null**.
 - a. had good results
 - b. was unhelpful
 - c. had no effect
 - d. was long-lasting
4. KINDERGARTEN: This is a good **kindergarten**.
 - a. activity that allows you to forget your worries
 - b. place of learning for children too young for school
 - c. strong, deep bag carried on the back
 - d. place where you may borrow books
5. ECLIPSE: There was an **eclipse**.
 - a. a strong wind
 - b. a loud noise of something hitting the water
 - c. The killing of a large number of people
 - d. The sun hidden by a planet
6. MARROW: This is the **marrow**.
 - a. symbol that brings good luck to a team
 - b. Soft centre of a bone

- c. control for guiding a plane
 - d. increase in salary
7. LOCUST: There were hundreds of **locusts**.
- a. insects with wings
 - b. unpaid helpers
 - c. people who do not eat meat
 - d. brightly coloured wild flowers
8. AUTHENTIC: It is **authentic**.
- a. real
 - b. very noisy
 - c. Old
 - d. Like a desert
9. CABARET: We saw the **cabaret**.
- a. painting covering a whole wall
 - b. song and dance performance
 - c. small crawling insect
 - d. person who is half fish, half woman
10. MUMBLE: He started to **mumble**.
- a. think deeply
 - b. shake uncontrollably
 - c. stay further behind the others

Ninth 1000

1. HALLMARK: Does it have a **hallmark**?
- a. stamp to show when to use it by
 - b. stamp to show the quality
 - c. mark to show it is approved by the royal family
 - d. Mark or stain to prevent copying
2. PURITAN: He is a **puritan**.
- a. person who likes attention
 - b. person with strict morals
 - c. person with a moving home
 - d. person who hates spending money
3. MONOLOGUE: Now he has a **monologue**.
- a. single piece of glass to hold over his eye to help him to see better
 - b. long turn at talking without being interrupted
 - c. position with all the power
 - d. picture made by joining letters together in interesting ways
4. WEIR: We looked at the **weir**.
- a. person who behaves strangely
 - b. wet, muddy place with water plants
 - c. old metal musical instrument played by blowing
 - d. thing built across a river to control the water
5. WHIM: He had lots of **whims**.
- a. old gold coins
 - b. female horses
 - c. strange ideas with no motive
 - d. sore red lumps

6. PERTURB: I was **perturbed**.
 - a. made to agree
 - b. Worried
 - c. very puzzled
 - d. very wet
7. REGENT: They chose a **regent**.
 - a. an irresponsible person
 - b. a person to run a meeting for a time
 - c. a ruler acting in place of the king
 - d. a person to represent them
8. OCTOPUS: They saw an **octopus**.
 - a. a large bird that hunts at night
 - b. a ship that can go under water
 - c. a machine that flies by means of turning blades
 - d. a sea creature with eight legs
9. FEN: The story is set in the **fens**.
 - a. low land partly covered by water
 - b. a piece of high land with few trees
 - c. a block of poor-quality houses in a city
 - d. a time long ago
10. LINTEL: He painted the **lintel**.
 - a. Beam over the top of a door or window
 - b. small boat used for getting to land from a big boat
 - c. beautiful tree with spreading branches and green fruit
 - d. board showing the scene in a theatre
 - d. speak in an unclear way

Tenth 1000

1. AWE: They looked at the mountain with **awe** .
 - a. worry
 - b. interest
 - c. wonder
 - d. respect
2. PEASANTRY: He did a lot for the **peasantry** .
 - a. local people
 - b. place of worship
 - c. businessmen's club
 - d. poor farmers
3. EGALITARIAN: This organization is **egalitarian** .
 - a. does not provide much information about itself to the public
 - b. dislikes change
 - c. frequently asks a court of law for a judgement
 - d. treats everyone who works for it as if they are equal
4. MYSTIQUE: He has lost his **mystique** .
 - a. his healthy body

- b. the secret way he makes other people think he has special power or skill
 - c. the woman who has been his lover while he is married to someone else
 - d. the hair on his top lip
- 5. UPBEAT: I'm feeling really **upbeat** about it .
 - a. upset
 - b. good
 - c. hurt
 - d. confused
- 6. CRANNY: We found it in the **cranny**!
 - a. sale of unwanted objects
 - b. narrow opening
 - c. space for storing things under the roof of a house
 - d. large wooden box
- 7. PIGTAIL: Does she have a **pigtail**?
 - a. a rope of hair made by twisting bits together
 - b. a lot of cloth hanging behind a dress
 - c. a plant with pale pink flowers that hang down in short bunches
 - d. a lover
- 8. CROWBAR: He used a **crowbar** .
 - a. heavy iron pole with a curved end
 - b. false name
 - c. sharp tool for making holes in leather
 - d. light metal walking stick
- 9. RUCK: He got hurt in the **ruck** .
 - a. hollow between the stomach and the top of the leg
 - b. pushing and shoving
 - c. group of players gathered round the ball in some ball games
 - d. race across a field of snow
- 10. LECTERN: He stood at the **lectern** .
 - a. desk to hold a book at a height for reading
 - b. table or block used for church sacrifices
 - c. place where you buy drinks
 - d. very edge

Eleventh 1000

- 1. EXCRETE: This was **excreted** recently.
 - a. pushed or sent out
 - b. made clear
 - c. discovered by a science experiment
 - d. put on a list of illegal things
- 2. MUSSEL: They bought **mussels**.
 - a. small glass balls for playing a game
 - b. shellfish
 - c. large purple fruits
 - d. pieces of soft paper to keep the clothes clean when eating

3. YOGA: She has started **yoga**.
 - a. handwork done by knotting thread
 - b. a form of exercise for body and mind
 - c. a game where a cork stuck with feathers is hit between two players
 - d. a type of dance from eastern countries
4. COUNTERCLAIM: They made a **counterclaim**.
 - a. a demand made by one side in a law case to match the other side's demand
 - b. a request for a shop to take back things with faults
 - c. An agreement between two companies to exchange work
 - d. a top cover for a bed
5. PUMA: They saw a **puma**.
 - a. small house made of mud bricks
 - b. tree from hot, dry countries
 - c. very strong wind that sucks up anything in its path
 - d. large wild cat
6. PALLOR: His **pallor** caused them concern.
 - a. his unusually high temperature
 - b. his lack of interest in anything
 - c. his group of friends
 - d. the paleness of his skin
7. APERITIF: She had an **aperitif**.
 - a. a long chair for lying on with just one place to rest an arm
 - b. a private singing teacher
 - c. a large hat with tall feathers
 - d. a drink taken before a meal
8. HUTCH: Please clean the **hutch**.
 - a. thing with metal bars to keep dirt out of water pipes
 - b. space in the back of a car for bags
 - c. metal piece in the middle of a bicycle wheel
 - d. cage for small animals
9. EMIR: We saw the **emir**.
 - a. bird with long curved tail feathers
 - b. woman who cares for other people's children in Eastern countries
 - c. Middle Eastern chief with power in his land
 - d. house made from blocks of ice
10. HESSIAN: She bought some **hessian**.
 - a. oily pinkish fish
 - b. stuff producing a happy state of mind
 - c. coarse cloth
 - d. strong-tasting root for flavouring food

Twelfth 1000

1. HAZE: We looked through the **haze**.
 - a. small round window in a ship
 - b. unclear air
 - c. strips of wood or plastic to cover a window
 - d. list of names

2. SPLEEN: His **spleen** was damaged.
 - a. knee bone
 - b. organ found near the stomach
 - c. pipe taking waste water from a house
 - d. respect for himself
3. SOLILOQUY: That was an excellent **soliloquy**!
 - a. song for six people
 - b. short clever saying with a deep meaning
 - c. entertainment using lights and music
 - d. speech in the theatre by a character who is alone
4. REPTILE: She looked at the **reptile**.
 - a. old hand-written book
 - b. animal with cold blood and a hard outside
 - c. person who sells things by knocking on doors
 - d. picture made by sticking many small pieces of different colours together
5. ALUM: This contains **alum**.
 - a. a poisonous substance from a common plant
 - b. a soft material made of artificial threads
 - c. a tobacco powder once put in the nose
 - d. a chemical compound usually involving aluminium
6. REFECTORY: We met in the **refectory**.
 - a. room for eating
 - b. office where legal papers can be signed
 - c. room for several people to sleep in
 - d. room with glass walls for growing plants
7. CAFFEINE: This contains a lot of **caffeine**.
 - a. a substance that makes you sleepy
 - b. threads from very tough leaves
 - c. ideas that are not correct
 - d. a substance that makes you excited
8. IMPALE: He nearly got **impaled**.
 - a. charged with a serious offence
 - b. put in prison
 - c. stuck through with a sharp instrument
 - d. involved in a dispute
9. COVEN: She is the leader of a **coven**.
 - a. a small singing group
 - b. a business that is owned by the workers
 - c. a secret society
 - d. a group of church women who follow a strict religious life
10. TRILL: He practised the **trill**.
 - a. ornament in a piece of music
 - b. type of stringed instrument
 - c. Way of throwing a ball
 - d. dance step of turning round very fast on the toes

Thirteenth 1000

1. UBIQUITOUS: Many weeds are **ubiquitous**.
 - a. are difficult to get rid of
 - b. have long, strong roots
 - c. are found in most countries

- d. die away in the winter
2. TALON: Just look at those **talons**!
 - a. high points of mountains
 - b. sharp hooks on the feet of a hunting bird
 - c. heavy metal coats to protect against weapons
 - d. people who make fools of themselves without realizing it
3. ROUBLE: He had a lot of **roubles**.
 - a. very precious red stones
 - b. distant members of his family
 - c. Russian money
 - d. moral or other difficulties in the mind
4. JOVIAL: He was very **jovial**.
 - a. low on the social scale
 - b. likely to criticize others
 - c. full of fun
 - d. friendly
5. COMMUNIQUE: I saw their **communiqué**.
 - a. critical report about an organization
 - b. garden owned by many members of a community
 - c. printed material used for advertising
 - d. official announcement
6. PLANKTON: We saw a lot of **plankton**.
 - a. poisonous weeds that spread very quickly
 - b. very small plants or animals found in water
 - c. trees producing hard wood
 - d. grey clay that often causes land to slip
7. SKYLARK: We watched a **skylark**.
 - a. show with aeroplanes flying in patterns
 - b. man-made object going round the earth
 - c. person who does funny tricks
 - d. small bird that flies high as it sings
8. BEAGLE: He owns two **beagles**.
 - a. fast cars with roofs that fold down
 - b. large guns that can shoot many people quickly
 - c. small dogs with long ears
 - d. houses built at holiday places
9. ATOLL: The **atoll** was beautiful.
 - a. low island made of coral round a sea-water lake
 - b. work of art created by weaving pictures from fine thread
 - c. small crown with many precious jewels worn in the evening by women
 - d. place where a river flows through a narrow place full of large rocks
10. DIDACTIC: The story is very **didactic**.
 - a. tries hard to teach something
 - b. is very difficult to believe
 - c. deals with exciting actions
 - d. is written in a way which makes the reader unsure of the meaning

Fourteenth 1000

1. CANONICAL: These are **canonical** examples .
 - a. examples which break the usual rules
 - b. examples taken from a religious book
 - c. regular and widely accepted examples
 - d. examples discovered very recently
2. ATOP: He was **atop** the hill .
 - a. at the bottom of
 - b. at the top of
 - c. on this side of
 - d. on the far side of
3. MARSUPIAL: It is a **marsupial** .
 - a. an animal with hard feet
 - b. a plant that grows for several years
 - c. a plant with flowers that turn to face the sun
 - d. an animal with a pocket for babies
4. AUGUR: It **augured** well .
 - a. promised good things for the future
 - b. agreed well with what was expected
 - c. had a colour that looked good with something else
 - d. rang with a clear, beautiful sound
5. BAWDY: It was very **bawdy** .
 - a. unpredictable
 - b. enjoyable
 - c. rushed
 - d. rude
6. GAUCHE: He was **gauche** .
 - a. talkative
 - b. flexible
 - c. awkward
 - d. determined
7. THESAURUS: She used a **thesaurus** .
 - a. a kind of dictionary
 - b. a chemical compound
 - c. a special way of speaking
 - d. an injection just under the skin
8. ERYTHROCYTE: It is an **erythrocyte** .
 - a. a medicine to reduce pain
 - b. a red part of the blood
 - c. a reddish white metal
 - d. a member of the whale family
9. CORDILLERA: They were stopped by the **cordillera** .

- a. a special law
- b. an armed ship
- c. a line of mountains
- d. the eldest son of the king

10. LIMPID: He looked into her **limpid** eyes .

- a. clear
- b. tearful
- c. deep brown
- d. beautiful

Appendix 12: Learning Styles Questionnaire (ILQ)

Instructions: For each of the **44** questions below select either "**a**" or "**b**" to indicate your answer. Please choose only one answer for each question. If both "**a**" and "**b**" seem to apply to you, choose the one that applies more frequently.

1) I understand something better after I

- (a) Try it out.
- (b) Think it through.

2) I would rather be considered

- (a) Realistic.
- (b) Innovative.

3) When I think about what I did yesterday, I am most likely to get

- (a) A picture.
- (b) Words.

4) I tend to

- (a) Understand details of a subject but may be fuzzy about its overall structure
- (b) Understand the overall structure but may be fuzzy about details.

5) When I am learning something new, it helps me to

- (a) Talk about it.
- (b) Think about it.

6) If I were a teacher, I would rather teach a course

- (a) That deals with facts and real life situations.
- (b) That deals with ideas and theories.

7) I prefer to get new information in

- (a) Pictures, diagrams, graphs, or maps.
- (b) Written directions or verbal information.

8) Once I understand

- (a) All the parts, I understand the whole thing.
- (b) The whole thing, I see how the parts fit.

9) In a study group working on difficult material, I am more likely to

- (a) Jump in and contribute ideas.
- (b) Sit back and listen.

10) I find it easier

- (a) To learn facts.
- (b) To learn concepts.

11) In a book with lots of pictures and charts, I am likely to

- (a) Look over the pictures and charts carefully.
- (b) Focus on the written text.

12) When I solve math problems

- (a) I usually work my way to the solutions one step at a time.

(b) I often just see the solutions but then have to struggle to figure out the steps to get to them.

13) In classes I have taken

(a) I have usually gotten to know many of the students.

(b) I have rarely gotten to know many of the students.

14) In reading nonfiction, I prefer

(a) Something that teaches me new facts or tells me how to do something.

(b) Something that gives me new ideas to think about.

15) I like teachers

(a) Who put a lot of diagrams on the board.

(b) Who spend a lot of time explaining.

16) When I'm analyzing a story or a novel

(a) I think of the incidents and try to put them together to figure out the themes.

(b) I just know what the themes are when I finish reading and then I have to go back and find the incidents that demonstrate them.

17) When I start a homework problem, I am more likely to

(a) Start working on the solution immediately.

(b) Try to fully understand the problem first.

18) I prefer the idea of

(a) Certainty.

(b) Theory.

19) I remember best

(a) What I see.

(b) What I hear.

20) It is more important to me that an instructor

(a) Lay out the material in clear sequential steps.

(b) Give me an overall picture and relate the material to other subjects.

21) I prefer to study

(a) In a study group.

(b) Alone.

22) I am more likely to be considered

(a) Careful about the details of my work.

(b) Creative about how to do my work.

23) When I get directions to a new place, I prefer

(a) A map.

(b) Written instructions.

24) I learn

(a) At a fairly regular pace. If I study hard, I'll "get it".

(b) In fits and starts. I'll be totally confused and then suddenly it all "clicks".

25) I would rather first

(a) Try things out.

(b) Think about how I'm going to do it.

26) When I am reading for enjoyment, I like writers to

(a) Clearly say what they mean.

(b) Say things in creative, interesting ways.

27) When I see a diagram or sketch in class, I am most likely to remember

(a) The picture.

(b) What the instructor said about it.

28) When considering a body of information, I am more likely to

(a) Focus on details and miss the big picture.

(b) Try to understand the big picture before getting into the details.

29) I more easily remember

(a) Something I have done.

(b) Something I have thought a lot about.

30) When I have to perform a task, I prefer to

(a) Master one way of doing it.

(b) Come up with new ways of doing it.

31) When someone is showing me data, I prefer

(a) Charts or graphs.

(b) Text summarizing the results.

32) When writing a paper, I am more likely to

- (a) Work on (think about or write) the beginning of the paper and progress forward.
- (b) Work on (think about or write) different parts of the paper and then order them.

33) When I have to work on a group project, I first want to

- (a) Have "group brainstorming" where everyone contributes ideas.
- (b) Brainstorm individually and then come together as a group to compare ideas.

34) I consider it higher praise to call someone

- (a) Sensible.
- (b) Imaginative.

35) When I meet people at a party, I am more likely to remember

- (a) What they looked like.
- (b) What they said about themselves.

36) When I am learning a new subject, I prefer to

- (a) Stay focused on that subject, learning as much about it as I can.
- (b) Try to make connections between that subject and related subjects.

37) I am more likely to be considered

- (a) Outgoing.

(b) Reserved.

38) I prefer courses that emphasize

(a) Concrete material (facts, data).

(b) Abstract material (concepts, theories).

39) For entertainment, I would rather

(a) Watch television.

(b) Read a book.

40) Some teachers start their lectures with an outline of what they will cover. Such outlines are

(a) Somewhat helpful to me.

(b) Very helpful to me.

41) The idea of doing homework in groups, with one grade for the entire group,

(a) Appeals to me.

(b) Does not appeal to me.

42) When I am doing long calculations,

(a) I tend to repeat all my steps and check my work carefully.

(b) I find checking my work tiresome and have to force myself to do it.

43) I tend to picture places I have been

(a) Easily and fairly accurately.

(b) With difficulty and without much detail.

44) When solving problems in a group, I would be more likely to

(a) Think of the steps in the solution process.

(b) Think of possible consequences or applications of the solution in a wide range of areas.

(Thanks so much for your cooperation)