THE EFFECT OF REPETITION ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

The Case of Third Year Students at Annab Naamoun Middle School
-Souk Naamane-

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Of Master in Language Sciences and Teaching English as a Foreign Language

By: Belbezzouh Raouia

Supervisor: Mrs. Aliouch Nedjiba
Examiner: Gandouz Meriem

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In the name of ALLAH, Most Gracious, Most Merciful

All the praise is due to ALLAH alone

I would like to dedicate this modest dissertation to:

To the best parents in the whole world: my wonderful father Azziz and to my gorges mother NADJIA for making me the person I’m today. I would like to thank both of you a lot for your supporting, trusting and guidance. Thank you for the big love you gave me which helped me to succeed.

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ABSTRACT

The present study has been conducted in order to investigate the effect of repetition on incidental vocabulary acquisition of third year middle school students. For the sake of achieving the research purpose, an experimental method with an experimental design has been conducted where two groups were randomly assigned as experimental and control groups. The target sample comprised thirty-four students studying third year at Annab Naamon Middle School in Souk Naamane –Oum El Bouaghi- for the academic year 2015- 2016. Additionally, participants of both experimental and control groups were pre-tested using vocabulary tasks. After administering the pre-test, the treatment has been conducted for both groups for five sessions. The experimental group was taught through repetition and the control group was taught vocabulary in the ordinary method. Then, both groups were post-tested through another vocabulary test. After analyzing the obtained results, the alternative hypothesis was proved. That is to say, repetition has a positive effect on developing students ability to acquire vocabulary incidentally.
List Of Abbreviation

**E.F.L:** English as a Foreign Language.

**i.e.** It means.

**L1:** First Language.

**L2:** Second Language.

**SLA:** Social Strategies.
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GENERAL INTRODUCTION
Introduction

Most vocabulary is learnt incidentally, much of it from oral input (Ellis 1999:58).

Vocabulary learning is a basic element of foreign language acquisition. However learning the thousands of words that students need is a very difficult challenge. Vocabulary cannot be acquired only through studying and teaching. That is why most researchers and teachers believe that L2 vocabulary is acquired incidentally. Similar to the acquisition of the first language, foreign language vocabulary can be acquired from different activities such as:”Repetition”. Because of its vagueness there are only few researchers who have tried to investigate the concept of “Incidental Learning”. This study will investigate a source of vocabulary learning in EFL contexts which is Repetition.

Statement of the problem

Although language learning is important and desirable, many find it a difficult experience, especially in the foreign language context where the learners have to participate immediately with new terms in the target language. Furthermore, the aim for a good foreign language use and usage obliges the learners to go through several steps, starting from the basic elements and the simplest components. Vocabulary learning is an important stage for learners of English as a foreign language. As Willkens (1972) said:” without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”, which leads us to the great importance of vocabulary acquisition. Every kind of learners has to enrich their repertoire by using the appropriate means and strategies which could facilitate the task of acquiring new vocabulary. The problem here is the kind of strategy best followed. One of the suggested strategies is:”Repetition”. Some teachers may find repetition very beneficial, the way that gives the student the chance to acquire new words easily, while others consider it as a waste of time and as a source of noise. Therefore, repetition as a tool of acquiring vocabulary in the classroom remains a controversial issue for teachers to rely on to help students develop their vocabulary in EFL.
Aim of the study

The present study aims mainly at investigating incidental vocabulary acquisition through repetition in the field of English as a foreign language.

Research questions and hypotheses

In order to investigate the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary acquisition through repetition, two research questions will be addressed in this study:

1- What is the effect of repetition on EFL learners’ vocabulary acquisition?

2- Can EFL learners use the vocabulary, they had acquired through repetition?

From these two research questions several research hypotheses have been derived:

H1: EFL learners can learn vocabulary through repetition.

H2: EFL learners who learn through repetition will be able to acquire vocabulary knowledge.

Methodology

This research was carried out on third year students in middle school. Students have been selected randomly for the study, and divided into two groups: experimental and a control group.

The method in data collection is experimental design. The selected groups received a pre-test at the beginning of the study to have a general idea about their vocabulary knowledge before starting with the application of the treatment. The control group did not receive any instructions during the whole period of the treatment which was five sessions. Finally, both groups had a post-test at the end of the experiment. To test the effectiveness of the treatment, the results of the two groups in the pre-test and post-test is compared.
**Structure of the dissertation**

This study covers two chapters: the first chapter is the theoretical part of the research, which is divided into two sections. The first section is about repetition, the definition of repetition and its main strategies and advantages. The second section tackles incidental vocabulary acquisition in EFL classroom. The second chapter concentrates on the practical part of the study. It deals with the illustration of the method followed in data collection, as well as the analysis and discussion of the results, ending with pedagogical implications.
CHAPTER ONE

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Conclusion
Introduction

EFL learners acquire vocabulary from a variety of situations, including repetition. Repetition is the most basic technique for learning. Despite its limitations, repetition plays an important role in learning. Repeated exposure to information can help learners to acquire more vocabulary and remember more information; moreover over learning information can also increase from the learner’s confidence. Although there are many learning techniques and strategies, repetition stays always the first one and it can never die.

1.1 Definition of repetition

1.1.1. Brief history

Repetition is the most intuitive principle of learning, traceable to ancient Egyptian and Chinese education, with records dating back to approximately 4,400 and 3,000 B.C., respectively (Aspinwall, 1912, p. 1, 3). In ancient Greece, Aristotle commented on the role of repetition in learning by saying “it is frequent repetition that produces a natural tendency” (Ross & Aristotle, 1906, p. 113) and “the more frequently two things are experienced together, the more likely it will be that the experience or recall of one will stimulate the recall of the other” (p.35). Repetition can be applied to any kind of learning but it works better when learning discrete pieces of information, dates, definition, and vocabulary.

1.1.2. What is meant by the concept of repetition

Repetition is one of the most basic learning techniques. Infants use it to learn and to speak and learners use it to remember information. Repetition is sometimes seen as boring or looked down upon as an attempt to simply memorize rather than understand. However, for many individuals with learning differences, repetition is essential. Knowing when huge amounts of repetition are needed is what often makes the difference between learning and forgetting and learning and remembering.
1.2. The Relationship between repetition and the type of memory

1.2.1. The photographic memory

We can understand this by comparing the person who has a photographic or near photographic memory to the person who has a weak visual memory. The person who can see a thing once and recall it has an advantage when tasks are visual. The person who has a weak visual memory is, of course, at a disadvantage because he/she is not able to recall visual items easily. The two extremes of these visual memories are the causes of the learning differences. Most people are in the middle. They don’t have either a photographic or a weak visual memory, but those at the ends of these extremes learn differently. The person with a weak visual memory needs massive amounts of repetition in order to learn and remember a visual stimulus. Conversely the person with the photographic memory needs little repetition, and sometimes he does not need it at all.

1.2.2. The phonographic memory

The same applies to the other senses. A person with a "phonographic" memory can learn and remember sounds with little repetition, while in other situations, a person may need to hear something many times in order to learn and remember it. It is difficult for individuals who do not require massive amounts of repetition to appreciate this need. Therefore, teachers often do not provide students with the opportunity or means to engage in the activities which achieve large amounts of repetition.
2. Types of repetition

2.1. Repetition in literature and daily conversation

The following examples of repetition are classified according to the different types of repetition used both in literature and in daily conversations:

- **Anadiplosis**: Repetition of Symploce: It is a combination of anaphora and epiphora in which repetition is both at the end and at the beginning.
- **Anaphora**: Repetition of words at the start of clauses or verses.
- **Antistasis**: Repetition of words or phrases in opposite sense.
- **Diacope**: Repetition of words broken by some other words.
- **Epanalepsis**: Repetition of same words at the end and start of a sentence.
- **Epimone**: Repetition of a phrase (usually a question) to stress a point.
- **Epiphora**: Repetition of the same word at the end of each clause.
- **Gradatio**: A construction in poetry where the last word of one clause becomes the first in another.
- **Negative-Positive Restatement**: Repetition of an idea first in negative terms and then in positive terms.
- **Polyptoton**: Repetition of words of the same root with different endings.

2.1.2. Types of repetition according to the task

KIM (2013) investigated two types of repetition:

1. **Task repetition**: referred to the exact practice, or redoing the same task on the same topics, and the same lexical content as exemplified in Shintni’s study in 2011.

2. **Procedural repetition**: referred to doing tasks of the same structure but with different topics, and therefore different lexical content.
3.1. Learning through repetition

According to Professional Learning Board a way of developing a skill is to make it a stored routine in the students’ system. To make this happen, the most important first step is to bring the skill to a conscious level where the student is deliberately thinking about the activity (not necessarily the skill).

In other words, the student knows what skill they’re lacking in and focuses on doing activities that will help them build this skill. This can be termed as learning by repetition. As a skill is practiced or rehearsed over days and weeks, the activity becomes easier and easier while naturally forcing the skill to a subconscious level where it becomes permanently stored for recall and habitual use at any time.

Once the skill improves, the student no longer needs to consciously think about their participation in the skill-building activity. Likewise, once a new activity becomes really easy it is evident that new skills have been built.

3.1.1. Time of repetition

Vocabularies, discourses, and poems of any length cannot be learned by a single repetition even with the greatest concentration of attention on the part of an individual of very great ability. By a sufficient number of repetitions their final mastery is ensured, and by additional later reproductions gain in assurance and ease is secured. (Ebbinghaus, 1913, p. 4).

To create enough closely associated repetitions that drive a newly strengthened skill into a subconscious, automatic mode, the skill training should be delivered over multiple days each week and over at least a three-month period.
For example, in learning how to ride a bike, the more attempts a child makes, the more the brain reinforces the particular skills necessary to stay balanced and in motion. After some time, the child doesn’t have to stop and think about each part of the procedure to stay upright, balanced, and in motion, or how to stop without falling off. Every time the child rides, the skill is reinforced. Even years later, with no additional riding experience, it is possible for a person to get on a bike and ride because it was so firmly encoded in the brain. This is the power of learning by repetition. The previous example shows that there is no specific number to the times of repetition required in learning, however Sharon Bowman said a lot about how people learn through repetition. One thing she taught was this: Deliver content to your students in at least 6 different ways, because then chances are pretty high that it'll stick in their minds. BY BERND SCHIFFER POSTED ON 21/11/2011

3.1.2. The law of review and application

Sharon suggested that learners must revisit content six times with a time lapse in between each revisit of content in order to move the information from short-term memory to long-term memory. The more the participants themselves are involved in revisiting the content, rather than the instructor just repeating it, the more firmly the content will be anchored in the participants’ memory. Sharon gave an example for delivering content in at least 6 different ways:

1. **Picture**: showing a photo of an ordered product backlog on a slide.

2. **Reading**: Next to the photo writing the words “Ordered Product Backlog” and give the participants time to read them quietly.

3. **Listening**: saying the words “This is an ordered product backlog.” out loud and maybe explain a few things about this artifact.

4. **Writing**: letting the participants write down the words “ordered product backlog” on top of a white piece of paper.

5. **Drawing**: letting the participants doodle a copy of that photo of an ordered product backlog.
6. **Teaching**: grouping the participants in pairs and let them explain to each other the concept of an ordered product backlog.

### 3.1.3. The difference between learning and mastering using repetition

#### 3.1.3.1 Learning repetition

In the beginning, when it comes to learning, the more ways you approach your mind with the same message, the better it’ll be stored and the better it can later be remembered.

#### 3.1.3.2. Mastering repetition

Later on, when it comes to mastering, you’ve already learned the content, and now you want to refine it and get better at doing it. You want to master it, and a good way to do that is doing the same thing over and over again.

### 4.1. The importance of repetition in learning and tutoring

According to Diane Palumbo (2008) “Repetition can be extremely helpful in the learning patterns of students and should be used on a daily basis when tutoring students with their homework. Skills such as math, reading and writing, and learning a new language can be easily learned with the assistance of some suggestive repetition”.

Repetition is especially useful when tutoring as children may not have been given the chance to repeat the information that was learned within the classroom setting. When the child is tutored using repetition they are given the chance to use the information learned in the classroom setting and combine it with the practice that they have been exposed to during the tutoring session.

In the past few years learning by repetition has been associated with forming the connection of synapses in brain cells. This assists in not only learning the information, but in recalling that information throughout the lifetime of the child. Once this information has been committed to memory with the use of repetition, this information may be more easily recalled in the future.
Many skills that are learned through childhood homework assignments are skills that are going to be called upon for further learning. The pyramid of learning that is created can be based upon the repetition of the skills that children learn in their formative and early years.

Repetition is not the end all be all of learning. The learner begins with a limited amount of information (words or concepts), and adds in concepts as the process goes along. Gradually, the child will need less and less repetition as he or she learns the concepts which are built upon in the future. (Guthrie) he clearly and directly stated the importance of repetition in learning any skill:

In the psychology of learning we often confuse the effects of repetition on a single association of stimulus and response with the effects of practice on the development of skill, which is something quite different. In learning any skill, what must be acquired is not an association or any series of associations, but many thousands of associations that will connect specific movements with specific situations. One lesson or trial is all that is necessary to learn to depress the brake pedal on a car. Learning to drive the car requires a varied experience which will cause the pedal to be depressed in many situations and left severely alone in many others.” (Guthrie, 1942, p. 36).

Ebbinghaus (1913) reported that frequent repetitions were necessary to both:

(a) Get to the point where content could be reproduced from memory.

(b) Prevent forgetting of the content once it had been learn.

4.1.1 Repetition in schema theory

Repetition in schema theory is found in the elements that are “common to a large number of things or situations” (Anderson et al., 1978, p. 434). Schemata represent multiple instances of things that may be grouped based on a recurrent pattern of common features, functions, or characteristics. They are created, developed, tuned, and restructured through repeated experience (Rumelhart & Norman, 1976).
4.1.2. The role of repetition in constructive learning theory

The role of repetition in constructive learning theory is in the similarities found when relating new experience to previous experience. “Deep understanding occurs when the presence that enable us to rethink our prior ideas” (Brooks & Brooks, 1993, p. 15). According to Piaget, development is the result of repeated patterns of exercise of the reflex.

4.2.1. The importance of repetition for other researchers

According to (J. S. Bruner, 1961, p. 31) “The more one has practice repetition of new information prompts the emergence or enhancement of cognitive structures , the more likely is one to generalize what one has learned into a style of problem solving or inquiry that serves for any kind of task…or almost any kind of task” (p. 31). The importance of repetition to Bruner’s concept of learning was particularly clear in his description of the spiral curriculum which, he said, “as it develops [revisits] basic ideas repeatedly, building upon them until the student has grasped the full formal apparatus that goes with them” (J. S. Bruner, 1960, p. 13).

Bandura stated that “the behavior repertoires which constitute an enduring part of a culture are to a large extent transmitted on the basis of repeated observation of behavior by social models” (Bandura, 1965, p. 48) and that “the people with whom one regularly associates, either through preference or imposition, delimit the types of behavior that will be repeatedly observed and hence learned most thoroughly” (Bandura, 1977b, p. 24). In addition to repeated exposure to observational models, repetition also plays a role in the self-corrective adjustment process of refining newly acquired behaviors.
4.2.2. The importance of repetition in learning vocabulary

Learners often remember things by making a list. On the other hand, they remember things by oral repetition and all second language learners require repetition to obtain and retain new vocabulary and sentence structures. It allows students to produce more language and gives them time to think of what will come next. Especially when following through a textbook, it is easy to fool ourselves into thinking that our students have mastered a topic and the vocabulary that goes with that lesson when we’ve really only scratched the surface of their retention. English Skills Learning Center.

4.3.1 Repetition in the ESL Classroom

According to English skills learning center:

Learners often remember things by making a list. On the other hand, emergent readers remember things by oral repetition and all second language learners require repetition to obtain and retain new vocabulary and sentence structures. It allows students to produce more language and gives them time to think of what will come next. Especially when following through a textbook, it is easy to fool ourselves into thinking that our students have mastered a topic and the vocabulary that goes with that lesson when we’ve really only scratched the surface of their retention.

4.3.2 Six tips for using repetition in the lesson

These tips are posted and provided by the English Skills Learning Center in Salt Lake City, UT:

1. Use the last ten minutes of class as an opportunity to review what you did earlier in the lesson. See how much your students remember. This can help build their confidence while also giving you good information about how much to review at the beginning of the next class.

2. Don’t be afraid that repetition is “too boring.” Get creative and have your student build up to using new vocabulary by starting with TPR, moving to an oral drill, reading the
words in context through a short reading and finally using them in dialogues and role play activities.

3. When teaching a dialogue, write the whole dialogue on the board, erase a few words and have the students repeat with a partner. Then erase a few more and repeat until nothing is left on the board.

4. Keep a stack of flashcards with you and pull them out every once in a while. To keep the vocabulary fresh in your students’ minds, try charades or concentration rather than just reviewing the words orally.

5. Use different interaction patterns to make repetition more interesting. One way to do this is to line up students in two rows, facing each other. Have them practice the dialog with the person standing across from them. After everyone has finished, have one row move down and the other row stay so that each person is standing in front of a new partner.

6. Do a review lesson about every four lessons repeating activities from your previous lessons. This will help you measure if you are moving too quickly through material and if the students are retaining the things you teach them.
Conclusion:

Foreign language students and teachers can overcome the challenging task of vocabulary acquisition by adopting the repetition strategy during the session by both the teacher and the student. Especially, for the sake of incidental learning. Repetition guarantees the memorization of information even after a long time. As it has been discussed in this section, repetition has a great importance in learning and acquisition in EFL and ESL classrooms which is going to be improved in an experimental study was conducted; this is what will be tackled in the next chapter.
Chapter one : Theoretical Background

Section Two: Incidental vocabulary acquisition

Introduction

2.2. Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition:

2.1.1: Incidental learning

2.1.2: Historical overview and definitions

2.1.3: Incidental learning and related concepts

2.1.4: Current stance on incidental learning

3.1: Vocabulary acquisition

3.1.1: Definitions of vocabulary knowledge

3.1.2: Factors influencing vocabulary learning

3.1.3: Vocabulary learning strategies

Conclusion
Introduction

Vocabulary learning is a crucial element of foreign language acquisition. However it can not be acquired only through explicit studying and teaching and indeed there is a strong belief among teachers and researchers that most L2 vocabulary is acquired incidentally for eg (Milton, 2009 and Hulstjin, 2001).

Incidental vocabulary acquisition is not an uncontroversial topic, either in L1 learning or in the foreign language which appears in the different activities that learners may have where they take up words incidentally, similar to the acquisition of their first language eg (Wode 1999). Research on incidental vocabulary learning has focused more on learning like (Read 2000) although some experts propose that much vocabulary is acquired from other sources like Repetition. Only few studies over the last years have investigated aspects of incidental vocabulary learning through repetition. This study adds to the body of research on incidental vocabulary acquisition by investigating a source of vocabulary learning in EFL contexts which is Repetition.

2.1 Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

The concept of incidental learning has been particularly important in the context of research on vocabulary acquisition and therefore they are linked together which requires separating them and explain each one alone for better understanding.

2.1.1 Incidental learning

Studies on incidental learning give an important focus in research on vocabulary acquisition, but the term is very wide because it is used with a variety of definitions like:
2.1.2 Historical overview and definitions

Hulstijn (2003 p 357) stated that incidental learning “has often been rather loosely interpreted in common terms not firmly rooted in a particular theory “ and Milton (2008 p 228) goes further and said that “there is some confusion over exactly what incidental vocabulary is”. The term clearly has different meanings for different researchers, which is partly due to its methodological criterion in psychology experiments (Hulstijn 2003). Originally, incidental learning emerged as a concept within stimulus – response psychology and referred to a methodological aspect in learning experiments, namely to “the presence or absence of an explicit instruction to learn” (Hulstijn 2003). Hence in studies on intentional learning participants were told before that they would be tested after the experiment, while in studies on incidental learning participants were not forewarned.

With the advent of cognitive psychology, researchers lost interest in intentional and incidental learning as theoretical constructs, however incidental learning research designs were retained as a useful method to investigate information processing. In particular, Craik and Lockhart in (1972) had levels-of processing theory called forth many empirical studies which used such designs and thus helped the notion of incidental learning to survive and to enter SLA research (Hulstijn(2003 p 53).

One thing can be understood is that incidental learning mainly referred to a methodological aspect of research design and was regarded as practical tool rather than a valuable theoretical concept when it was first used in SLA. It appears that because of this historical lack of a precise definition, the notion of incidental learning has been adapted to fit different theoretical stances and has been used with a variety of meanings in more recent SLA research. Schmidt defined incidental learning as “learning without the intent to learn or the learning of one thing (e.g. grammar) when the learners primary objective is to do something else (e.g. communicate)” (Schmidt 1994 p 137). From this highly influential statement Hulstijn (2003 p 357-358) derives three more precise definitions, which distinguish between incidental learning as “learning without the intent to learn” as the most general meaning of the term, “learning of one stimulus aspect while paying attention to another stimulus aspect” as a second possibility and
“learning of formal features through a focus of attention on semantic features” as the most specific definition. All three of these definitions have been used by other researchers and in empirical studies.

The first definition is very broad and simply puts incidental learning in contrast to intentional learning, thus leaving a lot of space for interpretation. This meaning is often given in theoretical discussions and meta-analyses of the notion of incidental learning, for instance Rieder (2003:28) equates incidental with “un-intentional” and Hulstijn (2012 p 1) states that:

The term incidental learning is used, in applied linguistics, to refer to the acquisition of a word or expression without the conscious intention to commit the element to memory, such a “picking up” an unknown word from listening to someone or from reading a text. Also, Kerka (2000: 3) describes incidental learning as “unintentional or unplanned learning”.

2.1.3 Incidental learning and related concepts

It is quite hard to separate the notion of incidental learning from other related concepts such as attention or consciousness. Schmidt (1994) tried to distinguish between the different meanings of the word consciousness in SLA research that has been mentioned several times already with regard to incidental learning. Schmidt suggests differentiating between four different senses of the word consciousness: consciousness as attention, as awareness, as intention and as control. The notion of consciousness as intention refers to the incidental-intentional learning debate, and the concept of attention which has emerged as problematic concept before, also attention received a lot of interest for example: Schmidt (1990 p 144, 149) suggests that focusing one attention on a particular input feature most probably helps noticing it and thus makes it available for further processing and learning.

Schmidt (2001) argues that there can be no learning without attention, but there can be learning without intention.

Because we know that attention can involuntarily be attracted to stimuli, it cannot be claimed that learners must intentionally focus their attention on each particular aspect of L2 input in order to learn.
Even if it is true that in order to learn anything one must attend to it, that does not entail that it is necessary to have either the attention to attend or the intention to learn (Schimidt 2001 p 23)

It can be regarded from Schimidt view that neither awareness nor attention are necessary for the focusing of attention and thus for noticing or detection. IN summary, “both incidental and intentional learning require some attention and noticing, but in the case of incidental learning “the involvement of attention is not geared toward an articulated learning” (Hulstijn 2003: 361).

The awareness debate focuses on implicit and explicit learning, which are often confused with incidental and intentional learning. Hulstijn (2003 p 360) states that “for many authors, incidental and intentional learning overlap with, or even become indistinguishable from, implicit and explicit learning respectively”. Implicit learning is generally defined as “learning without awareness of what is being learned”. According to Hulstijn (2003 p 360) “incidental learning is always implicated in implicit learning; implicit learning thus entails more than what is meant by incidental vocabulary”. However other researchers have suggested that incidental learning involves both implicit and explicit learning. For instance, Rieder (2003 p 28) regards.

Incidental vocabulary acquisition as being composed of implicit learning processes (which happens without the learner awareness) and/or of explicit learning processes (which take place without learning intention but nevertheless involve online awareness and hypothesis formation).

One thing can be inferred from these contrasting views is that incidental and implicit learning are somehow related, even if the opinions on the exact nature of this relationship differ widely.

One important point that should be added is the result of a meta-analysis of different vocabulary studies by Nick Ellis (1994 p 52-53), which suggests that features relating to word form are mostly learned implicitly, whereas semantic and conceptual representations require explicit learning. Hence, in accordance with Rieder it is assumed here that incidental learning in the sense of unplanned and largely unintentional learning can involve process of both implicit and explicit learning and that therefore the acquisition of word meaning through Incidental learning and that therefore the acquisition of word meaning through incidental learning is possible.
2.1.4 Current stance on incidental learning

From the previous definitions it become clear that incidental learning has been used in research on both grammar and vocabulary, but in fact there are only very few empirical studies on the incidental acquisition of grammatical features (Hulstijn 2003 p 347). In contrast, the incidental-intentional distinction has been rather influential in vocabulary studies (2004 p 147) and is still used in empirical research nowadays.

However, it has been also seen that incidental learning is not an uncontroversial topic in the filed of vocabulary acquisition research, Milton (2009 p 218-219).

In addition, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) propose a new concept to measure the potential of tasks to result in successful incidental vocabulary acquisition: the construct of task-induced involvement consists of three components: the learners ‘need to achieve, their search for the meaning of a word and evaluation of what they find. This new concept is an attempt to compare different tasks in terms of vocabulary processing and to draw conclusions for lexical learning and teaching.

In summary, the current viewpoints on incidental learning within the field of second and foreign language vocabulary research appear to be manifold. Some researchers sees that there are highly negative reactions against the concept of incidental learning like Milton in 2008&2009. Others regard incidental and intentional learning as complementary processes like Hulstijn 2001 p 275-285. Hence despite the critical voices, incidental learning is still used within SLA and it seems that Hulstijn (2003 p 373) was right when he concluded that incidental and intentional learning would still have a role to play in the future.

3.1. Vocabulary acquisition

Vocabulary acquisition is only one aspect of second or foreign language learning, however it constitutes a large and important area.
3.1.1. Definitions of vocabulary knowledge

It is extremely difficult to define what exactly it means to know a word and many researchers have tried to give a comprehensive definition of word knowledge.

Traditionally, one convention is to differentiate between breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. “Breadth of knowledge refers to the number of words a learner knows and depth of knowledge refers to what the learners knows about these words” (Milton 2009 P 13). Another distinction that has been even more influential is the division of word knowledge into active (or productive) and passive (or receptive) knowledge which has been mentioned by Milton (2009 p 13). This seems to be a commonly accepted construct, but disagreement among, because it is usually assumed that a word is known receptively first and enters productive use only later (Melka 1997 p 90) and that more words are known passively than actively. Although the exact nature of the relation between passive and active vocabulary knowledge has not been clarified yet.
Table 1: What is involved in knowing a word, from Nation (2001: 27) (R=receptive, P = productive)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>from</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>What does the words sound like?</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>How is word pronounced?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Written</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>What does the word look like</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>How is the word written and spelled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word parts</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>What parts are recognisable in this word?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>What parts are needed to express the meaning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>From and meaning</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>What meaning does this word form signal?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>What word form can be used to express this meaning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concept and referents</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>What is included in the concept?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>What items can the concept refer to?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associations</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>What other words does this make us think of?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>What other words could we used instead of this one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical functions</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>In what patterns does the word occur?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>In what patterns must we use this word?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>collocations</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>What words or types of words occur with this one?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>What words or types of words must we use with this one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constraint on use</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>Where, when and how often would we expect to meet this word?</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Where, when and how often would can we use this word?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Register frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen from table 1, Nation divides word knowledge into knowing the form, meaning and use of words and each of these three categories includes different aspects which can be known receptively or productively. A closer look at the category of form shows that learners need to learn both the spoken and written form of a word. Nation’s table clearly states that learners must learn the written and spoken form of a word separately. In brief, as has been shown above knowing a word entails several different kinds of knowledge.
3.1.2. Factors influencing vocabulary learning

It seems rather obvious that there are words which are easier to learn and words which are rather more difficult, but the interesting question is why that should be so and what influences learnability. Nation states that the learning burden does not only differ between words, but also between learners according to their language background and argues further that “the more a word represents patterns and knowledge that learners are already familiar with, the lighter is the learning burden” (Nation 2001: 23–24). Hence, students’ familiarity with features of L2 words is one factor that influences vocabulary acquisition, but other researchers have proposed many more. Ellis and Beaton (1993) analyzed psycholinguistic determinants of foreign language learning, which mostly include intrinsic word properties.

Rod Ellis (1999) investigated factors influencing the incidental acquisition of L2 vocabulary from oral input and therefore his findings are of great importance to the present study. Ellis draws his conclusions mainly from interactional input (Ellis 1999 p 37–38).

Table 2 summarizes relevant factors suggested by both Ellis and Beaton (1993) and Ellis (1999) because concerning intrinsic word properties their proposals overlap to a large extent.
Table 2: Factors influencing vocabulary acquisition according to Ellis and Beaton (1993) and Ellis (1999)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic word properties</th>
<th>Input factors</th>
<th>Learner factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>distinctiveness of word form</td>
<td>frequency</td>
<td>existing L2 knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phonological features / pronounceability</td>
<td>saliency through 'focus'</td>
<td>background knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orthographic features</td>
<td>availability of contextual cues</td>
<td>procedural knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>familiarity of grapheme to phoneme mappings</td>
<td>input complexity</td>
<td>immediate phonological memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length of word</td>
<td></td>
<td>the learner's L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imageability of concept</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semantic content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correlation between form and meaning / polysemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distinctiveness of word form’ describes how similar a word is to other L2 words and familiarity of grapheme to phoneme mappings’ refers to the correspondence between letters and sounds, which may differ between languages. ‘Imageability’ refers to the concreteness of a word and semantic content’ relates to the fact that semantic fields are divided in different ways in different languages and thus concepts cannot always be translated literally. In contrast, correlation between form and meaning’ means that the sound of some words already indicates their meaning (e.g. onomatopoeia), but in other view could potentially include polysemy since one word form may correspond to different meanings. Finally, the terms word length, word class and word frequency are very clear.

Concerning input factors Ellis (1999 p 46–51) suggests that frequency, salience, contextual cues and the overall complexity of the input may affect vocabulary learning from oral input. However, in the context of this study factors relating to repetition might also play a role, for instance, word frequency is often assumed to be an especially important predictor of vocabulary
Nick Ellis (2002 p 152) argues that “the recognition and production of words is a function of their frequency of occurrence in the language”, but others suggest that it is the frequency of occurrence in the input which is decisive. Some experts have argued for a threshold effect that renders a minimum of six or seven encounters necessary to acquire a given word, whereas other researchers claim that a single exposure to a new word can already result in learning and that the process of acquisition is incremental (e.g., Schmitt 2000 p 117; Smidt and Hegelheimer 2004 p 520; Vidal 2011p 224–225).

With regard to learner variables Ellis (1999 p 53–57) limits his considerations to directly relevant factors such as L1 or L2 proficiency, but does not take wider variables such as motivation, learning goals or aspects of personality into account, although these can always be of importance. One last aspect that needs to be clarified concerning learner variables is Ellis’ notion of ‘procedural knowledge’, which he defines as “strategies and procedures employed by learners to process L2 data for acquisition and use” (Ellis 1999: 55). According to this definition ‘procedural knowledge’ seems to correspond to the concept of vocabulary learning strategies, which will be discussed next.

3.1.3. Vocabulary learning strategies

Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are the subject of a substantial amount of research in foreign language learning (cf. Klapper 2008 P 159) and several categorizations of VLS have been proposed, for instance by Oxford (1990), Gu and Johnson (1996), Schmitt (1997) or Nation (2001). In the context of this study the VLS that Schmitt (1997: 206) called ‘discovery strategies’ and Nation (2001 P 219) entitled ‘sources: finding information about words’ are of particular importance because they are concerned with finding the meaning of unknown words. Since Schmitt’s taxonomy includes all the source strategies mentioned in Nation as well as more specific strategies it will be mainly refer to his taxonomy, which builds on previous work by Oxford (1990).

Discovery strategies are defined as “strategies for gaining initial information about a new word (Schmitt 1997 P 206) and fall only into two of the five categories of Schmitt’s taxonomy.
Since repetition focuses mainly on listening as oral input, another set of strategies that is significant for this study are listening strategies. As Vandergrift (2004: 4) points out “listening is probably the least explicit of the four language skills, making it the most difficult skill to learn.” Listening usually includes both top-down processes, such as use of context and previous knowledge, and bottom-up processes, like for instance word segmentation. Word segmentation presents a great challenge for less-advanced L2 listeners because it involves online analysis of the speech stream and automatic processing, but little of what beginners hear can be analyzed quickly and processed automatically. In addition, word segmentation skills are language-specific and acquired early in life, which means that most listeners involuntarily apply L1 word segmentation even when listening to a foreign language (Vandergrift 2004 P 4–5 & 2008 P 91).

determination strategies and social strategies. Determination strategies refer to ways of trying to find out the meaning of a word on one’s own, while social strategies entail the help of other people. Table 3 lists the VLS that Schmitt includes in these two categories.

**Table 3:** Discovery strategies from the taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies by Schmitt (1997: 207).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Determination Strategies</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analyse part of speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analyse affixes and roots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>check for L1 cognate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(analyse any available pictures or gestures)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guess from textual context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bilingual dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monolingual dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word lists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flash cards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Strategies</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask teacher for an L1 translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask teacher for a paraphrase or a synonym of new word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask teacher for sentence including the new word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask classmates for meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(discover new meaning through group work activity)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most of these vocabulary learning strategies seem applicable in the context of incidental vocabulary acquisition from repetition. Furthermore, the activity of listening to contexts or stories or watching them during one’s free time can also be classified as a VLS; in fact, it is included in one of the metacognitive strategies proposed by Schmitt (1997: 208), which he calls “use of English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.). Metacognitive strategies are used by students to plan, control and evaluate their own learning and increased foreign language input is one possibility to enhance learning.

To help L2 learners develop their listening skills, Vandergrift (2008: 86-89) proposes a new taxonomy of listening comprehension strategies, they are mainly aimed at spoken oral texts and at situations in which learners actively try to understand as much as they can which can find in repetition activities sometimes. In fact, Vandergrift (2008: 84) defines listening strategies as “Deliberate Procedures” used by learners to enhance comprehension, learning and retention of target language. It could be therefore argued that such a deliberate use excludes incidental learning. However, listening strategies can be used even in incidental learning settings to understand the content of the repeated words, for instance, and learners might also be able to apply it more flexibly without conscious attention.

**Conclusion**

From this section we conclude that most vocabulary, in first, second or foreign languages, is acquired incidentally. A great deal of research has advocated that vocabulary is a key aspect in second language acquisition, especially when it comes to its incidental learning. This study has pointed out the importance of vocabulary and the factors that influence its learning; moreover shows that learning and being able to use FL vocabulary fluently takes a long time and repetition can play an important role in facilitating this process.
CHAPTER TWO

PRACTICAL FRAMEWORK
(ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS)
CHAPTER TWO: PRACTICAL FRAMEWORK
(ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS)

Introduction

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2.2 The sample

2.3 The research design

2.4 Procedures
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   2.4.2 Treatment
      2.4.2.1 Experimental group instruction
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4.1 Limitation of the study

4.2 Suggestions for further researches

General discussion

General conclusion
Introduction

This chapter is mainly devoted to the field of our study which aims at investigating the efficacy of using repetition as a teaching strategy to develop the learners’ acquisition of incidental vocabulary and to enlarge their repertoire of lexis.

At the level of this chapter, we will explain some procedures of the study such as: the choice of the method, the description of the sample, the tools used to carry out the study, the description of the pre-test and the post test and the analysis of the data obtained.

2.1 Choice of the Method

In order to achieve the research purpose, an experimental method is adopted. This choice is based on the nature of the topic which is investigating the effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In order to find the exact results in this experiment we are going to rely on the SPSS program, which we are going to define briefly:

SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) has now been in development for more than thirty years. Originally developed as a programming language for conducting statistical analysis, it has grown into a complex and powerful application which now uses both a graphical and a syntactical interface and provides dozens of functions for managing, analyzing, and presenting data. Its statistical capabilities alone range from simple parentages to complex analyses of variance, multiple regressions, and general linear models. The researcher can use data ranging from simple integers or binary variables to multiple response or logarithmic variables. SPSS also provides extensive data management functions, along with a complex and powerful programming language. In fact, a search at Amazon.com for SPSS books returns 2,034 listings as of March 15, 2004.

In this chapter, SPSS is going to help us to explore the various functions for managing the data, conducting statistical analysis, creating tables and charts, and preparing the output for incorporation into external files.
2.2 The Sample

The target population of the present study consisted of 36 students study third year at Annab Nammon Middle school in Souk Naamane for the academic year 2015-2016. Two groups have been randomly selected to present the experimental and control groups. Both groups included 18 students. They were of different ages, gender, and intellectual abilities.

This grade has been selected because it is worth mentioning that they are assumed to be motivated to learn new vocabulary since they are beginners and rely a lot on repetition to acquire new language.

2.3 The research design

The current study addresses the following question:

Does repetition strategy have any effect on incidental vocabulary acquisition?

Statistically speaking, this study attempts to answer the following question:

Is there a significant difference in incidental vocabulary acquisition between students who learn through repetition and those who do not?

To answer this question, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H1: There would be a significant difference in incidental vocabulary acquisition between students who learn vocabulary through repetition strategy and those who do not.

The null hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H0: There would be no significant difference in incidental vocabulary acquisition between students who learn vocabulary through repetition strategy and those who do not.

Furthermore, this research is composed of two variables: the independent variable (repetition) and the dependent variable (incidental vocabulary acquisition).

The design of this study includes three phases: pre- test, treatment and post- test.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>It consists of 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>It consists of 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>It includes four vocabulary tasks which contains twenty new words in order to have a general idea about their vocabulary knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment 1</td>
<td>It was in the form of teaching through repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment 2</td>
<td>It was about teaching vocabulary following the traditional method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Vocabulary tasks which are different from the pre-test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.4 Procedures

What has been done during the experiment, in order to accomplish the target aim, is to be mentioned in this section:

#### 2.4.1 Pre testing

Before carrying the treatment, students received a pre-test. This test included four tasks which contained new words to be combined with their appropriate definitions. The test took 45 minutes and before giving it to students, they were informed that their scores on the test would not affect their scores on the examination; therefore, they had to work individually and give answers which they believed were correct.

#### 2.4.2 Treatment

The treatment started from the second session and extended over four sessions. During these sessions, the two groups received the same content but using different methods. They received more than
16 new words varied verbs, nouns and adjectives. Both groups were taught by the researcher for one hour each time.

The experimental group participants during the whole treatment period were learning new vocabulary through repetition. Our aim was not to make them memorizing the words, but to know whether students are able to acquire new vocabulary incidentally through repetition or not. According to what we have noticed, students were motivated and the atmosphere in the class was enjoyable since they were allowed to repeat the words loudly. This is as far as the first period of treatment is concerned. About the second phase of the treatment, we can say that students were asked to solve exercises concerned with the targeted words. Then, they were asked write meaningful sentences in which they employ the words they have learnt so far. On the other hand, the control group was in the traditional way without integrating any repetition using the same content, i.e. the same lyrics.

2.4.2.1 Experimental Group Instruction

Students in this group were taught vocabulary with the integration of repetition throughout five sessions. During each session, students correct one of the tasks in the pre-test. The new words were explained separately by the researcher and repeat them between time to time, students were asked to write different sentences contains the targeted words. Because they were giving between four to five words per session.

2.4.2.2 Control Group Instruction

The students of this group were taught without repetition strategy; the ordinary method applied by their teacher which includes teaching without repetition. They were thought between four to five words per session, these words were defined only one time in only one context.
2.4.2.3 Post-testing

One week after finishing the treatment period, a final test was given to both groups. It was administered under the same conditions surrounding the pre-test in order to see whether there was a significant improvement in the experimental group performance after the adaption of repetition strategy.

2.5 Instruments

In the present study, varied tasks were used in order to test student’s levels with different tasks like: matching tasks and fill in the blanks.

2.5.1 Test used in pre-test and post test

To collect the data required two tests were administered to both groups. The first one before the beginning of the treatment (the pre-test), however the second one at the end of treatment period (the post test) i.e. After five sessions. The tests were different from each other; the pre-test was made up of four vocabulary tasks. These tasks contained fifteen different words. These words have been selected from their book. Participants were asked to work individually to ensure the efficacy of the repetition strategy.

2.6 Scoring

The total score of the test was 20 points. Each task was scored according to the numbers of answers; in the sense that, no point was giving to the wrong answers.

2.7 Statistical Analysis

In order to compare the results of the experimental and control groups on the pre and post-tests, two parametric tests were used. The first test is known as the t-test for independent samples and the second one is called the paired-samples t-test. The former is used to find out any significant differences between the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups before the treatment phase and it is also used to find out any significant differences between: The post-tests. So the aim is to compare the results of the same group before and after the treatment period in order to see whether there is any significant improvement from pre to post-test scores (Bower, 2000).
The analysis of the data gathered will be presented in details in the following section:

2.8 Results

The statistical analysis of the current study is presented in this section. It begins with the scores of vocabulary tasks used in both pre and post-tests and it ends with a discussion of the research findings.

3. Data Analysis

3.1. The frequency of the pre-test and post-test scores for both groups

Table 5: The Frequency of the Experimental group scores on the pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5,9</td>
<td>5,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.50</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11,8</td>
<td>23,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5,9</td>
<td>29,4</td>
</tr>
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<td>5.50</td>
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<td>35,3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.00</td>
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<td>5,9</td>
<td>52,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>5,9</td>
<td>58,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>11.50</td>
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<td>82,4</td>
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<td>12.50</td>
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<td>5,9</td>
<td>88,2</td>
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<td>13.50</td>
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<td>94,1</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.50</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: The Frequency of the control group scores on the pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>47.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>58.8</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>88.2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we compare the frequencies of both groups in the pre-test we find that the lowest mark in the experimental group is 1 and the best mark is 15.50 whereas in the control group the lowest mark is also 1 and the best mark is 10.
Figure 1: The frequency of experimental group scores on the pre-test
Figure 2: The frequency of control group scores on the pre-test

Frequency histograms 1 and 2 show that both control and experimental groups start at 1 (the lowest score) however they end differently (the control group ends with 10 and the experimental group ends with 15 as the highest marks). The most frequent score in the control group is 6. However, in the experimental group the most frequent score is 6.5. Moreover, both control and experimental groups’ most frequent scores are bounded by 2.

In order to examine whether the control and experimental groups are similar or not i.e. Whether they have the same level or not, t-test for independent groups is conducted.
Table 7: The frequency of the experimental group in the post test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.00</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.00</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.00</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
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<td>10.50</td>
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<td>11.8</td>
<td>41.2</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.00</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
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<td>16.00</td>
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<td>64.7</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8: The frequency of the control group in the post test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
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<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00</td>
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<td>88.2</td>
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<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3: The frequency of the experimental group scores on the post-test
When we compare the figures of both groups in the post-test we notice that in the Experimental group the most frequent score are 10.50, 16.50 and 17.50. However in the control group the most frequent ones are 5 and 11. We can conclude that the Experimental Group marks are higher than the control group marks in the post-test.

In order to define the difference between both groups in the pre-test an independent sample test will be applied:
### 3.2. Pre-test: Control group vs Experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above presents the output for the independent-sample t-test in the pre-tests. This output consists of two major parts: The experimental group and the Control group. The statistical groups provide the sample by the number of the participants, means, standard deviations, and the standard error of the mean. However, the results of both groups are presented in the second table, to decide whether to accept or reject the alternative hypotheses after the pre-test. We must look at the significance level (Sig). If the significance level is higher than 0.05, then we can assume that the null hypothesis is accepted i.e there is no significant difference between the two groups, or the opposite i.e. less than 0.05 there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups. In this case the significance level is 0.139.
and 0.142 (higher than 0.05), which means that there is no difference between the two groups; they have approximately the same level.

Our Independent Samples t-test output provides us also with the t obtained, degrees of freedom (df), the mean difference (Group 1 mean and Group 2 mean), and confidence intervals for the difference between the group means. This interval allows us to estimate the actual difference found in the population between groups of interest. In our case there is no difference since both groups contain 17 students.

3.3 Control group post-test vs Control group pre-test

According to Chen (2005), the paired-samples t-test is used to examine whether the treatment phase has an impact or not. The paired-Sample t-test allows us to test whether a two sample means, collected from the same group on two separate occasions, are significantly different from each other. In our current example, we have measured the control group in the pre-test and the post test.

Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group Pre-test</td>
<td>5.8824</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.32869</td>
<td>.56479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group Post-test</td>
<td>8.3529</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.26748</td>
<td>1.03502</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The tables above present the output for the paired- Sample T-test. This output consists of three major parts: Paired Samples statistics, Paired- Samples Correlations, and Paired Samples Test. The Paired Samples Statistics Output provides the mean, sample sizes (N), standard deviations and the standard error of the mean. The paired samples correlations output presents a hypothesis testing statistic. Essentially these statistics tell us how strongly related our two variables are.

The last table presents the basic parts of the difference t formula presented. First, we are given the mean difference (the column labeled Mean). The mean difference is the numerator of the difference t formula and is obtained by subtracting the mean of the pre-test from the mean in the post test. The second column, labeled “Std. Deviation”, reports the standard deviation of the difference, which is part of the denominator of the difference t formula. The third column, labeled “Std. Error Mean,” reports the standard error of the mean difference, which is obtained by dividing the standard deviation of the difference by the square root of n. The standard error of the mean difference is the complete numerator of
the difference t formula. The column which is separated on two parts: (upper and lower) present the boundaries of the 95% confidence interval within which the true mean difference for the population is expected to fall. The second part of the Paired Sample Test output presents the t obtained, degrees of freedom, and the two tailed level of significance. In this case, the t obtained is -2.315, and, with 16 degrees of freedom. Though SPSS reports a significance level of .000, in the (sig) column, it is generally inappropriate to report it as such, and reporting .001 is the preferred method.

When observing the (sig) 2tailed we can see easily see the result 0.034 which means that it is less than 0.05 which means that the null hypotheses is rejected and the alternative one is respected. We may conclude that there is a significant difference between the control group pre-test and post-test, which will be explained better on the following figure.

**Figure 5: Control group scores in the pre-test and post-test**

3.4 Experimental group post-test vs Experimental group pre-test
### Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>.619</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group Pre-test &amp; Experimental Group post-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>7.6765</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.28275</td>
<td>1.03872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group Pre-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group post-test</td>
<td>12.9118</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.31290</td>
<td>1.04603</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>-5.23529</td>
<td>3.75049</td>
<td>.90963</td>
<td>-7.16362</td>
<td>-3.30697</td>
<td>-5.755</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                  | Experimental Group Pre-test - Experimental Group post-test | | | | | | | |
Based on the results collected in the table, the experimental group post-test performance was shown by calculating the difference, since the first test (pre-test) mean was 7.67 and increased in the second test becoming 12.91 and according to the Sig2 tailed which is 0.000 i.e. less than 0.005 we may conclude that the null hypotheses is rejected and the alternative one is accepted. The following figure will make it clearer.

Figure 6 : Experimental group scores in the pre-test and post-test
3.5. Post test: Experimental group vs Control group

Group Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12.9118</td>
<td>4.31290</td>
<td>1.04603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.3235</td>
<td>4.23874</td>
<td>1.02805</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table presents the output for the independent-sample T Test in the post-test for both control and experimental group. In order to decide whether to confirm or to reject the hypotheses through comparing the significance level (sig) with the 0.05. In our case 0.004 is less than 0.05, which means that the alternative hypotheses is accepted and the null hypotheses is rejected. i.e. There is a development in
the level of the experimental which means that Repetition has a positive effects on incidental vocabulary acquisition

Figure 7: Experimental and Control group scores in the post-test
All in all, we can observe that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control group post-test means. Therefore, the alternative hypotheses is accepted whereas the null hypothesis is rejected. Finally, it can be claimed that using repetition in EFL classrooms has a significant influence on developing incidental vocabulary acquisition of the third year students at Annab Naamon Middle School in Souk-Naamane.

4. Limitation of the study and suggestions for further researches

4.1 Limitation of the study

The present study has attempted to fill an apparent research gap by investigating the previously overlooked phenomenon of incidental vocabulary acquisition from repetition. Since there were no previous studies that could be built upon, many limitations have to be considered:

Repetition is considered as a boring and an old fashion strategy.

The results of the present study cannot be generalized to other learning situations because of the relatively small sample size and the small number of target words.

This study cannot be applied to all kinds of learners; however it works better with young learners.

4.2 Suggestions for future research

The empirical study presented in this thesis has only been the first step in closing the research gap concerning incidental vocabulary learning from repetition. More research projects are needed to evaluate popular beliefs about vocabulary learning and to analyse the factors that promote incidental learning in other contexts. With regard to these contexts research will be a promising area and could produce highly interesting results; such as:
Further research can be also conducted to examine the effects of repetition on another variable such as grammar.

It is highly probable that learners can acquire more incidental vocabulary through cross word games.
General Discussion

The current study was conducted to examine the effectiveness of repetition on incidental vocabulary acquisition. The following hypothesis has been tested:

Students who learn through repetition will acquire incidental vocabulary and they will be able to use it easily.

The analysis of findings demonstrates that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test. The reason of this significant improvement is due to the use of repetition as a treatment. Thus, the alternative hypothesis is proved.

The major findings concerning the improvement of both control and experimental groups are discussed:

Firstly, it was noticeable that there is improvement for both groups in the post-test as compared to the pre-test, however the development in the experimental group is higher than that development in the control group. This means that following the traditional method has a slow effective in improving learners’ vocabulary. The reasonable explanation is that when learning a word for only one time, the learners will not store it in their long-term memory because they learned it by chance i.e. they couldn’t use it in a meaningful context. That’s why, they forget the learned words.

Secondly, it was noticeable that the experimental group did show a highly significant progress in incidental vocabulary acquisition in the post-test, as compared to the control group. The reasonable explanation for this significant improvement is that this strategy helps students to acquire new words.
General conclusion

There is a common belief among teachers and researchers that a large part of the vocabulary that students need to know in order to achieve fluency in foreign language is acquired through incidental learning. Empirical work in this field has concentrated strongly on the effects of extensive reading and there is no attention to the importance of repetition. This study constitutes an attempt to bridge this apparent research gap by investigating incidental vocabulary learning from repetition.

Relying on the analysis of the research findings and discussion of the result, it can be said that improving students incidental vocabulary acquisition via the use of the strategy that is known as “repetition” is highly effective.
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APPENDICES
Appendices

Appendix A : The test used in pre-testing :

First name: ………………………
Family name: …………………..

Task1:

Match between the word and its definition/explanation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Definition/Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Independent</td>
<td>A. People can trust me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Positive</td>
<td>B. I don’t rely on other people to help me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Honest and reliable</td>
<td>C. I am always ready to help a friend when he needs me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Considerate</td>
<td>D. I have an optimistic view to life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Available</td>
<td>E. I help people rather than criticize them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Supportive</td>
<td>F. I think about the feeling of other people.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task2:

Circle the appropriate verb with the appropriate mean of transport:

The verbs: ( to sail/ to ride / to drive/ to fly /to walk)
The mean of the transport: (motorcycle/ boat/ plane/ foot/ car)

Task 3:

Circle the word or the statement which has the closest meaning for the following words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Definition/Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Beautiful</td>
<td>A. Rich B. Nice C. Silent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ugly</td>
<td>A. Polite B. cheap C. Not beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Fantastic</td>
<td>A. Hopeful B. wealthy C. Amazing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Horrible</td>
<td>A. Wonderful B. Disaster C. strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Imressive</td>
<td>A. People like it easily B. people hate it C. people ignore it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Attractive</td>
<td>A. People pay attention to it from the first time B. people do not need it C. hidden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Natural disasters ..........1........... havoc all over the world. They ...............2......... people’s lives and destroy their property.
Since natural disasters ..........3........... by nature, we can’t do anything to prevent them from happening. For example, we cannot prevent storms or earthquakes. However, if we ..........4........... of the causes of natural disasters we will be better equipped to deal with their consequences.
Appendix B: The tasks distributed to the participant in experimental and control groups:

Session 01:

The first session to the participants of the control group:

Task 1:

correcting the first task of the pre test by giving the appropriate definition without repetition

Match between the word and its definition/explanation:

1. Independent          A. People can trust me.
2. Positive             B. I don’t rely on other people to help me.
3. Honest and reliable   C. I am always ready to help a friend when he needs me.
4. Considerate          D. I have an optimistic view to life
5. Available            E. I help people rather than criticize them.
6. Supportive           F. I think about the feeling of other people.

1=B
2=D
3=A
4=E
5=C
6=F

The first session directed to the participants of the experimental group:

Task 1:

correcting the task of the pre test with applying the following steps:
1. Explaining every single word many times by the teacher than repeated by the students.
2. Asking the students to give examples by their own.
3. After repeating the meaning orally, the students write the meaning in their copy book.
4. Each time there is a new term we shall tell the students what we are going to do then tell what we are doing then what we have done.
5. Asking the students to write meaningful sentences using the previous concepts.
The second session with the control group:

Task 1:
Correcting the second task of the pre test:

1. to sail = the boat
2. to drive = the car
3. to ride = the motorcycle
4. to walk = foot
5. to fly = plain

Asking the students about their answers then giving them the right answer without any repetition.

The second session with the experimental group:

1: revising the concepts and terms of the last session
2: using five minutes to remind them of the main ideas of the last session
3: telling them about what we are going to do this session
4: correcting the second task of the pre test with focusing on the targeted terms and repeating the terms between time to time
5: asking the students to write dialogues about their favorite means of transport
6: Create many small opportunities during the presentation of the dialogues to reinforce, revisit, and repeat ideas.

The third session with the control group:

1. Correcting the third task of the pre test without giving any instruction of repetition

The third session with the experimental group:

1. Asking them about the previous session and remind them about essential points
2. Correcting the third task of the pre test by repeating each concept alone with its definition
3. Ask the student to find other synonyms to the targeted terms

The fourth session with the control group:
Task 1: reading the passage of the fourth exercise of the pre test and ask the students to fill the blanks

The fourth session with the experimental group:

1. Reading the passage many times
2. Try to understand the general meaning of the passage
3. Discuss the predictable meaning of the concepts
4. Rewrite the passage using the correct terms
5. Reread the passage many times after correcting it
6. Writing the passage in the blackboard, than clean some key words
7. Asking the students to find the missing words
8. In the last five minutes the students should review what have been said in the session

The fifth session for the control group:

Normal session with different exercises in the types and in the vocabulary

The fifth session with the experimental group:

1. Making this session as an overview of all previous sessions
2. Giving the same previous tasks with new structure and the same targeted vocabulary
3. Giving the students the chance to give comments and ask questions
4. Ask the students to name some new terms which they had learned in these series of lessons

Appendix C: The test used in post-testing

Task 1:

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate word:

Independent- Support - Positive - Considerate - Available - Honest

. I brought a nice dress by my own money, finally I am..........

. My friend is in the hospital. I should go and.........her.

. I didn’t want to make her fill upset, I..........her by talking about her nice hair.

. I like her so much, she is hopeful by her view to life. She is.........

. I believe every single word she is saying, because she is........

. I will meet him this afternoon, since his.........
Task 2:

Find the synonym of the underlined word:

. She look like a princess, she is **gorgeous**

A. polite  
B. beautiful  
C. smart

. This evil woman is very **ugly**

A. amazing  
B. Negative  
C. not beautiful

Task 3:

Put these words in meaningful sentences:

Available- Fantastic- Disaster- Horrible

Task 4: complete these sentences by finding the missing words:

I ride the………..
I walk………..
I drive………..
I fly to France………..
I sail by…………
Résumé

La présente étude a été menée afin d'étudier l'effet de la stratégie de la répétition sur l'acquisition du vocabulaire des élèves de l’enseignement secondaire. Par souci d'atteindre l'objectif de la recherche, une méthode expérimentale avec une conception expérimentale a été menée où deux groupes ont été répartis au hasard en tant que groupes expérimentaux et de contrôle. L'échantillon cible comprend trente-quatre étudiants en troisième année à Annab Naamon Middle School à Souk Naamane -Oum El Bouaghi- pour l'année scolaire 2015- 2016. En outre les participants de groupes expérimentaux et de contrôle ont été pré-testée en utilisant une tâches de vocabulaire correspondant. Après l'administration du pré-test, le traitement a été effectué pour les deux groupes de cinq séances. Le groupe expérimental a été enseigné par la répétition et le groupe de contrôle a été enseigné le vocabulaire dans la méthode ordinaire. Ensuite, les deux groupes ont été post-testés par un autre test de vocabulaire. Après avoir analysé les résultats obtenus, l'hypothèse alternative a été prouvée. C'est-à-dire, la répétition a un effet positif sur le développement de la capacité des élèves à acquérir le vocabulaire d'ailleurs.
لقد أجريت هذه الدراسة بهدف معرفة تأثير التكرار في الاكتساب العرضي للمفردات في اللغة الإنجليزية لطلاب السنة الثالثة من التعليم المتوسط من أجل تحقيق هدف الدراسة تم إجراء طريقة تجريبية مع التصميم التجريبي حيث تم اختيار مجموعتين بشكل عشوائي مجموعة ضابطة وأخرى تجريبية بحيث أجريت الدراسة على عينة مكونة من أربعة وثلاثين تلميذاً تلميذة بدرسون في السنة الثالثة بموسطة ع난 نعمون - سوق نعمان - ولاية ام البواقي للموسم الدراسي 2015-2016. حيث تم إخضاع المجموعتين التجريبية والضابطة إلى اختبار أولي باستخدام مفردات لغوية تم اختيارها مسبقا. بعد مرحلة إجراء الاختبار، أجري العلاج لكلا المجموعتين لخمس حصص. كانت تدرس المجموعة التجريبية من خلال التكرار و المجموعة الضابطة المفردات اللغوية من خلال الأسلوب المعتاد. وبعد ذلك تم إخضاع كلا المجموعتين إلى اختبار مختلف من حيث الشكل مع الإبقاء على نفس المفردات اللغوية المختارة في الاختبار الذي تم قبل مرحلة بداية العلاج. بعد تحليل النتائج المتحصل عليها، تم أثبات الفرضية البديلة. مما يعني أن إستراتيجية التكرار لها تأثير إيجابي على تطوير التلاميذ لقدرة اكتسابهم للمفردات اللغوية.