



## The Involvement Load Hypothesis and the Effects of Gender on Vocabulary Learning Strategy; the case of Persian EFL Learners

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### Abstract

Vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. Nevertheless the teaching and learning vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of Second Language Acquisition throughout its varying stage and up to the present day. SLA researchers and teachers have prioritized syntax and phonology as more serious candidates for theorizing (Richards 1976, P.77) more central to linguistic theory and more to language pedagogy. Vocabulary learning strategies are one part of language learning strategies which in turn are one part of general learning strategies (Nation, 2001). The process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used. Dr. Chanika Gamper investigated English vocabulary learning strategies adopted by English gifted students of Triam Udomsuksa School in the first semester of the academic year 2008. The mean score of the groups participated in the study indicated that the use of Metacognitive strategies are most frequently used by English gifted students who are considered high proficient students in English. And the least frequently used vocabulary strategy was "I learn words by listening to vocabulary CDs." in Cognitive strategies. The idea of how vocabulary is learnt is principally related to strategies used by learners as well as approaches to teaching and learning vocabularies which result in longer and easier retrieval of the vocabularies (Griffiths 2003, 2006). Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation (P.8). As Wenden (1987a) says learning strategies are the various operations that learners use in order to make sense of their learning. Also Williams and Burden (1997) indicated that when students are involved in a learning task they have several resources which they use in different ways to finish or solve the task, so this can be termed process of learning strategy. So it may be easier to say that learning strategy is learning skills learning to learn skills, thinking skills, problem skills or in other words the method which learners use to intake, store, and retrieve the learning process. Related to vocabulary learning strategies in the field of language teaching and learning, learners apply different strategies to increase their vocabulary knowledge. There are some prominent strategies such as rote repetition, structural association, semantic strategies, and mnemonic key word technique preferred by learners. Among the offered strategies, it is highly stated that strategies that entail less active manipulation of language tasks e.g. repetition and note taking were frequently employed than those that entail active manipulation of learning materials e.g. grouping and contextualization (O'Malley and Chamot 1990). Learning strategies are the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal. Strategic learners have metacognitive knowledge about their own thinking and learning approaches, a good understanding of what a task entails, and the ability to orchestrate the strategies that best meet both the task demands and their own learning strengths. An area of basic research in second language acquisition is the identification and description of learning strategies used by language learners and the correlation of these strategies with other learner variables such as proficiency level, age, gender, motivation, and the like (Chamot & Eldinary, 1999; El-Dib, 2004; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

Keywords: Involvement Load Hypothesis, Vocabulary Learning Strategy, Learning Strategy



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## 1.Intoduction

Applied research on language learning strategies investigates the feasibility of helping students become more effective language learners by teaching them some of the learning strategies that descriptive studies have identified as characteristic of the “good language learner”(Rubin,1975;1981; Stern, 1975).

Language learning strategies encourage greater overall self-direction for learners. Self directed learners are independent learners who are capable of assuming responsibility for their own learning and gradually gaining confidence, involvement and proficiency (Oxford, 1990). Thus, students need training in vocabulary learning strategies they need most. Research has shown that many leraners do use more strategies to learn vocabulary especially when compared to such integrated tasks such as listening and speaking. In the field of language teaching and learning learners apply different strategies to increase their vocabulary knowledge. There are some prominent strategies such as rote repetition, structural association, semantic strategies and mnemonic key word technique prefered by learners.

Research into language learning strategies has increased significantly since the 1970s because such categories play various important roles in language learning. Vocabulary learning strategies are one part of language learning strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies (Nation, 2001).

### 1.1Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Within the field of language acquisition, LLS have been classified by many theorists. The classifications are also known as taxonomies of LLS. Nevertheless, most of these efforts to categorize language learning strategies reflect almost the same classifications of language learning strategies without any major changes. Rubin's (1987), and O'Malley's (1985) taxonomies of language learning strategies will be respectively discussed.

#### 1.2 Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Rubin, who observed much of the work in the area of strategies, explicates the characteristic between strategies contributing directly to learning and those contributing indirectly to learning. According to Rubin, there are three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These are “Learning Strategies”, “Communication Strategies”, and “Social Strategies”.

#### 1.3 O'Malley's (1985) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

O'Malley (1985) divided language learning strategies into three main subcategories: they are “Metacognitive Strategies”, “Cognitive Strategies”, and “Socioaffective Strategies”.



## 2. Learning Strategies

There are two most important types, being the strategies contributing directly to the development of the language system created by learners: they are “Cognitive Learning Strategies” and “Metacognitive Learning Strategies”.

### 2.1 Cognitive Learning Strategies

These refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problemsolving that involves direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin classifies six core cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning: they are “Clarification / Verification”, “Guessing Inductive Inferencing”, “Deductive Reasoning”, “Practice”, “Memorization”, and “Monitoring”.

### 2.2 Metacognitive Learning Strategies

These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes as planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management.

### 2.3 Communication Strategies

These are less directly related to language learning since their focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Communication strategies are used by speakers when faced with some difficulty due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means, or when confronted with misunderstanding by a cospeaker.

### 2.4 Social Strategies

Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practise their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Rubin and Wenden, 1987).

### 2.5 Metacognitive Strategies

It can be pointed out that metacognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Among the main metacognitive strategies, it is possible to include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation.

### 2.6 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct



manipulation of the learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies.

## 2.7 Socioaffective Strategies

As to the socioaffective strategies, it can be stated that they are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others. Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socioaffective strategies.

In conclusion, as Lessard-Clouston (1997) states, LLS, being specific actions, behaviors, tactics, or techniques, facilitate the learning of the target language by the language learner. All language learners, needless to say, use language learning strategies in the learning process. Since the factors like age, gender, personality, motivation, self-concept, life-experience, learning style, excitement, anxiety, etc. affect the way in which language learners learn the target language, it is not reasonable to support the idea that all language learners use the same good language learning strategies or should be trained in using and developing the same strategies to become successful learners.

## 2.8 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

According to Nation (1990), from the late 1980s, vocabulary was an area that had drawn researchers' interest within the mainstream of L2 acquisition. Researchers realized that many learners' difficulties, both receptive and productive, result from an inadequate vocabulary, and even when they are at higher levels of language competence and performance, they still feel in need of learning vocabulary. Gu and Johnson (1996) point out that most research on vocabulary learning strategies has focused on various methods of vocabulary presentation, and their effects on retention. Hatch & Brown (1995), however, discover that vocabulary is central to language and is of great significance to language learners. Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions, ideas without which people cannot convey the intended meaning. The prominent role of vocabulary knowledge in second or foreign language learning has been recently recognized by theorists and reserachers in the field. Accordingly, numerous types of approaches, techniques, exrecises and practice have been introduced into the field to teach vocabulary.

Moreover, Nation (2001) makes clear that vocabulary learning strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies. As well, Oxford (1990) observes that language learning strategies encourage greater overall self-directed learners are independent learners who are able to assume responsibility for their own learning and gradually gaining confidence, involvement, and proficiency. Thus students need training in the vocabulary learning strategies they need most. Research has shown that many leraners do use more stratgies to leran vocabulary, especially when compared to such integrated tasks such as listening and speaking. Yet Schmitt (1997) claims that they are mostly inclined to use basic vocabulary learning strategies. This in turn makes strategy instruction in essential part of any foreign or second language program. However, a great knowledge of vocabulary learning strategies could be very usefull in supporting teachers to plan their lessons more effectively and give guidance to students in adopting successful strategies. Over the decades, many reserachers have made an effort not only to classify, but also gather, these strategies in order to support learners' learning.





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Many factors influence students using language learning strategies: age, sex, attitude, motivation, aptitude, learning stage, task requirements, teacher expectation, learning styles, individual differences, motivation, cultural differences, beliefs about language learning, and language proficiency (Rubin, 1975; Bialystok, 1979; Abraham & Vann, 1987, 1990; Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos 1989; Chamot & Kupper 1989; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995). As the aim of investigating language learning strategies is to produce more effective learning, it has to focus on research into the relationship between using language learning strategies and language learning results.

Many researchers and experts have defined language learning strategies from different points of view. According to Wenden (1987a), language learning strategies can be defined from the aspect of language learning behaviours, such as learning and regulating the meaning of a second or foreign language, cognitive theory, such as learners' strategic knowledge of language learning, and the affective view, such as learners' motivation, attitude, etc. It is argued that three points of views can improve language learning. O'Malley, Chamot and their colleagues (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; O'Malley et al., 1985a) were devoted to studying the use of learning strategies by ESL learners in the US.

In examining differences in strategy use between males and females, some studies have found that females use more strategies than males (Kaylani, 1996; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito & Sumrall, 1993). Others have found no differences in strategy use between females and males (Vandergrift, 1997). One study found that males used more strategies than females (Wharton, 2000) and another recent study found differences in strategy use between men and women related to the type of strategy rather than an overall difference (El-Dib, 2004). From an instructional perspective, then, we do not know with certainty whether female or male students are most in need of language learning strategies.

Because of the importance of vocabulary learning and retention, Hulstijn and Laufer proposed the notion of the Involvement Load Hypothesis in 2001. This hypothesis consists of three main components: Need, Search, and Evaluation. This hypothesis claims that tasks inducing higher involvement load produce better vocabulary retention effects. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) investigated the effects of task-induced involvement via two parallel experiments involving and Laufer (2001, 2006) developed the Involvement Load Hypothesis for L2 vocabulary learning. (This advanced Dutch- and Hebrew speaking learners of English. Learners in both experiments were randomly assigned to one of three tasks. Participants assigned to Task 1 read a passage and answered multiple choice comprehension questions that required knowledge of 10 target words. The target words were highlighted in the text and glossed in the margin. Participants assigned to Task 2 received the same passage and comprehension questions as Task 1 but with the target words omitted and replaced with blank spaces. Their task was to fill in the missing blanks using a list of words provided. Participants receiving Task 3 used the target words to write an original composition in the form of a letter to a newspaper editor. The findings showed that task 3 was more influential than task 2 and task 2 was again more influential than task 1.

Most studies that are premised on the role of involvement, attention and depth of processing in incidental vocabulary learning (Watanabe, 1997; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001) have rarely employed process measures, such as think-aloud protocols. While attempts to measure different levels of language processing and awareness have been made in cognitive psychology and other areas of SLA, this task still needs to be undertaken in studies on incidental vocabulary learning. Moreover, many of these studies assume that learning will be incidental if learners are not instructed to learn the targeted



words. However, in most cases no attempt is made to ensure that learners do not expect a vocabulary test and do not intend to learn the targeted words. The concept of 'levels of processing' was proposed in the cognitive psychology field by Craik and Lockhart (1972), who suggested that remembering information depends not only on having attended to it during its occurrence or having rehearsed it after its occurrence, but also on how deeply it is processed. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) applied this notion to the SLA field, giving rise to the Involvement Load Hypothesis in the incidental L2 vocabulary learning research strand.

Acknowledging the importance of the notions of depth of processing (Craik & Lockhart, 1972) and elaboration (Craik & Tulving, 1975), but feeling the need to translate and operationalize such general cognitive notions in terms of L2 vocabulary learning tasks, Hulstijn sentence is based on Craik and Tulvin' idea and the aim of the present study is to evaluate the influence of Involvement Load Hypothesis in the context of Iranian University Students when vocabulary learning strategy of the participants will be taken into consideration). Depth of processing refers to incidental vocabulary learning (Watanabe, 1997; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001) which have rarely employed process measures, such as think-aloud protocols. Hulstijn (2001) defines depth of processing as elaboration and amount of attention: "Processing new lexical information more elaborately (e.g., by paying attention to the word's pronunciation, orthography, grammatical category, meaning and semantic relations to other words) will lead to higher retention than by processing new lexical information less elaborately (e.g., by paying attention to only one or two of these dimensions)" (p. 270). Tasks with different involvement load will lead to different incidental acquisition (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). Retention of unfamiliar words is claimed to be conditional upon the amount of involvement while processing these words. Involvement is operationalized by tasks designed to vary in the degree of need, search, and evaluation (The elements/factors of ILH). Need, Search and Evaluation are the elements of Involvement Load Hypothesis proposed by Laufer and Hustijin (2001) and these are the independent variables of my study. Involvement is operationalized by tasks designed to vary in the degree of need, search, and evaluation ( the elements of Involvement Load Hypothesis) proposed by Lu Jing and Huang Jianbin(2009). According to Laufer and Hulsijin Involvement Load Hypotheses states that retention of words processed incidentally is dependent of three factors: need, search, and evaluation. Tasks with higher degrees of need, search, and evaluation include higher involvement load (i.e. more elaborate processing) and therefore are more effective for word learning than tasks that lower involvement.

The need component is the motivational, non-cognitive dimension of involvement. Two degrees of prominence are suggested for need: moderate and strong. According to Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), need is moderate when it is imposed by an external agent. An example is the need to use a word in a sentence that the teacher has asked for or in a reading comprehension text the need to the meaning of new practiced words to provide answer to some reading comprehension questions as a technique in practicing the new encountered vocabularies in the text. Building on the Involvement Load Hypothesis put forward by Hulstijn and Laufer, which proposes that task inducing higher involvement load is likely to produce better vocabulary retention effects. A task involvement load is the combination of the presence or absence of the involvement factors Need, Search, and Evaluation (Laufer and Hustijin 2001, p.544). For example a task in which learners read a text and answer comprehension questions that require knowledge of unknown words glossed in the margin would receive an involvement load index of 1 because need is moderate(imposed by the task) and search and evaluation are absent(1+0+0). In another task that requires the learners to write a composition using



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words provided by the instructor need is moderate (imposed by the task) search is absent and evaluation is strong (new words are used with other words in original text) and would receive the score of  $3(1+0+2)$ . According to the Involvement Load Hypothesis the second task is more effective than the first because the second induces a higher involvement load (i.e. more mental effort). In its current instantiation, no one involvement factor takes priority over another and no particular task type (e.g. input vs. output) is deemed to be , a prior, more effective than other (Keating, 2008). What matters is the amount of involvement induced by the task, as indicated by the task, as indicated by a task's involvement index. Involvement is operationalised by task designed to vary in the degree of need, search, and evaluation (Laufer and Hulstijn 2001). The need component refers to the motivational, noncognitive dimension of involvement. Two degrees of prominence for need, moderate and strong, are differentiated in terms of the extrinsic-intrinsic distinction. For example, a need is moderate when it is imposed externally (e.g., the need to identify a word in a sentence as has been asked by the teacher). A strong need is one that is self-imposed (e.g., a need induced as a consequence of the learners' decision, for example, to look up a word when writing a composition). To evaluate the influence of the need element the meaning of new vocabularies in a text is introduced to the learners by synonyms glossed in margin. In previous studies conducted to evaluate the elements of ILH, the participants in the need group faced some new items in a text and then answered the reading comprehension questions as the ILH indicates. To provide correct answer to these reading comprehension questions the participants needed the meaning of the new items. So, based on the ILH (ILH is the acronyms of Involvement Load Hypothesis) in a need group learners read the new items in the text and then some reading comprehension questions are introduced to them to practice the meaning of the new vocabularies in the text. Based on the study conducted by Laufer and Hulstijn the participants in the need group as the hypothesis indicates(The hypotheses here refer to the study conducted by Laufer and Hulsijin(2001) should practice the new items by providing correct answers to some reading comprehension questions. So in the need group participants should answer the reading comprehension questions as a way of practicing the new items. It is the power of the Need element in ILH. As Keating(2008) has indicated in his research in order to compare the elements of Involvement Load Hypothesis Need, Search, and evaluation; tasks are assigned an involvement load index on the base of presence of involvement factors, where absence of a factor is scored as 0, moderate presence of a factor as 1, and strong presence of a factor2, a task in which learners read a text and answer comprehension questions that require knowledge of unknown words glossed in the margin would receive an involvement load index of 1 because need is moderate(imposed by the task) and search and evaluation are absent( $1+0+0$ ). In another task that requires learners to write a composition using words provided by the instructor, need is moderate (imposed by the task), search is absent, and evaluation is strong (new words are used with other words in original text) and would receive a score of  $3(1+0+2)$ . According to the Involvement Load Hypothesis the second task is more effective than the second task because the second induces a higher involvement load (i.e. more mental effort). In its current instantiation, no one involvement takes priority over another and no particular task type(e.g. input vs. output) is deemed to, a prior, more effective than other. What matters is the amount of involvement induced by the task, as indicated by a task's involvement index. Empirical support for the construct of task induced involvement comes from the large body of literature on incidental word learning conducted prior to its conception and from recent studies designed to directly test the predictions of the Involvement Load Hypotheses. The evidence support the following claims (1) Task that induce greater involvement load( i.e. tasks with higher degrees of need, search, and evaluation) generally lead to greater gains in short term and in some cases long term word retention. (2)More involving tasks usually entail some focus on form (Keating, 2008).





Search and evaluation are the two cognitive dimensions of involvement, contingent upon allocating attention to form-meaning relationships (Schmidt, 1997). Search is the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word or the attempt to find the L2 word form expressing a concept (e.g. trying to find the L2 translation of an L1 word) by consulting a dictionary or another authority (e.g. a teacher). Recall of previously unknown words is better when words are looked up in a dictionary (need/search) compared to when word meanings are inferred or ignored (no need or search) (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Knight, 1994; Luppescu & Day, 1993), or glossed in the margin (no search) (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996). In addition, dictionary look-up tasks are more effective when learners select the meaning of a new word in a text from several options compared to reading a text with glosses for comprehension (no evaluation) (Hill & Laufer, 2003).

Evaluation entails a comparison of a given word with other words, a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or comparing the word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit its context. For example, when a word looked up in a dictionary is a homonym (e.g. bank of a “river”, or bank as a “financial institution”), a decision has to be made about its meaning by comparing all its meanings against the specific context and choosing the one that fits best. According to Hulstijn, Hollander (2001) in an evaluation group the meaning of new items is introduced to learners by an unequal number of words appearing at the bottom of a text. For example if there are 10 new vocabularies in a text there will be 15 other vocabularies at the bottom of the text. The learners in this group have to evaluate the proper synonyms of the new vocabularies and write a free sentence using of the new items in it.

Each of the above three factors (The factors in this sentence are the elements of Involvement Load Hypothesis which the aim of the present study is to evaluate these elements when vocabulary learning strategies of the participants are taken into consideration) can be absent or present when processing a word in a natural or artificially designed task. The combination of factors with their degrees of prominence constitutes involvement load. According to the Involvement Load Hypothesis proposed by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), incidental tasks that trigger need, search and evaluation of the meaning of unfamiliar words will lead to higher vocabulary learning than those which do not trigger such processes.

### 3. Research question and Hypothesis

This paper examine O'Malley and Chamot (1990) idea through male and female Iranian Advaced Learners to find answer to the following questions:

- 1-Do male and Female Iranian Advaned Learners apply the strategies that entail less active manipulation of learning materials or not?
- 2-Do elements of ILH (Need, Search, and Evaluation) affect vocabulary learning and retention of Iranian university students?
- 3-If they do, which type of involvement elements-need, search, or evaluation-is more influential?

Accordingly the following hypotheses are put forward:





Ho1-There isn't any difference between male and female Iranian advanced learners in using vocabulary learning strategies.

Ho2- Involvement Load does not affect vocabulary retention of Iranian university students.

Ho3-There isn't any significant difference among the form of load elements: need, search, and evaluation presented to the participants.

As discussed above, the learner's goals, the context of the learning situation, and the cultural values of the learner's society can be expected to have a strong influence on choice and acceptability of language learning strategies. For example, in a culture that prizes individual competition and has organized its educational system around competitive tasks, successful language learners may prefer strategies that allow them to work alone rather than social strategies that call for collaboration with others.

#### 4. Literature Review

Some studies have investigated Chinese EFL learners' perceptions through the use of surveys/questionnaires or interviews about their use of VLS. For example, Wu (2005) conducted a study to investigate the VLS used by 203 Taiwanese EFL secondary and university students. A questionnaire which included VLS based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy was administered. The VLS were categorized in the following groups: metacognitive, social, memory, cognitive and determination strategies. The questionnaire was distributed to secondary school students (90 eighth graders and 90 eleventh graders) and 112 university year 2 English major students. The results reveal that most students used the following discovery strategies: 1) using bilingual dictionaries to find out Chinese translations of English words; 2) guessing from textual context; and 3) asking classmates for the meaning of words. As for consolidating strategies, the following strategies were most popular among the students: 1) studying the sound of a word; and 2) repeating a word's form.

Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) investigated the effects of task-induced involvement via two parallel experiments involving advanced Dutch- and Hebrewspeaking learners of English. Learners in both experiments were randomly assigned to one of three tasks. Participants assigned to Task 1 (reading comprehension with marginal glosses) read a passage and answered multiplechoice comprehension questions that required knowledge of 10 target words. The target words were highlighted in the text and glossed in the margin. Participants assigned to Task 2 (reading comprehension plus fill-in) received the same passage and comprehension questions as Task 1 but with the target words omitted and replaced with blank spaces. Their task was to fill in the missing blanks using a list of words provided. Participants receiving Task 3 (composition writing) used the target words to write an original composition in the form of a letter to a newspaper editor. The findings showed that task 3 was more influential than task 2 and task 2 was again more influential than task 1. In this study the researchers (Hulstijn & Laufer) did not evaluate the proficiency level of participants in the 3 tasks. Task 1 (reading comprehension with marginal glosses), Task 2 (reading comprehension plus fill-in), and Task 3 (composition writing). And they also did not take the time in Task 3 which is composition writing that needs more time than Task 1 & 2.

Folse (2006) investigated the relative effects of different writing tasks on L2 word learning. Contra the predictions of the Involvement Load Hypothesis, he found that using new words to write original sentences (evaluation) was equally effective as supplying new words in unoriginal gapped



sentences (moderate evaluation). Furthermore, the results indicated that completing three gapped-sentence activities was superior to one sentence writing activity, even when time on task was equivalent in the two conditions. In Folse's study didn't talk about the time which is needed to write original sentences and applying new words in unoriginal gapped sentences. In my study the time which is needed in writing sentence in evaluation group as the evaluation element in Involvement Load Hypothesis has been taken into consideration.

Li (2005) conducted an investigative study on the learning beliefs of Chinese EFL university learners with regard to rote learning as a VLS. 100 copies of a questionnaire were distributed to learners who were English majors from a university in a province of China. The results show that the learners had a strong Chinese cultural belief rooted in Confucianism and preferred practicing, memorizing, reviewing and repetition. A factor analysis of 28 items in the questionnaire shows clearly that Chinese learners believe that rote learning involves association strategies, perseverance strategies, memory strategies, exam practice and repetition etc. Factors that shaped their perceptions of rote learning were: 1) Chinese background or language background; 2) the English learning environment; 3) the demands of examinations; and 4) personal habits in learning. The findings further imply that this learning culture among the Chinese EFL university learners can be attributed to cultural learning traditions in China, which have their roots in Confucius' teachings. It appears that both studies from China and Taiwan reflect the rote learning culture of Chinese EFL learners who value repetition and practice in achieving their learning goals.

Keating (2008) investigated the effectiveness of ILH using three tasks: reading comprehension with marginal glosses, reading comprehension plus fill-in, and writing original sentences using the target words. The results indicated that in line with the predictions of the Involvement Load Hypothesis, retention was highest in the sentence writing task, lower in the reading plus fill-in task, and lowest in the reading comprehension task. However, when time on task was considered, the benefit associated with more involving tasks faded. Keating didn't evaluate the proficiency level of the participants in the three tasks and it can be indicated that the three groups were heterogeneous.

Asadzadeh Maleki(2012) evaluated the effect of ILH. The study aimed to apply the hypothesis to substantiate incidental vocabulary acquisition in EFL listening comprehension. 80 pre-intermediate EFL learners were assigned to one of the four groups: a control group that received no treatment and three experimental groups that completed one of the three vocabulary learning tasks that varied in the amount of the involvement; group 1, listening comprehension questions with marginal glosses irrelevant to the questions, group 2, listening comprehension questions with marginal glosses relevant to the questions, group 3, listening comprehension questions with marginal glosses relevant to the questions which were followed by writing sentences using those words. According to the immediate and delayed vocabulary retention post-tests' results, it turned out that there was a significant difference in retention effects among the three tasks, which proved the validity of the Involvement Load Hypothesis, confirming that tasks with higher involvement load lead to better retention effects.

Jing and Jianbin (2006) applied the Hypothesis to substantiating incidental vocabulary acquisition in EFL listening comprehension. Experiments were carried out with three parallel classes of non-English major students by assigning them tasks with different involvement indexes of two listening comprehension passages. The results indicated that tasks with higher involvement load lead to better retention effects in listening comprehension.



Rahmandoost (2012) studied ILH too. Building on the Involvement Load Hypothesis put forward by Hulstijn and Laufer, which proposes that task inducing higher involvement load is likely to produce better vocabulary retention effects. A task involvement load is the combination of the presence or absence of the involvement factors Need, Search, and Evaluation (Laufer and Hustijin 2001, p.544). For example a task in which learners read a text and answer comprehension questions that require knowledge of unknown words glossed in the margin would receive an involvement load index of 1 because need is moderate(imposed by the task) and search and evaluation are absent( $1+0+0$ ). In another task that requires the learners to write a composition using words provided by the instructor need is moderate (imposed by the task)search is absent and evaluation is strong(new words are used with other words in original text) and would receive the score of 3( $1+0+2$ ). According to the Involvement Load Hypothesis the second task is more effective than the first because the second induces a higher involvement load (i.e. more mental effort). In its current instantiation, no one involvement factor takes priority over another and no particular task type (e.g. input vs. output) is deemed to be , a prior, more effective than other (Keating, 2008. What matters is the amount is amount of involvement induced by the task, as indicated by the task, as indicated by a task's involvement index. Involvement is operationalised by task designed to vary in the degree of need, search, and evaluation ( Laufer and Hultijin 2001). The study was an attempt to test the idea that tasks with higher involvement lead to better retention. The experiment was conducted with two classes of non-English major students who were assigned tasks with different involvement loads of reading comprehension passages. Scores of vocabulary tests were collected before and after the treatment. The final result of the independent samples t-test for the comparison of the mean increment between the two groups after treatment indicated that the experimental group who received the task with higher involvement load had a better performance than the control group who didn't. Thus, the findings suggested that vocabulary learning in the fill in the blanks and sentence writing condition is significantly higher than the true or false and multiple-choice comprehension questions condition. Since the task with higher involvement load seems to have facilitated the process of vocabulary learning, the Hypothesis is supported and its application is suggested to reinforce the word retention in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts. The type of treatment, proficiency level and the time in the two groups were not taken into researcher's consideration

## 5.Methodology

### 5.1 Participants

The participants in the study are about140 male and female university students in English Translation course.

### 5.2 Instrument

At the outset of the study a quick Oxford Placement Test was run to select the intermediate subjects. A questionnaire based on Schmitt 1997' taxonomy was distributed among the participants to evaluate their vocabulary learning strategy.

### 5.3 Procedure

A proficiency test (Oxford Placement Test) was run to include intermediate subjects in seven groups (Female Need group, Male Need group, Female Search group, Male Search group, Female Evaluation





group, Male Evaluation group, and Control group). A questionnaire based on Schmitt1997's taxonomy was distributed among the participants to choose those who have similar vocabulary learning strategy. The original taxonomy provided carefully developed definitions for each of the six major categories in the cognitive domain. The categories were knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. 3 with the exception of application each of these was broken into subcategories. The aim of the study was to evaluate O'Mallay and Chamot (1990)' idea in the context of Iranian Learners and the influence of Involvement Load Hypothesis and its elements (Need, Search, and Evaluation).

Based on the research questions which were formulated the study contains three phases: the introductory phase, the treatment offering phase, and posttest phase. These three phases are explained as follows: In the introductory phase a proficiency test was run to include intermediate subjects in 7 groups. The questionnaire used for the study was adapted from Schmitt(1997) taxonomy . It included the following: five statements on cognitive strategies (COG), ten statements on memory strategies (MEM), nine statements on determination strategies (DET) and three social strategies (SOC) in vocabulary learning. The frequency of use and their usefulness were measured by 5-point Likert scales (1=Never to 5=Always; 1=Not Useful to 5=Extremely Useful). Vocabulary Language Learning Strategies among Chinese EFL Postsecondary Students 81 Useful).

Bloom saw the original Taxonomy as more than a measurement tool. He believed it could serve as a common language about learning goals to facilitate communication across persons, subject matter, and grade levels; basis for determining for a particular course or curriculum the specific meaning of broad educational goals, such as those found in the currently prevalent national, state, and local standards; means for determining the congruence of educational objectives, activities, and assessments in a unit, course, or curriculum; and panorama of the range of educational possibilities against which the limited breadth and depth of any particular educational course or curriculum could be contrasted.

A questionnaire based on Schmitt's taxonomy was distributed among the participants to choose those who have similar vocabulary learning strategy. The original Taxonomy provided carefully developed definitions for each of the six major categories in the cognitive domain. The categories were *Knowledge*, *Comprehension*, *Application*, *Analysis*, *Synthesis*, and *Evaluation*.<sup>3</sup> With the exception of *Application*, each of these was broken into subcategories.

The aim of the present study is to evaluate the effect of ILH so 100 vocabulary items from very related intermediate short texts [Active Skills for Reading, Longman Pearson, England, 2013 (Intermediate book) or Oxford Word Skills, Oxford University Press, England, 2010(Intermediate book)] was selected and was written on a single page to be distributed among the participants. The subjects were asked to circle the items the meaning of which they know or they have seen before. Based on the circles provided by the participants the researcher chose 20 new vocabulary items that the participants did not know their meanings. Then the 20 new vocabulary items were included in 20 sentences. The participants should choose the synonym of the new items in the sentences or fill in the blanks with the new items. The questions were all multiple choice questions. This was the pretest of the groups. The participants then comprised 7 groups. Every group contains 20 participants. Female Need group, Male Need group, Female Search group, Male Search group, Female Evaluation group, Male Evaluation group, and Control group. Female Need group, Male Need group, Female Search group, Male Search group, Female Evaluation group, Male Evaluation group receive the treatments that are recommended by the elements of ILH . The second phase was treatment offering phase which was followed in the seven groups at the same time. The intermediate texts that the 20 new items were



selected from were presented to the seven groups with the same 20 new items that the participants didn't know their meanings. The defining method of the new terms is different through the groups (glossed with synonyms in the need groups, monolingual dictionary use in the search groups, and evaluation of an acceptable appropriate word in the evaluation groups following the intermediate text). The participants in the control group received the same intermediate text but without any treatment (synonyms, dictionary use, and evaluation of the proper synonym). The participants were asked to read the intermediate text in a limited time and get themselves ready for the vocabulary test chosen from the text which was the next phase of the study. The third phase of the study was the posttest phase.. The same questions which were applied in the pretest phase were offered to the seven groups as the posttest of the groups.

After passing three weeks the same vocabulary test which was used in the pretest and posttest 1 was offered to the same participants of the groups to evaluate the effect of ILH. This is posttest 2. No attempt has ever been made to evaluate the effect of ILH after passing many days or weeks.

## 6. Conclusion

This paper has examined vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian male and female intermediate learners. The results of the study proved O'Malley and Chamot's idea which indicates among the offered strategies, it is highly stated that strategies that entail less active manipulation of language task e.g. repetition and note taking were frequently employed than those that entail active manipulation of learning materials e.g. grouping and contextualization. Another finding of the study indicated that there wasn't any difference between vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian male and female learners.

The fundamental application of the present study is how to teach and practice the meaning of new vocabulary items in order to be acquired. The fundamental application of the present study is how to teach and practice of the meaning of the new vocabulary items in order to be acquired and another application of the study is to recommend the teachers how to improve their teaching methods when they want to increase the amount of new vocabulary items. The present study has another fundamental application which is to consider the vocabulary learning strategy of the participants. Finally it can be indicated that students the teachers should pay attention to Vocabulary Learning Strategy as O'mally and Chamot indicate. The students who register at different universities have problems remembering new terms in different courses such as reading comprehension and reading journals. Consequently the present study can propose some new ideas to eliminate the problems of the new comers in different universities.

## 7-Results

The results of the study proved O'Malley and Chamot's idea which indicates among the avialble studies strategies that entail less active manipulation of language task e.g. repetition and note taking were frequently employed than those that entail active manipulation of learning materials. And the next result of the study is how students and teachers should pay attention to vocabulart learning strategies.



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## Appendix

### Schmitt' s 1997 Taxonomy

#### 1-Determination Strategy

- a-Analyzing parts of speech
- b-Analyzing affixes and roots
- c-Guessing from the context

#### 2-Memory Strategy

- a-Imaging the word mapping
- b-Using synonyms and antonyms
- c-Connect word to the personal experiences

#### 3-Cognitive Strategy

- a-Using word list and flash cards
- b-Take notes in the classroom
- c-Use vocabulary section in the book

#### 4-Metacognitive Strategy

- a-Use English language media( songs, movies, newspaper)
- b-Continue to study word over time
- c- Test myself with word test

Which one of the above do you usually use to learn new vocabulary item?

- a- 1                      b-2                      c-3                      d-4





## (Oxford Placement Test)

### Grammar Test

Look at these examples. The correct answer is underlined.

a-In warm climates people like/ likes/ are liking sitting outside in the sun.

b-If it is very hot they sit at /in/ undre the shade.

Now the test will begin. Tick the correct answer.

1-Water be freezing/ is freezing/ freezes at the temperature of 0 degree.

2-In some countries there is / is / it is dark all the time in winter.

3-In hot countries people wear light clothes for keeping/ to keep/ for to keep cool.

4-In Madeira they have the good/ good/ a good weather almost all year.

5-Most Mediterranean countries are more warm/ the more warm/ warmer in October than in April.

6-Parts of Australia don't have the/ some / any rain for long periods.

7-In the Antarctic it is / there is/ it has a lot of snow.

8-Climate is very important in most of/ most / the most people's lives.

9-Even now there is little/ few/ less we can do to control the weather.

10-In the future we'll need / we are needing/ we can need to get a lot of power from the sun and the wind.

11-For many people the name Pele still the more/ the most/ most famous footballer in the world.

12-Pele had been/ is/ was born in 1940.

13-His mother not want/ wasn't wanting / didn't want him to become a footballer.

14-But his father made him to/ made him/ would make him to practice every day.

15-By 1965 he has joined/ joined / had joined the Brazilian club , Santo, and had scored in his first game.

16-In 1957 he has been picked/ was picked/ was picking for the Brazilian national team.

17- The next World Cup Finals were in 1958 and Pele was looking forwad to play/ playing/ the play

18-And even thoug.h/ even so / in spite of he was injured he helped Brazil to win the final.

19-Pele a such/ such a/ a so brilliant player that he helped Brazil win 3 World Cup.

20-He didn't stop playing/ to play / play Santo till he was 34.

21-After calling it a day in 1974 , he came from/ off/ out of retirement and played for New York Cosmos.

22-Till/ By/ In the end of his career he had scored over a thousand goals.

23-He then settled for a role as/ like/ in a sporting ambassador for Brazil.

24-By the end of 20<sup>th</sup> Century he had received a great many/ number/ deal of awards.

25-Though honoured with the title Athlete of the Century , he always be remembered as a footballer/ as footballer/ as the footballer.

, but 47- there was/ there were / it was to be no such problems when the first World Cup Finals of the 21 st century took 48- part/ place/ hold in Japan and South Korea in 2002. Footballist third century 49- has seen/ saw/ seeing success for a number of



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دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی  
واحد شیراز

16 Nov 2017



footballing nation Asia who 50- may well/ may as well/ might as well prove to 26 -  
Football , or soccer as it is sometimes known has been / is being / was played for 27-  
above/ over/ more than 150 years , but the first World Cup competition 28- has not  
been/ was not/ was not being held until 1930, when Uruguay 29- could win/ were  
winning / won the first professional final.  
Four teams had entered from Europe , but with 30- a little/ little/ few success. The 1934  
World Cup was again won by 31- a/ the / their home team Italy, 32- who/ which/ that  
went on to win the 1938 final as well. Winning successive finals is something that 33- is  
not/ was not/ has not been achieved again until Brazil managed 34- them/ these/ it in  
1958 and 1962. If Brazil 35- would have won/ would win/ had won again in 1966 then  
the FIFA authorities would have needed to 36- have/ let/ make the original World Cup  
replaced. However England stopped the Brazilian 37- to get/ getting / get a third  
successive win. In the 1970s the honours were shared 38- among/ between/ inside  
Europe and South America. Argentina succeed 39- to win/ at winning /in winning in  
1978, but in 1982, in Spain, they had 40- difficulty in/ difficulties to/ difficulty to getting  
beyond the early stages. They won again in Mexico in 1986 41- where/ which/ while  
Maradona managed to win 42- much/ some/ any of the games especially the one against  
England almost 43- by his own/ by himself/ on himself. The 1990s finals were dominated  
by European teams 44- except/ apart/ save from Brazil's win in the USA in 1994 with the  
1998 final in France again 45- to be/ being/ having won by the hosts. Throughout the  
1990s police in the host countries 46- was/ were/ have been kept busy keeping rival fans  
apart be the teams of the future.

### Listening Test

Look at the example below. Listen to the CD. You will hear the the example once only.  
Decide which word you hear, " soap" or " soup"  
Will you get some soap/ soup at the supermarket?

Now the test will begin . Listen to the CD and tick the words you hear.

- 1-What do you think of the new teachers/ T-shirts.
- 2-He asked if it could be given in a bit late and I said yes, today/ yesterday was Ok.
- 3-I think Agassis winning it to love/ two love.
- 4-I'd have lied / liked to help him.
- 5-At last/ least you understand what I mean.
- 6-I think she lives at number 68/ 60A.
- 7- On Saturday he could well win his third cup/cap.
- 8- He was lapped/ rapped by his team-maters because he hadnt trained hard enough.
- 9-They asked if I was sending anybody and I said Mike or myself/ I might go myself.
- 10- I am afraid we have only fifty/ fifteen left in stock.
- 11- She likes/ lacks that little extra bit of class .
- 12-He's just become a member of the Hocky/ Jocky club.
- 13-They were going to Wrexham/ Wroxham for their holidays.
- 14- What do you think those ships/ shapes on the horizon are?
- 15- Did you realize he sleped/ slipped out last night?
- 16- It's an amazing/ amusing story isnt it?



- 17-The roads were absolutely *impossible/ impassable* last week.
- 18- Sooner or later we'll have to *chunk/ check* them out.
- 19- Is it ready for *typing /taping* yet?
- 20- Most of the *new wavebands/ new- wavebands* sound really good.
- 21- We need a *cork/ chalk* board in our classroom.
- 22- Do they have many *orchids/ orchards* in Tunisia?
- 23- I see Oxford University is advertising the chair in *metaphysics/ matter physics*.
- 24- Can you help *Bridget/ Richard* to get it finish?
- 25- It'll be difficult to keep within these *perimeters/ parameters*, but you must try.
- 26-I think they now give the weather report from the *new/ news* studio.
- 27-He's working on a new *model/ module* at the moment.
- 28- I must sav I quite *fancy/ fancied* going to see his latest film.
- 29- She's one of the most *evil/ even* tempered people I've ever met.
- 30- His house is really *tidy/ tiny*.
- 31- The bathroom's small, but, it's a *flush/ flash* too.
- 32- Iran has been particularly successful in reducing its dependence on American *experts/ exports*.
- 33- Is *lamb/ land* cheaper in Australia than it is here?
- 34- Do you think he feels a bit *better / bitter* about it now?
- 35- In the late 1960s neo- colonialist attitudes could have posed a real threat to the *Kenyan Asia/ Kenya nation*.