

Translation as an Interactionist Tool in Second Language Acquisition in EFL Classes

Heba Mohammed Fadel Farag

The Department of English Language and Literature
The Faculty of Arts, Beni-Suef University

Abstract

The processes of learning and teaching second languages have become essential recently. There are many factors that facilitate or impede these processes. One of these factors is using the students' L1 in general and in providing L1 lexical translation equivalence in particular. The previous literature on SLA has dealt with the perceptions of teachers and students about this issue, but no research up to date has dealt with the effect of using L1 lexical translation equivalence on the students' listening and speaking skills. The data of this study was gathered at the Faculty of Women, Ain Shams University, Egypt where EFL students and their EFL instructors faced this challenge of whether or not they should use L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool to acquire EFL. This study investigated some questions like how much the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence can facilitate or impede the process of SLA. The participants in this study were 40 first year undergraduate students at the BA level from two departments; history department and physics and mathematics department. The researcher gathered precise numerical data to support the research by using a listening test within the framework of the interaction approach. The results of this study showed that the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence helped one class only, the physics and mathematics class. The results of this study may be considered of great interest for both SL researchers and EFL teachers.

Key words: second language acquisition (SLA), L1 lexical translation equivalence, EFL, Interaction Approach

1.Introduction:

Second language acquisition (henceforth SLA) is a field of applied linguistics that focuses on the practical knowledge, understanding and usage of a language by people who have previously learnt another language. Since the 1960s, SLA has become a field in itself. There is a difference between a second language SL and a foreign language FL. A SL is a language that is learnt in a country where it is spoken as the mother language like the case of English in the

United States, and Spanish in Spain. An FL is a language learnt in a country where it is not spoken as the mother language such as English in Japan and Spanish in the United States. For research purposes, the term SLA is used to refer to both FL and SL. Researchers of SLA study the acquisition of foreign/second languages in both informal naturalistic situations and formal (classroom) contexts.

The processes of acquiring, learning, and teaching foreign/second languages have become very essential for many people. There are many factors that may facilitate or impede these processes. One of these factors is related to the role of codeswitching in the process of SLA. Codeswitching means switching between languages; usually between the L1 (mother tongue) and the L2 (target language). Codeswitching happens in foreign language classes when teachers share the same L1 with their students. Although the ability to switch between languages is seen, for some people, as a prestigious behavior in naturalistic situations indicating that that person is bi/multilingual, in classroom setting, codeswitching is considered a defect.

The data of this study is gathered at the Faculty of Women, Ain Shams University, Egypt where EFL Students, together with their teachers of the English language are faced with this challenge of whether or not they should use L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool to acquire English as a foreign language. In this faculty, just like any other public educational institution in Egypt, there are rare chances for the students to practice their language and there is no contact at all with any native English speakers. The official language instruction policy is to use English as much as possible and to minimize the use of Arabic as much as possible.

2. Statement of the Problem:

Acquiring the English language in any country, other than English-speaking countries, may have many challenges. Some of these challenges may include not having contact with the native speakers of the foreign language at all, not having any exposure to practicing the foreign language outside the classroom, and the tools used to enhance acquiring the foreign language itself. Ellis (2005) says that acquiring a target language requires exposure to that language. He adds by saying that those who are exposed to the target language a lot, learn faster than those who are not.

In many countries around the world, like Egypt, where English is taught as a foreign language, students may not have any interaction with any person outside the classroom with whom they can practice the language, and hence their teacher is the only source of the TL. Using the students' L1 in the classroom is forbidden in many schools around the world. There are even policies in some language departments in many universities and other educational institutions that do not allow the use of the students' L1 during the learning process and they even punish teachers who do so. Therefore, the use of the students' L1 in class has been a very controversial issue among language practitioners throughout many ages.

A major reason that prevents the students from achieving a high proficiency level in any foreign language is the limited time frame specified for practicing that language (Long & Porter, 1985). In addition, students lack self-confidence when they speak the foreign language among themselves and among native speakers. They believe that speaking the language is the most important skill. Since they do not have a chance to practice it inside and outside the classroom, they assume that they cannot speak fluently.

Teachers prefer the use of translation because it is time-saving specially in large classes where there is little time to use TPR (total physical response) or context or definition to explain the meanings of vocabulary to their students. Therefore, some applied linguists and EFL teachers in general and at the Faculty of Women in particular support the use of translation as a tool in EFL classes. Using translation in EFL classes improves the students' scores in their exams, in some way, but what about their communicative competence and their conversational interaction?

3. Scope of the Study:

In the current study, data was collected from the Faculty of Women for Arts, Science, and Education, at Ain Shams University, Egypt. The main reason for carrying out this study was to investigate the role of using L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool in acquiring the listening and speaking skills of English as a foreign language. The participants in this study were first year undergraduate students at the BA level from two departments: history department and physics and mathematics department. Their ages ranged from seventeen to eighteen years. They were studying the pre-intermediate version of the Headway English course. It is worth mentioning that students at this faculty take an English

language class in one semester of each academic year during the four years of their university studies. Students at the public universities in Egypt, such as at Ain Shams University, share similar challenges regarding learning the English language.

Listening and speaking tasks were applied in this study to examine the degree of usefulness of using L1 lexical translation equivalence on the students' listening and speaking skills. These tasks were applied to the students in the Spring semester of the academic year 2016/2017.

4. Context of the Study:

The study was undertaken at the Faculty of Women for Arts, Science, and Education, Ain Shams University, Egypt. The dominant method employed by many English language teachers at the public universities in Egypt is the grammar-translation method. The syllabus is mainly focused on explaining grammar, providing the students with vocabulary through reading comprehension passages, and doing translation exercises. There is little or no focus at all on the listening and speaking skills. Therefore, most of the students face the same difficulties with the listening and speaking skills. Although the official language instruction policy is to use English as much as possible and to minimize the use of Arabic as much as possible, many teachers rely on using L1 lexical translation equivalence to facilitate for their students the understanding of new vocabulary.

5. Research Questions:

This study is an attempt to answer the following questions:

- 1- How much does L1 lexical translation equivalence facilitate and/or impede the process of SLA?
- 2- How are the students' linguistic skills, such as vocabulary acquisition, affected by the use of translation in SLA?
- 3- How does the language learning context with/without translation play a role in the process of SLA?
- 4- How much does the use of translation enhance the students' acquiring of vocabulary?

6. Methodology:

This study focuses on studying the role of using L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool in SLA in enhancing the students' linguistic skills, interactional competence, and their acquisition of vocabulary. To do so, the researcher is going to apply a cross-sectional approach of analysis by investigating forty EFL students at the Faculty of Women, Ain Shams University, Egypt, as subjects. These students are first year students at the BA program. They have been learning English for almost nine years in their pre-university educational stages.

The researcher gathered precise numerical data to support the research by using a listening test task twice, once without the use of translation, and the second time with the use of translation within the framework of the interaction approach which combines the input hypothesis by Krashen (1976, 1985), the interaction hypothesis by Long (1996), and the output hypothesis by Swain (2000, 2005).

The students have been informed about the research they are participating in and they have signed an informed consent. The researcher included some information about the aim of the research in the listening test paper so that the students' participation was a result of an informed consent. The participants in this research will be treated anonymously and will not be identified by anyone. The method of data analysis is quantitative using the t-test.

7. Review of the Literature:

7.1. Review of Relevant Theories of Second Language Acquisition:

7.1.1. The Nativist Theory:

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) assert that “there are at least forty ‘theories’, ‘models’, ‘perspectives’, ‘metaphors’, ‘hypotheses’ and ‘theoretical claims’ in the SLA literature” (p. 288). The theories of SLA vary depending on their focus. Some nativist theories, which developed their beliefs from the theory of Universal Grammar by Chomsky (1965), put great emphasis on cognitive notions in acquiring a SL. Researchers who follow the Universal Grammar theory perceive language from a mental perspective because they investigate the representation of the language in the brain.

According to the nativist theory, people have an innate biological system or device called the language acquisition device (LAD) responsible for the

acquisition of language and the linguistic and interactional features of the L1. It is one of the core elements of the Universal Grammar by Chomsky (Chomsky, 1965). Researchers who explain SLA from the viewpoint of UG study the language users' competence (abstract knowledge of a language) rather than their performance (usage and production of a language) (Spada & Lightbown, 2002). For example, they may investigate a learner's knowledge of whether a sentence is well-formed grammatically or not rather than investigating a learner's conversation.

7.1.2. The Monitor Theory:

The Monitor Theory was developed by Krashen in the 1970s and 1980s. In this theory, he investigated five hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. Krashen developed the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis in 1976 in which he believed that people learn second languages in two ways; either in an acquired way or in a learned way (Krashen, 1976).

According to the acquisition-learning hypothesis, language acquisition occurs naturally and unconsciously when learners are exposed to the input through interacting in the L2 during communication in everyday life just like the L1 acquisition. Acquisition does not require any instruction at all, and the main focus lies in meaning. This is similar to the case of people working in touristic places who can speak many foreign languages without having any formal instruction. This is because they use the L2 in a natural and spontaneous way (Krashen, 1985).

On the other hand, language 'learning' occurs consciously through instruction. The main focus of 'learning' is on gaining the grammatical rules of the L2. Krashen believed that it is 'acquisition' not 'learning' which actually leads to the ability of the learner to use the L2. In other words, it is 'acquisition' not 'learning' that results in communication.

When learners have enough time to edit their 'acquired' language production using the rules they 'learnt' in the classroom, this situation summarizes the main idea of the Monitor Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). According to this hypothesis, learning occurs when the learner pays attention to the rules of the language. Therefore, monitor is related to learning not acquisition.

It is the Natural Order Hypothesis that claims that learners pass through stages in acquiring the grammatical forms of the L2 such as plural -s, negation, question formation, etc (Krashen, 1985). According to this hypothesis, some grammatical aspects are acquired before the others. For example, learners first learn how to form the plural by inserting the plural 's' at the end of every word, regardless of its being regular or irregular. They first say 'mans'. Then, they learn that there are irregular plurals, and they start to say 'mens' also with keeping the 's'. After that, they realize that they should delete the 's' and hence they finally say 'men'.

According to the Input Hypothesis, "humans acquire language in only one way- by understanding messages or by receiving "comprehensible input"" (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). This means that SLA occurs when the learner receives a meaningful, understandable speech. In this hypothesis, the actual level of the learner is referred to as 'I', whereas the level beyond the level of the learner is referred to as 'i+1'.

Despite the fact that many learners receive the same comprehensible input, some of them succeed in learning the L2 while others do not. The reason for this lies in their affective filter which is the core of the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). According to this hypothesis, not feeling comfortable in the learning environment -the classroom- or having a negative attitude towards learning the language can block understanding the input and hence block acquiring the language. This hypothesis is related to the psychological statuses of the learner such as their motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, etc.

7.1.3. Psychological Theories: Behaviorism:

Behaviorism was used in the first half of the twentieth century in the fields of psychology, education, and furthermore SLA to explain the processes of language learning and teaching (Spada & Lightbown, 2002). According to behaviorism theory, learning occurs through imitation, habits, and practice. The environment forms a crucial factor in behaviorism because it provides both stimuli and feedback to the learner (Skinner, 1957).

One of the hypotheses of behaviorism is Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) developed by Lado (1957). This hypothesis investigates the role played by the L1 in L2 learning and the similarities and differences between L1 and L2. According to this hypothesis, if the L2 forms are similar to their counterparts in

the L1, they will be easy to be learnt. If the L2 forms are different from the forms of the L1, learners will find difficulty learning the L2 (Lado, 1957).

7.1.4. The Interactionist Hypothesis:

The interactionist hypotheses, developed by many linguists, such as Long, Pica, and Gass, from the 1990s to present, are considered by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) as the most powerful theories in SLA because “they invoke both innate and environmental factors to explain language learning” (p.266). The Interaction Hypothesis was developed by many researchers such as Long (1983, 1996), and Pica (1994) among others. Long (1996) discusses the main claims of the interaction hypothesis by asserting that language proficiency occurs through interaction in communication.

The interactionist hypothesis follow Krashen’s focus on the importance of ‘comprehensible input’ and adds to it the importance of ‘comprehensible output’ as well. The main focus of the Interaction Hypothesis lies in the role of negotiated interaction among native speakers and non-native speakers on the one hand and non-native speakers among themselves on the other hand and the effect of this negotiated interaction on SLA. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), negotiation of meaning “refers to those instances in conversation when participants need to interrupt the flow of the conversation in order for both parties to understand what the conversation is about” (p. 318). Negotiation for meaning includes comprehension checks, clarification requests, repetitions, paraphrase, restatement, and recasts.

Gass and Mackey (2015) assert the belief that modified input plays a major role in making the language more comprehensible to the learner. Simplified and modified input results in the comprehension of the L2 to a great extent, but what about its role in production? VanPatten (2004) confirms that output should not only be considered as “production of forms and meanings at the essential level” but also as the “interaction with others” (p. 27) Interaction among interlocutors allows for giving feedback. This in its turn allows the interlocutors to focus on their language by varying their input by using different words, paying attention to their pronunciation, and the structure of their output (VanPatten & Williams, 2015).

Based on this premise, the researcher believes that the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence in SLA can be considered as a tool used by both teachers

and their students on the one hand and among students themselves on the other hand for negotiation of meaning in order to achieve both comprehensible input and output.

7.2. Translation & Second Language Acquisition:

The use of the students' L1 in general and translation in particular in FL learning and teaching has been a controversial issue (Hall and Cook, 2013). Some SLA researchers and EFL teachers support using translation as a means and a tool in SLA, while others are against this procedure (Mogahed, 2011). There are many researches concerning this issue; even whole books were dedicated to 'translation in language teaching' such as Cook (2010). Once Duff (1989) says "translation happens everywhere, all the time, so why not in the classroom?" (p. 6). Liao (2006) adds that the use of translation in language teaching can help students to check their understanding of the L2.

Some advocates of using the L1 and translation in SLA believe that the L1 plays an indispensable role in the process of SLA as it enriches the environment of SLA. Butzkamm (2007) asserts that the mother tongue of the learners is considered of great help in learning the foreign language and is a 'support system'. It can be used for many purposes, like classroom management, explanation of the L2, comparing it with the L2, checking the students' comprehension of the L2, or socially to comment on social events, say jokes, or build rapport with the students.

On the other hand, many language practitioners worldwide believe that the use of the students' L1 in class is a threat to the development of the SL. They think that using the L1 in class ensures that the students improve academically but throws them far away from fluency in the L2. They believe that learning and teaching any foreign language should be through the foreign language only. Owen (2003) believes that the use of translation in class wastes the precious time of students which should be spent on practicing the L2 not on the L1.

Carreres (2006) mentions that those who are against the use of translation in language teaching believe that the use of translation in language teaching restricts the language practice into two skills only; reading and writing, without paying attention to the other two skills; speaking and listening. Using translation in SLA allows the students to depend mainly on their native language, which in its turn may interfere with the L2 (Pan and Pan, 2012).

7.3. Translation & L2 Teaching Methods:

7.3.1. Monolingual Versus Bilingual Language Programs:

There are two main types of language educational programs worldwide: monolingual and bilingual. Monolingual educational programs use only one language during instruction, whether it is the L1 or the L2. Bilingual educational programs use the L1 and L2 during instruction with one more than the other one.

In L1 monolingual educational programs, the L1 is used as the medium of teaching and the L2 is used as the subject of study. This is the case applied to most Egyptian students in schools and universities learning English. In these educational programs, teachers are non-native speakers of the L2 and there is little or no possibility at all for the students to interact with native speakers of the L2. In L2 monolingual educational programs, the L2 is used as the medium of teaching, and the L1 is forbidden in class.

7.3.2. The Grammar-Translation Method:

The grammar-translation method focused mainly on two aspects: explaining grammatical rules of the L2 and translating them to the students in their L1. Accuracy was more important than fluency, and the written language was more important than the spoken language. The examples used in such method are usually invented and far from being natural. Practice and exercises were sentence-level based not text-level based. Students who have learnt English by the grammar-translation method excel in reading and writing skills only whereas the listening and speaking skills are lost.

The grammar-translation method has widely been criticized for not being an effective method for learning any foreign language for communicative purposes and for neglecting developing the oral skills of the students. According to Ellis (2005), grammar instruction is more helpful in test performance like the TOEFL and the IELTS, but it is useless in producing a spontaneous use of the foreign language. Even students themselves complain from this method. Bifuh-Ambe investigated a study about a Korean student who was studying English in an American university (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009). That student complained about the method of teaching English in her country by saying “I did not know how to use, just write”.

7.3.3. The Direct Method:

The direct method was developed as a reaction against the grammar-translation method. It was referred to first as the Reform Movement. The direct method refers to forbidding the use of the students' L1 in the class in any form such as explanation, translation, classroom management, etc. It includes naturalism (by using natural everyday examples), monolingualism (by using only the L2 or target language in the class), and native-speakerism (by trying to make the students' performance in the L2 as close to that of native speakers). Explaining grammatical rules is minimized, whereas making the students produce the language in the form of improving their speaking skill is maximized. There are many methods applying such approaches such as the communicative language teaching method (CLT), the audiolingual method, and the total physical response method (TPR Method). The main focus of instructors applying such method is to make the language proficiency of the students the same as or equal to that of native speakers. The main goals of this method are more professional than academic.

7.4. Review of Relevant Empirical Studies:

Empirical studies concerning the use of the students' L1 and translation started in the 21st century (Cook, 2010). Most relevant empirical studies focused on the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and their students on the effectiveness of using translation, whether it is a separate course or a tool of teaching and/or learning the English language.

In a Greek context, a study was conducted in 2011 by Giannikas about the uses of the L1 and L2 in English language classrooms (Giannikas, 2011). It investigated different ways for the students to practice the L2 in communicative situations. The study was conducted in seven public primary schools and seven private language centers. It was a qualitative study by collecting data through making observations in English language classes and through interviewing English language teachers there. The results of that study showed that the teachers in the private language centers used the L2, English, more than the teachers in the public schools. The reason for that was the difference between the teaching methods in the public schools and language centers. In the private language centers, teaching was more student-centered and based on communicative tasks.

A study about the attitudes of English language teachers concerning the use of the L1 in the teaching of EFL was conducted in 2012 in Turkey by Yavuz

(Yavuz, 2012). The researcher interviewed twelve teachers from twelve different primary schools in Turkey about their thoughts of the use of the L1 in their EFL classes. The findings of this study showed that teachers use the L1 more in crowded classes to control the class easily. For interactional communication, they preferred to abandon the L1 to encourage their students to practice the L2.

A study was conducted by Mohebbi and Alavi in Iran in 2014 about the teachers' use of the L1 in EFL classrooms (Mohebbi and Alavi, 2014). The study focused on the teachers' opinions about the use of the L1 in their classes. It investigated 72 EFL teachers from different private language schools in Iran. The participants were given a questionnaire to fill. The results of that study showed that the participants used the L1 in their EFL classes to give feedback to their students, explain new vocabulary and grammar, and build rapport with their students.

In 2015, Masrai and Milton conducted a study about the impact of using the students' L1 lexical translation equivalence on their L2 vocabulary acquisition (Masari & Milton, 2015). The study investigated whether providing the students with L1 translation equivalence facilitated learning the L2 words or not and to what extent. The study examined 156 male students from two high schools in Saudi Arabia. The participants were given a vocabulary test which included 29 English words, 15 of which have direct translation equivalents in the participants L1- Arabic- and 14 do not. The participants in that study were asked to insert a check whether they knew a word or not in front of each word, then to write the translation for all the words in Arabic. The results of that study showed that the participants learnt L2 words that have direct translation equivalents in their L1 more than those words which do not have direct translation equivalents.

In 2017, a study was made by a Croatian researcher about the beliefs of English language teachers concerning the use and role of the students' L1 in class and its relation to the students' development (Erk, 2017). This study was based on a questionnaire given to 440 instructors teaching at different stages in different schools in Croatia. The results of that questionnaire showed that the majority of the participants used the L1 in their EFL classes. It also showed that the higher the level of the educational stage, the less the L1 is used. Concerning their beliefs about the benefits of the use of L1 in ISLA, more than 68% asserted the importance of the use of the L1 in improving the grammar of their students. More

than 53% said that their students' understanding of vocabulary is based on the use of the L1.

8. Significance of the Study:

The previous literature has dealt with the beliefs and opinions of teachers and students about the use of the L1 in general and translation in particular in SLA and to use or not to use translation as a course or exercise in SLA, but no research has dealt with the effect of using the L1 lexical translation equivalence on the students' listening and speaking skills up to date in spite of the great importance of these two skills. The listening and speaking skills are the most important skills from the learners' viewpoints because they enable them to communicate effectively.

This study focuses on the role of providing L1 lexical translation equivalence as a teaching tool to students in EFL classes at the Faculty of Women, Ain Shams University in Egypt by using a quantitative method of research through the listening test given to the students. There is a difference between teaching translation as a separate course or exercise in SLA and using L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool in SLA. The focus of this research is on the role of using L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool in SLA on the students' listening skill.

The significance of this study lies in the following reasons. First, it is the first study to focus on the role of L1 lexical translation equivalence as a tool on the listening skill of the students in EFL classrooms to be done in Egypt, to the best knowledge of the researcher. Second, it is the first study to focus on the role of translation in the linguistic proficiency of the students, not in their reliance on translation during the process of SLA nor in their attitudes towards using/not using translation in SLA, as the previous literature focused. Third, the findings of this study may contribute in improving the process of SLA in general and the study of English as a FL in Egypt in particular.

9. Theoretical Framework: The Interaction Approach:

The Interaction approach includes the Input Hypothesis by Krashen, the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis by Swain and the Interactionist Hypothesis by Long (VanPatten & Williams, 2015). The Interaction approach explains three stages in the language learning; exposure to language (input), producing the

language (output), and the feedback the learner receives after the production stage. The Interactionist theorists focus mainly on the interactions that learners engage in during the process of SLA.

9.1. Input:

Input played a central role in many hypotheses and models like Krashen's hypothesis mentioned in the previous section as long as it is both comprehensible and beyond the level of the learner (Krashen, 1985). Input refers to the language forms that learners receive either from their teacher or from their colleagues. This input can be oral, written, or even visual, as in the case of sign language (Garcia Mayo and Soler, 2013). Input can be naturalistic (unmodified), pre-modified, and interactionally modified (Barcroft & Wong, 2013). When talking to their students, teachers usually modify their language by using clearer pronunciation, slower speech, simpler grammatical structures and vocabulary, repetitions, paraphrasing, and L1 translations to facilitate the process of understanding for their students.

According to the Interaction Approach, input is essential but not enough for SLA. It needs to be supported by interaction. Therefore, input can also be classified into interactional and non-interactional (Barcroft & Wong, 2013). In the case of non-interactional input, interlocutors do not interact with each other such as the case of listening to the radio. It is interactional input that facilitates the process of SLA as it allows interlocutors to negotiate for meaning (Gor & Long, 2013). Negotiation of meaning allows learners to receive feedback and then to produce output, both of which will be mentioned later in this paper.

9.2. Interaction:

The main concept of the Interaction Approach focuses on the communicative interaction in which the interlocutors engage. According to the Interaction Approach, interaction means all the conversations that language learners engage in (Gass, 1997; Garcia Mayo & Soler, 2013; Gor & Long, 2013). Within a language classroom, interaction has two types: first interaction between the teacher and the students, second, interaction between the students themselves (Gass, 1997). When learners interact with each other in a conversation, they may face no and/or lack of understanding. Therefore, they will have the opportunity to notice gaps in their utterance from the feedback they receive from their interlocutors, negotiate for meaning, and will then modify their utterance.

Understanding between interlocutors occurs when they negotiate for meaning (Pica, 2013).

Negotiation of meaning can take the form of confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests as mentioned in the previous section entitled *Input* (Gass, 1997; Pica, 2013). Confirmation checks mean any utterances made by interlocutors to make sure that what was said was correctly heard and/or comprehended such as *Is this what you mean?* Or *You mean* Comprehension checks are expressions made by speakers at the end of their utterances to prevent any misunderstanding from the part of their listener such as *Do you know what I mean by ...?* Or *Do you understand?* Or *Are you following with me?* Or *So far so good?*. Finally, clarification requests mean any utterances produced to provoke clarification of previously mentioned utterances such as *What?* Or *Pardon me?* Or *Sorry?* Or *Huh?* Or *What did you say?* Or *Can you say that again?*

9.3. Feedback:

The main goal of conversational interaction and negotiation of meaning is to remove any miscommunication between interlocutors that may result in misunderstanding. Interaction is interrelationship between input and output (Gass, 1997). Feedback is a responsive way provided by an interlocutor to show the other interlocutor his/her success or failure in producing target language forms correctly (Garcia Mayo & Soler, 2013; Pica, 2013). During interaction, learners receive feedback, whether positive or negative, about their output. Feedback can be input-providing by providing the appropriate linguistic form to the listener such as the case of recasts (Gass, 1997; Gor & Long, 2013). Feedback can also be output-promoting when the proficient interlocutor tries to elicit the correct form from the listener such as the case of confirmation checks and clarification requests (Garcia Mayo & Soler, 2013).

There are positive feedback and negative feedback (Gass, 1997). Positive feedback often comes in the form of praising what has been said before; however the focus will be on negative feedback as it is the reason for negotiation of meaning and conversational interaction. Negative feedback raises the attention of learners that what they produced was not compatible with the target language and hence they will have to modify it. Negative feedback can be direct (explicit) or indirect (implicit) (Pica, 2013). Direct negative feedback- can also be called error

correction- occurs when the listener notices something wrong in what the speaker said and corrects him/her directly by saying something like, *No, you are wrong* or *That's wrong* or *You should say ... instead of*

Indirect negative feedback occurs when the listener corrects the speaker implicitly by using confirmation checks, clarification requests, and recasts (Gass, 1997). Recasts have been widely investigated by the Interaction Approach researchers. Recasts are repetitions of an incorrect utterance that is not target-like with replacing it with a target-like form. Since any language is better acquired in context, recasts provide an appropriate setting for language acquisition as it is performed in context (Garcia Mayo & Soler, 2013).

9.4. Output:

Despite the important role played by input and feedback, they are not sufficient for the complete acquisition of foreign languages as mentioned in the Output Hypothesis by Swain (Swain, 2005). Output is the language produced by the learner (Swain, 2000). In SLA terms, output means the production of the target language by learners (Garcia Mayo & Soler, 2013). According to the output hypothesis, producing the output, whether it is spoken or written, is a major constituent of the process of SLA. Output enables learners to improve their vocabulary, speaking and writing skills, and grammatical structures (Swain, 2005).

There are some functions of the output in the process of SLA (Swain, 2005). The first function is the noticing function. Output allows learners to notice the gaps in what they say if it is far from the correct form in the target language. Noticing promotes the attention and awareness of learners to correct themselves and develop their utterance to be compatible with the target language (Swain, 2005). The second function of output is hypothesis formulation and testing (Swain, 2005).

10. Research Design:

10.1. Participants:

Forty EFL students at the Faculty of Women, Ain Shams University, Egypt participated in this study. These students were first year students at the university level, BA program from two departments: history department and physics and mathematics department. Their ages ranged from 17 to 18 years. They were

taking the pre-intermediate version of the Headway English course. The researcher used to meet the students in these two classes two hours a week in the Spring semester of the academic year 2016/2017. These students have been learning English for almost nine years in their pre-university education. They all had a public pre-university education. They volunteered to take part in this research after the researcher explained to them the importance of this research. The researcher and the students used to meet for the research after their classes in any available room on campus.

10.2. Materials:

The researcher has played two listening conversations taken from the *Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test: The Paper Test* (see Appendices I & III) to the students. The conversation in appendix I was played for the history department students, and the conversation in appendix III was played to the physics and mathematics department students. The researcher selected two different conversations for the two classes in order to achieve variety in the vocabulary addressed to the participants to meet different proficiency levels. The researcher made sure that the vocabulary for which she provided L1 lexical translation equivalence were unknown to the participants. The target vocabulary contained both concrete and abstract words.

10.3. Procedures:

The whole data collection procedures were conducted within a three-months period in the Spring semester of the academic year 2016/2017. Each class consisted of 20 participants and was tested separately in one setting from the other class. The researcher started first with explaining the directions to the participants using their L1, Arabic. The researcher informed the participants that they are going to listen to a conversation then answer few multiple-choice comprehension questions about it. She also informed them that they must answer **all** the questions and that this was an ungraded test.

In order to measure the effectiveness of the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence on the participants' listening skill, the two conversations were played twice. The first time was without translating any vocabulary to the students, and the second time was with using L1 lexical translation equivalence orally as a tool to help the students understand some of the key vocabulary in the conversations. This is called a mediator's strategy, one of the mediator's strategies adapted from

Ableeva (2010). For the history class, the researcher gave them the L1 lexical translation equivalence for the word *campus* and *form*, whereas for the physics and mathematics class the researcher gave them L1 lexical translation equivalence for the words *office hours* and *assignment*. This listening task is a one-way transactional type of listening not an interactive listening since the participants did not interact with the speakers of the conversations.

Immediately after plying the conversations to the participants, they answered few multiple-choice questions about some information in the conversations. The researcher handed the questions to the participants to complete and immediately collected them after they finished. The history class students answered the questions in Appendix II and the physics and mathematics students answered the questions in Appendix IV. The first conversation with its questions took about 2:55 minutes whereas the second conversation with its questions took about 2:10 minutes without any interruptions. Both the researcher and the participants were silent in the room during playing the conversations and their questions and the researcher acted as an observer while the participants were answering the questions. The second test was administered directly after the first test.

10.4. Hypotheses:

The researcher had some hypotheses before conducting the listening test with the participants. First, the researcher thought that the participants from the physics and mathematics department will outperform the participants in the history department. The researcher had this presupposition because the students in the scientific departments receive their courses of study in the English language. They deal with scientific terms and textbooks that are written in English. Second, the researcher assumed that the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence will show a significant difference with the participants from the history department in the post-test. Third, the researcher had a presupposition that the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence will not reveal any significant difference with the participants from the physics and mathematics departments in the post-test.

11. Findings and Discussion:

11.1. Results:

The researcher marked the answer sheets manually to regulate a score for each participant. The researcher gave 1 to the correct answer for each question, and 0 for the wrong answer, and then added all the correct answers. For the History class, the total score was out of 5. For the physics and mathematics class, the total score was out of 4. The scores of the participants were as follows:

Name	Without Translation (Pre-test)	With Translation (Post-test)
Hist 1	1	2
Hist 2	1	2
Hist 3	2	3
Hist 4	4	4
Hist 5	4	4
Hist 6	4	3
Hist 7	3	3
Hist 8	3	3
Hist 9	3	2
Hist 10	3	2
Hist 11	3	2
Hist 12	3	3
Hist 13	3	3
Hist 14	2	2
Hist 15	2	1
Hist 16	1	2
Hist 17	1	2

Hist 18	1	3
Hist 19	3	3
Hist 20	0	2

Table 1 History Class Listening Scores

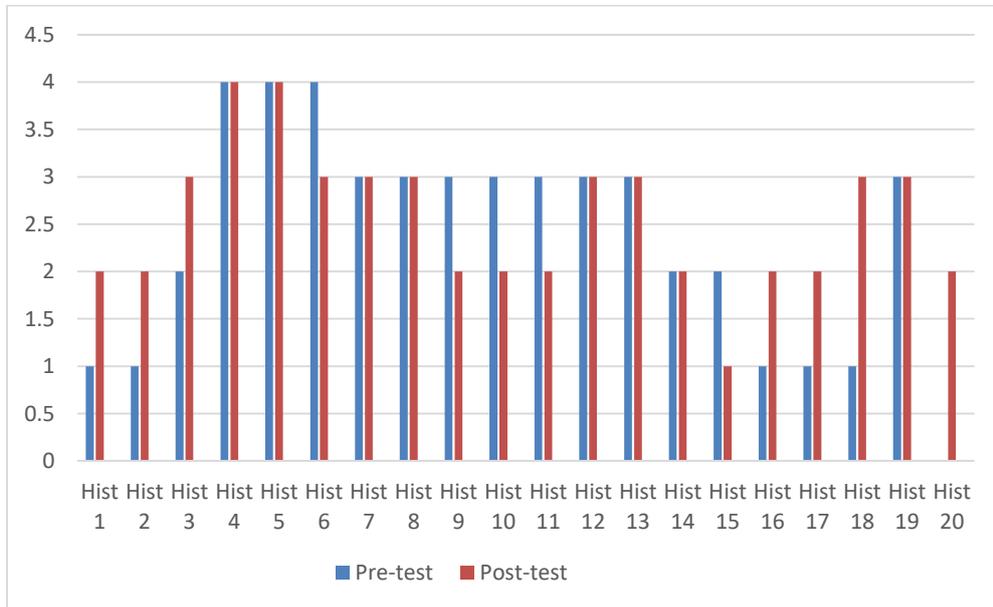
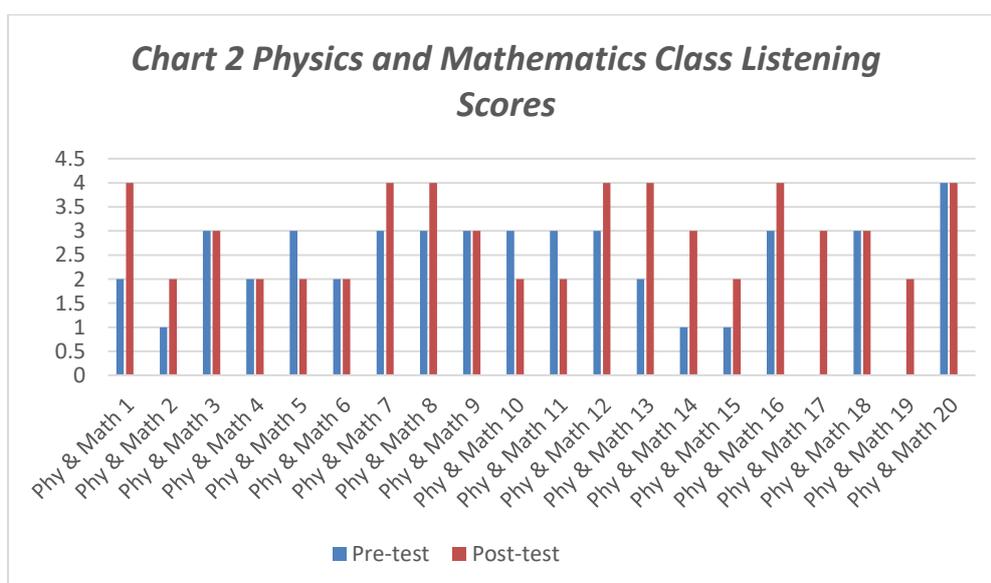


Chart 1 History Class Listening Scores

Name	Without Translation (Pre-test)	With Translation (Post-test)
Phy & Math 1	2	4
Phy & Math 2	1	2
Phy & Math 3	3	3
Phy & Math 4	2	2
Phy & Math 5	3	2
Phy & Math 6	2	2
Phy & Math 7	3	4

Phy & Math 8	3	4
Phy & Math 9	3	3
Phy & Math 10	3	2
Phy & Math 11	3	2
Phy & Math 12	3	4
Phy & Math 13	2	4
Phy & Math 14	1	3
Phy & Math 15	1	2
Phy & Math 16	3	4
Phy & Math 17	0	3
Phy & Math 18	3	3
Phy & Math 19	0	2
Phy & Math 20	4	4

Table 2 Physics and Mathematics Class Listening Scores:



11.2. Data Analysis:

By giving a quick look at the scores of the participants in both classes in the pre- and post-tests, it is noticeable that some participants achieved a higher score in the post-test after they were provided with the L1 lexical translation equivalence. Other participants did not improve at all, and others achieved a lower score in the post-test. Therefore, it was necessary for the researcher to do a statistical analysis, a t-test, to reach accurate and conclusive results. This analysis is a correlational analysis as it provides a statistical estimate of two test scores; the pre-test and the post-test. The researcher compared the scores of the students without and with the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence using a two-tailed paired t-test to investigate if there is a significant difference between the students' scores without and with the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence. The results represented in the p value were 0.36 for the history class and 0.01 for the physics and mathematics class.

11.3. Discussion:

Since the p value of the t-test of the physics and mathematics class was less than 0.05, this means that there was a significant difference between the scores of the pre-test and the post-test and hence there was a significant importance for the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence for this class. On the other hand, the p value for the history class was more than 0.05. This means that the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence for this particular class was not significant at all.

The results show that the participants from the history class outperformed the participants from the physics and mathematics class in the pre-test which was completely opposite to the first hypothesis made by the researcher. The results also show limited privilege for L1 lexical translation equivalence as opposed to exclusive use of the L2 in the history class. This finding was also completely opposed to the second hypothesis made by the researcher. The researcher thought that the participants from the history class would achieve much progress after receiving L1 lexical translation equivalence. The results also show that the participants from the physics and mathematics class receiving L1 lexical translation equivalence made intrinsic progress from pre-test to post-test. This finding was opposed to the third hypothesis made by the researcher.

Talking to the participants from the physics and mathematics class, in an informal interview, about their perceptions of their scores in the post-test, they said that their courses are mainly scientific and so are all the terms used in all

their courses. Although their courses are supposed to be delivered to them in the English language, they said that their classes are mainly delivered to them in the Arabic language with only the scientific terms in the English language. Therefore, these participants are not familiar with the words related to everyday life like the words presented to them in the listening task. Concerning the participants from the history department, they informed me that they depended mainly on guessing the meaning of the new vocabulary in the conversation. That's why they did not make intrinsic progress from pre-test to post-test. In other words, using the L1 lexical translation equivalence was not a great asset to that class.

Listening “involves making sense of spoken language, normally accompanied by other sounds and visual input, with the help of our relevant prior knowledge and the context in which we are listening” (Lynch & Mendelsohn, 2002, p. 193). The resulting product of listening is understanding what has been listened to. For the students in Egypt to understand any listening comprehension, the context may include L1 translation of some of the vocabulary they have listened to or are going to listen to. That's why many EFL teachers prefer to use L1 lexical translation equivalence with their students to facilitate their comprehension of vocabulary.

There should be a balance and a relationship between the proficiency level of the students and the strategies of teaching them listening in EFL classes. EFL teachers should also take the students' individual differences and needs into their consideration before deciding whether or not to use L1 lexical translation equivalence. Using L1 lexical translation equivalence should not be the first choice for EFL teachers to explain new vocabulary to their students. From the definition of listening mentioned earlier by Lynch and Mendelsohn, one can notice some main elements to help listeners make sense of what they listened to. These elements include visual input and context. Using visualization and contextualization helps students a lot in figuring out the meaning of difficult and new vocabulary.

EFL teachers may use L1 lexical translation equivalence with beginner students. On the other hand, advanced students do not need L1 lexical translation equivalence a lot as shown in the scores of the participants from the history class in the post-test. They rather need more opportunities to practice the L2 for communicative purposes. For these types of students, EFL teachers can use visualization, definitions, paraphrase, contextualization, etc. Students are highly

encouraged to use context and guessing when they come across new vocabulary. Guessing proved its significance with the participants from the history class in this study. Using the L1 lexical translation equivalence for the students may also depend on whether the word is concrete or abstract. This is because it is easier for EFL teachers to use concrete objects to convey the meaning of concrete words through the well-known teaching method *total physical response (TPR)*. Whereas for abstract words, EFL teachers can use L1 lexical translation equivalence only if the students need it and after the teacher used the other ways mentioned before.

In addition, EFL teachers may use the input enhancement method called *input flood* which means providing the students with many examples of any new target form. The more the target form is provided frequently to the students, the easier it would be noticed and comprehended by them. Other input enhancement methods can be used such as *elaboration* which means using various modifications, and simplification.

12. Conclusion:

The current study examined the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence in SLA in EFL classes. The researcher applied a cross-sectional approach of analysis by investigating 40 EFL students at the Faculty of Women, Ain Shams University, Egypt, as subjects. The participants were first year students at the BA program. They spent almost nine years learning the English language in their pre-university educational stages.

The researcher gathered precise numerical data to support the research by using a listening test task twice, once without the use of translation, and the second time with the use of translation within the framework of the interaction approach which combines the input hypothesis by Krashen (1976, 1985), the interaction hypothesis by Long (1996), and the output hypothesis by Swain (2000, 2005).

The results of this study showed that the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence helped the participants from the physics and mathematics class to make a significant progress in the post-test unlike the case with the participants from the history class. The results of this study are of great interest for both second language researchers and EFL teachers.

13. Limitations of the study:

One of the limitations of this study is the restricted number of students participating in this study. The researcher clarified for the students that their participation is completely voluntary, and they will not receive any scores at all in their class. Therefore, not many students were interested in taking part in the study. Another major limitation of this study is that it focused on beginners only. The researcher was teaching these classes during the data collection process, so it was easy for her to find participants who were willing to take part in the study.

14. Recommendations of the study:

The researcher recommends applying this research on a larger and more diverse groups of participants for further research to provide more conclusive evidence. It is also recommended to apply this study on other different levels of students such as intermediate and advanced students. A follow-up study in the form of a delayed post-test can be conducted with the same participants to investigate and compare their scores without and with the use of L1 lexical translation equivalence after they achieve a higher level of proficiency in the English language.

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Appendix I

Recording Script of the Listening Conversation (1)

TOEFL Exercise 22: Listen to each complete conversation and answer the questions that follow. (Phillips, p.622)

Narrator: Questions one through five: Listen to the following conversation about a part-time job.

Man: I'm looking for a part-time job on campus.

Woman: Then you've come to the right place. The campus employment office is here just to help students like you find jobs on campus.

Man: I'm glad to hear that because I really need to start earning some money.

Woman: Let me ask you some questions to help determine what kind of job would be best. First of all, how many hours a week do you want to work?

Man: I need to work at least ten hours a week, and I don't think I can handle more than twenty hours with all the courses I'm taking.

Woman: And when are you free to work?

Man: All of my classes are in the morning, so I can work every weekday from noon on. And of course, I wouldn't mind working on the weekends.

Woman: I'll try to match you up with one of our on-campus student jobs. Please fill out this form with some additional information about your skills and leave the form with me today. Then, you can call me back tomorrow, and maybe I'll have some news for you.

Man: Thanks for your help.

Appendix II

Consent Document

Dear Students,

Kindly be informed that this test is part of my PhD dissertation hoping to improve the processes of acquiring and learning English as a foreign language. This test is ungraded. Your personal information is confidential. Information identifying you will not be disclosed under any circumstances. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Name:

Department:

Type of Previous Education: a- Governmental

b- Language

Listening Test (Phillips, p.85)

Choose the correct answer:

- 1- What does the man want to do?
 - a- Find work on campus
 - b- Work in the employment office
 - c- Help students find jobs
 - d- Ask the woman questions
- 2- Where does the conversation probably take place?
 - a- In the library
 - b- In a classroom
 - c- In a campus office
 - d- In an apartment
- 3- How many hours of work does the man want per week?

- a- No more than ten
 - b- At least twenty
 - c- Not more than twenty
 - d- Up to ten
- 4- When can the man work?
- a- Every morning
 - b- Afternoons and weekends
 - c- When he's in class
 - d- Weekdays
- 5- What does the woman tell the man to do tomorrow?
- a- Fill out a form
 - b- Give her some additional information
 - c- Tell her some news
 - d- Phone her

Appendix III

Recording Script of the Listening Conversation (2) (Phillips, p.76)

Narrator: Questions one through four. Listen to a conversation between a professor and a student.

Man: Hello, Professor Denton. Are you free for a moment? Could I have a word with you?

Woman: Come on in, Michael. Of course I have some time. These are my office hours, and this is the right time for you to come and ask questions. Now, how can I help you?

Man: Well, I have a quick question for you about the homework assignment for tomorrow. I thought the assignment was to answer the first three questions at the top of page 67 in the text, but when I looked, there weren't any questions there, I'm confused.

Woman: The assignment was to answer the first three questions at the top of page 76, not 67.

Man: Oh, now I understand. I'm glad I came in to check. Thanks for your help.

Woman: No problem. See you tomorrow.

Appendix IV

Consent Document

Dear Students,

Kindly be informed that this test is part of my PhD dissertation hoping to improve the processes of acquiring and learning English as a foreign language. This test is ungraded. Your personal information is confidential. Information identifying you will not be disclosed under any circumstances. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Name:

Department:

Type of Previous Education: a- Governmental

b- Language

Listening Test (Phillips, pp.76-77)

Choose the correct answer:

- 1- Who is the man?
 - a- A professor
 - b- An office worker
 - c- Professor Denton's assistant
 - d- A student
- 2- When does the man come to see Professor Denton?
 - a- During regular class hours
 - b- Just before class time
 - c- As soon as class is finished
 - d- During office hours
- 3- Why does the man come to see Professor Denton?

- a- To turn in an assignment
 - b- To ask a question
 - c- To pick up a completed test
 - d- To explain why he did not attend class
- 4- What incorrect information did the man have?
- a- The date the assignment was due
 - b- The page number of the assignment
 - c- The length of the assignment
 - d- The numbers of the assignment questions

الترجمة كأحد أدوات النظرية التفاعلية لاكتساب اللغة الثانية في فصول اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية

م.م هبة محمد فاضل فرج

مدرس مساعد بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية- كلية الآداب- جامعة بني سويف

ملخص البحث:

أصبحت عمليات اكتساب، وتعلّم، وتدريب اللغات الثانية/الأجنبية ضرورية لكثير من الناس. هناك العديد من العوامل التي تُيسّر أو تعوق هذه العمليات. ربما ترتبط هذه العوامل بالدور الذي تؤديه الترجمة في اكتساب اللغة الثانية. يواجه كل من طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية ومُعلمهم هذا التحدي إمّا أن يستخدموا الترجمة كأداة لاكتساب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية أم لا. ركزت الدراسات السابقة على آراء المعلمين والطلاب تجاه استخدام أو عدم استخدام الترجمة في اكتساب اللغة الثانية ولكن لم يسبق أن ركزت أي دراسة سابقة على تأثير استخدام الترجمة على مهارتي الاستماع والتحدّث لدى الطلاب. تركّز هذه الدراسة على دور الترجمة في اكتساب اللغة الثانية. وسوف تقوم الباحثة بإجراء هذه الدراسة على طلاب كلية البنات بجامعة عين شمس الذين يدرسون اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية والذين يواجهون مع معلمهم تحدي استخدام الترجمة كأداة لاكتساب اللغة الانجليزية. هذه الدراسة هي محاولة للإجابة على بعض التساؤلات مثل كيف تُيسّر أو تعوق الترجمة عملية اكتساب اللغة الثانية؟ كيف تتأثر المهارات اللغوية للطلاب باستخدام الترجمة في اكتساب اللغة الثانية؟ شارك في هذه الدراسة أربعون طالبة من طالبات الفرقة الأولى بقسمي التاريخ والفيزياء بالكلية. وقد جمعت الباحثة العديد من البيانات الاحصائية من خلال عمل اختبار استماع للطلاب. وأجرت الباحثة العديد من المقابلات الشخصية مع الطلاب لقياس طاقاتهم الشفهية في استخدام اللغة، واستخدامهم للمفردات في الاتصال، وكذلك استخدامهم للمهارات النحوية في اطار استخدام النظريات التفاعلية في اكتساب اللغة الثانية. وقد أظهرت نتائج هذه الدراسة استفادة طلاب قسم الفيزياء فقط من استخدام اللغة الأولى في ترجمة المفردات. وتعود نتائج هذه الدراسة بالنفع على باحثي اللغة الثانية ومعلمي اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: اكتساب اللغة الثانية، الترجمة، اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية، النظرية التفاعلية.