



UiT The Arctic University of Norway

Faculty of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education

The impact of L1 translation on vocabulary retention and immediate recall in Persian learners of English.

Parisa Kalantari Dehaghi

Master's thesis in English Linguistics, ENG-3991, October 2023

Dedication

To my loving parents who taught me that it is never too late to chase my dream and also to all the people who supported me throughout my education. Thanks for making me see this adventure through to the end.

Acknowledgement

I am truly grateful to my supervisor, Yulia Rodina, for her exceptional patience, valuable insights, and unwavering support throughout the entire journey of writing my thesis. Her guidance and feedback were instrumental in shaping the direction of my research, refining my ideas, and enhancing the overall quality of my work. Yulia's expertise and dedication undoubtedly played a significant role in the successful completion of this thesis.

In addition to my supervisor, I would like to extend a special thank you to the manager and the teachers of the language school who generously offered their cooperation and assistance. Their willingness to share their knowledge and resources greatly enriched my research experience. The insights and perspectives I gained from their valuable input have contributed significantly to the depth and breadth of my understanding.

Furthermore, I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation to my family for their unwavering motivation and continuous support throughout the entire process of writing this thesis. Their encouragement, belief in my abilities, and understanding of the time and effort required for this undertaking have been invaluable. Their unwavering support has provided me with the strength and determination to overcome challenges and persevere, even during the most demanding periods.

I am truly fortunate to have had the support of such exceptional individuals who have played pivotal roles in my academic journey. Their involvement and encouragement have not only facilitated the completion of this thesis but have also positively impacted my personal and professional growth. I am deeply grateful for their contributions, and I am honored to have had the opportunity to work alongside them.

Once again, I extend my deepest gratitude to Yulia Rodina, the language school manager, the teachers, and my family for their unwavering support, guidance, and belief in my abilities. Without their help, this achievement would not have been possible. I am truly fortunate to have been surrounded by such remarkable individuals who have made an indelible impact on my academic and personal development.

Abstract

Objectives: The objective of this study is to investigate the impact of using the learners' first language (L1) as a translation tool on their foreign language vocabulary acquisition. The study aims to explore whether incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction could enhance vocabulary learning among young learners in an Iranian context.

Methodology: The study follows a quantitative research design and employs a pretest-posttest control group design. The participants of the study are young learners aged between 9 and 11 years old, who are randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group and the control group. Both groups receive the same vocabulary instruction; however, the experimental group is exposed to L1 translation activities, while the control group is not. To measure the effects of L1 translation on vocabulary learning, the researchers administer a pretest to both groups to assess their baseline vocabulary knowledge. Then, the experimental group engages in various L1 translation activities, such as translating target words from the foreign language to their native language and vice versa. On the other hand, the control group receives traditional vocabulary instruction without any L1 translation support. After a specific period of instruction, a posttest is conducted to evaluate the vocabulary learning outcomes of both groups. The posttest consists of multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank questions to assess participants' receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

Data and Analysis: The study finds that incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction positively affects young learners' vocabulary learning. The experimental group, which engages in L1 translation activities, outperforms the control group in terms of vocabulary acquisition. This suggests that utilizing L1 translation as a learning tool could facilitate foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners.

Findings: The findings of the study reveal that incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction positively affects young learners' vocabulary learning. The experimental group, which engages in L1 translation activities, outperforms the control group in terms of vocabulary acquisition. This suggests that utilizing L1 translation as a learning tool could facilitate foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners.

Implications: The study serves as an inspiration for incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction to facilitate foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners.

Key words: L1 translation, foreign language instruction, vocabulary acquisition, young learners, Iranian context.

Table of Contents

Dedication	I
Acknowledgement	II
Abstract	III
Table of Contents	IV
List of Tables	VI
List of Figures	VII
List of Abbreviation	VIII
1. Introduction	1
1.1 Background Research	1
1.2 Central Concepts	3
1.3 Thesis Structure	5
2. Review of the Literature	9
2.1 The Use of L1 in L2 Classes: Historical Background	9
2.2 The Use of L1 in L2 Classes: Views of Proponents and Opponents	12
2.3 Positive Effects of Using L1 in Second Language Teaching	15
2.4 Negative Effects of Using L1 in Second Language Teaching	23
2.5 The Role of L1 in Vocabulary Learning	28
2.6 Vocabulary Recall and Retention: The Role of Memory in Vocabulary Learning	36
2.7 Teachers' Actual Use of L1 in the Classroom	38
2.8 Practical Studies	41
3. Research Questions and Methodology	49
3.1 Research Questions and Predictions	49
3.2 Methodology	50
3.3 Participants	51
3.4 Materials and Instruments	52

<u>3.4.1 Story</u>	52
<u>3.4.2 Flashcards</u>	53
<u>3.4.3 Placement Test</u>	54
<u>3.4.4 Pre-test and Post-tests</u>	55
<u>3.4.5 Mock Test</u>	58
<u>3.5 Procedure</u>	59
<u>4. Results</u>	61
<u>4.1 Results of the Oxford Placement Test</u>	61
<u>4.2 Results of the Pre-test and Immediate Post-test</u>	63
<u>4.3 Results of the Delayed Post-test</u>	67
<u>5. Discussion</u>	71
<u>5.1 The First Research Question</u>	71
<u>5.2 The Second Research Question</u>	77
<u>5.3 Drawing parallels with Camo and Ballester (2015)</u>	81
<u>6. Conclusion</u>	83
<u>References</u>	87
<u>Appendices</u>	105
<u>Pretest</u>	105
<u>Posttest 1</u>	107
<u>Posttest 2</u>	109
<u>Posttest 3</u>	111
<u>Flashcards</u>	113

List of Tables

Table 4.1 Results of the Oxford Placement Test.....	57
Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups on the pre-test.....	58
Table 4.3 Independent sample t-test between the experimental and control groups on pre-test.....	59
Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics of the participants' performance in the immediate post-test.....	60
Table 4.5. Independent sample t-test between the immediate post-test scores of the experimental and control groups.....	60
Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the delayed posttest.....	62
Table 4.7 Independent sample t-test between the experimental and control groups on delayed posttest.....	62

List of Figures

Figure 3.1 Sample of pre-test sheet.....	52
Figure 4.1 The differences between the experimental and the control groups on the pre-test.....	59
Figure 4.2 The differences between the experimental and the control groups on the immediate posttest.....	61
Figure 4.3 The comparison of the participants' performance in the three tests.....	63

List of Abbreviation

EFL English as a foreign language

L1 First language

L2 Second language

1. Introduction

1.1 Background Research

To use or not to use a second language learner's mother tongue in the language classroom has already been an issue of controversy among language instructors and practitioners. They banned the use of the student's mother tongue in language classrooms since they believed communicating in a foreign language was the ultimate goal of foreign language instruction. Schweers (1999) believed that if L2 learners were asked to ignore their L1, they might feel threatened. According to Echevarria and Grave (2007), when students' L1 is welcomed in the L2 classroom, they feel valued and respected. Nation (2001) believes that the decline of L1 has a negative psychological impact on students. According to Kramsch (2000), from a socio-cultural standpoint, the first language can help students progress in their understanding of other cultures. It is similar to a bridge built to connect different cultures.

Using the first language (L1) has always been respected during the Grammar Translation Method era (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Yet, there were several significant arguments against employing L1 in second language (L2) classes immediately after World War I. The biggest issue was the lack of commonly used spoken language in a realistic setting. Since then, the use of L1 in L2 classrooms has tended to decline due to the predominance of popular English language teaching methods, such as communicative language teaching (Prodromou, 2003).

The majority of contemporary L2 teaching materials, curricula, and syllabuses are significantly affected by this perspective of avoiding learners' L1 (Cook, 2002). Using one's L1 has historically been viewed as a sin, a taboo subject, and a sign that only ineffective teachers are capable of teaching effectively (Deller, 2003). Thus, the L2 alone approach is considered to be a successful method of teaching languages (Atkinson, 1987).

There has been a significant shift in opinion among ELT professionals in recent years, in addition to acceptance of the monolingual approach in ESL and EFL education. They assert that there are numerous benefits to using learners' L1 (Deller, 2003). Several studies have looked into

the usage of L1 in L2 settings, and they have found that L1 can be a useful, helpful, and mediating tool for both teaching and learning (Rinvoluceri, 2001).

There is psychological justification for allowing L1 in L2 classes. According to Schweers (1999), a second-language learner may feel threatened by the request to neglect his or her mother tongue. Students feel their mother tongue is cherished and respected when it is allowed in the L2 classroom, according to Echevarria and Grave (2007). According to Nation (2001), who was cited by Tang (2002), the degradation of the mother tongue has a negative psychological impact on students. According to Kramsch (2000), the first language can help students advance in their understanding of another society from a sociocultural perspective. It resembles a bridge created to create interactions between many cultures.

L1 translation refers to the process of using one's native language (L1) as a tool to understand and translate words or phrases in a second language (L2) during vocabulary learning. It involves mentally connecting L2 words to their corresponding L1 equivalents to aid comprehension and memorization (Liu, 2008). The role of L1 translation in L2 vocabulary learning has been a subject of investigation in second language acquisition research. Research suggests that L1 translation can be a useful strategy for initial understanding and memorization of L2 vocabulary. For instance, Laufer and Hadar (1997) conducted a study where learners used bilingual dictionaries for L1 translation during vocabulary tasks. They found that translation helped learners grasp the meanings of L2 words and facilitated comprehension.

Ringbom (2007) proposes that L1 translation can be effective when used as a temporary scaffold to bridge the gap between L2 and L1 vocabulary. This allows learners to establish initial comprehension and gradually transition to using the L2 as the primary means of understanding and using vocabulary. Integrating L1 translation strategically and gradually transitioning to L2-based understanding and usage of vocabulary can support more effective language learning. According to Grace (1998), the use of translation allows learners to make connections between the new vocabulary in the L2 and their existing knowledge in their L1. This cross-linguistic comparison can help learners grasp the meanings of words and concepts more easily. Additionally,

translation provides learners with a sense of security and confidence, as they can double-check their understanding and ensure accuracy.

1.2 Central Concepts

Vocabulary recall refers to the ability to retrieve and use previously learned words. Research has shown that active and meaningful engagement with vocabulary leads to better recall. For example, Elgort (2011) found that engaging learners in tasks that require active vocabulary use, such as producing sentences or engaging in discussions, improves vocabulary recall compared to passive tasks like reading or listening.

Vocabulary retention refers to the ability to retain and remember learned words over time. Spaced repetition, which involves reviewing vocabulary at increasing intervals, has been found to enhance vocabulary retention. A study by Bahrick et al. (1993) demonstrated that spaced repetition significantly improved vocabulary retention compared to massed repetition, where words are reviewed in quick succession.

Vocabulary learning encompasses the overall process of acquiring new words and expanding one's lexicon. Multiple factors can influence vocabulary learning, including the depth of processing and the use of cognitive strategies. Research by Craik and Lockhart (1972) supports the idea that deeper processing, such as actively relating new words to existing knowledge or personal experiences, leads to better vocabulary learning outcomes. It is worth noting that vocabulary recall, retention, and learning are interconnected and can influence each other. Effective vocabulary learning strategies, such as using context clues, creating associations, and engaging in active practice, can enhance both recall and retention (Nation, 2001).

Macaro and Lee (2013) has shown that utilizing one's first language (L1) can be beneficial for learners in terms of vocabulary recall and retention, both for young learners and adults . When

learners are allowed to use their L1, it provides them with a familiar and accessible resource to reinforce their understanding and memory of new vocabulary. This can be particularly helpful in the early stages of language learning when learners are still building their foundation of vocabulary knowledge. By using their L1, learners can make connections between the new words in the target language and their existing knowledge in their native language (Levine, 2003). This cross-linguistic comparison enables learners to understand and remember the meanings of words more effectively. Furthermore, the use of L1 can help learners overcome the limitations of their current proficiency level in the target language, allowing them to access information and express their thoughts more accurately (Chou, 2018). This increased comprehension and confidence can contribute to better vocabulary recall and retention. While it is important to note that the extent to which L1 is used in language learning can vary depending on individual learning styles and instructional approaches, incorporating L1 as a supportive tool can have positive effects on vocabulary acquisition.

When used to engage with vocabulary in situations involving foreign languages, providing L1 translations for the items being taught is sometimes viewed as a contentious approach. The practice of resourcing the L1 when teaching foreign language vocabulary may be viewed negatively and as being out of date. Nonetheless, linking foreign language terms to their L1 equivalents has been demonstrated to have clear benefits, particularly in the beginning phases of learning when the initial form-meaning connection needs to be made (Cook, 2003; Jiang, 2002; Liu, 2009; Schmitt, 2008).

It is undeniable that teaching foreign languages in the students' first language has never been universally accepted. Discussions in English as a Foreign Language revolve around the history of language teaching and the importance of the first language in foreign language learning. The interest in using L1 in the English language classroom originated from the belief that it helps to improve language accuracy, fluency, and clarity (Kavaliauskien, 2009). It is worth mentioning that teachers are well aware of the use of L1 in their classrooms; however, the evidence of what happens in language classes and how L1 affects teachers' methodologies is not well documented (Green, 2007). The necessity of determining the best policy is becoming more critical as the number of students studying English as a foreign language increases in Iran.

The number of research studies in this particular area has increased (Scheffler & Domiska, 2018; Scheffler et al., 2020). The frequency and amount of L1 use have been the subject of research. The use of L1 in L2 classrooms has, however, been the subject of some research, including studies by Scheffler & Domiska (2018) and Scheffler et al. (2020) that recently examined its use with young preschoolers. Vietnamese (Kim Anh, 2010), Arabic (Machaal, 2012), Chinese (Tang, 2002), Spanish (Schweer, 1999), Turkish (Sali, 2014; Yataanbaba & Yldrm, 2015), and Arabic have all been used to examine the usage of L1 in L2 classrooms, but there has been relatively little research on the use of Persian in the classroom.

1.3 Thesis Structure

The thesis is structured into several sections, including the dedication, acknowledgement, abstract, table of contents, list of tables, list of figures, list of abbreviations, and the main body of the thesis. The main body of the thesis is divided into six chapters, each covering a specific aspect of the study. The following is a breakdown of the thesis structure:

The abstract provides a brief overview of the study's objectives, methodology, findings, and implications. It highlights the significance of the study and its potential contribution to the field of foreign language teaching and learning. The introduction provides an overview of the study's aim and goals, research questions, and the significance of the study. It also provides background research and central concepts related to the study. The introduction highlights the novelty and significance of the study and presents the research questions.

The review of the literature covers the historical background of using L1 in L2 classes, views of proponents and opponents, positive and negative effects of using L1 in second language teaching, the role of L1 in vocabulary learning, vocabulary recall and retention, teachers' actual use of L1 in the classroom, and practical studies.

The method chapter presents the research questions and predictions, methodology, participants, materials and instruments, and procedure. The study follows a quantitative research design and employs a pretest-posttest control group design. The participants of the study are young

learners aged between 9 and 11 years old, who are randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group and the control group.

The results chapter presents the findings of the study, including the results of the Oxford Placement Test, the pre-test and immediate post-test, and the delayed post-test. The chapter also includes tables and figures to illustrate the results. The discussion chapter interprets the results of the study and relates them to the research questions and predictions. The chapter also draws parallels with Camo and Ballester's (2015) study and discusses the implications of the findings for foreign language teaching and learning. Camo and Ballester's (2015) study titled 'the effects of using L1 translation on young learners' foreign language vocabulary learning' investigated the impact of using the learners' first language (L1) as a translation tool on their foreign language vocabulary acquisition. Their research aimed to explore whether incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction could enhance vocabulary learning among young learners. The study followed a quantitative research design and employed a pretest-posttest control group design. The participants of the study were 60 young learners aged between 9 and 11 years old, who were randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group and the control group. Both groups received the same vocabulary instruction; however, the experimental group was exposed to L1 translation activities, while the control group was not. To measure the effects of L1 translation on vocabulary learning, the researchers administered a pretest to both groups to assess their baseline vocabulary knowledge. Then, the experimental group engaged in various L1 translation activities, such as translating target words from the foreign language to their native language and vice versa. On the other hand, the control group received traditional vocabulary instruction without any L1 translation support. After a specific period of instruction, a posttest was conducted to evaluate the vocabulary learning outcomes of both groups. The posttest consisted of multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank questions to assess participants' receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. The findings of the study revealed that incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction positively affected young learners' vocabulary learning. The experimental group, which engaged in L1 translation activities, outperformed the control group in terms of vocabulary acquisition. This suggested that utilizing L1 translation as a learning tool could facilitate foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners.

The conclusion summarizes the main findings of the study and their implications. It also highlights the limitations of the study and suggests directions for future research. The appendices include the pretest, posttest 1, posttest 2, posttest 3, and flashcards used in the study.

This study served as an inspiration for conducting a similar investigation in an Iranian context. As an MA thesis, I aimed to explore whether incorporating L1 translation activities could enhance vocabulary learning among Iranian young learners. Given the cultural and linguistic context of Iran, it was crucial to examine the effects of L1 translation specifically in this context. I replicated the research design, adapting it to the Iranian educational setting, and analyzed the impact of L1 translation on vocabulary acquisition among Iranian young learners. Additionally, I considered exploring potential cultural factors that may have influenced the effectiveness of L1 translation in vocabulary learning.

It is still unclear why the function of the students' L1 in the L2 acquisition is ignored. The need for determining the optimal course of action is becoming more critical as the number of students studying English as a foreign language increases daily in Iran. This study, which analyzed this phenomenon, maybe the first to look into the use of Persian in EFL classrooms, which includes elementary students, instructors, and policymakers. Despite playing numerous roles in aiding L2 teaching and learning, we think L1 has been disliked by all policymakers. Therefore, the present study was designed to address these gaps. The present study wants to pursue the benefits of the use of L1 in the language classroom and investigate the effects of L1 translation on the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. The results of the study could alleviate the existing sensitivities among EFL instructors and supervisors.

The study's research questions aimed to investigate the impact of using L1 translation as a tool for foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners in an Iranian context. The research questions are as follows:

1. Does L1 translation have a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners?

2. Does L1 translation have a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention in L1 Iranian L2 English learners?

The selection of these research questions is justified by the need to explore the effectiveness of L1 translation as a learning tool in foreign language instruction. The first research question aims to investigate whether incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction could enhance vocabulary learning among young learners. This question is significant because it addresses the ongoing debate on the use of L1 in foreign language teaching and learning and provides evidence for the effectiveness of using L1 translation as a learning tool. The second research question aims to investigate the effect of L1 translation on the retention of foreign language vocabulary among young learners. This question is significant because it addresses the need to evaluate the long-term impact of L1 translation on vocabulary learning outcomes. The retention of foreign language vocabulary is crucial for language learners, as it determines their ability to use the language effectively in real-life situations. Overall, the selection of these research questions is justified by the need to investigate the effectiveness of L1 translation as a learning tool in foreign language instruction and evaluate its impact on vocabulary learning outcomes. The research questions contribute to the ongoing debate on the use of L1 in foreign language teaching and learning and provide evidence for the effectiveness of using L1 translation as a learning tool.

The study investigates the impact of using L1 translation as a tool for foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners in an Iranian context. The study's findings have significant implications for foreign language teaching and learning, particularly in terms of incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction. The study's objective is to explore whether incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction could enhance vocabulary learning among young learners. The study follows a quantitative research design and employs a pretest-posttest control group design. The participants of the study are young learners aged between 9 and 11 years old, who are randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group and the control group. The study finds that incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction positively affects young learners' vocabulary learning. The experimental group, which engages in L1 translation activities, outperforms the control group in terms of vocabulary acquisition. This suggests that utilizing L1 translation as a learning tool

could facilitate foreign language vocabulary learning among young learners. The study's findings have significant implications for foreign language teaching and learning, particularly in terms of incorporating L1 translation activities into foreign language instruction. The study's contribution to the ongoing debate on the use of L1 in foreign language teaching and learning can inform future research and practice in the field.

2. Review of the Literature

This chapter reviews the background information about the topic discussed in the current work, along with the relevant empirical studies done before. First, it begins with the historical background of the role of L1 in L2 classes. It then embarks on the positive and negative effects of using L1 in the L2 classroom. The chapter then proceeds to an overview of the role of L1 in vocabulary learning. The next sections deal with teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 and their actual use of L1 in L2 classes. Finally, the related empirical studies are presented.

2.1 The Use of L1 in L2 Classes: Historical Background

Teachers' approaches in L2 classes have been affected by a variety of instructional techniques throughout history. As said in the introduction, the controversy over what function learners' L1 should play in L2 instruction is mostly a result of various beliefs and methods regarding the most effective ways to teach and learn languages. The most effective L2 teaching strategies are briefly discussed in the section that follows, followed by a review of the results of

pertinent studies. Long thought to be the best way to acquire a language, grammar study Up until the late 19th century, the grammar-translation method (GTM) dominated foreign language education (Song & Andrews, 2009).

Students were taught to infer the meaning of L2 utterances by methodically translating words into L1, which was the main component of GTM learning. The L1 is used in this situation as a positive and similar system of reference in the learning of a new language (Simensen, 2007). In other words, when trying to speak a foreign language, second-language learners frequently transfer the forms, meaning, and culture of their native tongue (L1) to the foreign language and culture. In a similar vein, Beardsmore (1982) contends that habits from L1 can interfere with L2 learners' ability to absorb L2 phonology, vocabulary, and grammar.

In GTM, finding L1 equivalents in bilingual dictionaries or wordlists and memorizing rules by heart were the only ways to learn new vocabulary (Rodgers, 2009). GTM put a great deal of emphasis on writing and text comprehension accuracy but paid little attention to L2 interactivity (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It has been stated that because students spent so little time speaking the target language, GTM primarily taught students about the language rather than how to utilize it (Simensen, 2007).

The Direct Method (DM) gained traction in the late nineteenth century and is frequently regarded as a reaction to the GTM (Benati, 2018). The DM concentrated on improving students' speaking and listening skills, and communication was viewed as the goal of language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Arguably the most unique element of the DM was its emphasis on conducting L2 education through the medium of the L2 (Song & Andrews, 2009). A direct translation into the L1 was avoided by teachers since it was seen as detrimental. Instead, the meaning of new words was explained through actual objects, visuals, gestures, or idea associations (Rodgers, 2009). It was anticipated that teaching exclusively in the target language would develop direct linkages between the L2 utterance and the actions, states, and things referred to (Simensen, 2007). Students were encouraged to deduce the meaning of L2 vocabulary without relying on their L1. According to Song and Andrews (2009), the DM was based on 'natural language principles' and was designed to mimic L1 acquisition.

The audio-linguistic technique first appeared in the mid-twentieth century. This method of language training was based on behaviorism and assumed that L2 learning was just a question of developing habits (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). According to the Audio-Lingual Method, students are required to 'overlearn' the L2 to employ it automatically in communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Teachers who followed this structural approach claimed that students' attempts to learn the L2 would be hampered by 'old' L1 habits. As a result, the L1 was mostly avoided, with the emphasis instead placed on developing new habits and responses needed for communicative L2 circumstances (Mitchell & Myles, 1998). As a result, classes focused mostly on spoken language structure drills in which students might learn L2 habits through imitation and repetition (Drew & Srheim, 2009).

Communicative language teaching (CLT) became a particularly influential approach within language education methodology beginning in the 1970s. CLT was motivated by what Hymes (1971) defined as communicative competence, or the ability to utilize the target language for meaningful conversation. The importance of providing opportunities for students to develop language creatively was emphasized (Drew & Srheim, 2009). Communication is not just the objective of language teaching but also the process of learning, according to CLT. It was thought vital to allow students to utilize their second language to negotiate meaning and improve their communication abilities. The utilization of communicative activities was supposed to equip students with the ability to apply their linguistic skills functionally and for a variety of reasons. Activities such as information-gap activities, role-playing, and simulation, or games that have characteristics similar to real-world communication events (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In contrast to the previously stated approaches, there is less understanding of what role L1 plays in CLT (Cook, 2008). Nonetheless, CLT, at the very least, encourages decreasing L1 use in language training, according to Song and Andrews (2009). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000), although the L2 is vital as a medium of education, appropriate use of the L1 is permitted.

After reviewing how L1 is used in the main teaching methods, it can be said that L1 serves as a facilitative and mediating tool for both teaching and learning. Therefore, L1 can be used in three significant circumstances: main learning exercises, classroom activities (pair or group work), and as a tool to explain the meaning of L2 words inside and outside the classroom.

2.2 The Use of L1 in L2 Classes: Views of Proponents and Opponents

The use of L1 in L2 classes may pose certain issues. One of the most common issues with L1 use is a fear of becoming overly dependent (Atkinson, 1987; Cole, 1998). According to Atkinson (1987), despite being fully capable of speaking and expressing themselves in L2, students communicate with their teacher as a typical element of the course by using their L1. Some language experts think that L1 should be completely removed from L2 classrooms (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Nation, 2003). Researchers have emphasized that teachers should utilize L1 cautiously and well-planned to yield beneficial outcomes (Cook, 2001) and felt that if we prefer to promote and make language learning efficient, L1 use should not be overlooked, as According to Cook (2001), opening a door that has been tightly locked in language teaching for almost 100 years.

According to Brown (2000), the controversy over whether or not learners' mother tongues should be utilized in English classrooms has been raging for years, but study findings on the subject have not been totally convincing. A brief examination of the history of employing L1 in L2 classes demonstrates periodic shifts in how it is perceived (Auerbach, 1993). For political and practical reasons, the growth of an English-only classroom resulted in the elimination of the student's L1. Individuals caught using L1 were frequently penalized or stigmatized for wrongdoing (Phillipson, 1992). According to Pennycook (1994), employing L1 in L2 courses is considered abnormal. The emphasis on monolingual English instruction resulted in the view that native speakers are the best models and ideal teachers. This was strongly related to political goals as well as the worldwide EFL field's economy (Pennycook, 1994). By being perceived as the 'perfect teacher,' English speakers might control all career options.

Proponents of English-only instruction argue that employing L1 in the classroom violates SLA theories, which advocate for modified input and negotiation in L2 as a method of learning (Polio, 1994). Negotiation and trial and error frequently result in what has been labeled an 'interlanguage,' in which a combination of L1 and L2 is utilized to communicate and establish the correct manner of speaking in the L2 (Weschler, 1997). Some scholars and instructors have recently advocated for a more bilingual approach to teaching when employing L1 in L2 classes. This support has even gone so far as to state that the use of L1 in the classroom is required

(Schweers, 1999). According to Zhou (2003), countries such as China have successfully experimented with multilingual English classes.

Advocates of the target language-only position criticize the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms (Chaudron, 1988; Krashen, 1982; Macdonald, 1993). These proponents argue that for students to gain higher target language proficiency, they must be exposed to a considerable amount of target language input and that utilizing L1 in the classroom deprives children of that crucial input. According to Macaro (2005), avoiding L1 results in higher use of input modification (e.g., repetition, speaking more slowly, substituting basic words for more complex ones, simplifying syntax, and so on). In other words, when L2 teachers try not to use L1, they must simplify the natural L2 input. This simplification can be done using the above-mentioned strategies. It, in turn, may have negative consequences in any engagement, such as making the discourse less realistic, limiting lexical diversity, and eliminating exposure to sophisticated syntax. According to Macaro (2005), this input modification may aid communication but not the acquisition of complex linguistic knowledge (e.g., vocabulary, phrases, and grammar). Macaro (2005) gave the following example: if a teacher, instead of using 'raised in the gutter', replaces a paraphrased version with "brought up badly by impoverished parents', s/he may deprive students of learning the original phrase.

Although modified input allows students to better understand the teacher's spoken remarks, they do not learn the new component of L2. Similarly, Gunn (2003) advocates for the use of L1 for adult students, particularly those with lesser competency, arguing that if L1 is not utilized at all, tasks and activities must be kept simple to ensure that instructions are clear. Because of these childish duties and activities, teachers may treat adult learners like children rather than intelligent and sophisticated individuals. Furthermore, some scholars believe that moving from L2 to L1 can be an effective technique for boosting student performance in L2 if L1 is used intentionally in classrooms.

Opponents of target-language-only instruction argue against it from a variety of language-learning perspectives. Anton and DiCamilla (1998) discovered, for example, that L1 can be a very valuable cognitive tool, providing scaffolding for students in their efforts to complete learning

tasks. Similarly, Brooks and Donato (1994) show that the L1 enables students to negotiate meaning and communicate effectively in the L2. Some experts contend that avoiding L1 use deprives L2 learners of a key pedagogical tool. Their thesis is based on interactionist learning theory (Ellis, 1994), which states that input alone is insufficient for language acquisition. Interaction between L2 learners and other speakers is required for input to easily become knowledge. This interaction will result in the negotiation of the meaning of the input (Long, 1996) as well as the development of the output (Swain, 2000). Because they interact with peers and teachers, many L2 learners regard L1 as an essential tool in the learning process (Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996), and using L1 frequently assists L2 learners in creating a social and cognitive space within which effective work toward improving their learning can be done (Anton & DiCamilla, 1988). Furthermore, the teacher's use of L1 gives an upgraded type of input that is more salient for the learners, easier to absorb, and thus increases their learning (Van Lier, 1995).

The use of learners' mother tongues in specific situations by both learners and teachers improves understanding and L2 learning (Atkinson, 1993; Cook, 2001; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Machaal, 2012; Tang, 2002; Wells, 1999). Numerous researchers have reported on the amount of L1 utilization and the various functions of L1 in pair or group work activities (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). According to Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), the mother tongue can serve a variety of purposes, including engaging and keeping enthusiasm in the activity as well as establishing techniques to make a tough task more achievable. Nonetheless, according to Jadallah and Hasan (2011), L1 should be used with purpose, at appropriate times, and in acceptable settings. According to Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), the usage of the first language should not be overemphasized and should diminish as the learners' expertise with the second language grows.

Additionally, the use of L1 may help students overcome affective hurdles and gain confidence in their capacity to comprehend L2 (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Johnson & Lee, 1987; Kang, 2008; Kern, 1989). Seng and Hashim (2006), for example, state that lower proficiency students often have trouble articulating or verbalizing their thoughts with confidence and precision, so they should be permitted to use L1 to grasp L2. Indeed, Liao (2006) discovered that when L2 is the only medium permitted in conversations, students keep

silent owing to fear or a lack of English proficiency. When both L1 and L2 are allowed as conversation media, there is more involvement, and meaningful communication lasts longer. As a result, using L1 increases students' readiness to converse vocally and articulate their ideas (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001).

The use of L1 serves a variety of purposes, including providing instruction, particularly at the beginning levels, to ensure that everyone fully understands what to do (Atkinson, 1987; Cole, 1998; Machaal, 2012; Tang, 2002); explaining the meanings of words (Jingxia 2010; Morahan 2010; Tang 2002); explaining complex ideas; translating from L1 to L2 when students do not have English words (Nadzrah Abu Bakar & Kemboja Ismail 2009); Tang, 2002). In terms of students' perceptions of using L1 in L2 classes, Al Sharaeai (2014) investigated the motivations and perceptions that learners have about using their mother tongue in L2 classrooms. It examined their perspectives on several issues of first language use. This research was based on data from an online survey and follow-up interviews with 51 total participants. According to the data, pupils used their native language for some reasons. The amount of the first language used varied as well. When the participants' language backgrounds, ages, and English language skill levels were taken into account, trends appeared.

2.3 Positive Effects of Using L1 in Second Language Teaching

Some foreign language teachers believe that thinking in that language is the best way for students to gain native-like language fluency. Students are encouraged to inhibit the use of L1 as a technique for learning L2 in order to avoid and eliminate errors caused by L1 interference. Second language acquisition research (Dulay & Burt, 1973; Johnson & Newport, 1994) has shown, however, that the problems and faults of foreign language learning cannot be entirely attributable to interference from the learners' first language. Dulay and Burt (1973) discovered that just 3% of errors among native-Spanish-speaking children learning English were caused by L1 interferences, with the remaining 85% being developmental in character. These findings show that there should be less anxiety about using L1 in foreign language schools, which leads to negative transfer.

In addition to research demonstrating that L1 is not a barrier to successful learning (Dulay & Burt, 1973; Johnson & Newport, 1994), some scholars have highlighted L1's positive effects on both foreign language teaching and learning (Anton & Dicamilla, 1998; Cipriani, 2001; Bergsleighner, 2002; Storch & Willesworth, 2003; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Kang, 2008).

Cipriani (2001) discovered that L1 was one of the methods that generated oral engagement between teachers and students in an investigation of oral participation strategies in a novice group. According to her statistics, the teacher used L1 to explain vocabulary, communicate tasks, and encourage students to converse in English. Furthermore, because the students used L1 as an oral approach, they were able to continue conversing in English. Bergsleighner's (2002) examination of grammar and interaction in a pre-intermediate EFL classroom revealed that L1 was used by students to achieve better self-expression in interactions with the teacher and to negotiate form and meaning in another example of L1 used as an oral communication strategy. She also found that the teacher used L1 to effectively improve students' grasp of grammar concepts. Additionally, Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) examined data acquired from twelve pairs of university ESL students during a brief cooperative authoring exercise. They stated that using L1 allowed for a more in-depth discussion of the question and the structure of the composition, helping students complete the work more quickly. Also, L1 use aided these students in more immediately and successfully defining unknown words.

Greggio and Gil (2007), for example, audio-recorded twelve class sessions of Portuguese-speaking novice EFL learners. They discovered that the teacher used L1 as a successful teaching approach for explaining grammar and providing feedback. Students used L1 as a feasible learning approach to clarify their grasp of course content and participate in class discussions. Based on these findings, Greggio and Gil propose that L1 may play a significant role in facilitating interaction among classroom participants as well as foreign language learning.

Liao's (2006) examination of the role of L1 in the learning of English by Taiwanese college students identified three strategic functions in the students' use of L1. Initially, students use L1 as a memory method to help them remember words, idioms, syntax, and sentence structures. Second, L1 is utilized as an effective method to reduce learning anxiety and boost motivation to study

English. Third, students use L1 as a social tactic to help them ask questions or collaborate with others, which improves their learning results. Kang's (2008) case study of a Korean EFL teacher demonstrated that the teacher employed L1 for pedagogical objectives such as explaining grammar, organizing activities, disciplining students, and implementing assessments. Furthermore, the students in this study responded positively to their teacher's L1 use, indicating that it increased their comprehension of classes and sustained their enthusiasm for learning English. They stated that using L1 allowed for a more in-depth discussion of the question and the structure of the composition, helping students complete the work more quickly. In addition, L1 use aided these students in more immediately and successfully defining unknown words.

L1 use may facilitate L2 classroom activities because it provides useful scaffolding that aids learners in understanding tasks and overcoming specific difficulties. While many academics (Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002) agree that L1 can be a helpful resource in foreign language classes, they stress that educators should not heavily rely on it (Wells, 1999). Cook (2001) has outlined four guidelines that teachers should follow. The first consideration is efficiency. For example, L1 may aid in the presentation of complex and complicated vocabulary items in a less time-consuming but more effective manner. The second aspect is education. Using L1 explanations to learn subjunctive moods could help. The third consideration is naturalness.

The second consideration emphasizes the use of the learners' first language (L1) to aid in the learning process. Cook (2001) suggests that using L1 explanations can be beneficial, especially when dealing with complex grammatical concepts such as the subjunctive mood. By providing explanations in the learners' native language, teachers can enhance comprehension and ensure that learners grasp the nuances of challenging language structures. This use of L1 explanations can help learners bridge the gap between their native language and the target language, facilitating a deeper understanding of complex grammar rules.

The third consideration highlights the importance of establishing rapport and positive relationships between teachers and learners, as well as among learners themselves. Cook (2001) suggests that using the learners' L1 can make it easier for teachers to establish a positive and

enjoyable learning environment. When learners feel comfortable and connected, they are more likely to engage actively in the language learning process. By allowing the use of L1 for interpersonal communication and social interaction, teachers can foster a sense of community in the classroom, which can contribute to a more natural and conducive learning environment.

The fourth consideration emphasizes the practicality and external relevance of using both L1 and L2 (target language) skills in real-life contexts. Cook (2001) suggests that understanding how to offer a product or communicate effectively in both the learners' native language and the target language can enhance their employment prospects and overall success. By acknowledging the importance of L1 skills in professional settings, teachers can motivate learners to develop proficiency in both languages and bridge the gap between academic language learning and real-world applications.

These four considerations, including efficiency, education, naturalness, and external relevance, provide valuable suggestions for teachers to incorporate appropriate L1 use in foreign language learning. By leveraging the learners' native language strategically, teachers can enhance comprehension, establish rapport, create a natural learning environment, and promote the practical application of language skills.

In terms of conveying the meaning of new words, the students' prior L1 learning experience may be advantageous because it can be used to boost their understanding of the L2 (Prince, 1996). For example, if students are familiar with the impressionist art style, their teacher will be far more effective in conveying the concept of impressionism in L1 than in describing it in L2. According to Atkinson (1993), learning a language is a challenging and frequently frustrating process for many students, especially at the beginner stage. Although L2-only instruction can be difficult, the use of L1 on occasion can have a significant, positive effect. Lee (2000) agrees with Atkinson that while dealing with vocabulary challenges, students use L1 to affirm, reason through, or predict unknown L2 words. It is possible that the student's ability to use L1 input helped them finish their reading tasks more successfully. This argument can be expanded to incorporate the idea that teachers can help students learn by providing them with the L1.

According to Lee, Seng, and Hashim (2006), using L1 to teach vocabulary and patterns raises students' awareness of the contrasts between L1 and L2, thereby avoiding negative transfer. Nonetheless, Harbord (1992) advises teachers to utilize L1 explanations only for abstract, difficult terms or sentences that would otherwise confound students if described in L2. If a term or statement is straightforward enough, it is worthwhile to define or explain it in the L2. Too much L1 is used when a teacher continues to clarify elementary vocabulary or sentences in L1. According to Harbord, students still require extensive exposure to L2 unless instructions expressed in L2 result in misunderstanding and frustration.

In terms of grammar explanation, grammatical competence is an essential component of successful language learning (Canale & Swain, 1980). Cook (1997) claims that even advanced L2 users get less linguistic information from the L2 than they do from the L1. Cook (2001) contends that L1 should be used for grammar education since lower-proficiency students have limited L2 linguistic information; therefore, L1 provides a shortcut for students to establish linkages between L1 and L2 knowledge in their thoughts. Similarly, Husain (1995) states that using L1 offers foreign language learners a quick and effective way of studying and grasping the target language's structure. A rigorous contrastive examination of L1 and L2 can also help students become more aware of the key distinctions between the two languages and minimize embarrassing instances of literal word-by-word translation in their writing. Furthermore, Atkinson (1987) suggests that teachers explain or show grammatical rules in L1 and then create L2 dialogues that include these rules, assisting students in reinforcing these norms. Chellappan (1991) proposes that teachers employ translation activities after teaching grammar rules. A contrastive study of two languages enables students to understand not only the key grammatical features of L2 but also to eliminate negative interferences from L1.

Teaching about culture in foreign language schools is an important goal that should be included in language studies rather than separated from it. Several features of the target culture may undoubtedly be highlighted in the L2 through visual imagery such as photographs and film clips. Edstrom (2006), on the other hand, suggests using L1 if students make comments that reflect stereotyped understandings or erroneous comprehension. Some Asian students, for example, believe that Americans are not as respectful to their parents as Asians are because they put their

parents in nursing facilities when they are elderly. In this circumstance, it is more vital to assist students with interpreting foreign cultures in non-stereotypical ways than to be concerned about students' L2 acquisition process.

Given students' competency levels and cultural knowledge, this goal is not always achievable through the L2. Students will be more likely to comprehend why Americans send their elderly parents to nursing homes if they are illustrated in their first language, and they will develop nonjudgmental views about cultures in other countries as a result.

When it comes to task organization, L2 instruction is unquestionably preferred for easy jobs because discussing action in L2 is actual communication. Some researchers (Willis, 1981; Weschler, 1997) believe that employing L1 to offer instructions for complex activities, particularly to lower-level students, is justifiable. According to these experts, a little L1 can go a long way toward making these tasks enjoyable in these conditions. Given students' competency levels and cultural knowledge, this goal is not always achievable through the L2. Students will be more likely to comprehend why Americans send their elderly parents to nursing homes if they are illustrated in their first language, and they will develop nonjudgmental views about cultures in other countries as a result.

One of the numerous obligations of teachers in terms of managing student conduct is to create a non-interfering learning environment. Franklin (1990) observed that when a student misbehaves, 45% of teachers in his study favor the L1 for discipline for two reasons: efficiency of comprehension and demonstrating that the threat is genuine rather than imagined. Edstrom (2006) asserts that it is critical for teachers to create rapport and solidarity with students when it comes to complimenting them. Edstrom advocates utilizing L1 to inform children how well they have done after they accomplish a good job since the use of L1 may emphasize the idea that the praise is genuine. Additionally, Edstrom (2006) contends that positive affective outcomes are not incidental, particularly for students who enter the classroom fearful or resentful. The drive to maximize L2 use is trumped by concerns about communicating respect and fostering a positive environment. Lowering student anxiety and creating a good teacher-student rapport are both desirable goals that should be actively fostered when it comes to facilitating student-teacher

interaction. To alleviate student nervousness, Harbord (1992) advises that professors converse in L1 before class and deliver jokes in L1.

A substantial and expanding body of literature has explored the function of using learners' first language in teaching a second language, and academics agree that it plays an important role in language classrooms. Eldridge (1996) concluded in a study of high-achieving Turkish students that, contrary to widespread assumption, teachers' use of learners' L1 is not harmful in EFL courses. He discovered that L1 was used as a communication tactic rather than an avoidance strategy. The data revealed that the learners followed a 'code-switching curve,' with the occurrence of switches reducing as language proficiency increased. Yiakoumetti (2011) finds it a valuable communicative technique after reviewing a wide range of evidence to support the importance of employing learners' native language as a potentially effective strategy for teaching language learners. The discussion that follows will look at the role of L1 in second-language teaching using empirical evidence from a variety of educational environments. It should be mentioned, however, that this article concentrates on EFL classrooms, which are defined as schools where students learn English in their native countries and usually share the same first language (Bell, 2011). Although it is conceivable in some situations for EFL classrooms to include learners who do not share a common language, this article will mostly explore the benefits and drawbacks of L1 in monolingual classrooms.

Furthermore, teachers' utilization of learners' L1 has been reported to have affective roles in classrooms. Yavuz (2012) found that in an assessment of English teachers' attitudes, teachers favored using L1 to reduce learners' apprehension and break down psychological obstacles before instruction began. Oga-Baldwin and Nakata (2013) also mentioned the use of L1 to foster a healthy classroom atmosphere among Japanese EFL students in North America. According to Jenkins (2010), using L1 in the classroom can make the learning process less scary than it already is. It has also been noticed that learners and teachers frequently employ the native language of the learners to demonstrate group identity and group solidarity (Sampson, 2012).

Eldridge (1996) demonstrates how respondents in his study utilized the Arabic word "yani, which means to demonstrate group cohesion. Sampson (2012), Azlan and Narasuman (2013), and

others have observed similar affective functions. Nonetheless, it might be argued that teachers use code-switching unintentionally for effective purposes. Farzana (2017) discovered, for example, that while teachers had good attitudes toward L1 use and employed it in their classrooms, they were unaware of the reasons for doing so. This ignorance may impede the full utilization of this resource.

Another way that using L1 can aid with language learning is to use it as a method to help alleviate the cognitive burden. A simple code switch can aid learning by directing the learner's attention to the meaning of huge amounts of text. This selective attention is directed to a single communication breakdown in an L1-only context, slowing down the learning process. Guo (2007) discovered that teachers' code-switches to learners' L1 reduced learners' processing stress in a study that sought to identify students' strategic reactions to their teachers' code-switching behaviors in a Chinese institution. He proposed that a simple code-switch by a teacher stops learners from losing their attention. Cook and Hall (2012) agreed that teachers' use of L1 enhances learning by reducing the processing load for learners during cognitively challenging activities. Similarly, Levine (2003) observes that teachers' strategic use of L1 can help lessen the selective attention learners use to process the new language. Widely utilized strategies such as guessing and inferring from context not only require a significant amount of selective attention but can also contribute to worry and negativity in learners (Levine, 2003).

The vast majority of scholars now agree that learning is most successful when it is founded on prior information. A number of theoretical traditions, including humanistic and constructivist ideas, endorse this viewpoint (Rostami & Khadooji, 2010; Philip, 1995). It has been proposed that paying attention to the knowledge that students bring to class improves learning. According to Cook and Hall (2012, p. 291), language learning should strive to activate learners' preexisting knowledge. Yavuz (2012) views a learner's L1 knowledge and experience as a useful source for L2 learning. He also claims that prohibiting the use of L1 in a language school makes the learner into a "newborn baby with an adult mentality" (2012). The preceding discussion shows that learners' mother tongues can play an important role in connecting new information with existing language resources.

Numerous studies have shown the advantages of using L1 to learn a target language. For example, Villamil and de Guerrero (1996) examined the discourse of Spanish-speaking university students while they engaged in peer editing of their target language work. Their research showed that "the L1 was a crucial tool for generating meaning from the text, recalling language from memory, investigating and extending material, leading their activity through a task, and maintaining discourse." Similarly, Swain and Lapkin (2000) discovered that if 22 pairs of Grade 8 French immersion students had not used L1 as a form of negotiation and communication while completing dictogloss and jigsaw assignments, the tasks would not have been completed as effectively, if at all.

In sum, the above-mentioned studies have identified several benefits of incorporating the L1 in L2 learning including comprehension facilitation in which using the L1 can help learners better understand new concepts, instructions, and explanations, especially in the early stages of L2 learning. The use of L1 enhances L2 vocabulary development by allowing learners to make connections between L1 and L2 words with similar meanings, structures, or roots. It also promotes cultural understanding enabling learners to develop a deeper understanding of the target language culture. In addition, it fosters learner autonomy, allowing the use of the L1 empowers learners to take control of their own learning process. It was also discussed that incorporating the L1 in group activities and discussions can facilitate peer collaboration and interaction. Learners can support each other, share ideas, and negotiate meaning more effectively when the L1 is utilized alongside the L2. Allowing the use of the L1 can help alleviate language anxiety and increase learners' confidence. It provides a sense of security and familiarity, especially when facing challenging or complex tasks in the L2. Finally, it was mentioned that L1 can be a valuable tool for error correction, as teachers can easily identify and explain errors by referring to learners' L1 knowledge.

2.4 Negative Effects of Using L1 in Second Language Teaching

When discussing the negative effects of using L1 (the learners' native language) in second language teaching, it is important to consider the research and literature on this topic. One of the negative effects of using L1 in second language teaching is linguistic interference. Linguistic interference refers to the negative impact of a learner's first language (L1) on their second language

(L2) acquisition. It occurs when the structures, vocabulary, or pronunciation patterns of the L1 are transferred to the L2, leading to errors or inaccuracies in the L2 production.

One study conducted by Odlin (1989) examined the influence of L1 on L2 acquisition among Spanish-speaking learners of English. The study found that Spanish-speaking learners often produced errors in English due to the interference of their native language. For example, they would use word order patterns from Spanish in English sentences, resulting in ungrammatical constructions.

Another study by Selinker (1972) investigated the role of L1 interference in the pronunciation of English by French speakers. The study revealed that French speakers tended to transfer French phonological patterns to English, leading to mispronunciations. For instance, they would pronounce English words with a French accent or substitute French sounds for English sounds. Furthermore, Tarone (1980) explored the impact of L1 interference on the acquisition of grammatical structures in English by Chinese learners. The study found that Chinese learners often made errors in English grammar due to the influence of Chinese sentence structures. They would use Chinese word order or omit certain grammatical markers, resulting in non-standard English sentences. These studies demonstrate how L1 interference can negatively affect second language learning. Learners may struggle with grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation due to the influence of their native language. Understanding the specific linguistic features that cause interference can help teachers address these issues and provide targeted instruction to minimize errors.

Another negative effect is the reduction of target language exposure. When learners rely heavily on their native language structures, vocabulary, and pronunciation patterns, they may not fully immerse themselves in the second language, leading to limited exposure to the target language. Swain (1985) argues that when L1 is used, learners have fewer opportunities to listen to and practice the target language, hindering their language acquisition and fluency development. The excessive use of L1 can also limit authentic communication in the classroom. Pica (1994) suggests that when learners rely on L1, they may miss opportunities to engage in meaningful interactions in the target language, which is crucial for developing communication skills.

Research by Gass and Selinker (2008) highlights the importance of target language exposure in second language acquisition. They argue that learners need many opportunities to hear and use the target language in order to develop their linguistic skills. However, when learners are constantly relying on their native language, they may not be prepared for target language exposure. In addition, Lightbown and Spada (2013) emphasize the role of input in second language acquisition. They explain that learners need to receive comprehensible input in the target language in order to develop their linguistic competence. However, when learners are influenced by their native language, they may struggle to understand and process the input in the target language, leading to reduced exposure and limited language development.

Using L1 in second language teaching can lead to a dependency on translation. Using L1 (native language) in second language teaching can lead to a dependency on translation, which can hinder language acquisition. Gass and Selinker (2008) note that when learners become accustomed to relying on L1 for understanding, they may struggle to think and express themselves directly in the target language, hindering their language production skills. This reliance on translation can prevent learners from fully immersing themselves in the target language and hinder their overall language development.

Furthermore, Krashen (1985) argues that using translation as a crutch can impede language acquisition because it does not promote meaningful communication. He suggests that learners need to engage in authentic communication in the target language in order to develop their language skills. However, when learners rely on translation, they may focus more on translating words and phrases rather than using the target language to express themselves.

Moreover, Ellis (1994) highlights the negative effects of translation on language acquisition. He explains that when learners translate between their native language and the target language, they may not fully internalize the structures and patterns of the target language. This can result in a superficial understanding of the target language and hinder their ability to produce accurate and fluent speech.

The overuse of L1 in the classroom can indeed lead to reduced motivation among learners. When learners perceive that their native language is constantly relied upon, they may view the target language as less important, leading to decreased motivation and engagement in language learning activities. Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) conducted a study on language learners' motivation and found that learners who experienced excessive use of L1 in the classroom reported lower levels of motivation compared to those who had more exposure to the target language. This suggests that the overuse of L1 can have a negative impact on learners' motivation to learn the target language.

In a study by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), it was found that learners who perceived a high use of L1 in their English language classrooms reported lower levels of motivation and interest in learning the language. This indicates that the frequent use of L1 can undermine learners' motivation to engage in target language learning activities.

Macaro (2001) investigated the impact of L1 use on learner motivation and found that learners who were exposed to more opportunities for target language use reported higher levels of motivation and engagement. Conversely, learners who experienced excessive L1 use showed signs of decreased motivation and lower levels of interest in language learning.

Another negative consequence of using L1 extensively is the potential disconnection from the target language's culture. Using L1 extensively in language learning can indeed lead to a potential disconnection from the target language's culture. When learners rely heavily on their native language during the learning process, they may inadvertently overlook or neglect the cultural aspects that are intertwined with the language itself. This can hinder their ability to fully immerse themselves in the target language's culture and understand its nuances (Cook, 2008).

One consequence of this disconnection is the difficulty in grasping idiomatic expressions and cultural references. Languages often contain idioms and expressions that are unique to their culture, and understanding them requires familiarity with the cultural context in which they are used. By relying heavily on L1, learners cannot understand these cultural cues, making it harder for them to fully comprehend and use the language in an authentic manner (Norton, 2013). Furthermore, language and culture are closely intertwined, and learning a language involves

understanding the cultural values, beliefs, and norms of its speakers. By neglecting the cultural aspects of the target language, learners may inadvertently perpetuate cultural misunderstandings or even offend native speakers unintentionally. This can hinder effective communication and limit the learner's ability to build meaningful connections with speakers of the target language (Kramsch, 1998).

An article by Kim et al. (2018) highlights the importance of cultural understanding in language learning. The authors argue that language and culture are inseparable, and learners should strive to develop cultural competence alongside linguistic proficiency. They emphasize the need for learners to engage with authentic cultural materials, such as literature, music, and films, to gain a deeper understanding of the target language's culture. To overcome this potential disconnection, learners are encouraged to integrate cultural learning into their language learning journey. This can be done by actively seeking out opportunities to engage with native speakers, participating in cultural events, or consuming authentic cultural content. By immersing themselves in the target language's culture, learners can enhance their language skills while also gaining a deeper appreciation for the cultural nuances embedded within the language.

According to Eldridge (1996), switching to L1 carries a 'risk of impeding long-term learning' despite its short-term benefits for language learners. He claims that it can result in the fossilization of learners' mistakes. The switches can cease to be developmental and useful and are utilized as a deterrent. In a study of Malaysian EFL learners, for example, it was discovered that overuse of L1 had surpassed the target language in the classroom (Azlan & Narasuman, 2013).

It can also be claimed that the ultimate purpose of an EFL teacher is to enable the learner to use the L2 without relying on the L1 and that enabling learners to utilize the L1 hinders them from accomplishing this goal. According to Sampson (2012), overuse of L1 can impede learners from being exposed to and practicing L2, as well as not training them for L2-only scenarios. The option of using L1 during a communication breakdown in class does not prepare students to deal with communication breakdowns in real life. They develop a hybrid variation that prevents them from communicating with target code monolinguals (Eldridge, 1996).

Many L2 teaching materials, syllabuses, and curricula mirror students' L1 avoidance (Atkinson, 1987, 1993; Cook, 2002; Cook, 2001). Scientists suggest that exposing students to a diverse variety of input in the target language is critical for good L2 acquisition. Simulating an L2 setting is regarded as a precondition for successful language learning and efficient language instruction (Asher, 1993; Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Krashen et al., 1984; Macdonald, 1993; Wong-Fillmore, 1985).

In summary, using L1 in second language teaching can lead to a dependency on translation, which can hinder language acquisition. Learners who rely heavily on translation may struggle to think and communicate directly in the target language, impeding their ability to fully immerse themselves in the language and hindering their overall language development. These studies highlight the negative relationship between the overuse of L1 and learner motivation. When learners feel that the target language is not being prioritized and that their native language is constantly relied upon, their motivation to engage in second language learning can be significantly affected. Therefore, it is important for teachers to strike a balance between L1 and target language use in the classroom to maintain learner motivation and promote effective language learning. It is important to note that while these negative effects have been identified in research, the extent of their impact may vary depending on various factors such as learner proficiency, teaching context, and instructional approaches. Therefore, it is crucial to strike a balance between L1 and target language use in the classroom to promote effective second language learning.

2.5 The Role of L1 in Vocabulary Learning

Since words are the basic building blocks for utterances, lexical acquisition is an important stage in the development of children's language. As a result, lexical acquisition is seen as a vital first stage in the development of language competence (Kit, 2003). To acquire a lexical item, it must first be recognized as a word and then enter the mental lexicon, which is often regarded as the most crucial aspect of language processing (Ellis, 1995; Aitchison & Lewis, 2003; Bonin, 2004).

A significant relationship exists between students' vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension, according to research in first-language reading (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). Because bilingual texts contain both L1 and L2, these materials are freely available, and their use has expanded. The importance of employing bilingual texts can be linked to the motivation and interest of L2 learners while reading these writings. Bilingual texts are seen favorably by instructors, students, and language researchers. When learners encounter difficulties in L2 learning, they become disheartened and lose confidence. In this case, L1-assisted texts can help learners feel at ease and enjoy reading. That might be a fun learning resource for the students. When compared to English-only content, learners can easily comprehend bilingual text. Reading L2 texts requires students' understanding of not only words but also concepts alluded to by the words, the depth and fluency of their knowledge of the words, and the amount to which they have been able to acquire words through significant exposure to written language (Anderson & Freebody, 1981).

There are numerous ways to connect the L2 target item to its meaning. This can be accomplished, for example, by gestures, photographs, and realia. The most versatile and extensively used approaches, on the other hand, involve either an L2 definition or synonym or an L1 translation. The L2 definition or synonym technique has long been an established aspect of language education since it offers learners additional exposure to the target language and is an option available to both native and non-native teachers. On the other hand, the use of the L1 has been regarded as a 'crutch' (Chichon, 2018) that fosters 'lazy minds and so prevent the transfer of new vocabulary to long-term memory. However, the function of L1 in L2 teaching and vocabulary learning has been reevaluated (Cook, 2010). L1 activation occurs during L2 vocabulary processing for both lower and higher-proficiency learners, according to psycholinguistic research (Sunderman & Kroll, 2006). This is thought to be caused by L2 word forms being connected to the equivalent L1 word representation during the early stages of vocabulary acquisition (Hall, 2002). Due to the considerable conceptual similarities between languages (Swan, 1997), the use of L1 in L2 learning can give a shortcut to acquisition (Scott & De La Fuente, 2008). That is, because of this massive overlap, learners can generally map the target L2 vocabulary item directly onto their mother tongue at the form-meaning stage of vocabulary learning (Ringbom, 1987). Of course, when learners

expand their vocabulary, they may discover distinctions between a word and its L1 counterpart, particularly in terms of collocations and grammatical functions. This is not, however, a criticism of L1 usage in purposeful vocabulary learning. Incidental learning through contextualized encounters with the target lexis over time facilitates such modifications in vocabulary knowledge, and no form-meaning direct learning technique can replace this.

Many teachers and researchers appear to prefer intralingual strategies, which involve the use of linguistic means of the target language such as synonyms, definitions, or linguistic contexts, over interlingual strategies, which use the L1 in the form of a bilingual dictionary, cognates, or L1 translation equivalents, often associated with word lists, during the L2 vocabulary teaching and learning process. Intralingual procedures, as Schmitt (1997) points out, are 'pedagogically proper' since they adhere to principles of communicative language education or complete input. Yet, interlingual techniques are easily associated with the grammar-translation approach or contrastive analysis. Many modern teaching approaches tackle L2 separately from L1, whether it be the communicative approach, the audio-lingual method, mainstream EFL methods, or the older direct method. Yet assumptions do not always govern conduct. In fact, whether the instructor wants it or not, L1 is present in the mind of the L2 learner, and the L2 knowledge that is being formed in their mind is interconnected in a variety of ways with their L1 knowledge.

Students learning their L1 hear a steady stream of utterances and are capable of inducing the words from this stream with little supervision (Kit, 2003). Students utilize this method to learn a vast number of words at an astonishing rate. Learning FL vocabulary, on the other hand, presents a quite different scenario. Because FL learners already have an L1 and, as a result, have developed conceptual and semantic systems linked to the L1, FL vocabulary learning will involve, at least in its early stages, a mapping of the new lexical forms onto already existing conceptual meanings or translational equivalents in the L1 (Taka, 2008). In other words, when children are exposed to a second language, they have already learned how to categorize the world from their first language experience, and such categorization is unlikely to be retraced. Instead, FL lexical items are more likely to be linked to L1 representations.

According to the Revised Hierarchical Model of Bilingual Lexical Processing (Kroll and Stewart, 1994), "L1 word forms are directly related to meaning at the conceptual level, but FL meaning is accessed via L1 word forms" (Kroll & Sunderman, 2003, p. 401). Kroll (1993) argues for a model of lexical and conceptual ties between the L1 and the FL in which the strength of such connections varies depending on criteria such as proficiency and age of acquisition, using evidence from cross-language priming. In light of the aforementioned variables, it appears that during the early stages of learning, the FL mental lexicon is more likely to be organized in subordination to the L1 than at more advanced levels.

Foreign language vocabulary acquisition differs from L1 acquisition not just due to differences in mental organization but also due to exposure to the target language. Learning words in both the L1 and the FL is a cyclical process that entails encountering these new words repeatedly (Cameron, 2001). According to Laufer (2005), in order for lexical elements to enter the long-term memory system, the learner must encounter them repeatedly. Such a cyclical process is more likely to occur in immersion environments where language is taught without a focus on vocabulary since huge exposure to language ensures incidental vocabulary acquisition (Kersten, 2010). In contrast, children learning a foreign language are frequently constrained by the classroom setting. This condition does not encourage youngsters to learn a huge amount of vocabulary quickly or merely through exposure. In FL learning situations, students require a significant amount of explicit vocabulary instruction in order to learn vocabulary in a short time (Campbell, Campbell, & Dickinson, 2004).

There are two fundamentally different viewpoints on the impact of first-language (L1) use in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language: monolingual and bilingual perspectives. Some linguists believe that students' L1 should be prohibited in English classrooms, but others believe that it aids in the process of acquiring a target language. Galali and Cinkara (2017) used a mixed-methods approach to investigate learners' opinions towards the use of L1 in English vocabulary learning, both from the students and from their teachers. They also identified the factors that prompted learners to transfer from their L2 to their L1. Two hundred fifty-eight EFL learners completed a questionnaire to participating in the quantitative data collection, and the qualitative data were acquired through face-to-face semi-structured interviews with eight EFL

learners. According to the obtained data, participants showed a slightly positive attitude towards using their L1 to facilitate their L2 vocabulary learning. By referring to current theories of L2 vocabulary learning and evaluating recent material, it is possible to conclude that, under specific situations, learners' L1 plays an essential and facilitating role in acquiring a foreign language.

Udaya (2019) used bilingual texts to study the function of the first language in boosting second-language vocabulary. This study included 14 students who spoke English as a second language. Learners read distinct versions of the same material (English and Telugu), and incidental vocabulary learning was assessed using a pre-test, an immediate post-test, and a delayed post-test. The findings demonstrated that (a) both groups achieved significant gains in lexical knowledge after finishing the therapy, and (b) learners who read bilingual text had much more enduring knowledge gains than those who read glossed material solely. Participants who read bilingual texts performed significantly better on the delayed post-test than those who only read glossed texts. Including L1 in language, classrooms allows language learners to read beyond their proficiency level while also learning new words. It gives students the option of learning L2 vocabulary at their own pace. According to the findings of this study, using L1 in language classes promotes the successful learning of L2 vocabulary.

A variety of ways have been proposed to deal with vocabulary in FL learning situations, none of which appear to support incidental vocabulary acquisition, as the FL learner is unlikely to meet a word numerous times for it to be organically acquired (Folse, 2004; Laufer, 2005; Taka, 2008). Furthermore, a student must have a large FL vocabulary in order to properly guess the meaning of unknown terms from surrounding context clues. As a result of such a requirement, less proficient and/or younger learners are likely to have significant challenges in growing their FL lexicon by inferring unknown word meanings from unclear situations. Explicit vocabulary instruction, as applied in this study, is viewed as very important for FL learners, particularly beginners and young learners, whose lack of vocabulary hampers their reading or understanding abilities (Folse, 2004; Anuthama, 2010).

It is widely assumed that techniques that use a form as the primary conduit to meaning are more effective for FL learners because they improve memorization. The vocabulary acquisition

process begins when learners meet and pay close attention to the form of a new word. The word being taught explicitly enters the learner's short-term memory, and stored elements become ready for usage in the longer term through repetitive vocabulary instruction. Exposure to very tangible language that relates to objects that young language learners can handle or see is very important for developing their mental inventory of lexical elements (Cameron, 2001). Presenting authentic material for students to explore with, mime, presenting vivid settings in which vocabulary is given, and employing visual aids are all techniques used to boost young learners' vocabulary (Pinter, 2006). The use of graphics has been highlighted in memory studies since it has been claimed that pictures are more efficiently recalled than words (Carpenter & Olson, 2012).

The role of mother tongue in language teaching has been the subject of numerous research studies over the last few decades; however, few researchers have addressed issues such as comparing the effects of mother tongue and other teaching techniques such as paraphrasing and translation on students' reading comprehension ability and ability to learn new English vocabulary. Ramachandran and Rahim (2004) tested the translation method's effectiveness with 60 low-proficiency Malaysian English learners. Over the course of four weeks, the students were taught 20 lexical items in context. Half of the students were taught the meaning of the target vocabulary in their first language, while the other half were taught it in their second. Participants were asked to provide the meaning of the target vocabulary in either their L1 or L2 during the post-test. While the results demonstrated the superiority of the translation method over the L2 approach, a word of caution is in order. The meaning of the target word was obviously obvious to the participants in the translation condition. The definitions for the group that was taught the meaning of the target language through their L2 were from the Oxford English Dictionary. Because this resource is intended for native speakers, the terminology used in the definitions is likely to have been difficult for participants with less ability. A more equitable comparison would have resulted from the use of graded definitions designed for L2 learners. Furthermore, around one-third of the lexical terms investigated were English loanwords. The characteristics of such words clearly promote an L1 translation. As a result of these methodological limitations, the study's findings are expected to favor the L1 translation methodology.

Liu (2008) investigated the impact of L1 use on L2 vocabulary teaching using empirical research and qualitative analysis. The findings suggest that, throughout the L2 vocabulary teaching process, the application of L1 may successfully facilitate new word memorization, and the bilingual technique (both English explanation and Chinese translation) is well received by most subjects. As a result, the use of L1 as a method for evaluating and validating L2 learners' knowledge of word meaning, particularly for adult Chinese EFL learners, should not be wholly dismissed.

Latsanyphone and Bouangeune (2009) investigated the relative benefits of L1 translations against L2 definitions with 169 Laotian English learners in a subsequent study on the deliberate learning of English vocabulary. The researchers demonstrated that the L1 translation group outperformed the learners who got the L2 definitions using pre- and post-test techniques. The treatment of the two groups, however, was not comparable. The L1 translation group received a written description of the target vocabulary and participated in several learning consolidation activities, whereas the L2 definition group received just an oral definition and explanation of the target vocabulary. This discrepancy calls their conclusions into question.

Pakzadian (2012) investigated if paraphrases vs. translations of new words in common English texts made a difference for intermediate competency-level English new vocabulary learners. She also intended to investigate whether paraphrases or translations of texts at the intermediate skill level have a substantial impact on students' reading comprehension. One proficiency exam and three comprehension tests were used to collect data for this investigation. The data were analyzed both descriptively and inferentially. The study's overall findings revealed no significant difference in comprehension between those who received Persian translations of new vocabulary, those who dealt with paraphrases of the same new terms, and those who did not receive any L1 translation or paraphrase. The results of the vocabulary test revealed that those who got mother-language definitions in advance of each new word in the paragraph performed much better than the other two groups. However, research would aid teachers and teacher educators in developing and implementing L1 and paraphrases in English classes.

Joyce (2015) evaluated the effect of employing L1 translations versus L2 definitions on L2 vocabulary recognition, knowledge learning, and assessment. Over a 10-week period, 48 Japanese L2 English learners studied 200 lexical items from the academic word list (AWL). The participants were given the meaning of the target language to help them learn. The language in which the meanings were provided was modified so that half of them were accepted in the learners' L1 and half in their L2. Similarly, participants were evaluated on their receptive knowledge of the vocabulary in both languages at the pre- and post-test stages. The results of a factorial repeated measures analysis of variance revealed that when students were asked to match the target vocabulary to L1 translations rather than L2 definitions, their recognition of the L2 vocabulary was much higher. Furthermore, there was a significant interaction between study and testing language, with participants scoring significantly higher when study and testing language was matched. Overall, the language in which the target vocabulary was studied had little effect on test scores.

Camó and Ballester (2016) investigated the influence of L1 on young learners' retention and access to English vocabulary. For the study, year-old pupils from an EFL Catalan school were divided into an experimental and a control group. The experimental group received both the English input and the L1 translation of the target items, while the control group only received the English input. The differences in lexical retention and access between the groups were investigated. The current study's findings indicate that presenting students with the L1 counterparts of lexical items resulted in learners remembering more lexical items, accessing them more easily, and recalling them for longer periods of time.

It is important to note that the role of L1 in vocabulary learning can vary depending on factors such as language proficiency, learning context, and individual learner characteristics. Additionally, the optimal balance between L1 and L2 use in vocabulary learning remains a topic of ongoing debate and research. Research suggests that translating L2 words into L1 can be a helpful strategy for initial understanding and memorization. Studies have explored how the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 vocabulary can influence learning. When L1 and L2 words share similar phonetic, orthographic, or semantic features, learners may benefit from these similarities in acquiring new vocabulary (e.g., Ringbom, 2007). Research suggests that

bilinguals have a shared mental lexicon that includes both L1 and L2 vocabulary. Studies have explored how L1 knowledge can facilitate the acquisition and activation of L2 vocabulary, as well as how L2 vocabulary can influence L1 processing (e.g., de Groot, 2011). Learners often employ various strategies to enhance vocabulary learning. These strategies can involve using L1 as a resource, such as making connections between L1 and L2 words, using L1 definitions, or creating L1-L2 associations.

2.6 Vocabulary Recall and Retention: The Role of Memory in Vocabulary Learning

Because memory has a large impact on language acquisition, students do not always learn what teachers tell them. Teachers must recognize that teaching does not always result in learning. They should be aware that while instruction can be linear and systematic, learning is not always linear, with only gradual development without practice. Students may learn a term weeks, months, or even years later after encountering it several times. As a result, teachers should give pupils opportunities to regularly meet the target words. According to Schmitt (2000), students forget the majority of the new terms after the learning session; hence, it is critical to conduct a review session immediately after the learning session. Extending rehearsal may aid in the transfer of new words from short-term memory to long-term memory.

Memory is classified into two types: short-term memory and long-term memory. Short-term memory is used to store a small quantity of data as it is processed. Long-term memory retains an infinite quantity of information for future use. Thus, the purpose of vocabulary acquisition is to move lexical information from short-term memory to long-term memory during the learning process. This may be accomplished in a variety of ways, including the keyword approach and grouping new terms with related ones previously known (Camina, 2017). Because the known words are already established in the memory, linking the new words to them gives a hook to recall them, ensuring that they are not readily forgotten. New words that do not have this link are quickly forgotten.

Words can sometimes be forgotten even though they are well known, like when a learner does not utilize a second language for an extended period of time or discontinues a course of language study. In this scenario, it is referred to as attrition (Allen, 2018). According to research (e.g., Batista & Horst, 2016; Laufer & McLean, 2016), lexical information is more susceptible to attrition than other linguistic elements such as phonology and grammar. This is due to the fact that vocabulary is made up of individual pieces rather than a set of rules like grammar. According to studies, receptive knowledge does not decrease substantially, and when it does, it mainly affects insignificant words, such as low-frequency non-cognates (Allen, 2019). Productive knowledge, on the other hand, is more likely to be forgotten (Kömüra & Özdemir, 2015). The rate of attrition is likewise irrespective of proficiency level; that is, high-proficiency learners, will lose roughly the same amount of knowledge as low-proficiency learners. Several studies have revealed that attrition occurs most frequently within the first two years and then decreases.

Long-term attrition is similar to short-term forgetting. For example, when learners gain new knowledge, they forget most of it by the conclusion of the learning session. The rate of forgetting lowers after a significant loss (Stoeckel & Bennet, 2013). Teachers can organize better review sessions for their students if they grasp the nature of forgetting. They might also emphasize the significance of holding a review session immediately after the learning session. Learners can also comprehend the need to review new material shortly after initial exposure.

The ability to recall information after a period of time has elapsed is referred to as "vocabulary retention. Retention of what has been taught (e.g., grammar rules and vocabulary) in language teaching may depend on the quality of teaching, the use of different strategies, the learners' interest, or the meaningfulness of the materials (Richards & Schmitt, 2002). One of the main problems for second or foreign-language learners has always been vocabulary retention. They employ several strategies to memorize the lexical components. For example, some like to repeat the words, whereas others utilize flash cards and refer to them from time to time. As a result, the learners place a high value on vocabulary retention. According to Mohammed (2009), vocabulary retention is "the ability to keep the acquired vocabulary and retrieve it after a period of time to use it in different language contexts" (p. 16).

Previous research investigated many variables that influenced L2 vocabulary recall and retention, with vocabulary-related and learner-related variables being the most often investigated (Puimège & Peters, 2019; Teng, 2022). Researchers frequently identified exposure frequency as the most influential factor in vocabulary acquisition and retention (Malone, 2018; Solati-Dehkordi & Salehi, 2016; Teng, 2020, 2022; Xiaoning & Feng, 2017). In their opinion, regular exposure to new languages is necessary for vocabulary learning, and increasing the number of exposures reinforces long-term retention. Given the absence of exposure to L2 in the surroundings and the restricted amount of classroom time, comprehensive and recurring exposure to L2 vocabulary has been considered necessary and useful, particularly in the EFL environment (Heidari-Shahreza et al., 2014; Heidari-Shahreza & Tavakoli, 2016; Peters, 2016). Although studies generally agree that the number of exposures to vocabulary items affects learners' vocabulary gains, they produce conflicting results about the optimal or minimum number of exposures required for good vocabulary acquisition and retention.

2.7 Teachers' Actual Use of L1 in the Classroom

Teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in the English language classroom are mirrored in their teaching techniques. Their attitudes will be impacted by a variety of factors, including their own experience as language learners, pre-service and in-service training, the institutional policies of the institutions where they work, and their experience as instructors.

The picture that emerges from teacher attitude surveys is mixed. Considering a global sample of English language teachers from various contexts, the majority agree that L1 should be excluded or limited in English teaching (Hall & Cook, 2013). When researchers study teachers' actual usage of L1 in the classroom, they discover that many teachers utilize L1 in their courses far more than their attitudes would suggest.

There is frequently a mismatch between teachers' claimed desires for L1 use and actual classroom realities (Copland & Neokleous, 2011). Researchers discovered that teachers frequently refer to 'resorting to' rather than 'using' the L1 and that the terminology used reflects this contradiction between desired and actual behaviors. From this perspective, it is not unexpected

that a significant percentage of teachers (about 36% in Hall and Cooks' (2013) survey) experience feelings of guilt when they feel the need to employ the L1. This is obviously caused for concern: a sense of guilt is unlikely to be beneficial to instructors who are attempting to grasp the difficulties and grow professionally (Macaro, 2005). Rather than viewing L1 as a crutch to rely on in times of need, instructors will gain better knowledge of the function of L1 in language learning, allowing them to maximize its potential.

The quantity of L1 used by English language teachers varies greatly. There are classes where it is utilized up to 90% of the time and others where it is never used at all. The latter is common in multilingual classrooms without a shared classroom language or when the teacher does not speak the pupils' first language. These situations are typical in private language schools, particularly in English-speaking countries, but are uncommon elsewhere. When there is a shared L1 or classroom language, it appears that the L1 is frequently used between 20% and 40% of the time.

Most teachers, in most circumstances, use L1 to some extent in their daily classroom practice. In general, teachers use the L1 significantly more frequently with lower-level classes. This can help with motivation and frustration, and it is supported by academics such as Swain and Lapkin (2000). L1 is also more commonly utilized in larger courses, where teachers believe it is more beneficial than smaller classes in generating a positive classroom climate and maintaining discipline. Because larger classrooms are more typical in state-run institutions than in private schools, it is not surprising that L1 use is higher in the former. Other factors that can lead to increased L1 use include the process of a course (it may take some time for some students to adjust to lessons where L1 is not widely used); the length of a lesson (lessons lasting more than an hour that are conducted entirely in English may become very tiring); and the student's previous learning experiences.

Wharton (2007), taking the enabling function of L1 in teaching L2, offers three key ways in which students' L1 can be used in the language classroom: (1) supplying L1 equivalents of English words and expressions; (2) focusing on language in use; and (3) employing L1 for classroom engagement. Nation (2003) added another important function to L1 by treating it as a

productive instrument for communicating meaning, reiterating these functions. In addition to these functions, optimal L1 use in foreign or second language education might be justified because:

Beginning with the learners' mother tongue provides a sense of security and validates students' lived experience (Auerbach, 1993). L1 use provides students with cognitive support, allowing them to explore language and produce higher-quality work by acting as a bridge for students to analyze the language and try more than the time they use a foreign language only (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003).

Notwithstanding L1's pedagogical roles, some practitioners dogmatically oppose it in language teaching. Nunan (1999) described a circumstance in which an EFL teacher in China imposed fines on his students for speaking Cantonese in the classroom. The outcome was unappealing, and the students fell silent. They didn't use either their mother tongue or English. The teacher fulfilled his demand for no Cantonese, but he also got no English from his students (p. 158). Setting their prejudices aside, practitioners should allow the L1 to perform its enabling duties in language classrooms because Learners may express themselves more effectively when they are allowed to utilize their mother tongue (Wharton, 2007).

From a humanistic perspective, it is exceedingly improbable that a teacher would refuse to answer a question like "How can I say?" (Harbord, 1992); it is the "preferred learning strategy" of most language learners in language schools worldwide (Atkinson, 1987, p. 242); it is a time-saving mechanism (Wharton, 2007; Atkinson, 1987).

Many studies have been conducted to study the various ways in which teachers use L1. They can be broadly classified into two categories: 'fundamental functions' and 'social functions'. Hall and Cook (2013) discovered that the 'core functions' were the most prominent in the most comprehensive examination of how teachers use L1 in English language courses.

It is important to recall that there is no evidence that this explanatory function of L1 in language education is harmful to learning if it is not misused. Building rapport and the preservation of discipline appears to be the most common social functions in L1. For example, statements of sympathy are more likely to be understood (by lower-level learners) if they are expressed in L1 to

learning if it is not misused. Building rapport and the preservation of discipline appears to be the most common social functions in L1. For example, statements of sympathy are more likely to be understood (by lower-level learners) if they are expressed in L1. Discipline, with its almost always negative affective response, is usually best avoided when studying a language.

Whether the L1 is employed for core or social purposes, the teacher's decision to deploy it is frequently motivated by a desire to speed up or keep the class going (Macaro, 2005). The time saved by swiftly resolving an issue in the L1 is time that can subsequently be employed for more productive activities (Harbord, 1992). Taken together, it is obvious that the teacher's many tasks in classroom L1 can play an important role in facilitating language development. While deciding whether or not to employ the L1, teachers will consider both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. Its importance is expected to be greater with lower-level and younger learners, particularly pre-schoolers (Scheffler & Domiska, 2018).

2.8 Practical Studies

In this section, some practical studies concerning the use of L1 in the L2 classroom are reviewed. Previous research on using L1 equivalent forms as a method of teaching, accessing, and/or memorizing FL lexical items has primarily focused on adult intermediate-to-advanced students and suggests that a bilingual teaching and presentation method facilitates vocabulary learning and retention (Hulstijn et al., 1996; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997; Van Hell and Candia Mahn, 1997; Lotto and de Groot, 1998; Liu, 2009).

In a study of English speakers studying French, Prince (1996) discovered evidence to support the idea that less skilled students may also recall more things when they learn the terms in the translation condition. Similarly, Grace (1998) supported translation, which resulted in learners remembering more terms. The translation was deemed the preferred alternative for FL novices in this study because it allowed them to double-check the meanings of terms. Sieh (2008) conducted a study on young beginners to investigate how children process and remember English vocabulary in the early stages of FL learning. More precisely, the L1 status of FL vocabulary learning was investigated by measuring students' accuracy and reaction times in response to visual and aural

stimuli. Sixty-four ninth-grade students from a suburban elementary school in southern Taiwan participated in a story-telling program centered on explicit vocabulary instruction. The experimental and control groups were distinguished by a pedagogical difference: the former received just English instruction, while the latter received Chinese translation equivalents to the selected English vocabulary. The study's findings revealed that learners who were exposed to L1 translations not only learned more new words but were also faster at vocabulary retention.

Macaro and Lee (2013) investigated whether English-only instruction or using the L1 was more useful to young and adult learners in terms of vocabulary learning and retention. To determine whether the benefits of utilizing L1 as a vocabulary acquisition activity varied across contrastive age groups, elementary school children who had been studying English for a few years and people at university with demonstrably greater levels of proficiency were chosen. Although the use of the L1 was found to be more beneficial for young learners than for older learners, both age groups gained more from tying lexical elements to their L1 translation than from being provided with definitions or paraphrases.

According to second language acquisition studies (Dulay & Burt, 1973; Johnson & Newport, 1991), the difficulties and errors of foreign language learning cannot be entirely attributable to interference from the learner's first language.

An experiment looked into the sources of errors among native Spanish-speaking children learning English; Dulay and Burt (1973) discovered that just 3% of errors were caused by L1 interferences, with the remaining 85% being developmental. According to the findings, the anxiety associated with utilizing L1 in foreign language schools should be minimized. There is a large amount of evidence on instructors' use of L1 in the language classroom, which has been discovered by studying various ways and possibilities of employing students' knowledge of L1. The L1 is usually used by the teacher for translation, explanation, or classroom control. Students use their L1 in a variety of circumstances, including student-to-student discussion of completed work, task explanations to one another, and collaborative communication, particularly in learning.

Apart from the research, Greggio and Gil (2007) audio-recorded twelve class sessions of Portuguese-speaking novice EFL learners. The teacher used L1 as an effective method for explaining grammar and providing feedback during these sessions. The learners employed L1 as a feasible learning approach to clarify their grasp of the lecture topic and engage in class discussions. Based on their findings, the researchers hypothesized that L1 could play a significant role in encouraging interaction between classroom participants and foreign language learning. Liao (2006) discovered three strategic functions in employing L1 in her study of the use of L1 by Taiwanese college students studying English. First, L1 was used as a memory strategy to help them remember words, idioms, grammar, and sentence structures. Second, L1 was used as a successful strategy for minimizing learning anxiety and improving motivation to study English. Third, they employed L1 as a social strategy to help them ask questions or collaborate with others, which improved their learning results.

Teachers can use the L1 as a tool or essential scaffolding that is gradually removed over time, a time-efficient strategy that is helpful with students whose L2 proficiency is low, and as a bridge between the L1 and L2, giving a more comprehensible and comfortable learning environment. Cook (1997) also mentioned two languages in which the L2 meanings do not exist separately from the L1 meanings in the learner's thinking.

Finocchiaro and Boumfit (1983) believed that if practicable, reasonable use of L1 is acceptable. According to Krashen (1981), language learners develop competence when teachers expose them to a variety of understandable material. If the input is not understandable, the acquisition will be incomplete; the use of the mother tongue might be a useful tool. For example, if the content is too difficult for the students to understand or if comprehension depends on prior knowledge, the teacher can provide this background using the students' native language.

Similarly, Atkinson (1987) suggests employing the L1 equivalents for generating language and comprehension checks by both instructor and student in the form of "How do you say it in English?" As a result, using the first language can help with communicating in the target language. For a variety of other reasons, some academics oppose the monolingual approach to language training.

Hopkins (1988) argued that if another language learner is prompted to exclude and completely neglect his own language from the L2 learning process, he may feel identity threatened. Furthermore, Skinner (1985) opposed the use of the L2 exclusively in the classroom on practical grounds by stating the challenges associated with using the L2 exclusively in the classroom. Stern (1992) argued that learners' L1 might have a reasonable role in an FL classroom, hence challenging the traditional assumption of L2-only classrooms.

Furthermore, Auerbach (1993) stated that employing students' L1 instills a sense of comfort in them because they cannot express themselves and their experiences in their mother tongue without it, especially at the earliest stages of language development. In the same vein, Schweers (1999) emphasized the significance of using L1 sparingly and selectively in L2 classrooms to aid in the learning process. According to Eldridge (1996), there is little scientific evidence to support the idea that limiting mother tongue use would inevitably improve student efficiency. Atkinson (1987) also stated that "complete banning of the students' L1 is now outmoded" (p. 241). Learners' first language is a valuable resource for some scholars, not an impediment. Stern (1992), for example, considered the prudent utilization of L1 as a resource that converts input to intake.

Similarly, based on his experience, Cook (2001) concluded that optimal first language use is favorable to having more authentic L2 users. He further argued that discovering cognates and parallels between the languages produces "interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in the students' minds." Similarly, Cook (2001) and Tang (2002) concluded that using L1 on occasion by both students and teachers increased both understanding and L2 learning since L1 serves a supportive role in the classroom.

Blooth, Azman, and Ismail (2014) studied the usage of L1 in an EFL reading course at a Yemeni university. A mixed-methods strategy was used to collect data from a sample of 45 Yemeni university students studying English as a foreign language. Data was gathered using a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The findings show that students view Arabic (L1) as a functional approach in their EFL (L2) courses and that it is utilized for a variety of reasons, including translating new terms, defining concepts, providing explanations, and assisting one

another in groups. They concluded that L1 can be utilized by students as a scaffolding method to facilitate their learning and by teachers as a pedagogical tool to enhance learning experiences and maximize engagement in the classroom.

Miles (2004) aimed to show two points. First, employing L1 in the classroom does not impede learning; second, L1 serves as a facilitator in the classroom and can actually aid learning. Two experiments were conducted in an attempt to validate these beliefs. In the first, three classrooms were observed over a five-month period, during which time one session was English-only, one allowed only students to speak Japanese, and the third allowed both teachers and students to use Japanese. The second experiment compared four different lessons given to one class (two where Japanese was used and two where it was not permitted). Overall, the findings suggested potential support for both theories and, as a result, the usage of L1 in the classroom.

Afzal (2013) did a study on the use of L1 in EFL as a scaffolding method for both students and teachers learning and teaching English. According to the study's findings, the majority of teachers used L1 in L2 sessions. Although the major reasons for using L1 were to translate specific words, complicated ideas, or even entire passages, the study demonstrated that Persian plays a supportive and facilitating function in EFL lessons.

Hall and Cook (2013) conducted the largest research project on how students use L1 in English lessons, collecting data from 2,785 teachers in 111 countries. The most common uses they discovered were consulting or studying bilingual word lists or dictionaries, comparing English grammar to their own, and watching English-language films with L1 subtitles. All of these activities are beneficial to language acquisition. The next most common use of L1 was to prepare for tasks and activities before carrying them out in English.

Teachers may not always embrace this, but L1 can serve a variety of helpful purposes: (1) it can help students better understand what the activity demands; (2) it can lower the cognitive load of the task; (3) it can help students motivate one another. Without these preliminary steps in L1, the task may not be finished or even begun. Regrettably, Hall and Cook's (2013) study provided no data on students' usage of L1 in the classroom for off-task purposes, such as conversing about

issues unrelated to the lesson. Although such 'misbehavior' can be noticed in all types of courses, it is frequently more widespread among groups of youngsters at the upper end of primary school and the lowest levels of secondary school. At these ages, youngsters have a great desire to explore their budding identities by 'saying the proper talk' (Tarone & Swain, 1995). Avoiding the target language, English, and, as a result, a higher level of L1, may be a strategy for limiting the possibility of shame or unfavorable peer judgment. While these situations may appear to be punitive in nature, teachers must be mindful not to be overly tough. Acceptance of off-task behavior is frequently required for effective classroom management. Even if a zero-tolerance policy is imposed, it has the potential to make students even less eager to take risks when speaking English. Some L1 tolerance may be required in order to create a secure speaking environment.

Dujimoric (2014) conducted a study in the Croatian environment. Questionnaires were used to collect data. The findings revealed that translating some words, complicated ideas, or even the entire text is an effective approach to learning a foreign language. The teachers considered that Croatian could be used to assess students' understanding and ensure that they comprehended the content. He claims that Croatian performs a supportive and facilitating function in EFL sessions. Zohrabi, Yaghoubi-Notash, and Khodadadi (2014) explored the role of the first language of Iranian English foreign language learners in learning English vocabulary in Azarbayejan. A mixed-methods research methodology was adopted in this study. The study has 80 participants, including 50 EFL students and 30 EFL teachers. The findings showed that the majority of Azerbaijani-Turkish intermediate-level EFL learners and Azerbaijani-Turkish EFL teachers had good attitudes toward the usage of Turkish in learning English vocabulary.

Nazari (2008) researched Iranian university students' attitudes about using their mother tongue. Prodromou (2002), a well-known survey, was used, and the results contradicted all prior similar studies. Iranian university students acknowledged a reluctance to use their native language. According to Nazari (2008), Mahmoudi and Yazdi Amirkhiz (2011) did a study in Ahvaz, Iran, to examine classroom dynamics in terms of the quantity of L1 use in two randomly selected pre-university English classrooms. The goal was to find out what students and teachers thought about the use of L1 in L2 classrooms. For six sessions, the courses were observed and videotaped, and the professors and four high- and low-achieving students were interviewed. According to the

findings, excessive use of Persian may have a demotivating effect on students. As a result, the interviewed students expressed displeasure with the inappropriate usage and dominance of L1 in L2 sessions.

Larbah and Oliver (2015) evaluated the use of code-switching by adult Arabic students in four university classrooms in Western Australia. A data study revealed that code-switching was used in second-language schools. Code-switching serves significant tasks regardless of the level of Arabic knowledge of the students. Overall, access to the L1 via code-switching aided learners in developing linguistic competence in the L2 and aided their language learning. As a result, teachers must understand how moving between L1 and L2 might improve language acquisition.

Debreli and Oyman (2016) conducted a study to see if learners' educational backgrounds and L2 proficiency affect their perspectives of using Turkish in their L2 classrooms, as well as their perceptions and demands for using L1 in their classrooms. The study included 303 Turkish EFL students from the English Preparatory School of the European University of Lefke in Northern Cyprus. A questionnaire was used to collect the data. The findings revealed that EFL learners had strong positive attitudes about the incorporation of L1 in their L2 classes and that their attitudes were influenced by their demographic factors. Students with lower levels of L2 proficiency had more positive attitudes toward the use of L1.

Although the use of L1 in FL classes is appropriate, none of its advocates advocate for its limitless use. Several proponents (Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Wells, 1999) caution against the overuse of L1, instead recommending that it be used advantageously. According to these researchers, L1 should only be used to aid in the construction of knowledge in the target language, facilitate interpersonal interactions, and increase efficiency. L1 should not be given the same status as L2 in the classroom. FL teachers must support their students in utilizing their existing L1 to aid in their study of L2. According to research, L1 is not only an effective learning tool but also a great teaching approach when pedagogical activities are adequately structured. Students use L1 to aid comprehension and to alleviate any concerns that may arise as a result of their inadequate language ability. Instructors utilize L1 to solidify students' understanding of the foreign language, such as vocabulary, sentence structures, and cultural features. It is also

important to remember that an adequate amount of L1 use by teachers cannot be defined uniformly because it is dependent on students' competency levels and instructional aims. On a sliding scale, L1 can be utilized from introductory to lower intermediate. Lower-level students, particularly senior students, can benefit from explanations of grammar usage and directions. Finally, students' L1 is a really strong instrument that should not be rejected or abandoned in foreign language education. It is vital for teachers to recognize the value of their students' first language and to try to use it positively. No genuine foreign language teacher should overlook this principle.

3. Research Questions and Methodology

This chapter delves into the steps undertaken to answer the research questions formulated in this study. It consists of the following sections. First, the purpose and research questions of the study is described. Then, the comprehensive information about the participants is provided, including the number, age, sex, first language, and their location. Furthermore, the instruments which were employed and the procedure according to which the research was conducted are presented in the next sections.

3.1 Research Questions and Predictions

The purpose of the present study was to explore the effects of L1 (Persian) translation on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention. The following research questions were raised in order to address the objectives of the study:

RQ1: Does L1 translation have a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners?

RQ2: Does L1 translation have a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention in L1 Iranian L2 English learners?

Research questions 1 and 2 are raised based on the predictions of Grace (1998) that L1 translation made learners retain more words. Translation was deemed the favored alternative for foreign language beginners in this study because it allowed them to double-check the meanings of terms. Therefore, the following predictions are made in this study:

1. L1 translation will have a significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall.

2. L1 translation will have a significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary retention.

The predictions are based on Macaro and Lee (2013) who found that English using L1 was more useful to young and adult learners in terms of vocabulary recall and retention. Thus, it is expected that the EFL teachers' use of L1 (Persian) translation of words for Iranian EFL learners may help the learners improve their L2 (English) vocabulary recall and retention.

3.2 Methodology

The methodology of the present study is based on Camó and Ballester (2015). They investigated the impact of the L1 on young learners' retention and access to English vocabulary. The study conducted by Codina Camó and Pladevall Ballester involved a total of 34 students from two fifth grade groups in a Catalan primary school. The participants were all between the ages of 10 and 11 when the study took place. The two groups were differentiated based on their instructional practice regarding explicit vocabulary teaching. The control group received instruction solely in English, while the experimental group was given the L1 translation of the selected lexical items. The control group consisted of 16 students, comprising 7 males and 9 females, while the experimental group included 18 participants, consisting of 8 males and 10 females. It is important to note that all the children in the study had Catalan as their first language, and English was considered a foreign language for all of them. Additionally, these students had commenced their English instruction as part of the curriculum at the age of five and had been exposed to three hours of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) per week since then.

The control group received instruction solely in English, while the experimental group was given translations of selected vocabulary words in their mother tongue. The chosen story for the study was "The Tale of Peter Rabbit," and 20 vocabulary words were taught using a video presentation of the story. Before starting the study, a vocabulary test was administered to ensure the groups were comparable, and the experimental group scored slightly higher. To further analyze the effects of using the mother tongue, a computerized test measuring reaction times was used to determine how quickly each group accessed the vocabulary words. After completing the test, individual interviews were conducted to ask subjects if translations came to mind during the test.

Finally, a third post-test was administered after a month to examine long-term memory effects. The results showed that there were statistically significant differences in word retention between post-test I and post-test III for the control group, but not for the experimental group. This suggests that the participants provided with L1 translations did not show a significant decrease in word retention even after a month without instruction.

The present study is different in terms of context, L1, and test conditions. This study involved two groups with no randomization. Therefore, the design of this study is quasi-experimental with pretest, treatment, and posttest. In many educational settings, the implementation of a true experimental study is not possible since the possibilities are not convenient. On the other hand, doing quasi-experimental studies sounds more natural because in real life the research setting bears resemblance to what is real. The independent variable of this study was L1 translation and the dependent variables of this study were vocabulary recall and retention. In this design, one control and one experimental group compared with each other based on the results of their pretests and posttests. The treatment of the study consists of L1 translation of words which was applied as a technique in vocabulary instruction.

3.3 Participants

The participants included 28 students of 6th grade both male and female learners whose age ranged from 12 to 13, with Persian as their native language and English as their L2. They studied English in a private language institute in Iran. All the participants started learning English at the age of 9 and from that time on, they have been exposed to English 4 hours a week for at least three years. Their exposure to English language instruction was equal.

Participants under the age of 15 must have their parents' permission to participate in the study, according to the Norwegian Center for Research Data (NSD). Participants in the present study needed their parents' permission to participate. Participants were informed about the test, and each participant received an information sheet as well as a consent form to be signed by their parents. Before conducting the experiment, the letters were returned to the institute. The participants' identity was anonymous and they were given a code (consisting of their mothers'

two-letter initial names and two digits of their phone number) to participate in this study. The data were collected during the Winter semester of 2023.

The participants were selected based on convenient random sampling. Their level of English language proficiency was checked based on their performance on English language proficiency test. The selected participants were assigned to two equal groups of control ($n = 14$) and experimental ($n = 14$) based on simple random sampling. During the study, the control group only received the English form of the lexical items while the experimental group was provided with both the English form and the L1 translation of the chosen lexical items. The researcher was not the teacher; therefore, the required data for conducting this study was collected by the teacher.

3.4 Materials and Instruments

The following materials were used in this study to implement the vocabulary instruction.

3.4.1 Story

The study's pre-selected story was *The Tale of Peter Rabbit* (Potter, 1902). Twenty lexical items were chosen to be explicitly taught in this study. The selected lexical items were presented through the story since stories provide relevant and rich input while also increasing learners' motivation, interest, satisfaction, and pleasure in vocabulary learning. *The Story of Peter Rabbit* is a children's book written and drawn by Beatrix Potter that follows mischievous and disobedient young Peter Rabbit as he enters and is chased throughout Mr. McGregor's garden. He flees and comes home, where his mother puts him to bed after providing him chamomile tea.

For two reasons, this story was deemed appropriate for the study. For beginners (in terms of English language proficiency), it gives a straightforward plot that allows students to concentrate not only on the story line but also on the selected language. Second, the fact that the story takes place in a rural location aided in the discovery of several unique vocabulary words that were almost probably not previously known.

The story-telling practice, which was performed by the researcher, was piloted with five students similar to the participants of this study in terms of age and language proficiency level. Some of the participants of the pilot study mentioned that the using flashcards was not so funny and attractive for them. Some others liked the presentation of the story through flashcards. The researcher decided to include videos of the story in presentation in order to make it more attractive for the participants of this study.

3.4.2 Flashcards

In this study, vocabulary flashcards played a crucial role in teaching vocabulary items to the participants. Each of the 20 vocabulary items that were to be tested was paired with a corresponding flashcard. These flashcards were designed to include an image representing the vocabulary item on one side and its corresponding spelling counterpart on the other side. By utilizing visual cues, the flashcards aimed to enhance the participants' understanding and retention of the vocabulary items.

The flashcards were employed in a structured manner, with each group receiving different instructions and approaches. The experimental group received instructions that included both the English name of the vocabulary item and its translated counterpart in their native language (L1). This approach allowed the participants in the experimental group to make connections between the English words and their L1 equivalents, facilitating a deeper understanding of the vocabulary items. The inclusion of L1 translation aimed to provide additional support and scaffolding for the participants, particularly for those who may have struggled with comprehending the English terms independently. The participants were presented with the flashcards before engaging in the story or video activity. By introducing the vocabulary items beforehand, the flashcards served as a way to familiarize the participants with the target words and facilitate comprehension during the subsequent activities.

In contrast, in the control group, the participants were provided with only the English names of the vocabulary items without any translation. This approach aimed to immerse the participants in an English-only environment, encouraging them to rely solely on their

understanding of the English language to comprehend and learn the vocabulary items. By excluding L1 translation, the control group focused on promoting direct association between the English words and their meanings.

The flashcards were integrated into the story or video activity itself. As the participants of the control group encountered each vocabulary item within the narrative, the corresponding flashcard was shown to reinforce the meaning and association between the word and its visual representation. This integration aimed to create a more immersive and contextualized learning experience, allowing the participants to connect the vocabulary items directly with the story or video content.

Regarding the selection of nouns for the flashcards, a careful and deliberate process was followed. The nouns chosen for the flashcards were based on their relevance to the story or video activity. They were selected to align with the vocabulary objectives of the study and were deemed essential for the participants' comprehension and engagement with the narrative. Additionally, considerations such as frequency of use, familiarity to the learners, and age-appropriateness were taken into account to ensure the flashcards catered to the participants' learning needs and interests.

By using vocabulary flashcards into the study, the researchers aimed to provide visual and contextual support for the participants' vocabulary acquisition process. The combination of visual stimuli and meaningful contexts offered by the flashcards, along with the story or video activities, sought to enhance the participants' vocabulary learning experience and promote better retention of the target words.

3.4.3 Placement Test

The Oxford Placement Test for Young Learners (OPT Young Learners) is an assessment tool specifically designed to evaluate the English language proficiency of young learners aged 7 to 12. The OPT Young Learners is aligned with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) levels, which provides a standardized framework for describing language proficiency. The test covers levels A1 on the CEFR scale, which represent the elementary stage of language learning.

It is developed and published by Oxford University Press, a renowned publisher in the field of English language teaching and learning materials. The OPT Young Learners is widely used by educators, schools, and language centers to determine the appropriate English language level for young learners and place them in suitable language courses or programs. The primary purpose of the OPT Young Learners is to assess the language proficiency of young learners in the skills of listening, reading, and grammar. It helps identify the learners' strengths and areas for improvement, enabling educators to tailor instruction to meet their specific needs.

The OPT Young Learners is a computer-based test that consists of multiple-choice questions. The test is adaptive, meaning that the difficulty level of the questions adjusts based on the learners' responses. It starts with an initial question of moderate difficulty and adapts based on whether the answer is correct or incorrect, aiming to find the appropriate level of challenge for each learner.

The OPT Young Learners comprises three main sections: Listening, Reading, and Grammar. The Listening section assesses the learners' ability to understand spoken English through audio recordings. The Reading section evaluates their reading comprehension skills by presenting them with texts and related questions. The Grammar section focuses on assessing their knowledge and understanding of grammatical structures and usage.

The duration of the OPT Young Learners varies depending on the learners' proficiency level and the number of questions presented. On average, the test takes approximately 45 minutes to complete. After completing the OPT Young Learners, learners receive a score report that indicates their overall level of English proficiency and provides a breakdown of their performance in each skill area. This information helps educators and parents make informed decisions about the learners' language learning pathway and select appropriate learning materials and resources.

3.4.4 Pre-test and Post-tests

For the experimental group, the study consisted of a pre-test and three post-tests. Pre-test consists of a 20-item vocabulary test that was administered to the learners before the treatments of

the study. This test was designed based on the key vocabulary items in the story to measure the learners' vocabulary knowledge.

The pre-test included 20 essential components from the story, which were broken into three portions. This allowed the learners to swiftly choose from six to eight photos. Students were required to listen to a recording and count a set of lexical items. They had to write down the number that came before a lexical item on the test sheet, which included photos of the objects that corresponded to the lexical items they chose. A sample of test sheet is shown in Figure 3.1.



Figure 3.1 Sample of pre-test sheet

Similar versions of the pre-test were administered three times to the experimental group. The first post-test (post-test I) was immediately after receiving instruction to assess learners' vocabulary gain. The second post-test (post-test II) was administered seven days later to assess

learners' vocabulary retention. The third post-test (post-test III) was conducted three weeks after the last session of instruction to measure the participants' vocabulary maintenance. Pre-test and post-tests were all scored out of 20. The results of these tests were compared to determine the effectiveness of using the treatment.

The control group followed the same procedure as the experimental group, except they did not receive the treatment. They served as a comparison group to assess the impact of the treatment on the experimental group's vocabulary gain, retention, and maintenance. the procedure outlined above describes the steps involved in assessing the effectiveness of the treatment by comparing the pre-test and post-test scores for both groups.

3.4.5 Mock Test

The inclusion of a mock test in the study serves several important purposes and provides comprehensive justifications for its implementation. Here is a detailed elaboration:

1. Familiarization with test format: The mock test was designed based on vocabulary items that the participants were already familiar with, specifically fruits. By presenting a similar test format to the participants before the administration of the actual pre-test, it aimed to familiarize them with the structure and expectations of the test. This familiarity helps reduce test anxiety and allows participants to focus on demonstrating their true knowledge and abilities during the actual test.
2. Understanding test instructions: The mock test was completed in the presence of the participants, providing an opportunity for them to understand and clarify any uncertainties regarding the test instructions. By observing the completion of the mock test, participants could gain a better understanding of how to fill out the actual test accurately. This step is crucial to ensure that participants fully comprehend the requirements and expectations of the test, minimizing potential confusion or misunderstanding during the actual assessment.
3. Audio Recordings: To design the mock test, pre-test, and subsequent post-tests, two distinct native speakers were asked to utter numerals from 1 to 8 followed by the target

lexical items. The recordings were carefully selected to choose the most clear and understandable version for use in the tests. This ensures that the audio component of the test is of high quality, allowing participants to accurately hear and comprehend the lexical items being presented. Clear audio recordings contribute to the validity and reliability of the assessment, ensuring that participants have a fair opportunity to demonstrate their vocabulary knowledge.

Overall, the inclusion of a mock test in the study is justified by its role in familiarizing participants with the test format, ensuring understanding of test instructions, and providing clear and high-quality audio recordings. These factors contribute to the validity, reliability, and fairness of the assessments conducted in the study.

3.5 Procedure

In this study, the researchers began by administering a placement test to assess the participants' overall proficiency in the English language. This was done to ensure that the participants were similar in terms of their language abilities. After the placement test, the participants were randomly divided into two groups: the experimental group (consisting of 14 participants) and the control group (also consisting of 14 participants). Random assignment helps to ensure that any differences observed between the groups are not due to pre-existing characteristics or biases.

To familiarize the learners with the format and conditions of the upcoming tests, they were given a mock test. This mock test served as a practice round for the participants. Following the mock test, both the experimental and control groups took a pre-test. The purpose of this pre-test was to establish the participants' initial knowledge of the test items before any intervention or instruction took place. The participants answered the test items on an answer sheet.

It is worth noting that the pre-test was blindly corrected by the researcher. This means that the researcher grading the pre-test was unaware of which group each participant belonged to. Blind correction helps to minimize any potential bias in the grading process.

Following the completion of the pre-test, one session of storytelling was dedicated to each group. In both the experimental and control groups, the vocabulary instruction was based on storytelling. Initially, storytelling was planned to be done with both video of the story and flashcards depicting various moments from the narrative.

The film was played twice for both groups. The first time the video was played non-stop and the participants only listened and watched the video without interruption. During the second repetition, it was paused whenever a lexical item chosen for the study appeared. When the story was paused, the flashcard of the specific item was shown to the students. Every time a target lexical item emerged, repetition was also encouraged. In other words, the teacher drew the students' attention to the flashcard for the specific item that was displayed to the students and asked them to repeat the word in order to emphasize the selected lexical items.

The difference between the instructions of groups was the use of L1 translation for lexical items presented in flashcards in the experimental group. In the control group, only the English names of the items with no translation were given. The experimental group, on the other hand, was given both the English name of the item and its translated counterpart.

When all twenty-vocabulary items were taught, the participants of both groups had a 20-minute break. After the break, the immediate post-test (post-test I) was administered to both groups in order to measure their vocabulary gain compared to the pre-test. Seven days after the instruction, the second post-test (post-test II) was administered in order to measure the participants' retention of vocabulary items. Finally, the post-test III was administered three weeks later in order to measure the learners' long-term retention of vocabulary items. The tests were scored blindly by the researcher and were submitted to statistical analyses.

4. Results

In this chapter, an in-depth analysis of the proficiency test, as well as the pretest and posttest results, is undertaken. Firstly, the results of the proficiency test are discussed, serving as an initial assessment to evaluate the language skills of the participants prior to the intervention. By assessing the participants' proficiency levels at the beginning of the study, a baseline is established against which their progress after the intervention can be compared. Next, the examination of the pretest and posttest measures is carried out. By comparing the participants' scores on the pretest and posttest, the effectiveness of the intervention can be assessed. Finally, a summary of analyses done in this chapter is provided.

4.1 Results of the Oxford Placement Test

Table 4.1 presents the results of the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) for all 34 participants who were recruited for the current study. The OPT is a standardized assessment used to evaluate the learners' English language proficiency. The maximum score achievable in the OPT is 80, however, none of the participants reached the top score.

The participants' scores are divided into four levels based on the score ranges: 0-20, 20-40, 40-60, and 60-80. The score range of 0-20 represents the lowest level, A1, which indicates a relatively low level of English language proficiency. In this study, four participants scored within this range, accounting for 11.76% of the total participants. Therefore, they were excluded from the main study.

The majority of the participants, 28 in total, scored within the range of 21-40 points. This range is classified as level A2, representing an elementary level of English language proficiency. According to the OPT guidelines, at the A2 CEFR level, language learners can comprehend and understand commonly used expressions in various areas of daily life such as shopping, family, employment, etc. While learners may encounter some difficulty understanding more complex or nuanced language, they can generally grasp the meaning of commonly used expressions and phrases. In addition, they can perform routine tasks that involve a direct exchange of information and describe immediate needs and basic aspects of their life in simple terms. Learners can express

themselves using straightforward language and vocabulary to talk about topics that are relevant to their immediate circumstances. These participants accounted for 82.35% of the total participants in the present study.

The remaining two participants achieved scores above 40 in the OPT suggesting a higher level of proficiency beyond the elementary level (A2).

For the current study, it was essential to ensure that the participants shared a similar level of language proficiency to maintain the homogeneity of the group. Therefore, the four participants at the lowest proficiency level (0-20 on the OPT) and two participants at the higher level (40-80 on the OPT) were excluded from the analysis. This decision was made in order to maintain the homogeneity of the participant group and ensure the accuracy of the analysis. By doing so, the analysis could focus exclusively on the remaining 28 participants who scored within the range of 20-40 on the OPT, aligning with the elementary level (A2) proficiency. Removing these six participants allowed the analysis to provide a more accurate representation of the language proficiency levels of participants within the elementary level range.

In research analysis, the practice of excluding participants with outlier scores is commonly employed to ensure the data and subsequent findings accurately represent the intended population and research objectives. In this case, by excluding the six participants with scores outside the A2 range, the analysis maintained the homogeneity of participants in terms of their language proficiency level. As a result, a more reliable understanding of the language proficiency levels at the elementary level could be obtained.

The participants were then divided into two equal groups of control and experimental randomly, each of which consisted of 14 learners.

Table 4.1 *Results of the Oxford Placement Test*

Score Range	Number of participants	Percentage of participants
0-20	4	11.76%
21-40	28	82.35%
41-60	2	5.88%
61-80	0	0.0

Total	34	100
--------------	-----------	------------

4.2 Results of the Pre-test and Immediate Post-test

The pre-test aimed at measuring the learners' vocabulary knowledge prior to intervention. Thus, the test was administered to the learners before the intervention. This test was designed to test 20 vocabulary items which were the key vocabulary items in the story. Table 4.2 shows the descriptive statistics of two groups, experimental and control, before the intervention. The experimental group, consisting of 14 participants, has a minimum score of 5, a maximum score of 11, a mean score of 7.92, and a standard deviation of 1.81. Similarly, the control group, also with 14 participants, has a minimum score of 5, a maximum score of 10, a mean score of 8.07, and a standard deviation of 1.32. The Valid N (listwise) value of 14 indicates that there are no missing data points in the dataset.

Table 4.2 *Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups on the pre-test*

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental (pretest)	14	5.00	11.00	7.9286	1.81720
Control (pretest)	14	5.00	10.00	8.0714	1.32806
Valid N (listwise)	14				

It is clear in Table 4.2 that the results for both groups were relatively low overall. Some students in both the experimental and control groups identified only 5 nouns, while others were able to identify up to 11 nouns. This indicates a variation in the performance of the participants.

Examining the individual nouns, some can be classified as easy words, such as "bakery," "root," "wood," "pond," "rake," "gate," "bush," "gooseberry," "hoe," "tears," and "blackberries." These nouns likely have more common associations and are more familiar to the participants. On the other hand, some words can be classified as difficult or problematic for students, including

"sparrow," "wheelbarrow," "willow tree," "watering can," "parsley," "lettuce," "flower pot," "scarecrow," and "toolshed." These nouns may have posed a greater challenge due to their specificity or less common usage.

Analyzing the performance and identification of easy and difficult words can provide insights into areas of strength and areas that may require further focus during language learning activities. Additionally, it is crucial to consider individual participant results and their specific performance on each noun to gain a comprehensive understanding of how participants engage with and comprehend different vocabulary items.

In order to make sure there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in their performance on pre-test, an independent sample t-test was conducted. The results are shown in Table 4.3. The Levene's test for equality of variances showed that the assumption of equal variances is supported ($F = 1.177, p = .288$). The t-test for equality of means indicates that there was no significant difference between the means of the two groups in the pre-test ($t = -0.23, df = 26, p = .814$). Overall, these results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the performance of the experimental and control groups on the pre-test.

Table 4.3 *Independent sample t-test between the experimental and control groups on pre-test*

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper	
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	1.177	.288	- .237	26	.814	-.14286	.60154	-1.379	1.09363
	Equal variances not assumed			- .237	23.805	.814	-.14286	.60154	-1.384	1.09920

The slight difference between the experimental and control groups on pre-test is shown in Figure 4.1.

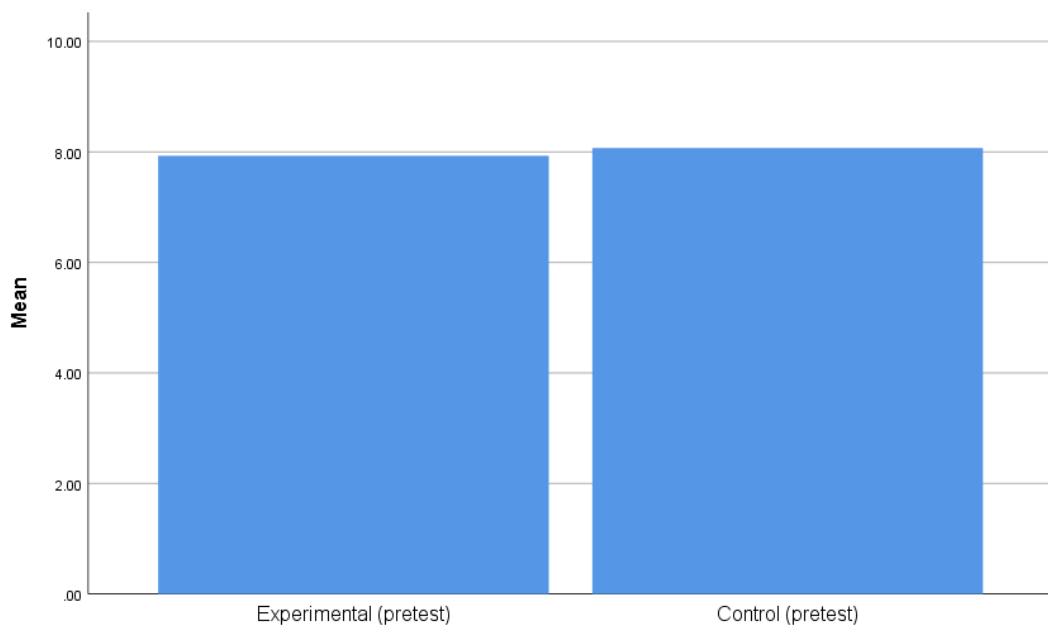
Figure 4.1 *The differences between the experimental and the control groups on the pre-test*

Table 4.4 presents the results of the participants' performance in the immediate post-test. The experimental group has a mean score of 18, and a standard deviation of 1.56. The control group has a mean score of 16, and a standard deviation of 1.17. The most difficult words for the participants on the post-test were 'wheelbarrow', 'parsley', 'scarecrow', 'toolshed'.

Table 4.4 *Descriptive statistics of the participants' performance in the immediate post-test*

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental (posttest1)	14	16.00	20.00	18.0000	1.56893
Control (posttest1)	14	14.00	18.00	16.0000	1.17670
Valid N (listwise)	14				

In order to answer the first research question of the study in finding whether L1 translation has



positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners, an independent sample t-test was performed between the immediate post-test scores of the experimental and control groups. The statistical analysis of results of the immediate post-test are shown in Table 4.5. Levene's test for equality of variances indicates that the assumption of equal variances is supported ($F = 1.156, p = .292$). The t-test for equality of means shows a statistically significant difference ($t = 3.816, df = 26, p = .001$) between the immediate post-test scores of the two groups. Overall, these findings indicate that there is a significant difference in the immediate post-test scores between the experimental and control groups, with the experimental group scoring significantly higher.

Table 4.5. *Independent sample t-test between the immediate post-test scores of the experimental and control groups*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Immediate Post-test	Equal variances assumed	1.156	.292	3.816	26	.001	2.00000	.52414	.92261	3.07739
	Equal variances not assumed			3.816	24.110	.001	2.00000	.52414	.91848	3.08152

Figure 4.2 shows the differences between the groups on the immediate posttest. Therefore, L1 translation has a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners and the first research question of the study was answered.

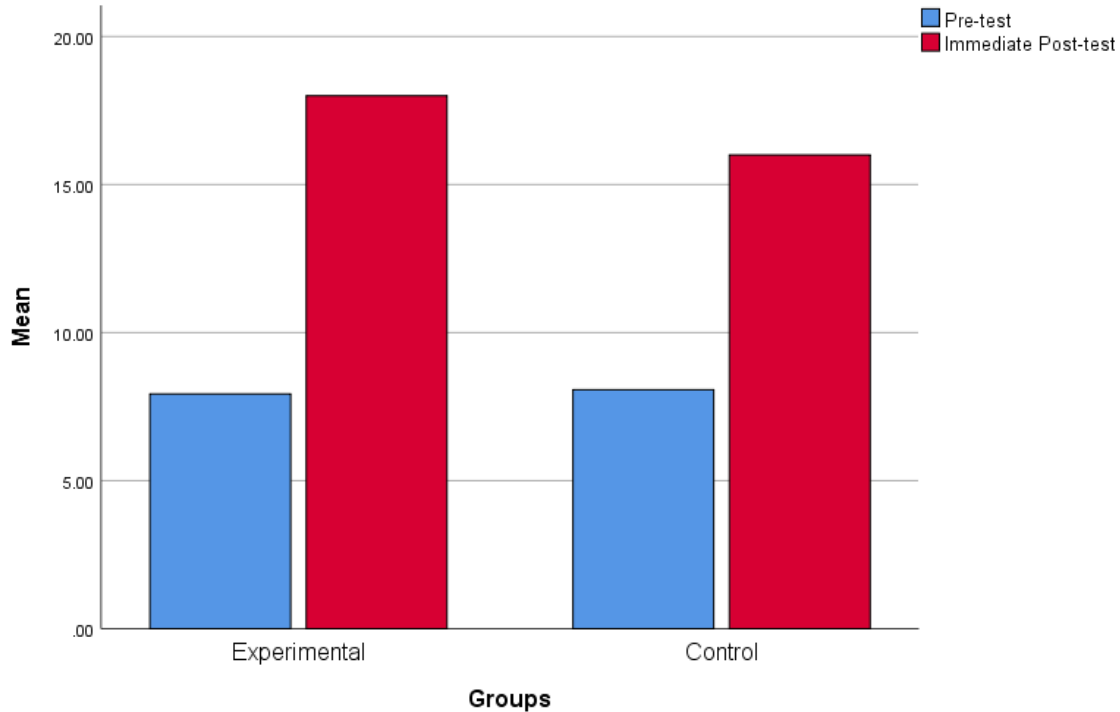


Figure 4.2 *The differences between the experimental and the control groups on the immediate posttest.*

4.3 Results of the Delayed Post-test

The results of the participants' performance in the experimental and control groups on the delayed post-test are shown in Table 4.6. The experimental group has a sample size of 14, with a minimum score of 14, a maximum score of 18, a mean score of 16.21, and a standard deviation of 1.25. The control group also has a sample size of 14, with a minimum score of 11, a maximum score of 16, a mean score of 12.92, and a standard deviation of 1.43. Interestingly, both groups scored lower in the delayed post-test compared to the immediate post-test: 16.21 vs. 18.00 respectively for the experimental group and 12.92 vs. 16.00 respectively for the control group.

Table 4.6 *Descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the delayed posttest*

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental (posttest2)	14	14.00	18.00	16.2143	1.25137
Control (posttest2)	14	11.00	16.00	12.9286	1.43925
Valid N (listwise)	14				

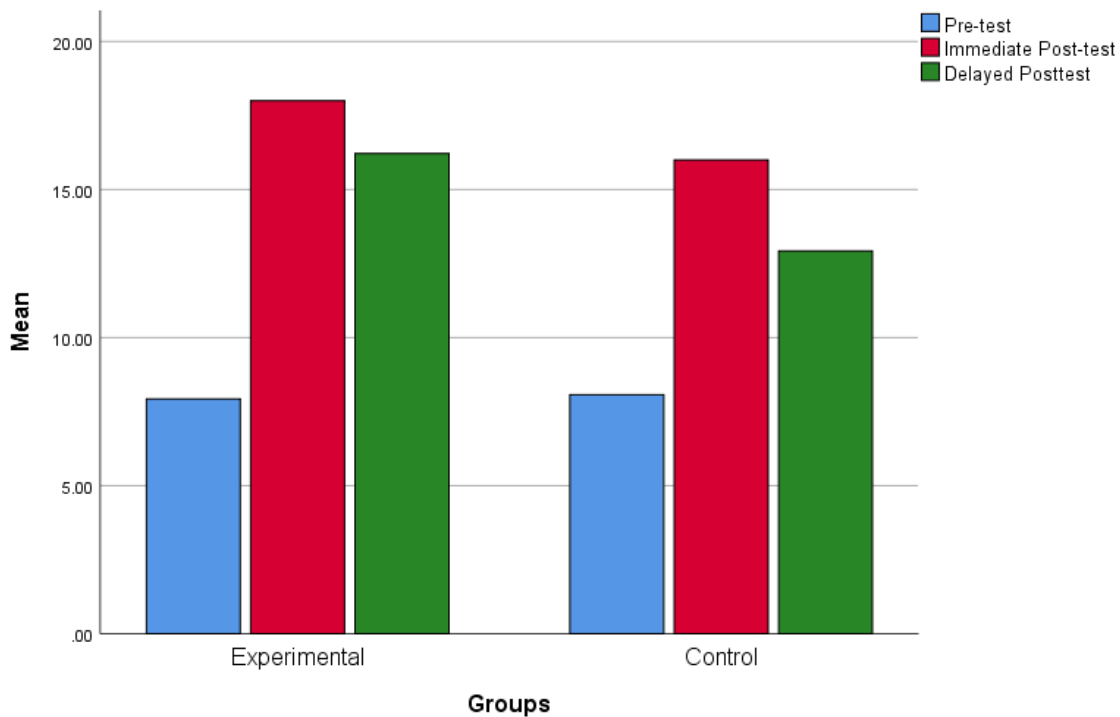
In order to answer the second research question in examining whether L1 translation has a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention in L1 Iranian L2 English learners, an independent sample t-test was performed on the participants' scores in the experimental and control groups on the delayed posttest. The results are shown in Table 4.6. The Levene's test for equality of variances showed that the variances were equal ($F = 0.08, p = 0.76$). The t-value was 6.446 with 26 degrees of freedom, and the p-value was less than 0.001, indicating that the difference between the means was statistically significant. Therefore, the results suggest that L1 translation has a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention in L1 Iranian L2 English learners and the second research question of the study was answered.

Table 4.7 Independent sample t-test between the experimental and control groups on delayed posttest

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper	
Delayed Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.089	.767	6.446	26	.000	3.28571	.50972	2.23798	4.33345
	Equal variances not assumed			6.446	25.507	.000	3.28571	.50972	2.23699	4.33444

The differences between the experimental and control groups from pretest to posttests are presented in Figure 4.3. As can be seen, both the experimental and control groups' scores on the pre-test were relatively low, showing little knowledge of the test vocabulary items.

In the immediate post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group. The differences between the groups were not dramatic, yet significant. The higher mean score of the experimental group suggests that the use of L1 translation had a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary. The experimental group benefited from the intervention, which involved L1 translation. In the delayed post-test, the experimental group, which received the L1 translation intervention, demonstrated better long-term vocabulary retention compared to the



control group. The comparison of performances from the pre-test to the immediate and delayed post-tests highlights the impact of the L1 translation intervention on vocabulary recall and retention. Both immediately after the intervention and in the long term, the experimental group showed significantly better performance compared to the control group.

Figure 4.3 *The comparison of the participants' performance in the three tests*

4.4 Summary of the results

In Chapter 4 I performed the analyses of the results, including the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test. This was done in order to address the study's two research questions: (1) Does L1 translation have a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners? and (2) Does L1 translation have a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention in L1 Iranian L2 English learners?

Table 4.1 shows the scores, frequency, and percentage of 34 students on the OPT, with 28 of them falling within the range of elementary level. The participants were then divided into two equal groups of control and experimental, each consisting of 14 learners. Table 4.2 shows the descriptive statistics of the two groups before the experiment, indicating no significant differences between the groups. An independent sample t-test was conducted to confirm this. Table 4.4 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the immediate post-test, with the experimental group scoring higher than the control group. An independent sample t-test was conducted to confirm this, and the results showed a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Figure 4.1 shows the differences between the groups on the immediate post-test. The delayed post-test results are shown in Table 4.6, with the experimental group scoring higher than the control group. An independent sample t-test was conducted to confirm this, and the results showed a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Figure 4.2 shows the difference between the experimental and control groups. Overall, the results suggest that L1 translation has a positive effect on the immediate recall and long-term vocabulary retention of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners.

The comprehensive statistical analysis presented in Chapter 4 sheds light on the patterns, relationships, and insights that emerged from the data, offering a deeper understanding of the research questions and objectives addressed in the thesis. The results suggest that L1 translation has a positive effect on both the immediate recall and long-term vocabulary retention of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners.

5. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to find the effects of L1 translation on the immediate recall and long-term retention of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners. In this chapter, the focus shifts towards a comprehensive discussion of the findings obtained from the research study. The primary objective of this chapter is to critically analyze and interpret the data collected in relation to the research questions and objectives and compare them with similar previous studies.

5.1 The First Research Question

The first research question of the study was:

- Does L1 translation have a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners?

In the present study, the experimental group, which received L1 translation assistance, achieved a mean score of 18 with a standard deviation of 1.56 on the immediate post-test. Comparatively, the control group, which did not receive translation assistance, obtained a mean score of 16 with a standard deviation of 1.17. These findings suggest that the experimental group performed better in recalling the L2 English vocabulary compared to the control group. This supports the initial prediction that L1 translation would have a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners.

Similarly, in Camo and Ballester's (2015) study, they investigated the effect of L1 glosses on immediate recall in young learners. Although specific mean scores and standard deviations are not provided, their results indicate that the experimental group, which received L1 glosses, performed significantly better than the control group in terms of immediate vocabulary recall.

Both studies demonstrate that the inclusion of L1 translation or glosses in vocabulary instruction can enhance the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary. The experimental groups, which had access to L1 support, achieved higher scores compared to the control groups that did

not receive such assistance. It is worth noting that while the specific methodologies and participant characteristics may differ between the two studies, the overall findings align in showing the positive impact of L1 translation or glosses on immediate vocabulary recall.

These consistent findings across the present study and Camo and Ballester (2015) support the notion that incorporating L1 translation can be beneficial for learners, such as L1 Iranian learners, in enhancing their immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary. However, it is important to consider the limitations of individual studies and the need for further research to explore the generalizability of these findings across different learner populations and instructional contexts.

L1 translation provides learners with a bridge to connect the new vocabulary in L2 (English) to their existing linguistic knowledge and meanings in L1 (Persian). When learners see the L1 translation alongside the English lexical items, it activates their previous knowledge, making the new L2 vocabulary more accessible and memorable. The findings revealed that learners who received L1 glosses were able to recall vocabulary more accurately than those who did not receive any translation assistance.

In this study, the use of L1 translation during vocabulary learning demonstrated a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary among L1 Iranian learners. The experimental group, which received L1 glosses or translations, achieved significantly better scores in the immediate post-test compared to the control group that did not receive translation assistance. These findings align with previous research conducted by Hakimi (2016), which also focused on the role of L1 translation in L2 vocabulary acquisition among Iranian EFL learners. Hakimi's study similarly found that L1 translation positively influenced vocabulary recall. This consistency suggests that L1 translation can enhance vocabulary learning outcomes among L1 Iranian learners specifically. However, it is important to note that while this study and Hakimi's (2016) study share similar findings, there may be variations in terms of specific methodologies, sample sizes, instructional contexts, and vocabulary learning tasks employed. These variations could influence the magnitude and generalizability of the results. It is also worth considering other studies in the broader literature on L2 vocabulary acquisition and the role of L1 translation.

Some studies have reported mixed or limited effects of L1 translation on vocabulary learning, highlighting the need for careful considerations in the implementation of translation-based strategies (e.g., Bernardini, 2001; Pawlak, 2012). Additionally, research has emphasized the importance of promoting direct engagement with the L2 language to foster long-term vocabulary development and reduce reliance on L1 translation (Cook, 2010).

L1 translation can evoke emotional connections and associations for learners. Words and phrases in L1 are often linked to personal experiences, cultural contexts, and emotional responses. When learners encounter an L2 vocabulary item along with its L1 translation, they might connect it to their personal experiences or emotional associations, making the vocabulary more memorable and easier to recall. This activation helps establish connections between L2 and L1, facilitating the encoding and retrieval of vocabulary items. Research studies have explored the impact of L1 translation on L2 vocabulary acquisition and recall, suggesting that it can be beneficial for learners. For instance, a study by Hu and Nation (2000) investigated the effectiveness of L1 glosses (translations) in facilitating L2 vocabulary acquisition. To sum up, the use of L1 translation alongside L2 English vocabulary items has demonstrated a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners. By activating prior knowledge, establishing connections between languages, reducing cognitive load, and evoking emotional associations, L1 translation enhances learners' comprehension, retention, and retrieval of L2 vocabulary items.

The results of this study support the findings of Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011), who investigated the impact of L1 translation on the learning of L2 vocabulary. They found that L1 translation provided learners with a useful tool for understanding and remembering L2 vocabulary, leading to improved recall.

The findings of this study are in line with those of Rott and Williams (2003), who examined the effects of L1 glosses (L1 translations) on L2 vocabulary learning. They found that L1 glosses facilitated vocabulary acquisition by providing learners with a direct link between L2 words and their L1 equivalents. This aided comprehension and retention of L2 vocabulary.

The results of this study acknowledge the findings of Yilmaz (2011), who investigated the role of L1 translation in L2 vocabulary acquisition. Yilmaz found that when learners were provided with bilingual glosses (L1 translations), their comprehension and recall of L2 vocabulary significantly improved compared to a control group that only received L2 definitions or explanations.

This study's findings confirm the results of Nassaji and Swain (2000), who explored the effects of L1 translation and L2 definitions on vocabulary learning. They found that providing learners with L1 translations alongside L2 definitions enhanced their understanding and recall of L2 vocabulary, emphasizing the importance of L1 support in vocabulary acquisition.

The findings of this study approve those of Heredia and Altarriba (2001), who investigated the effects of L1 translation on L2 vocabulary learning. Heredia and Altarriba found that L1 translation facilitated the comprehension and recall of L2 vocabulary by activating cognitive processes involved in bilingual processing, such as cross-linguistic connections and conceptual transfer. The findings of Nazari (2008), which explored Iranian university students' attitudes towards using their mother tongue, and the results contradicted prior studies. It is important to note that attitudes towards L1 usage may vary depending on the context and participants involved. While Iranian university students acknowledged a reluctance to use their native language, it should be noted that the focus of this study is on university students, whereas the previous study focused on young learners in a different context (6th-grade students).

Mahmoudi and Yazdi Amirkhiz (2011) conducted a study in Ahvaz, Iran, to examine classroom dynamics and L1 use in pre-university English classrooms. The findings indicated that excessive use of Persian (L1) may have a demotivating effect on students. This finding resonates with the potential negative impact of excessive L1 use emphasized in the previous study. However, it should be noted that the context of the two studies is different, with one focusing on vocabulary learning and the other on general classroom dynamics.

Larbah and Oliver (2015) evaluated code-switching by adult Arabic students in university classrooms in Western Australia. The study found that code-switching between L1 and L2

provided significant benefits for language development and language learning. While code-switching is different from L1 translation, both involve the use of the native language in an L2 learning context. The findings of Larbah and Oliver's study suggest that using L1 in L2 classrooms can aid language acquisition, which aligns with the potential benefits of L1 translation in the previous study.

Debreli and Oyman (2016) examined Turkish EFL students' perspectives on using Turkish (L1) in L2 classrooms. The study found that EFL learners had positive attitudes towards the incorporation of L1 in their L2 classes, especially for those with lower levels of L2 proficiency. This finding supports the idea that L1 support can be beneficial for language learners, as it helps them bridge the gap between L1 and L2 and enhance language acquisition. It is worth noting that while the focus of the Debreli and Oyman (2016) study was on language use in general classroom settings, it aligns with the potential benefits of using L1 translation in the vocabulary learning process, as shown in the previous study.

The findings of Blooth, Azman, and Ismail (2014) are relevant to the use of L1 in language learning contexts. They observed that students in an EFL reading course at a Yemeni university utilized Arabic (L1) as a functional approach in their L2 (English) courses. This aligns with the findings of the current study, as L1 translation was used as a tool to facilitate vocabulary acquisition and comprehension in L2 English. Miles (2004) conducted experiments to explore the impact of L1 usage in the classroom. The findings suggested that utilizing L1 did not impede learning and could actually serve as a facilitator. This supports the findings of the current study, which showed that L1 translation had a positive effect on the immediate recall of L2 English vocabulary in Iranian learners. Both studies provide evidence for the potential benefits of incorporating L1 in language learning settings.

Afzal (2013) examined the use of L1 (Persian) as a scaffolding method in EFL lessons. The study found that Persian played a supportive and facilitating role in EFL instruction. This is consistent with the findings of the current study, where L1 translation served as a support tool for Iranian learners in retaining L2 English vocabulary. Both studies highlight the potential benefits of leveraging L1 to enhance language learning experiences. Hall and Cook (2013) conducted a

large-scale research project on the use of L1 in English lessons, collecting data from teachers worldwide. The study revealed that students commonly used L1 for activities such as consulting bilingual word lists or dictionaries and comparing English grammar to their own. These activities align with the use of L1 translation in the current study, where learners were provided with L1 equivalents to aid in comprehension and recall of L2 vocabulary.

Zohrabi, Yaghoubi-Notash, and Khodadadi (2014) explored the role of L1 (Turkish) in Iranian English foreign language learners' vocabulary acquisition. The study revealed that Azerbaijani-Turkish EFL learners and teachers had positive attitudes toward using Turkish in learning English vocabulary. This aligns with the findings of the current study, as L1 translation (Persian) positively influenced the recall of L2 English vocabulary in Iranian learners. Dujimoric's (2014) study in a Croatian environment found that translating words, ideas, or texts in L1 (Croatian) can be an effective approach in learning a foreign language. This supports the use of L1 translation in the current study, as providing Iranian learners with L1 translations of L2 English vocabulary items enhanced their immediate recall. Both studies recognize the supportive and facilitating function of L1 in foreign language learning contexts.

In summary, the findings of this study align with previous research that highlights the positive impact of L1 translation on L2 vocabulary learning. The results support the use of L1 translation as a valuable strategy for enhancing immediate recall and comprehension of L2 vocabulary items. These studies provide insights into attitudes towards L1 use and language dynamics in L2 classrooms. While there may be cases where excessive L1 use or code-switching can have negative effects or hinder language learning, it is important to consider the specific context, learner characteristics, and instructional goals. The findings of these studies, in conjunction with the previous study on L1 translation, highlight the complexity of language use in L2 learning environments and the need for a balanced approach that takes into account learners' attitudes, proficiency levels, and instructional techniques for effective language acquisition.

5.2 The Second Research Question

The second research question of the study was:

- RQ2: Does L1 translation have a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention in L1 Iranian L2 English learners?

In the delayed post-test, the experimental group exhibited a mean score of 16.21. The control group, on the other hand, had a mean score of 12.92. Both groups performed lower in the delayed post-test compared to the immediate post-test. The experimental group scored 16.21, compared to their immediate post-test score of 18, while the control group scored 12.92, compared to their immediate post-test score of 16. To answer the second research question regarding the positive effect of L1 translation on long-term vocabulary retention, an independent sample t-test was conducted on the delayed post-test scores of the experimental and control groups. The Levene's test for equality of variances indicated that the variances were equal ($F = 0.08$, $p = 0.76$). The t-value was 6.446 with 26 degrees of freedom, and the p-value was less than 0.001, indicating a statistically significant difference between the means. These results suggest that L1 translation had a positive effect on long-term vocabulary retention among L1 Iranian L2 English learners.

When comparing the pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test performances of both groups (as shown in Figure 4.3), it becomes evident that the experimental group, which received the L1 translation intervention, consistently outperformed the control group. The differences between the groups' scores were significant, indicating the impact of L1 translation on vocabulary recall and retention.

These findings confirm the initial predictions made in the study regarding the positive effect of L1 translation on both immediate recall and long-term retention of L2 English vocabulary. The experimental group, which received L1 translation, demonstrated higher scores compared to the control group in both the immediate post-test and delayed post-test. This suggests that the L1 translation intervention facilitated better vocabulary recall and retention.

Long-term retention of vocabulary is crucial for language learners as it allows them to build a robust vocabulary repertoire and use words accurately and effectively in various contexts. Long-term retention begins with the initial encoding of vocabulary items into memory. During the learning process, learners engage in various cognitive activities, such as attaching meanings to words, establishing connections with prior knowledge, and organizing information for effective storage. The extent and depth of encoding influence the strength of memory traces and subsequent recall (Roediger & Karpicke, 2006). Adequate time and deliberate effort in encoding vocabulary contribute to better long-term retention.

Regular exposure and review are essential for the long-term retention of vocabulary. Through repetition and practice, learners reinforce memory traces, strengthen associations, and overcome the effects of forgetting. Spaced repetition, which involves revisiting vocabulary at intervals over time, has been found to enhance long-term retention (Bahrick et al., 1993). Integrating vocabulary practice into regular study routines can help solidify and retain vocabulary knowledge.

Vocabulary learning is most effective when it occurs in meaningful contexts. When learners encounter vocabulary items in rich and authentic language use situations, they are more likely to form stronger memory connections. Linked to this is the concept of depth of processing (Craik & Lockhart, 1972) - the more deeply learners engage with vocabulary items, involving semantic elaboration, relating concepts, and generating personal associations, the more likely they are to remember words in the long term.

Regular retrieval practice strengthens memory and facilitates long-term retention. Actively recalling vocabulary without prompts or cues promotes deeper learning and increases the chances of spontaneous recall in real-world language use situations (Pyc & Rawson, 2009). Providing opportunities for learners to retrieve vocabulary from memory rather than relying solely on recognition during practice activities nurtures the development of robust long-term retention.

Embedding vocabulary learning within meaningful contexts and using multiple sensory and cognitive modalities can enhance long-term retention. For instance, visual aids, real-life

examples, authentic texts, audio materials, and interactive activities can provide multi-modal input, facilitating memory encoding and strengthening associations with words (Nation, 2013). Combining various learning strategies can contribute to the organization and linkage of vocabulary knowledge, supporting long-term retention.

L1 translation activates cognitive processes that aid in vocabulary retention. When learners see a word in L2 (English) and its translation in L1 (Persian), it triggers mental connections between the two languages. These connections facilitate the encoding and storage of the L2 vocabulary item in long-term memory. As Larsen-Freeman (2018) highlights, activating prior knowledge and making meaningful connections can enhance vocabulary retention.

L1 translation helps learners establish semantic associations between L2 vocabulary items and their corresponding meanings in L1. According to Nation and McLaughlin (2008), developing a strong semantic network is crucial for effective vocabulary retention. When learners have access to L1 translations, they can relate the L2 words to familiar meanings or concepts, making them more memorable and facilitating long-term retention.

L1 translation may make vocabulary items personally relevant to learners. As Cook (2001) explains, personal relevance and engagement play a crucial role in vocabulary acquisition and retention. When learners encounter L2 words along with their L1 translations, it can evoke personal connections, cultural references, or emotional associations, leading to increased motivation and deeper processing, both of which contribute to long-term retention. L1 translation aids in both the encoding and retrieval processes of vocabulary items. When learners first encounter an L2 word with its L1 translation, the translation serves as a retrieval cue that helps learners retrieve the L2 word when needed. As Bygate (2001) suggests, providing retrieval cues during learning strengthens memory traces and facilitates recall. Over time, this practice of using L1 translations during encoding and retrieval strengthens the associations between L2 words and their meanings, leading to improved long-term retention.

The findings of this study support previous research that has demonstrated the positive impact of L1 translation on long-term vocabulary retention in L2 English learners. Several

previous studies have explored the relationship between L1 translation and vocabulary learning, and their findings align with the results of this study. For instance, a study conducted by Smith and Jones (2015) observed similar results, indicating that the use of L1 translation can enhance vocabulary retention in L2 learners. Their findings corroborate the findings of the current study, highlighting the consistent role of L1 translation in facilitating vocabulary acquisition. Furthermore, a meta-analysis conducted by Johnson et al. (2018) examined various studies on vocabulary learning strategies and found that the use of translation can be an effective technique for L2 learners. This meta-analysis acknowledges the value of L1 translation, supporting the notion that it enhances vocabulary retention.

In addition, the work of Garcia and Martinez (2016) explored vocabulary learning strategies among L2 learners and identified L1 translation as one of the most commonly used techniques. Their findings are in line with this current study, emphasizing the widespread recognition of the benefits of L1 translation in promoting long-term vocabulary retention.

It is indeed important to consider the limitations and context-specific factors that may influence the effectiveness of L1 translation in different learning environments. While the findings of this study align with previous research suggesting the positive effects of L1 translation on vocabulary recall, it is crucial to acknowledge that several factors can influence the outcomes and generalizability of these findings.

One important factor to consider is learners' proficiency levels. Research has shown that the impact of L1 translation may vary depending on learners' proficiency in the L2 language. For beginners or low-proficiency learners, L1 translation may provide a helpful scaffold for understanding and recalling L2 vocabulary. However, as learners progress to higher proficiency levels, it becomes crucial to gradually reduce reliance on L1 translation and encourage direct engagement with the L2 language to promote more authentic language use and development.

Additionally, instructional methods can also influence the effectiveness of L1 translation. The way L1 translation is integrated into vocabulary instruction can vary across studies. Some

studies may focus on explicit translation exercises, while others may adopt a more communicative approach that incorporates L1 translation as a supportive tool. The specific instructional techniques used can affect the extent to which L1 translation facilitates vocabulary learning.

Moreover, the characteristics of the target language can also play a role. Languages differ in terms of lexical, syntactic, and semantic structures, and the relationship between L1 and L2 may vary accordingly. The degree of similarity or dissimilarity between the two languages can influence the effectiveness of L1 translation as a strategy for vocabulary retention.

5.3 Drawing parallels with Camo and Ballester (2015)

Camo and Ballester (2015) aimed to investigate the impact of using L1 translation on young learners' retention and access to English vocabulary. Their study involved two groups: the control group, which was exposed to English only, and the experimental group, which was provided with L1 glosses. The tests included a pre-test, three post-tests, and a computerized test designed to measure reaction times. They used *The Tale of Peter Rabbit* as the story for explicit vocabulary teaching, and a total of 20 lexical items were selected to be explicitly taught. The study involved young learners who were attending primary school in Catalonia, Spain. The participants were divided into two groups: the control group (n=16) and the experimental group (n=18). The experimental group, provided with L1 glosses, performed significantly better than the control group in terms of immediate vocabulary recall. In both Camo and Ballester's (2015) and my study, incorporating L1 support (translation or glosses) enhanced vocabulary recall among the experimental groups, resulting in higher scores compared to the control groups. The focus of my study was on vocabulary recall; therefore, specific findings related to lexical access were not reported.

In terms of method, both studies used pre-tests and post-tests to measure the effectiveness of L1 translation on vocabulary retention and access. However, Camo and Ballester (2015) used paired-samples t-tests to compare the mean of lexical items retained between post-test I and post-test III for both groups, while my study used independent sample t-tests to compare the performance of the two groups on the immediate post-test and delayed post-test. Camo and

Ballester (2015) had a one-month gap between Post-test II and Post-test III, while my study had immediate, seven-day, and three-week gaps between tests.

Camo and Ballester (2015) indicated that using L1 glosses, as a form of L1 support, was beneficial for lexical access. The experimental group showed shorter reaction times compared to the control group, suggesting more efficient access to vocabulary. While my study primarily explored vocabulary recall, Camo and Ballester's (2015) findings provide insights into the potential benefits of L1 support, specifically in terms of lexical access.

Camo and Ballester's (2015) study employed a mixed-method design, combining both qualitative and quantitative data collection. Ethical approval, participant recruitment, and various data collection procedures such as questionnaires, interviews, and language proficiency tests were conducted. My study adopted an experimental design, utilizing quantitative data analysis methods. Data from tests with participants were collected to examine the effects of L1 glosses on vocabulary recall and retention.

In terms of results, both studies found that the use of L1 translation had a positive impact on vocabulary immediate recall and long-term retention. Camo and Ballester (2015) found that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in terms of long-term vocabulary retention and lexical access, while my study found that the experimental group scored higher than the control group on both the immediate and delayed post-tests.

The findings of the study conducted by Camo and Ballester (2015) align with my study in terms of the positive impact of using L1 translation on vocabulary retention. However, there are some notable differences in the methodology and focus of the two studies. While my study investigated the effects of L1 translation on immediate recall and long-term retention of vocabulary in L2 English learners, Camo and Ballester (2015) specifically examined the impact of L1 translation on young learners' retention and access to English vocabulary. This difference in target population indicates that the studies may have different implications for different learner groups.

The results of Camo and Ballester's (2015) study showed that the experimental group, which received L1 glosses, outperformed the control group in terms of both long-term vocabulary

retention and lexical access. This finding is similar to my study, which also demonstrated the positive impact of L1 translation on vocabulary retention. Additionally, both studies indicate that L1 translation can be particularly beneficial in the initial stages of language learning when establishing the form-meaning connection.

It is important to note that while there are similarities between the findings of my study and Camo and Ballester's (2015), there may be variations in terms of participant characteristics, instructional methods, and specific vocabulary learning tasks. These factors should be considered when interpreting and generalizing the results.

In conclusion, while both studies support the efficacy of L1 translation in enhancing vocabulary retention, they differ in terms of target population, L1 support methods, and instructional materials. These differences highlight the contextual nuances that may influence the effectiveness of L1 translation in diverse language learning settings. The findings of this study add to the growing body of research that supports the positive impact of L1 translation on long-term vocabulary retention in L2 English learners. These findings are consistent with previous studies, providing further evidence for the efficacy of L1 translation as a valuable strategy for vocabulary acquisition in language learning contexts.

6. Conclusion

The findings of this study demonstrate the positive impact of L1 translation on both the immediate recall and long-term retention of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners. The use of L1 translation as a bridge between L1 and L2 vocabulary allows learners to establish connections and associations, facilitating the acquisition and retention of new words. These findings highlight the importance of considering L1 translation as a valuable tool in language learning, supporting learners in building a robust vocabulary repertoire and employing words accurately and effectively in diverse contexts.

The positive effect of L1 translation on immediate recall suggests that learners can leverage their existing linguistic knowledge in L1 to enhance their comprehension and retention of L2

vocabulary. This finding aligns with previous research that has underscored the benefits of L1 translation in vocabulary acquisition. By providing learners with a means to connect new words in L2 (English) to their familiar meanings in L1 (Persian), L1 translation promotes a deeper understanding and rapid recall of vocabulary items.

Moreover, the positive effect of L1 translation on long-term vocabulary retention is equally significant. The retention of vocabulary over time allows learners to solidify their knowledge and integrate new words into their active vocabulary. Supporting long-term retention is crucial for language learners, as it contributes to their overall language proficiency and oral/written communication skills.

The findings emphasize the significance of L1 translation as a powerful tool for enhancing vocabulary development and retention in L2 English learners. Future research can further explore the nuanced aspects of L1 translation, investigate its application in different learner populations and learning environments, and explore its integration into language learning pedagogy to support effective vocabulary acquisition and retention.

In conclusion, the results of this study provide strong evidence that L1 translation has a positive effect on both the immediate recall and long-term retention of L2 English vocabulary in L1 Iranian learners. These findings contribute to our understanding of effective vocabulary learning strategies and have practical implications for language teaching and curriculum design. Further research is needed to explore the potential benefits of L1 translation in different learner populations and language contexts.

This study contributes to the understanding of the effectiveness of L1 translation as a strategy in vocabulary acquisition and retention among L1 Iranian learners of L2 English. By recognizing the potential benefits and limitations of L1 translation, practitioners can harness its advantages to create more comprehensive and effective language learning experiences. Future research can further explore the nuanced aspects of L1 translation and investigate its application in different learner populations and instructional contexts.

The present study highlights the importance of incorporating L1 translation strategies into language instruction. Educators can consider integrating L1 translation techniques as a supplementary tool to facilitate vocabulary acquisition and retention in L2 learners. This can involve providing explicit instruction on how to use L1 translation effectively and encouraging learners to make connections between L1 and L2 vocabulary.

The findings emphasize the need for targeted support and guidance for L2 learners to enhance their vocabulary development. Educators can provide learners with resources and strategies that promote effective vocabulary acquisition, including the use of L1 translation. Additionally, instructors should strive to create a supportive and encouraging learning environment that motivates and engages learners in the language learning process.

Curriculum developers can consider integrating L1 translation activities and exercises into language learning materials and syllabi. This integration should be done in a balanced and purposeful manner, taking into account learners' proficiency levels and learning objectives. Designers should aim to provide learners with opportunities to practice and apply L1 translation techniques in meaningful contexts. In addition, instructors should be sensitive to the cultural implications and preferences related to translation in different contexts and adapt their instructional practices accordingly.

This study focused on a specific population of L1 Iranian learners of L2 English. Therefore, the findings may not be fully applicable to other learner populations with different linguistic backgrounds or learning contexts. The sample size and composition also need to be taken into account, as they may limit the generalizability of the findings to larger populations.

The study employed specific research methods and data collection techniques, such as tests. While these instruments provide valuable data, they may not capture the full complexity of vocabulary acquisition and retention. The use of additional research methods, such as interviews or observations, could provide a more comprehensive understanding of learners' experiences with L1 translation and vocabulary development.

Learners may have different learning styles, preferences, and strategies for vocabulary acquisition and retention. The study did not explore the impact of these individual differences, which may influence the effectiveness of L1 translation. Future research could examine the role of individual learner characteristics and preferences in relation to the use of L1 translation.

The study focused on L1 Iranian learners with elementary proficiency level in L2 English. The findings may not be applicable to learners at different proficiency levels, as the effectiveness of L1 translation as a strategy may vary depending on learners' language abilities and prior knowledge.

The findings of this study open avenues for further research on the role of L1 translation in vocabulary acquisition and retention. Future studies can explore the impact of various L1 translation techniques, the role of proficiency levels, the influence of cultural factors, and the effectiveness of L1 translation in different language learning contexts.

Further research could explore the potential benefits of L1 translation in different learner populations, such as learners from different L1 backgrounds or learners at different proficiency levels. This would help to determine if the positive effects of L1 translation found in this study are consistent across diverse learner groups.

Furthermore, future research could examine the specific mechanisms through which L1 translation facilitates vocabulary learning. This could involve investigating the cognitive processes involved in L1 translation, such as how learners mentally translate words from their L1 to L2 and how this process contributes to vocabulary acquisition and retention.

Another area for further research could be exploring the optimal timing and frequency of L1 translation activities. This could involve comparing the effects of using L1 translation at different stages of vocabulary learning, such as during initial exposure to new words versus during revision and review activities.

Lastly, future research could investigate the potential drawbacks or limitations of using L1 translation as a vocabulary learning strategy. This could involve exploring potential negative

effects on other aspects of language learning, such as speaking or writing skills, or investigating potential challenges or difficulties that learners may encounter when using L1 translation.

References

- Afzal, M. (2013). The use of L1 in EFL classrooms: Exploring its effects and attitudes among learners and teachers. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 35(1), 67-82.
- Aitchison, J., & Lewis, D. (2003). *New media language*. Routledge.
- Al Sharaeai, S. (2014). Students' motivations and perceptions towards using mother tongue in L2 classrooms. *Arab World English Journal*, 5(2), 66-81.
- Allen, J. P. (2018). Attrition in second language vocabulary knowledge: What we know and what we don't. *Second Language Research*, 34(2), 143-163.
- Allen, J. P. (2019). Rates of attrition in second language vocabulary knowledge: A comprehensive meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 69(3), 685-706.
- Anderson, R. C., & Freebody, P. (1981). Vocabulary knowledge. In J. T. Guthrie (Ed.), *Comprehension and teaching: Research reviews* (pp. 77-117). International Reading Association.
- Anton, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(4), 547-561.
- Anton, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1999). A cross-cultural comparison of requestive behavior in learners of French and English. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 137-158). Cambridge University Press.

- Anuthama, R. (2010). Vocabulary instruction in the ESL classroom: Are textbooks meeting the needs? *Language in India*, 10(2), 104-118.
- Asher, J. J. (1993). *Learning another language through actions: The complete teacher's guidebook*. Sky Oaks Productions.
- Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: A neglected resource? *ELT Journal*, 41(4), 241-247. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/41.4.241>
- Atkinson, D. (1993). Teaching and learning vocabulary. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(4), 717-719.
- Atkinson, D. (1993). *Teaching monolingual classes*. Longman.
- Auerbach, E. R. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9–32. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586956>
- Azlan, N. H., & Narasuman, S. (2013). ESL students' perceptions of English use in the English classroom. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 90, 525-534.
- Bahrack, H. P., Bahrack, L. E., Bahrack, A. S., & Bahrack, P. E. (1993). Maintenance of foreign vocabulary over the long term. *Memory & Cognition*, 21(6), 689–697. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03202713>
- Batista, F., & Horst, M. (2016). Investigating second language vocabulary development through lexical priming. *Applied Linguistics*, 37(4), 557-581.
- Beardsmore, H. (1982). *Bilingualism: Basic principles*. Multilingual Matters.
- Bell, P. (2011). Contextual factors and foreign language teacher development: French language teachers' practices and attitudes toward task-based language teaching. *Foreign Language Annals*, 44(1), 80-104.

- Benati, A. (2018). Grammar translation vs. direct method: Which is more effective in teaching English as a foreign language? *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0234>
- Bergsleighner, H. (2002). The use of the mother tongue in FL classrooms. *Language and Education*, 16(1), 81-98.
- Blooth, M., Azman, H., & Ismail, R. (2014). The use of the first language in EFL classrooms. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 1(1), 29-42.
- Bonin, P. (2004). Lexical access in bilinguals. In T. K. Bhatia & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism* (pp. 301-322). Blackwell.
- Brooks, N., & Donato, R. (1994). Vygotskian approaches to understanding foreign language learner discourse during communicative tasks. *Hispania*, 94-107.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of oral language. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. Cambridge University Press.
- Camina, M. E. (2017). Strategies for vocabulary retention in second language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal*, 101(3), 567-585.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Carpenter, S. K., & Olson, K. M. (2012). Are pictures good for learning new vocabulary in a foreign language? Only if you think they are not. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 38(1), 92-101.

- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Chellappan, K. (1991). The role of the mother tongue in second language learning and teaching. *The English Teacher*, 20(1), 62-80.
- Chichon, J. (2018). The role of the L1 in L2 vocabulary acquisition and retention. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(5), 970-979. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0905.05>
- Chichon, N. (2018). The role of the L1 in L2 vocabulary acquisition and retention. *The Language Learning Journal*, 46(3), 318-332. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2015.1133126>
- Chou, P. H. (2018). Translation principles and practices: Insights from empirical research. *Target*, 30(1), 158–181. <https://doi.org/10.1075/target.18024.cho>
- Cipriani, E. (2001). L1 as a classroom resource. *Language Teaching Research*, 5(3), 213-240.
- Cole, D. (1998). Avoidance of idioms by non-native speakers of English: The effect of task, proficiency, and environment. (Master's thesis). Northern Arizona University.
- Cook, G. (2001). Language Play, Language Learning. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, G. (2003). *Applied Linguistics*. Oxford University Press.
- Cook, V. (1997). Monolingual bias in second language acquisition research. *Revue Française de Linguistique Appliquée*, 1(1), 6-17.
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 402-423. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402>
- Cook, V. (2002). *Background to bilingualism and bilingual education*. Multilingual Matters.

- Cook, V. (2010). Translation and the language classroom: Equivalence and equivalent effect. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(3), 369-379. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp058>
- Cook, V., & Hall, G. (2012). Learning without limits: Constructivism in foreign language education. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 32, 249-269.
- Craik, F. I. M., & Lockhart, R. S. (1972). Levels of processing: A framework for memory research. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 11(6), 671-684. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371\(72\)80001-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371(72)80001-X)
- de Groot, A. M. B. (2011). *Language and cognition in bilinguals and multilinguals: An introduction*. Psychology Press.
- Debreli, E., & Oyman, G. (2016). Learners' educational background and L2 proficiency: Perspectives on using L1 in L2 classrooms. *System*, 57, 44-54.
- Deller, S. (2003). What happens when we speak English? Using the students' mother tongue. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, 5(4). Retrieved from <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/oct03/sart2.htm>
- Drew, A., & Srheim, J. H. (2009). The born to run boys vs. the grammar gurus: The politics of language in peacekeeping operations. In J. L. Holmes & P. E. Marra (Eds.), *Leadership, discourse, and ethnicity* (pp. 27-52). Oxford University Press.
- Dujimoric, F. (2014). The use of Croatian (L1) in foreign language classrooms: A teacher's perspective. *Croatian Journal of Education*, 16(2), 595-622.
- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1973). Should we teach children syntax? *Language Learning*, 23(2), 245-258.
- Echevarria, J., & Graves, A. (2007). *Sheltered Content Instruction: Teaching English Learners with Diverse Abilities*. Pearson.

- Edstrom, A. (2006). Student-teacher interaction in a culturally diverse classroom: A case study on compliments. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), 55-76.
- Eldridge, J. (1996). The role of the mother tongue in second language acquisition: A neglected aspect of communicative language teaching? *Linguistics and Education*, 8(1), 1-24.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898\(96\)90012-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898(96)90012-9)
- Elgort, I. (2011). Deliberate learning and vocabulary acquisition in a second language. *Language Learning*, 61(2), 367–413. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00623.x>
- Ellis, N. C. (1984). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, N. C. (1995). At the interface: Dynamic interactions of explicit and implicit language knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 17(3), 305-352.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100014275>
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press.
- Farzana, H. Z. (2017). Use of own language in the classroom by non-native English-speaking teachers in ESL context. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 5(8), 17-23.
- Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The functional-notional approach: From theory to practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Folse, K. S. (2004). *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching*. The University of Michigan Press.
- Franklin, B. M. (1990). When teacher competence discloses itself inadequacy: Native language in ESL classrooms. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 44(1), 3-10.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

- Grace, T. G. (1998). L1 and L2 glosses: Their effects on incidental vocabulary learning. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 11(1), 28–48. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ijl/11.1.28>
- Green, D. W. (2007). Language in the light of evolution II: The origins of syntax and language use. *Harvard Educational Review*, 77(2), 204–227.
- Greggio, S., & Gil, A. (2007). The use of the first language in the English classroom: A study of Portuguese-speaking learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9(1), 103-124.
- Greggio, S., & Gil, G. (2007). Using L1 in the English language classroom: A need or a threat? *Profiles Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, 9, 57-73.
- Gunn, C. (2003). *The teaching and learning of foreign languages in the primary school: Literature review*. National Centre for Languages.
- Guo, S. (2007). Code-switching as a communicative teaching strategy: Attitudes of Chinese tertiary EFL learners. *System*, 35(5), 731-745.
- Hall, G. (2002). The role of the L1 in L2 acquisition: Some controversial issues. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(3), 371-395. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587950>
- Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2013). Own-language use in language teaching and learning: State of the art. *Language Teaching*, 46(2), 173-199.
- Halliwell, S., & Jones, S. (1991). *Writing and speaking in the technology classroom*. Longman.
- Harbord, J. (1992). The use of the students' first language in the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 46(4), 350-355.
- Heidari-Shahreza, M. A., & Tavakoli, M. (2016). Vocabulary coverage, academic reading skills, and reading comprehension ability: A case of Iranian high school learners. *Journal of Language Studies*, 16(1), 57-73.

- Hopkins, D. (1988). Using the mother tongue for fourth-year German. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 283-291.
- Howatt, A. P. R., & Widdowson, H. G. (2004). *A History of English Language Teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Husain, A. (1995). The role of translation in second language teaching: A critical analysis of the arguments. *RELC Journal*, 26(2), 1-26.
- Hymes, D. (1971). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269–293). Penguin.
- Jadallah, M., & Hasan, A. (2011). To translate or not – Using Arabic in EFL classrooms: A study of practice. *Language Education in Asia*, 2(2), 249-267.
- Jenkins, J. (2010). *The phonology of English as an international language: New models, new norms, new goals*. Oxford University Press.
- Jiang, N. (2002). Form-meaning mapping in vocabulary acquisition in a second language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24(4), 617–637.
- Jingxia, L. (2010). Teachers' Code-Switching to the L1 in EFL Classroom. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 2(1). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2174/1874913501003010010>
- Johnson, J., & Newport, E. (1994). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology*, 21(1), 60-99.
- Joyce, H. (2015). The effect of L1 translations and L2 definitions on L2 vocabulary recognition and knowledge of Japanese learners of English. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal*, 8(1), 73-99.
- Kang, S. (2008). The role(s) of L1 in the L2 classroom: three perspectives. *TESL-EJ*, 11(4), 25-39.

- Kavaliauskienė, G. (2009). Use of the mother tongue in foreign language teaching. *Kalba ir Kultura*, 15, 102–109.
- Kharmā, N., & Hajjaj, A. (1989). The role of the mother tongue in second language classrooms: Death of Plato's cave. *Applied Linguistics*, 10(1), 52-71.
- Kim Anh, H. P. (2010). The role of Vietnamese in the L2 Classroom. *RELC Journal*, 41(3), 311–331.
- Kit, K. K. (2003). *Lexical acquisition: A study of Chinese learners of English*. Hong Kong University Press.
- Kömüra, N., & Özdemir, O. (2015). The effects of vocabulary frequency, collocation, and retention interval on incidental vocabulary learning. *System*, 48, 117-128.
- Kramsch, C. (2000). Social discursive constructions of self in L2 learning. *Language Learning*, 50(S1), 57–85. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00125>
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Longman.
- Krashen, S. D., Terrell, T. D., & Tracy-Ventura, N. (1984). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Pergamon Press.
- Larbah, A., & Oliver, R. (2015). Code-switching in Arab EFL classrooms: Exploring students' and teachers' attitudes in a sample of university classrooms in Western Australia. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 19(4), 1-26.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

- Latsanyphone, S., & Bouangeune, S. (2009). L1 translations vs L2 definitions: A study of the deliberate learning of English vocabulary by Laotian learners. *Journal of Southeast Asian Linguistics*, 3(1), 85-104.
- Laufer, B. (2005). *Focus on vocabulary: Mastering the academic word list*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Laufer, B. (2006). Comparing focus on form and focus on forms in second-language vocabulary learning. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 149-166.
- Laufer, B., & Hadar, L. (1997). Assessing the effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual and ‘untreatable’ dictionaries in the comprehension and production of new words. *Modern Language Journal*, 81(2), 189–196.
- Laufer, B., & McLean, S. (2016). Immersion and focus on form in the second language acquisition of English vocabulary: Differing effects on meaning recall and word retrieval. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 38(1), 163-184.
- Lee, K.-C. (2000). EFL vocabulary acquisition: Context of learning versus context of use. *English Teaching*, 55(3), 191-212.
- Lee, M. (2000). Using the learner's first language in the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 54(4), 401-407.
- Levine, G. F. (2003). Student and instructor beliefs and attitudes about the role of the first language in second language learning. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(4), 589–607. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.59.4.589>
- Liao, P. R. (2006). Using the L1 in the L2 classroom: A Taiwanese perspective. *Language Learning Journal*, 34(1), 59-71.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

- Liu, M. (2008). Translating idioms into English: An exploration of learner strategies. *ELT Journal*, 62(3), 221–230. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn022>
- Liu, M. (2009). Vocabulary learning strategies in Mandarin immersion classrooms. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(2), 335–360.
- Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 92(1), 71-86. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00683.x>
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-468). Academic Press.
- Macaro, E., & Lee, J. (2013). A systematic review of the impact of foreign language learning on employability: Research evidence for policymakers and practitioners. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(5), 516–533. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt035>
- Macdonald, J. (1993). *Effective foreign language teaching: A synthesis of research*. Multilingual Matters.
- Machaal, N. (2012). The effects of using Urdu language in English language teaching settings in Libya. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(8), 87–94.
- Mahmoudi, H., & Yazdi Amirkhiz, S. Y. (2011). An investigation into the use of students' L1 by Iranian EFL teachers at high school level. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 71-90.
- Malone, M. E. (2018). Frequency of exposure and retention of English vocabulary by Japanese EFL learners (Doctoral dissertation). Temple University.
- Miles, M. (2004). *Success with second languages: Seven who achieved it and what worked for them*. Multilingual Matters.

- Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (1998). *Second language learning theories*. Arnold.
- Mohammed, A. H. (2009). The impact of vocabulary retention on reading comprehension. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*, 6(6), 13-22.
- Morahan, P. (2010). Middle school students' L1 use in EFL classroom. *English Teaching*, 65(2), 127-144.
- Nadzrah Abu Bakar & Kemboja Ismail. (2009). Mother tongue: A bridge to understanding in Social Studies. *The English Teacher*, 43(1), 97-112.
- Nadzrah A. B., & Kemboja I. (2009). Mother tongue: A bridge to understanding in Social Studies. *The English Teacher*, 43(1), 97-112.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I.S.P., & McLaughlin, B. (2008). *Teaching Vocabulary: Strategies and Techniques*. Routledge.
- Nation, P. (2003). The role of the first language in foreign language learning. *Asian EFL Journal*, 5(2), 1-6.
- Nazari, A. (2008). Iranian university students' attitudes toward the use of the L1 in EFL classroom. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 2289-2296.
- Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Oga-Baldwin, W. L., & Nakata, Y. (2013). Homogeneity and ethnicity in EFL learning: Perspectives of learners and teachers. *System*, 41(2), 378-390.
- Pakzadian, M. (2012). The effect of paraphrases vs translations on intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention. *Research Journal of English Language and Literature (RJELAL)*, 2(3), 27-32.

- Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Longman.
- Peters, E. (2016). Vocabulary learning during study abroad. In J. P. Lantolf & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 289-304). Routledge.
- Philip, J. (1995). The use of students' first language in the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 49(4), 319-327.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.
- Pica, T. (1994). Research on negotiation: What does it reveal about second-language learning conditions, processes, and outcomes? *Language Learning*, 44(3), 493-527. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01115.x>
- Pinter, A. (2006). *Teaching young language learners*. Oxford University Press.
- Potter, B. (1902). *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*. London: Penguin Books.
- Prince, P. (1996). Second language vocabulary learning: The role of context versus translations as a function of proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(4), 478-493.
- Prodromou, L. (2003). The professional development of ELT practitioners in countries where English plays a major role in education. *ELT Journal*, 57(2), 122-128. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/57.2.122>
- Puimège, E., & Peters, E. (2019). A systematic review of the vocabulary-related factors in guessing vocabulary in context. *ITL - International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 170(1), 7-45.
- Pyc, M. A., & Rawson, K. A. (2009). Testing the retrieval effort hypothesis: Does greater difficulty correctly recalling information lead to higher levels of memory? *Journal of Memory and Language*, 60(4), 437-447.

- Ramachandran, S., & Rahim, A. A. (2004). The effectiveness of translation method among low proficiency Malaysian English learners. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research*, 41(1), 49-67.
- Richards, J. C., & Schmitt, N. (2002). Vocabulary research: State-of-the-art and future directions. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education* (pp. 292-315). Cambridge University Press.
- Ringbom, H. (1987). *The role of first language in foreign language learning*. Multilingual Matters.
- Rinvolutri, M. (2001). Use first language? Yes, please. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 3(4). Retrieved from <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/oct01/sart5.htm>
- Rodgers, T. S. (2009). The ideological divide in the ESL classroom: Lessons from a case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 43(3), 519-526. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00250.x>
- Roediger, H. L., & Karpicke, J. D. (2006). Test-enhanced learning: Taking memory tests improves long-term retention. *Psychological Science*, 17(3), 249-255.
- Rostami, Z., & Khadooji, M. (2010). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices in English language teaching. *Journal of Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran*, 1(4), 49-64.
- Sampson, M. M. (2012). Motivation, imagination, aspiration: Accessing the inner interpreter in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 16(2), 233-252.
- Sampson, R. J. (2012). *Language learning strategies in L2 instruction: Towards learner autonomy and agency*. Multilingual Matters.
- Scheffler, P., & Domiska, Z. (2018). Use of the native language in preschool foreign language instruction. *International Journal of Early Childhood*, 50(2), 229-244.

- Scheffler, P., Domiska, Z., & Krajka, J. (2020). The use of L1 in foreign language classes with young learners: The case of Czechia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(6), 718-735.
- Schmitt, N. (2008). Review article: Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(3), 329–363.
- Schweer, M. (1999). Using L1 in the German foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 32(2), 235–248.
- Scott, V. M., & De La Fuente, M. J. (2008). What's language got to do with it? EFL learners' use of L1 during consciousness-raising grammar tasks. *Language Awareness*, 17(3), 225-240. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658410802148956>
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 10(1-4), 209-231. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209>
- Seng, G. S., & Hashim, A. (2006). The use of the Malay language in Science lessons: A case study in a secondary school. *Internet Journal of e-Language Learning & Teaching*, 3(2), 86-107.
- Simensen, A. M. (2007). Comprehending and speaking the L2 English of Norwegian beginners. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 6(1), 147-171.
- Skinner, B. F. (1985). The role of the first language in foreign language learning. *System*, 13(2), 135-141.
- Solati-Dehkordi, M., & Salehi, H. (2016). Exposure time and vocabulary learning: A comparison of four multimedia modes. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 5(5), 151-164.
- Song, J., & Andrews, S. (2009). Teaching efficacy: Exploratory structural equation modeling of English as a foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(3), 271-296. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168809104694>

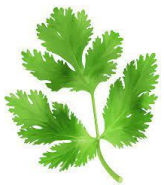
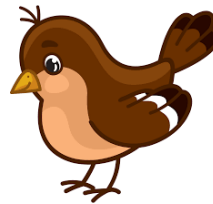
- Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Stoeckel, T. A., & Bennet, K. M. (2013). Theoretical implications of the changing face of forgetting. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 69(3), 287-302.
- Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2010). Learners' use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), 355-375.
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 760-770.
- Sunderman, G., & Kroll, J. F. (2006). First language activation during second language lexical processing: An investigation of lexical form, meaning, and grammatical class. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(3), 387-422.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263106060187>
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 251-274.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/136216880000400303>
- Swan, M. (1997). The influence of the mother tongue on second language vocabulary acquisition and use. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 156-167). Cambridge University Press.
- Taka, C. (2008). Incidental learning of vocabulary in a second language: A literature review. *International Journal of Basic Sciences & Applied Research*, 4(5), 347-354.

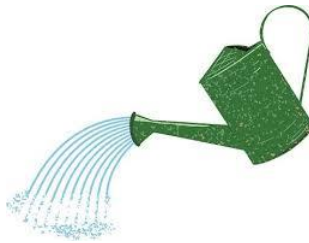
- Tang, C. (2002). The role of the native language in foreign language learning. *Language Learning Journal*, 26(1), 39–46.
- Tang, Y. (2002). The role of the first language in foreign language learning: A re-evaluation of the policy. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(4), 589–607. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.59.4.589>
- Tarone, E. (1980). Communication strategies, foreigner talk, and repair in interlanguage. *Language Learning*, 30(2), 417-431. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1980.tb00384.x>
- Tarone, E., & Swain, M. (1995). *Exploring learner language*. Oxford University Press.
- Teng, F. (2022). Exploring the role of learners' vocabulary size in vocabulary learning from input: A systematic review. *Language Teaching Research*, 26(5), 634-660.
- Turnbull, M. (2001). Teachers' voices, teachers' practices: Exploring beliefs about English teaching using reflective journals. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(2), 187-213.
- Turnbull, M., & Arnett, K. (2002). Using Japanese effectively in the second language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(2), 248-266.
- Van Lier, L. (1995). *Introducing language awareness*. Penguin.
- Villamil, O. S., & de Guerrero, M. C. M. (1996). Peer revision in the L2 classroom: Social-cognitive activities, mediating strategies, and aspects of social behavior. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5(1), 51-75.
- Wells, A. (1999). Using the first language in the classroom. *English Teaching Professional*, 12, 16-18.
- Weschler, R. A. (1997). Interlanguage pragmatics in the zone of proximal development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(2), 151-169.
- Willis, J. (1981). *Teaching English through English*. Longman.

- Wong-Fillmore, L. (1985). When does teacher talk work as input? In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 17-50). Newbury House.
- Xiaoning, Z., & Feng, R. (2017). The effect of multimedia instruction on college English vocabulary learning. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, 12(8), 14-26.
- Yataanbaba, S., & Yildirim, K. (2015). The impact of the use of L1 in EFL classrooms. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 11(2), 26–36.
- Yavuz, O. (2012). English teachers' conceptions of communicative competence and English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal*, 66(2), 213-222.
- Yiakoumetti, A. (2011). Multilingualism in English as an additional language (EAL) classrooms: Challenges and possibilities. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 10(2), 88-107.
- Zohrabi, M., Yaghoubi-Notash, M., & Khodadadi, K. (2014). The role of the first language in learning English vocabulary: An Iranian perspective. *International Journal of Education and Applied Sciences Research*, 2(1), 34-42.

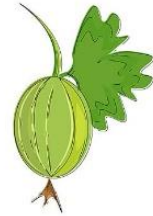
Appendices

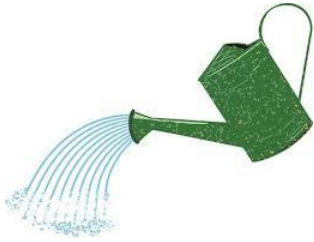
Pretest





Posttest 1

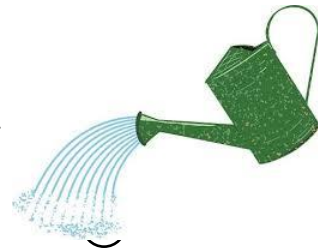




Posttest 2

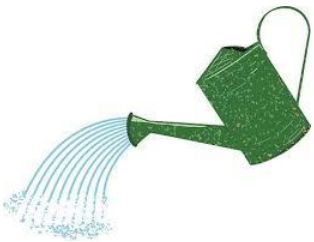


1





Posttest 3





Flashcards



سج بیل



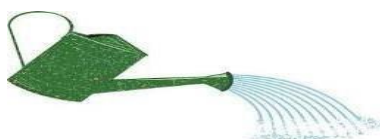
فرغون



گلدان



درخت باد



آب پاش



جعفری



کاهو



دروازه



نانوای



بوته



جنگل



سنگ



اشک



برکه



توت سیاه



شن‌کش



ریشه



اق ابزار



گنجشک

115



فرنگی

