EFL Learners' Vocabulary Acquisition in Translational Writing

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Abstract—Previously, researchers examined the effects of utilising monolingual dictionaries compared to bilingual and bilingualised dictionaries in an EFL learning environment as to their efficacy in improving culture-specific skills in translation. This study was set to investigate the comparative effects of using only monolingual dictionaries as opposed to using bilingualised dictionaries during vocabulary acquisition in a Translation course. Participants consisted of 60 Level II students of English. A test comprising 100 low-frequency words and 100 sentences manipulating each word as a translational writing task was administered at the end of the semester. Three experimental groups, one studying vocabulary with monolingual dictionaries, another with bilingual dictionaries, and a third with bilingualised dictionaries were used for checking the efficacy with which any/all of the three types of dictionaries can best help students acquire new lexicon. The study tested participants on their comprehension of and ability to use these words using sentences of their own on translational writing tasks. Results suggest that bilingualised dictionaries are more effective than monolingual dictionaries being the least effective. Suggestions for further work and implications for ELT pedagogy have been forwarded at the end.

Index Terms—monolingual dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, bilingualised dictionaries, vocabulary acquisition, translational writing tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

Researchers and teachers concur that vocabulary-building is an essential part of learning a second/foreign language (Schmitt, 2008; Huckin & Coady, 1993; Read, 2000; Richards and Renandya, 2002; Bogaards and Laufer, 2004; Vilaça, 2009). In this vein, Bowen & Marks write on the significance of vocabulary learning:

"Words are the basic of language, and thus the basic of communication. Without words, it is possible to know everything about the grammatical structure of a language, but yet to be unable to make a single utterance." (Bowen & Marks, 2002, p. 106)

Vocabulary acquisition research has, however, suffered patent paucity when compared with other areas of research in second/foreign language. It is, therefore, not farfetched to declare that vocabulary teaching/learning has been treated as a supplementary task. In this vein, DeCarrico (2001, p. 285) declares, "...vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching."

With vocabulary being the skeleton of language-learning as such, vocabulary teaching and learning is a cycle of semantization and internalization, which is closely linked to and, to a large extent, dependent on the way in which a word is presented (van Els, et al. 1984). Some may consider consulting dictionaries a convenient way to present a large vocabulary. The use of dictionaries of all sorts is, subsequently, indispensable for second language acquisition, foreign language learning and natural language understanding (Pluempitiwiriyawej, Cercone & An, 2009; Christianson, 1997; Bogaards, Laufer & Varantola 1996; Guillot & Kenning, 1994; Atkins & Knowles, 1990). Knowing the use of a word, however, means not just knowing how it is defined in the dictionary, but how it relates to all the other words in the language, and how and when it may be used in sentences. This holds true because language users "rely on a large stock of words when they communicate" (Clark, 1995, p. 303). In a similar vein, McCarthy (1990), cited in Fan (2003) observed that "vocabulary forms the biggest part of the meaning of any language, and vocabulary is the biggest problem for most learners" in terms of learning and active language use. (p. 222)

Furthermore, earlier research on lexical acquisition indicated that vocabulary-learning is "the first step in the acquisition process and continues throughout the lifespan" (Mervis, 1983, p.210) and that the acquisition of syntax and grammatical rules come, consequently, at a later stage, to be acquired by approximately the age of puberty or thereabouts (Chomsky, 1965). Yet, lexical acquisition has received far less academic attention than syntactic acquisition, either in second language literature or in foreign language research (Erten & Tekin, 2008; Bruton, 2007; Yates and

Kenkel, 2002; Prince, 1996). Even though the research base currently being pooled into literature on vocabulary learning is developing substantially, "much of it has been slow to filter into mainstream pedagogy" (Schmitt, 2008, p. 330).

In addition, research on using dictionaries for initiating and improving vocabulary- building and vocabulary use still looms large on the horizon (Atkins & T übingen, 1998; Bruton, 2003). In this context, Mekheimer (2012, forthcoming) notes that, despite research scarcity, "there is growing momentum in current research for investigating the effects of dictionaries in the FL classroom", which began through seminal work by several researchers (B éjoint & Moulin, 1987; Snell-Hornby, 1984; Piotrowski, 1989; Bogaards, 1994; Hartmann, 1994; Bogaards, et al., 1996; Christianson, 1997; McAlpine & Myles, 2003).

Furthermore, some researchers demonstrated that the use of dictionaries as a pedagogical tool in vocabulary or translation classes can potentially be conducive to incidental vocabulary learning, including the retention of words that have been 'picked up' during listening and reading activities (Hummel, 2010; Macizo & Bajo, 2006; Bruton, 2007; D śilets, Melan on, Patenaude & Brunette, 2009; Fraser, 1999; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Knight, 1994; Luppescu and Day, 1993). Bruton (2007, p. 355) adroitly note that "the use of dictionaries and glossaries is very much the focus of interest, as is the incidental learning of vocabulary as a by-product of processing texts for the message". In addition, teachers and students of translation theoretically acquiesce that "the main purpose of a dictionary is to prevent or at least reduce communication conflicts which may arise from lexical deficit" (Burns, 1987, p. 21).

The significance of dictionary use for vocabulary acquisition and improving lexical comprehension in reading and writing tasks has been warranted by prior research. For example, some researchers (e.g., Swaffar, 1988; Carter, 1987; Al-Kufaishi, 2004; Koren, 1997; Krings, 1986; Faerch and Kasper, 1987; Fan, 2003) maintain that the use of ordinary dictionary look-up strategies while reading may help improve comprehension only when such strategies are practiced infrequently. Using monolingual dictionaries partially contextualised vocabulary acquisition in ways that...

"give detailed guidance on grammar, pronunciation, and usage; have definitions written in a controlled, simplified vocabulary; and even provide examples of words in context" (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994, p. 238).

In addition, harnessing dictionary work for improving vocabulary-use in teaching contextualised writing can be effective for ESL/EFL language improvement in general and writing competency in particular (Hulstijn, Hollander, Tine Greidanus, 1996; Christianson, 1997; Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown, 1999; Bell & LeBlanc, 2000; Muncie, 2002; Lee, 2003; Bruton, 2007; Çift & Üster, 2009). Furthermore, some research suggests that translation might be an effective cognitive strategy for L_2 vocabulary learning (Hummel, 1995; Grellet, 1991; Malakoff & Hakuta, 1991; Prince, 1996; Laufer & Shmueli, 1997). Hence arises the significance of harnessing dictionary work to enhance translational writing and planned or incidental vocabulary acquisition (Lee, 2003; Folse, 2004; Yoshii, 2006; Bruton, 2007; Hummel, 2010).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Studies of Dictionary Use by Language Learners

Research on dictionary work and its applications to classroom pedagogy in the ESL/EFL classroom has suffered from paucity. There has been, however, some research tapping into the efficacy of the use of dictionary work in the FL classroom, addressing a variety of research objectives in terms of their intended use and intended audience (e.g., "reference" vs. "production" dictionaries, Summers, 1995; Bruton, 2007; "decoding" vs. "encoding" dictionaries, B éjoint & Moulin, 1987; or "passive" vs. "active" dictionaries, Snell-Homby, 1987).

Some other research has dealt with the effects of teaching dictionary skills through focusing on specific language tasks, involving word/text production (see Hulstijn and Atkins, 1996 for an extensive review thereof). By the same token, Atkins and Varantola have reported on research they conducted to investigate the effects of dictionary consultation on translation tasks, indicating that dictionary use can be conducive to enhanced translation skills. Other studies have dealt with recognising the relationship between learner profiles (in terms of L_2 proficiency and exposure to dictionary training, etc.) and learners' success in using dictionaries, both bilingual and monolingual (Celce-Murcia and Rosenzweig, 1979; Ard, 1982; Atkins and Knowles, 1990; Summers, 1995).

In this vein, too, Atkins and Varantola (1997) explored task-specific ways of using dictionaries as a starting point for the creation of electronic dictionaries tailored to the needs of particular user groups, in this case student translators.

Much prior research has emphasised the importance and effectiveness of either bilingual or monolingual dictionaries through investigation into the behaviour of dictionary users for different tasks of vocabulary acquisition, use and improved translational writing tasks. But most of this research has assertively maintained that bilingual dictionaries can potentially cause lexical acquisition errors; for instance, Ard (1982) claimed that bilingual dictionaries "provoke errors" (p.5). Compatible with this view is the assertion by Celce-Murcia and Rosenzweig, who declared that bilingual dictionaries can cause problems and even errors" (1979, p. 254). Summers commensurately concurred that "bilingual dictionaries can cause problems and even errors" (1995, p. 25). This finding has been consistently reported by many authors in different research studies (Ard, 1982; B & Moulin, 1987; Herbst & Stein, 1987; Maingay & Rundell, 1987; Meara & English, 1987;Tomaszczyk, 1987). According to some authors, however, (e.g., Meara & English, 1987; Tomaszczyk, 1987), skilful dictionary use could result in the avoidance of these errors. At least 30% of the errors are liable to be averted via the 'appropriate' use of a dictionary in translational writing (Herbst and Stein, 1987; Christianson, 1997).

By the same token, Meara and English, in their research, too, affirmed that bilingual dictionaries "were often ineffective, in that the entries either failed to prevent an obvious error or actually reinforced error" (1987, p. 2). Thompson could explain the reason for that being that bilingual dictionaries "reinforce the belief in a one-on-one relationship at word level between two languages" (Thompson, 1987, p. 282), translation students are oftentimes interested in coming up with Translation Language (TL) equivalents to the words in the Source Language (SL) text at the disintegrated, fragmentary level, but not at the syntacto-semantic and pragmatic levels of the text (B éjoint & Moulin, 1987; Hartmann, 1987; Snell-Homby, 1987; Summers, 1995; Webb, 2007). This has been extensively observed in practical translation classes with Arabic-speaking students studying translation when they resort to glossing single words in Arabic over the text. But, research as well as common sense has proven the ineffectiveness of the glossing strategy, using Arabic translations for single words (Webb, 2007; Al-dosari & Mekheimer, 2010).

Atkins and Varantola (1997) pointed out that there are several research studies whose results suggest that dictionaries which contain both definitions and equivalents (bilingualised dictionaries) are best suited to the needs of student translators. It should be noted that research findings have indicated that bilingualised dictionaries are more effective for both beginners and advanced learners of EFL, either by use of traditional, hard-copy dictionaries (e.g. Laufer and Hadar, 1997; Laufer and Kimmel, 1997) or by electronic dictionaries available online, which give access to e-translators in the target language (Hull & Grefenstetter, 1996; Ballesteros & Croft, 2003; Honglan, 2005; Provaznikova, 2009; Aldosari & Mekheimer, 2010). Some researchers further claim that the quality of a translation can be contributed to the functionality of users' dictionary skills as well as to the quality of the dictionaries used by these users (Varantola, 1998; Mackintosh, 1998; Roberts, 1990; Corpas et al., 2001). Yet, trainee students 'need more training and, therefore, instruction in dictionary use' (Ramos, 2005).

B. Dictionaries, Translation and Writing

One significant study that has been conducted to tap into the effects of vocabulary learning resultant from dictionary work in FL classroom and collaborative EFL translational writing is that of Bruton (2007). The study suggested that the use of dictionary support in L_1 - L_2 writing translational tasks involving whole class collaboration can be conducive to "significant vocabulary knowledge gains" (Bruton, 2007, p. 362). The study also suggested that translational tasks completed in convergent communal collaborative writing situations can potentially foster contextualized bilingual dictionary use, which can also be conducive to enhancing language writing. Furthermore, and more importantly, the use of such translational tasks are thought to be challenging enough to provide "prompt extended oral interactions and language processing in the target language", eventually resulting in integrated language teaching/learning (Ibid.).

Though resorting to the first language is not encouraged by language teachers when teaching language skills, there is a process described as language switching (L-S) which can occur naturally in L_1 writing tasks, given that an L_2 writer has "two languages or more at his or her disposal" (Woodall, 2002, p. 8). In this vein, Woodall (Ibid.) defines language switching (L-S) as "any non-instructed use of the first language during the L_2 writing process". Woodall (2002), however, differentiates between two processes of language-switching: the spontaneous, non-prescribed use of L_1 in L_2 writing, and another instructed, prescribed language-switching that occurs in translational writing tasks. Woodall (2002) describes L-S that occurs in translational writing as ...

"{t}he act of translating a previously written L_1 text into an L_2 text (*that*) might be construed as an instance of using the first language during the production of L_2 text ... since it is an essential part of the defined task ..., it is instructed use of the L_1 ." (p. 8)

L-S as used in L_2 writing was investigated in prior research (e.g., Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Cummings, 1989; Qi, 1998; Manchon, Roca de Larios & Murphy, 2000; Zimmermann, 2000). Much of this research indicated that learners resort to L-S as a problem-solving strategy to manipulate L_1 in facilitated tasks or by less proficient learners, whereas advanced writers seldom resort to L-S. Some researchers concluded that "the use of the first language in second language composition was principally a matter of vocabulary" (Jones & Tetroe, 1987, p. 54)

There was some earlier research, however, which involved the use of L_1 translational tasks to solve linguistic problems related to vocabulary acquisition/learning (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Beare, 2000; Centeno-Cort & Jim énez Jim énez, 2004; Cumming, 1989; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Lay, 1982; Wang, 2003; Woodall, 2002; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001). This research views L_1 use as a strategy which writers employ during L_2 writing, mainly in the form of translating from L_1 to L_2 , inducing to enhanced writing in L_2 (Weijen, Bergh, Rijlaarsdam & Sanders, 2009).

Other research, however, reported dubiously contradictory results; several studies reported that high proficiency writers switched more frequently between L_1 and L_2 than low proficiency writers (Wang, 2003). In this vein, Cumming (1989) concluded that expert writers used L_1 frequently during word searches, but according to another study by Sasaki and Hirose (1996), weak writers reported translating more from L_1 to L_2 while writing than good writers. Subsequent replicas by Sasaki (2002, 2004), however, found that novice writers translated more often from L_1 to L_2 than expert writers. By the same token, Wang and Wen (2002) concluded that lower proficiency writers tend to use L_1 far more than higher proficiency writers.

These findings are commensurate with other research in which learners made use of translating from L_1 to L_2 in order to compensate for their limited ability to write in L_2 (Wolfersberger, 2003; Woodall, 2002). Such results suggested that less proficient L_2 learners switched to L_1 more frequently than more advanced learners, and that more difficult tasks increased the frequency of L_1 use in L_2 writing. Much of the research earlier cited has centred on error analysis of the pre-post comparisons of students' written products; the focus on errors was based in relation to accuracy scores that "may represent learning outcomes" as Bruton (2007, p. 355) explained.

Conversely, some research has indicated that explicit vocabulary instruction, as with using monolingual dictionaries, can result in greater use of contextually appropriate word choice, which can lead to enhanced subsequent writing, enriched content and improved sentence structure (Duin, 1983; Laufer, 1994; Muncie, 2001).

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

A. Purpose

Motivated by prior research by Laufer and Hadar (1997) conducted to assess the efficacy of monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualised dictionaries in comprehension and the production of new words, the objective of this research was to evaluate the efficacy of each type of dictionary used in relation to the volume of vocabulary that is retained and further used by students who define words by dictionary while working on translational writing tasks.

This research replicated the idea underlying the study by Laufer and Hadar (1997), yet adopted a different line of procedures. That is, this study sought to recognise which type of dictionary, monolingual, bilingual, or bilingualised, would lend to the easy comprehensibility of lexicon and, subsequently, to the use of this lexicon in creative translational writing tasks, using a post-treatment, vocabulary/sentence translation test.

B. Participants

Three groups of learners (n = 60) constituted the participants of this study. One group consisted of 20 students studying Translation I (ENG 240, an introductory course in translation theory and practice) by utilising monolingual dictionaries; the second group consisted of 20 students manipulating bilingual dictionaries for the same course; and the third group consisted of 20 students who used bilingualised dictionaries in their study of Translation I during the second semester of the 2010 academic year. The students were in the intermediate level of English proficiency and their passing grades for the previous year ranged from A (highest) to D (lowest), homogeneously skewed towards a C grade (where 62.8% obtained a C, 3.7% obtained an A, 4.81% obtained a B, and 28.59% obtained a D). The native tongue of the participants is Arabic and they had been learning English, typically, for nine years.

C. Materials

1. Vocabulary/Sentence Translation Test

The test consisted of 100 lexical items deemed as infrequent and which were likely to be unfamiliar to the students (e.g., *abrade, risible, hoodwink, conjugate, virago, regalia, rancor, consummate, cull, recure, pauper, obviate, purloin, ichthyic, pedant, galore, ire, forefend*, etc.), with each item comprising of a stem word with four alternatives and the target word being used in a sentence indicant of its meaning which was then required to be translated into Arabic by the subjects.

Given that the objective behind this investigation was to investigate the possible acquisition of new vocabulary through translating this vocabulary into L_2 equivalents, the use of translational tasks together with multiple-choice test items had been manipulated for particular reasons. Firstly, translation requires writing, in this case in the native language, Arabic. Secondly, translation tasks strongly motivate EFL learners to use unfamiliar vocabulary in contextualised situations, with more attention paid to the task. In this vein, some researchers (e.g., Uzawa, 1996; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 1992; Swain and Lapkin, 1995; Bruton & Broca, 1997; Bruton, 2004; 2007) have demonstrated that learners in translational tasks focus more on vocabulary learning and use through the novel, original reproduction of words more than is the case in open compositions tasks.

One criterion for making these lexical selections included interrater judgements of 5 Departmental Instructors as to the familiarity of the words to students at this level in the Department; another was comparing them to *The American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, 1971).

The test was piloted with a group of 30 students of the same intermediate level, not enrolled in ENG 240 to determine the reliability of the test (manipulating the Kuder-Richardson formula, where KR21 = 0.70). The results confirm the researcher's presumption that the words were unfamiliar to the participants after the administration of the vocabulary test. The researcher, who administered the test online using the Blackboard[®] *Evaluate* facility in a connected computer laboratory, asked the participants whether they had seen the vocabulary items on the test before or not and they responded negatively; that the vocabulary was new to them.

In Group A (Monolingual dictionaries), the participants used the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English; in Group B (Bilingual dictionaries), the Al-Mawrid dictionary was utilised; while in the third group, Group C (Bilingualised dictionaries), the Oxford Wordpower was used.

2. Translation Passages

For the duration of ten sessions, ten translation sentences from Arabic into English with highlighting glossaries added to the margins of the passages served as translation training material for the monolingual group (Group A). The same material was used for the bilingualised dictionary group (Group C), with Arabic semantic equivalents added to the glossaries. For the second group (Group B), only Arabic equivalents were given to the target vocabulary. In addition, students had the opportunity to use dictionaries of the type allocated to their respective groups.

D. Procedures

In ten sessions, the students were exposed to the 100 vocabulary items which were manipulated for the Vocabulary/Sentence Translation Test, through the provision of 10 items in each passage per session. The students were given two sessions a week and the experiment lasted for five weeks. Each group was asked to use the English glossaries, glossaries with Arabic, or Arabic equivalents only and they were asked to use the allocated dictionaries according to the group in which they were. At the end of the training, the participants were given the Vocabulary/Translation Test to determine which type of dictionary is more effective in enhancing vocabulary learning and vocabulary production in novel translational tasks.

Due to technological difficulties with the integration of the translational task below each question item, the multiplechoice stem/alternatives questions were given first and the translational tasks were later given in another testing session as essay questions which were individually subjectively rated by the instructor and then by another instructor in the Department, with the two marks being added and then divided by two to obtain a mean mark for each question.

The multiple-choice questions were used to evaluate the participants' lexical comprehension, while the translational tasks were used to evaluate their production skills.

IV. RESULTS

To ascertain whether there were any differences between the three groups in terms of the efficacy of the three types of dictionaries used by the participants of the study, mean scores and standard deviations were calculated for the overall performance of the participants in the three groups in relation to the both the skills of comprehension and production of the lexicon learned during the translational tasks.

The means and standard deviations were calculated separately; first for lexical comprehension determined by a mark given to vocabulary test items and second for production through calculating the mean scores and standard deviations for translational sentences. Table 1 below displays the results:

ME	MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OBTAINED BY MONOLINGUAL, BILINGUAL, AND BILINGUALISED DICTIONARY USERS:							
	Skills	Monolingual		Bilingual		Bilingualised		
		(n = 20)		(n = 20)		(n = 20)		
		Μ	SD	Μ	SD	Μ	SD	
Ī	Lexical Comprehension	6.6	0.95	7.2	0.75	7.75	0.76	
	Production	7.1	0.91	6.44	0.89	7.78	0.92	

 TABLE 1:

 MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES OBTAINED BY MONOLINGUAL, BILINGUAL, AND BILINGUALISED DICTIONARY USERS:

The above table shows that the mean scores of the participants' performance on the Vocabulary/Sentence Translation Test were good, on average, confirming that all three treatments (the different types of dictionary) were effective instructional tools for presenting novel vocabulary during translational tasks.

The mean scores and standard deviations for each group, however, show some level of variation between groups. For example, the statistics in Table 1 above show that the bilingual dictionary usage group was the lowest performing group of the three. One-way ANOVA was, therefore, calculated for the mean scores of the participants in the three groups as demonstrated in Table (2) below.

TABLE 2:

ONE-WAY ANOVA OF THE MEAN SCORES OF THE THREE GROUPS ON LEXICAL COMPREHENSION AND PRODUCTION					
Source	SS	DF	Mean	F value	Sign.
Between groups	7.43	2	3.715	5.39	*0.007
Within groups	39.25	57	0.688		
Total	46.68	59			
Tabular F = 3.17					

The table above shows that the calculated F value is greater than the tabular F value ($\alpha = 0.05$), indicating that there are statistically significant differences between the three groups. To recognise which group differences were more significant than others (i.e., to determine where the differences lie), a Scheff é post-comparison test was used (See Tables 3 & 4 on the following page).

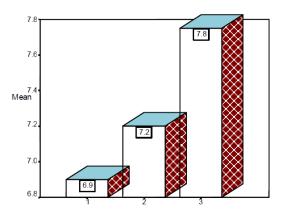
TABLE 3:						
SCHEFFÉ'S POST HOC COMPARISONS AMONG PAIRS OF MEANS FOR THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS ON LEXICAL COMPREHENSION						
Groups	Mean	Monolingual	Bilingual	Bilingualised		

Groups	Mean	Monolingual	Bilingual	Bilingualised
Monolingual	6.6		*0.30-	*0.85-
Bilingual	7.2			*0.55-
Bilingualised	7.75			

TABLE 4:
SCHEFFÉ'S POST HOC COMPARISONS AMONG PAIRS OF MEANS FOR THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS ON PRODUCTION ON TRANSLATIONAL
TASKS

17 10100					
Groups	Mean	Monolingual	Bilingual	Bilingualised	
Monolingual	7.1		*0.28-	*0.89-	
Bilingual	6.44			*0.66-	
Bilingualised	7.78				

The tables above show that there are statistically significant differences between the monolingual dictionary group and the other bilingual groups to the advantage of the monolingual group on both lexical comprehension *and* production in translational tasks. There are also statistically significant differences detected between the bilingualised dictionary use-group on the one hand and the monolingual and bilingual dictionary use-groups on the other to the advantage of the bilingualised dictionary use-group on both comprehension and production. These findings are diagrammatically demonstrated in figure 1 below:



GROUPS Figure 1: Means of the bilingualised dictionary group as indicating better performance on the Vocabulary/Translation Test

V. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

Monolingual dictionaries as well as bilingualised dictionaries, it was revealed, are useful tools for guiding language learners through checking and/or looking up the relevant lexical or semantic information and learning new vocabulary – a function that is not available with bilingual dictionaries. Al Dosari & Mekheimer explain this as follows:

"Entries in monolingual dictionaries normally provide more elaborate and precise information about the word than do bilingual dictionaries; e.g., monolingual dictionaries detail information about idiomatic usage, common collocations, connotations and register, etymology of lexicon, and illustrations and examples that can efficiently guide learners into appropriate or correct usage." (p. 546)

Findings of the present study, commensurate with those of Laufer and Hadar's (1997) also indicated that bilingualised dictionary consultation has resulted in significantly better performance for comprehension and production in translational writing tasks. As Laufer and Hadar (1997) plausibly explained it:

"the combination of the monolingual information containing a definition and examples with a translation of the new word into the learner's mother tongue tends to produce the best results." (p. 195)

EFL teachers and researchers, therefore, recommend the use of monolingual dictionaries over bilingual dictionaries (Yorkey, 1970; Baxter, 1980; Ard, 1982; Snell-Hornby, 1984; Bloch, 1985; Hartmann, 1989; Stein, 1990). According to several researchers (Yorkey, 1970; Snell-Hornby, 1984; Aust, Kelley & Roby, 1993), the rationale for this recommendation could be that bilingual dictionaries "... are counterproductive because they culturate the erroneous assumption that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the words of the two languages" (Snell-Hornby, 1984, p. 280).

Unlike Laufer and Hadar's (1997) taxonomy of the sample into pre-advanced and advanced users or average and good users, there is no such dichotomy of the sample in this study. These researchers' sample is homogenous in terms of proficiency and academic level based on their academic records available at the registrar's office. The results show clearly that good dictionary users could benefit from the monolingual information as well as from Arabic equivalents available in this type of dictionary in both tasks of lexical understanding and production of novel sentences in translational task. This again warrants Laufer and Hadar's results as well as Laufer and Kimmel's (1995) results, confirming that "the good dictionary users are those who can benefit from both parts of the entry." (Laufer and Hadar, 1997, p. 195).

The results also support the assumption that the use of monolingual as well as bilingualised dictionary work can contribute to significant vocabulary knowledge gains in and through writing on EFL translational tasks, thus lending support to prior research findings indicating that the contextualized bilingual dictionary can be useful for improving

translational writing (Luppescu and Day, 1993; Knight, 1994; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Christianson, 1997; Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown, 1999; Bell & LeBlanc, 2000; Muncie, 2002; Lee, 2003; Bruton, 2005; 2007;Désilets, Melançon, Patenaude & Brunette, 2009; Çift çi & Üster, 2009; Hummel, 2010).

Here evidenced as the least useful for vocabulary learning, lexical understanding and production in translational tasks, bilingual dictionaries are only "ideal for quick consultation, or when the learner/translator seeks an appropriate equivalent lexeme in the translation language if the right word eludes memory" (Al-dosari & Mekheimer, 2010, p, 547), while monolingual dictionaries, though more elaborate and, therefore, time-consuming, have the advantage of directly introducing the user to the lexical system of the L_2 (B éjoint and Moulin, 1987; Jennings, 1967).

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Bilingualised dictionaries have been proven to be more effective, than monolingual dictionaries. This indicates that these dictionaries are more user-friendly and can provide adequate linguistic information in more than one language which can comfortably be used by FL learners. Illustrative examples and contextualised vocabulary models not only help language learners acquire new vocabulary but can also lead to incidental vocabulary learning of word collocations and derivatives as well as synonyms and antonyms in and through model sentences. This further helps in improving translational writing skills. As such, it is recommended that translation teachers advise students to use bilingualised dictionaries in translation classes, being "suitable for all types of learners". (Laufer & Hadar, 1997, p. 195)

In addition, given that the quality of a translation depends on the users' dictionary skills and also on the quality of the dictionaries, additional sources that provide various types of text bases, such as model examples and corpora of parallel texts can be used.

Furthermore, results from this study as well as from prior research bolster our understanding of user behaviour of look-up and problem-solving strategies in translational tasks, especially with regard to the needs and preferences for use of dictionaries in such tasks (Faerch and Kasper, 1987; Fan, 2003).

In conclusion, investigations into natural translator training environments, including the use of reference works and corpora for translation training, are needed to be conducted to provide insights for translation students, practitioners and lexicographers.

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