

Teaching foreign languages through audiovisual translation resources: teachers' perspectives

ALONSO-PEREZ, Rosa and SANCHEZ REQUENA, Alicia

Available from Sheffield Hallam University Research Archive (SHURA) at:

<http://shura.shu.ac.uk/18464/>

This document is the author deposited version. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite from it.

Published version

ALONSO-PEREZ, Rosa and SANCHEZ REQUENA, Alicia (2017). Teaching foreign languages through audiovisual translation resources: teachers' perspectives. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*.

Repository use policy

Copyright © and Moral Rights for the papers on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. Users may download and/or print one copy of any article(s) in SHURA to facilitate their private study or for non-commercial research. You may not engage in further distribution of the material or use it for any profit-making activities or any commercial gain.

Teaching Foreign Languages Through Audiovisual Translation

Resources: Teachers' Perspectives

Rosa Alonso-Pérez

Senior Lecturer in Spanish Studies, Sheffield Hallam University, UK

Alicia Sánchez-Requena

PhD Researcher in Foreign Languages, Manchester Metropolitan University, UK

Abstract

In the past decade, techniques traditionally used in the audiovisual translation (AVT) industry have been applied to teaching foreign languages (FL) with promising results. Both teachers and researchers have provided useful data on various AVT typologies (i.e. subtitling, dubbing, audio description) in order to improve specific learning areas: vocabulary acquisition, listening comprehension, pronunciation, intercultural awareness, etc. (Ibáñez & Vermeulen, 2014; Baños & Sokoli, 2015). The following study aims to provide information in two relevant areas identified in the field: (1) the direct experience of those teachers who have been using AVT techniques in the classroom in recent years, and (2) their perspectives on in the combination of FL and AVT in the future. A total of 56 respondents from Europe, the USA and Asia participated in the study, these being teachers of French, English, German, Italian, Spanish, Chinese, Russian, Japanese and Catalan as an FL. The results obtained are applicable to different languages and useful to any professional interested in using AVT in their classroom or carrying out further research.

Keywords: audiovisual translation, foreign language teaching and learning.

INTRODUCTION

Access to teaching resources has increased rapidly in the foreign language (FL) classroom with the integration of information and communication technologies (ICT). Computers, interactive boards, tablets and mobile phones have opened up new alternatives to traditional teaching methods (British Council, 2013). Especially since the appearance of the Internet and Wi-Fi in schools, the amount of digital material available has been continuously developing. Teachers use audiovisual (AV) material not only designed specifically for learning purposes, such as language-learning platforms and mobile apps (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008), but also created for the general public, such as TV series, films and even social networks, including Facebook and Twitter (Blake, 2013). In fact, technological progress has increased the availability of certain computer programs and software, free of charge on numerous occasions, that facilitate the manipulation of clips to cut scenes, add captions and add voice-over; for example, YouTube and Movie Maker (Martínez Sierra, 2014).

In this regard, actively using techniques that are traditionally employed to translate AV texts has shown promising signs of success in the FL classroom (Talaván, 2013; Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014; Baños & Sokoli, 2015). Applying these techniques (i.e. subtitling, dubbing and voice-over) in the FL classroom does not necessarily require expert knowledge of professional conventions. The aim is different: rather than adapting a product to reach an audience who speaks a different language or giving an account of accessibility constraints, the intention is to provide students with hands-on training by actively creating captions or adding their voice to a video sequence so that they improve certain skills in the FL.

The present paper aims to analyse the impact of these didactic resources from a

teacher's perspective and to explore views on the future use of AVT in FL teaching. To this end, 56 teachers from 15 countries across different levels and institutions took part in this study. They were teaching 9 different FLs, mostly English and Spanish.

LITERATURE REVIEW

AVT: definition and language combinations

Translating has been defined as “[...] rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the authors intended the text” (Newmark, 1988, p. 5). Although it is as ancient as the first writing, the term ‘translation studies’ was used for the first time during the 1970s (Holmes, 1972). Since the emergence of translation studies as a discipline, various classifications have been made, such as legal, commercial, literary, medical, technical and economic, depending on the nature of the translated texts. In this paper, attention is given to audiovisual translation (AVT), accepting that it “[...] evolves all the linguistic translations and transfers made for the production and postproduction of any multimedia product” (Talaván et al., 2016, p. 19) [own translation]. Some of the specific traits of AVT in comparison to other typologies include multiple channels (aural and visual); different types of signals (moving images, fixed images, texts, dialogue, narration, music, noise); and its own set of conventions between the translated product and the spectator, which means that the translated version can be perceived as an original product (Mayoral, 2002). In this framework, AVT can use different language combinations:

'Intralingual', where only one language is involved. AVT can be executed from FL to FL. This is used for language-learning purposes, karaoke subtitles, notices and announcements (Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007).

'Interlingual', where two languages take part. AVT can consist of translating from FL to L1 (direct) or L1 to FL (reversed) (Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007). The interlingual combination is the most widespread and the best known by the general public.

'Multilingual' includes more than two languages. There is a multilingual option when a third language is involved. Some countries, such as Israel, Finland and some parts of Belgium, add subtitles in two languages to the original audio of a film (Ivarsson & Carroll, 1998).

AVT: typologies

New audience needs have progressively led to new typologies of AVT. These can be grouped into two general areas: subtitling and revoicing, which focus on writing and speaking skills, respectively. The following table presents a classification according to the previous distinction (Díaz Cintas, 2003; Chaume, 2012).

Table 1. Types of AVT

Subtitling	Revoicing
Intertitling	Dubbing
Standard subtitling	Voice-over
Surtitling	Free commentary
Subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing	Narration
Respeaking-based subtitling	Audio description
Fansubbing	Simultaneous and consecutive interpreting
3D subtitling	Others: karaoke, audio-subtitling, fandubbing

In its broadest sense, subtitling is a linguistic practice consisting of adding written captions to a motion picture.

‘Intertitles’ constitute the origin of subtitles and can be defined as a piece of filmed, printed text that appears between scenes to make the film clearer to an audience when there is no sound (Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007).

‘Standard subtitles’ consist of written text that aims to account for the dialogue of the actors in addition to discursive elements that are part of the images or the soundtrack; usually, they are positioned at the bottom of the screen (Díaz Cintas, 2001). They include the main information, but the number of words is considerably reduced in comparison to the verbal text, because the human eye can only read and process a certain amount of information within the time available.

‘Surtitles’, also known as supertitles in the USA and supratitles by other scholars (Gambier, 1994) are “the translation of words being sung” (Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007, p. 25). **‘Subtitles for the deaf and hard of hearing’** (SDH) are subtitles specifically for people who have complete, mild or moderate hearing loss. They include all the necessary information when there is no auditory channel, such as information about music, sound effects and intonation (Gottlieb, 1997).

‘Respeaking-based subtitling’ is live subtitling that is done using specialized speech-recognition software (Lambourne, 2006). The professional repeats what they hear into a device called a respeaker, which automatically changes the verbal speech into subtitles. Ultimately, the professional makes changes to the automated captions, which are not 100% synchronized (Romero Fresco, 2011).

‘Fansubs’ are subtitles produced by amateurs or fans of specific TV programmes, feature films and series who translate the episodes into their language to make them

accessible for everyone online, sometimes even before the product reaches the FL country (Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007). Recently, 3D film productions have opened a new area of research for 3D subtitles. Technologically speaking, standard subtitles seem to be insufficient to fulfill the requirements that these films present. They “require new plots, new shooting approaches, new conventions and new workflows that will profoundly change the industry” (Kozoulyayev: no date). The years to come will provide more information in this regard.

Revoicing is a wide and flexible term for adding voice to a film to make it more understandable and accessible for a specific audience.

‘Dubbing’ consists of replacing the original soundtrack with another voice, imitating as accurately as possible “the timing, phrasing, and lip movement of the original dialogue” (Luyken et al., 1999, p. 311).

‘Voice-over’, also known as single-voice translation, does not eliminate the original soundtrack (Schwarz, 2011). The original plays in the background at a reduced volume. The synchronization between the image and the sound is different from that of dubbing, with “a slight delay in the translation” (Chaume, 2004, p. 21).

‘Narration’ is another variation that consists of verbal speech that faithfully summarizes the original content and “its delivery is timed so that there is no clash with the visual syntax of the programme” (Pérez-González, 2009, p. 16).

‘Free commentary’ adds voice in such a way that the speaker has freedom to comment on what the viewer can see, often with a humorous purpose (Chaume, 2012).

Audio description (AD) is relatively more recent and could be defined as a literary art that provides a verbal version of the visual content, narrating verbal and nonverbal scenes; it is mainly targeted at people with full or partial visual impairments (Snyder,

2005).

‘Simultaneous and consecutive interpreting’ take place during live events during a specific period (Tommola & Hyona, 1990). While simultaneous interpreting happens at almost the same time as the original speech, consecutive interpreting is delivered after the original speech.

In general, **‘karaoke’** is known as a form of entertainment where one or several people sing a song with the help of subtitles and original backing tracks.

‘Audio-subtitling’ consists of giving voice to existing subtitles. It is mainly used to give the visually impaired population access to AV products that are subtitled but not dubbed (Braun & Orero, 2010).

Nowadays, due to technological developments, ordinary users are able to dub at home. Like fansubbing, **‘fandubbing’** consists of domestic dubbings, often made for film trailers that have not yet reached the fans’ country (Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007).

In the context of FL education, the previous typologies and language combinations can be used to enhance several FL areas (listening and reading comprehension, pronunciation, and vocabulary, amongst others). For example, interlingual subtitling can be used to enhance listening comprehension (Talaván, 2013) or for the purposes of intercultural language education (Borghetti & Lertola, 2014); intralingual dubbing can be used to improve fluency and pronunciation (Sánchez-Requena, 2016); and AD can be employed to work on lexical and phraseological competence (Ibáñez & Vermeulen, 2013).

AVT in the FL classroom: beyond controversy

Several scholars have been opposed to the inclusion of translation in the FL classroom due to the use of decontextualized sentences and the memorization of long lists of

vocabulary, encouraged by the practice of a grammar-translation method (Lado, 1957; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Their main argument was based on the belief that the use of native language could lead to syntactical errors and that the development of communicative skills would be slowed by focusing on learning grammatical structures. However, it has also been evidenced that syntactical errors made by language learners are not necessarily caused by the interference of their first language (Schjoldager, 2004). FL students will inevitably make use of their L1, as it is “a naturally occurring phenomenon in all foreign language learners” (Leonardi, 2010, p. 26). Thus, it is certain that translation has been used as an important communicative language-learning tool for the last three decades (Danan, 2010). It is currently widely accepted and used from a communicative perspective by language teachers, scholars and students, and FL learners “consistently rate translation as one of the most effective means of language learning” (Carreres, 2014, p. 128). This idea has also been endorsed by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which distinguishes language activities in terms of production (oral and written), reception (aural, visual and audiovisual), interaction (spoken and written) and mediation or translation (oral and written) (Council of Europe, 2001). This is a variation of the traditional four-skill model (listening, reading, speaking and writing). The CEFR introduces a new reception skill: audiovisual, in which the learner receives simultaneous information via two senses (both the aural and the visual); for example, “following a text as it is read aloud; watching TV, video or a film with subtitles; using new technologies (multimedia, CD-ROM, etc.)” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 71). Hence, translation can be considered an essential communicative skill to be developed in FL study.

The inclusion of AVT in the FL classroom is linked with the use of screen devices, such

as laptops, tablets and mobile phones, which have become an indispensable part of our lives. In FL teaching, traditional blackboards are ceding space to computers and interactive boards (Leask & Pachler, 2014). Technological progress has increased scholars' desire to investigate further the educational applications of ICT. Existing postures in this field are widely varied, from those who see technology as a must in the classroom to those still skeptical of its real contribution to FL lessons. For instance, Salaberry (2001) questions the level of effectiveness of ICT for pedagogical purposes, arguing that technological sophistication is not necessarily related to an improvement in the material created. In addition, the author states that there is no specific explanation of how to integrate technology into the curriculum in a satisfactory way. However, in the last decade new researchers have attempted to fill the gaps in this area, showing the advantages of using ICT in the classroom (Terhune, 2015; Peterson, 2016). As Witte et al. (2009, p. 5) suggest, "new technologies, coupled with flexible and innovative teaching methodologies and didactics, offer very motivating ways of learning through translation exercises (in the widest sense)".

The present paper considers that translation and technology, if used correctly, can complement traditional teaching methods and increase the variety of FL learning options. In this regard, the use of technology by actively applying AVT techniques has become a recurrent pedagogic combination amongst language teachers (Cook, 2010; Danan, 2010).

Recent studies

Nowadays, computer users rely on the numerous free tools and software available on the Internet that allow them to access, download and edit video clips; for example, shortening a video or adding subtitles or sound. This has led to an increasing body of

research in the field of AVT and language learning over the past decade. The various techniques traditionally used in AVT, such as standard subtitling, SDH, dubbing, voice-over and AD, are taking on new roles outside their traditional industry.

With regard to the practice of subtitling, several authors (Williams & Thorne, 2000; Hadzipacos et al., 2004; Sokoli, 2006; Incalcaterra McLoughlin, 2009; Díaz Cintas, 2012; Talaván, 2013; Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014; Lertola, 2015) have encouraged teachers to include active subtitling as a teaching and learning resource in the language curriculum, including teacher-training experiences (López Cirugeda & Sánchez Ruíz, 2013; Fernández Costales, 2014). For instance, interlingual subtitling has been used not only to improve a particular traditional language skill, such as listening comprehension (Talaván & Rodríguez-Arancón, 2014a), but also to promote intercultural language education (Borghetti & Lertola, 2014), collaborative learning amongst distance-learning students (Talaván & Rodríguez-Arancón, 2014b) and vocabulary acquisition (Lertola, 2012). SDH is also used; for example, the SubLITE project applied SDH to develop various linguistic skills, with an emphasis on vocabulary acquisition and the use of specific adjectives (Talaván & Costal, 2016).

The use of revoicing in FL has been researched in the context of different typologies. For example, intralingual dubbing has been used to enhance speaking skills, such as speed, intonation and pronunciation (Chiu, 2012; Navarrete, 2013; Sánchez-Requena, 2016). In other projects, students audio-described FL clips to promote their speaking skills (Ibáñez & Vermeulen, 2015; Talaván & Lertola, 2016), vocabulary acquisition (Martínez Martínez, 2012; Ibáñez & Vermeulen, 2013) and creative writing (Clouet, 2005). Finally, some studies are working on a combination of subtitling and revoicing activities (Porteiro, 2013; Talaván et al., 2015). In this regard, the platform ClipFlair

facilitates teachers' and students' task of captioning and revoicing in the FL classroom (Baños & Sokoli, 2015; Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2015).

A few remarks

The number of publications showing the possibilities of AVT in the FL classroom has increased in the last 10 years, as evidenced in the previous section. Although the previous paragraphs have not focused on the results obtained, it seems to be commonplace that these practices move away from the more traditional, teacher-centered approach and offer students the opportunity to adopt an active role in the language classroom and with regard to their learning experience (Talaván, 2013).

Following the previous author, Baños and Sokoli (2015) also state that:

It introduces variety and creates an interactive and entertaining learning environment, thus increasing students' motivation; it provides exposure to non-verbal cultural elements and presents authentic linguistic and cultural aspects of communication in context; it is extremely flexible and can be adapted according to the needs of students and tutors; it promotes transferrable skills; and students can be easily encouraged to use this type of material when learning a language independently. (Baños & Sokoli, 2015, p. 204)

The previous quotation summarizes the general beliefs of those working with AVT in the FL classroom, stating that using AVT has a positive influence on FL learning. Nonetheless, most of the studies mentioned used a qualitative methodology with a relatively small number of participants. In order to encourage further research with larger numbers of participants, the two authors of the present paper recognize the importance of gathering the experiences of language teachers who have designed and implemented AVT activities or projects in their lesson. The entire teaching and learning

community could benefit from these experiences.

In addition, Incalcaterra McLoughlin and Lertola (2014) point out that the use of AVT brings more positive aspects to the language classroom than traditional translation does.

For example:

[it] can offer a stimulating addition to more traditional monosemiotic translation tasks, while at the same time facilitating mnemonic retention, helping to raise awareness of cultural and intercultural issues and pragmatic aspects of communication, increasing motivation and enhancing the overall learning experience. (Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014, p. 70)

Further relevant benefits of integrating AV material into the language classroom have been discussed by many scholars. For example, Danan (2010), who was one of the first authors to research the possible implications of AVT applied to language learning, posits that students will eventually experience “enhanced vocabulary acquisition, register awareness, emphasis on concision, delivery practice, and mastery of paralinguistic elements” (Danan, 2010, p. 441).

Nevertheless, language teachers still need to incorporate these types of learning activities into their teaching in a more regular way, as both teachers and students may have to become familiar with the new approach. Furthermore, the use of AV materials may require a high level of preparation on the teacher’s side: for example, sourcing the material, learning how to use the technology, and learning the new terminology and uses for the different AVT typologies (see Table 1). Today, an almost limitless abundance of AV texts is available on the Internet and, as is the case with traditional text-based and listening activities, the teacher must carefully select the AV materials to make sure that they are appropriate for the learner’s level of linguistic competence and

are relevant to them (Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014).

However, it has to be borne in mind that this preparation seems to be most complex at the beginning: the main issues arise because training on the use of specific software and downloading and uploading video clips is essential. Once these processes have been undertaken and learnt, the activities are relatively easy to carry out. Due to the fact that students need to spend some time becoming familiar with the software and the new learning approach, authors have suggested implementing this type of activity as a regular task in the language classroom, as “maximum benefits ... [are] derived from a continuative and consistent use ... rather than from its addition as a one-off language activity” (Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014, p. 74). For similar reasons, Talaván (2006) supports the previous proposal, adding that:

The most appropriate time for such an exercise is probably towards the end of the session, since the students’ foreign language mental schemata is already active and concentrated in the subject under study. Hence, they can absorb new information more easily. (Talaván, 2006, pp. 48–49)

It has also been suggested that the more often these types of activities are used in class, the more familiar the teacher and students will become with this dynamic and, therefore, the more efficient they will be.

METHODOLOGY

The present research is a pilot study based on empirical, primary and mixed-methods research. The main objective of this study is to collect a variety of teachers’ experiences of using AVT resources in their FL lessons. The focus is on the advantages and the constraints encountered, together with teachers’ beliefs on the future of this field. The literature review has evidenced the growing body of studies in recent years that

recognize the impact of including AVT in the FL classroom. Most of the studies discussed have focused on the learner's perspective, paying little attention to teachers' personal viewpoints. Hence, there is a need to undertake this research in order to discover how useful and valuable this tool is for teachers. It is believed that the results obtained in this study will help to improve future practices in the field.

Data-collection tool

The instrument used to gather the information was a questionnaire, which was distributed online to various professionals in the field. This questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first included questions to gather information about the participants, such as their gender, age, number of years of teaching experience and nationality and the country in which they teach. The second asked for information about the context of their teaching, such as the educational context, the FL they teach, the students' level of proficiency, the AVT typology used in class, the learning area boosted, the language combination used, how often AVT is used, the format of the teaching (face to face or online), and whether students do most of the AVT work during or outside class. The third section gathered information about teachers' experiences of the use of AVT, with open-ended questions focusing on positive and negative aspects in addition to future perspectives.

The tool used to create the questionnaire was Google Forms, and the questionnaire could be accessed online. The first and the second part of the questionnaire offer numerical results presented in the form of charts in the following paragraphs. The third part of the questionnaire is merely qualitative. NVivo was the software chosen to analyze this part of the data. It allows thorough analysis by creating nodes between paragraphs and analyzing the frequency of words, amongst other things.

Sample

The sample in this study consists of a total of 56 participants from different nationalities who work in a wide variety of countries and use a variety of AVT techniques in the language classroom. The sample includes 45 females and 11 males. The age range is varied: 19.6% are between 20 and 29 years old; 23.3% are between 30 and 39; 39.3% are between 40 and 49; and 17.9% are between 50 and 59. The largest group (28.6%) have been teaching languages for between 11 and 15 years and 23.2% have been doing so for between 16 and 20 years, giving evidence that ICT resources are not necessarily used more widely amongst younger teachers. The teachers in the sample work in a variety of countries, including Belgium, Germany, Greece, Iran, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Spain, Switzerland, the UK, and the USA.

RESULTS

Results in this mixed-method study were obtained through a questionnaire, as explained in the Methodology section. It must be emphasized that the participants had the option to provide more than one answer to each of the questions in the questionnaire; therefore, the sum of the percentages in each graph is sometimes higher than 100%. Responses to the first section of the questionnaire provided information about the context that has already been revealed in the previous section. The results of the second section of the questionnaire are provided below.

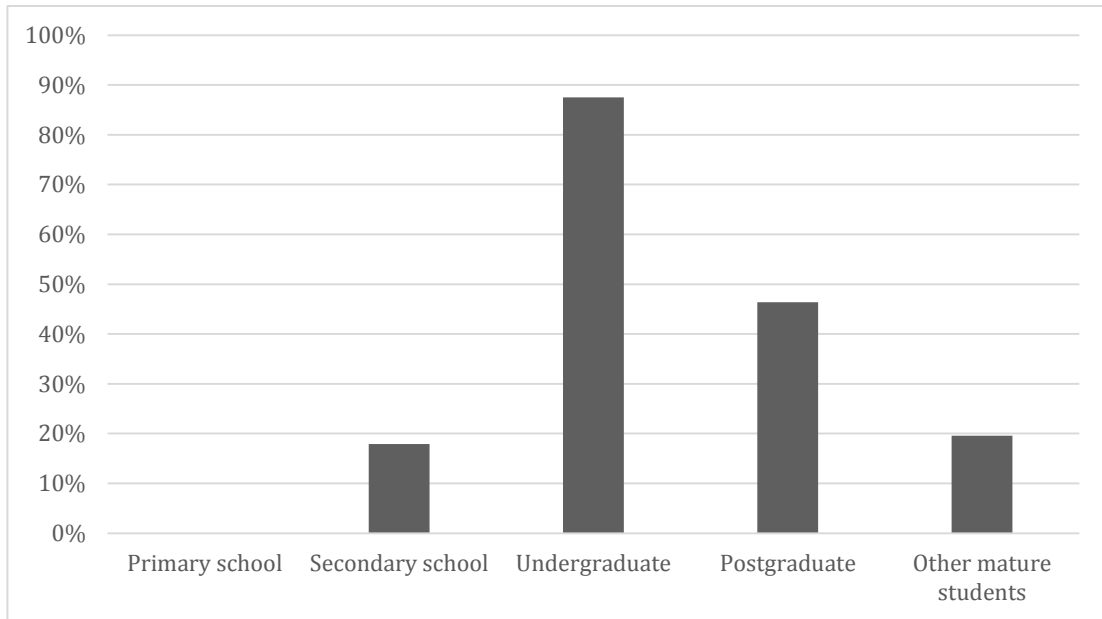


Figure 1. Educational context in which participants work

Most of the participants work with students over the age of 18. The information in Figure 1 shows that the vast majority of participants teach at university level: 87.5% teach undergraduates, 46.4% teach postgraduates and 19.6% teach other mature students who are over 25. Less than 17.9% teach at secondary-education level and none of the participants work in primary schools.

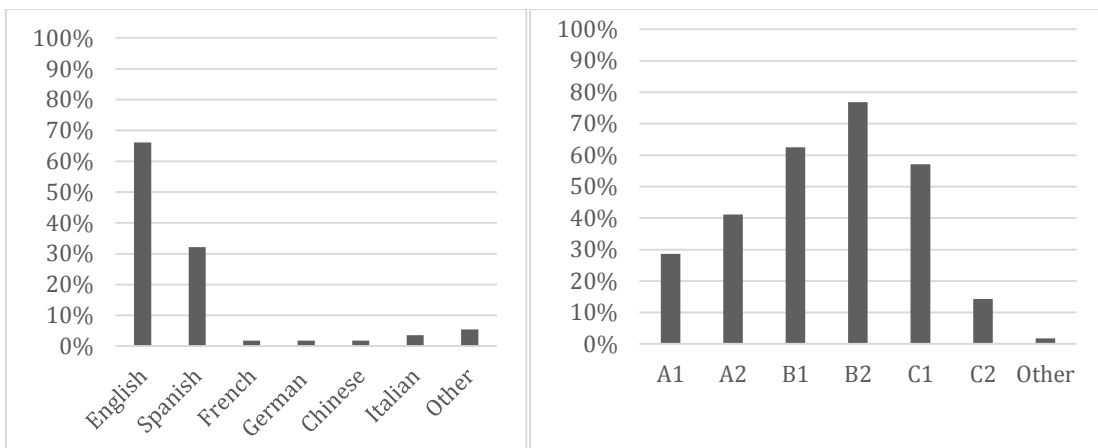


Figure 2. Foreign languages taught and students' command of these languages¹

Most of the participants teach English as an FL (66.1%). This is followed by Spanish (32.1%). In addition, two participants teach Italian, one participant teaches French, one participant teaches German and one participant teaches Chinese. Finally, three participants teach a language other than those mentioned above. More than half of the participants' students have an intermediate-advanced level: 62.5% for B1, 76.8% for B2 and 57.1% for C1. However, it is also important to highlight that a large share of the participants use AVT modalities with beginners: 28.6% for A1 and 41.1% for A2. This is relevant because there is a general belief that AVT cannot be used to teach the lowest levels of a language. Students with level C2 are a minority group; this result is not surprising, bearing in mind that there are fewer courses available for this level.

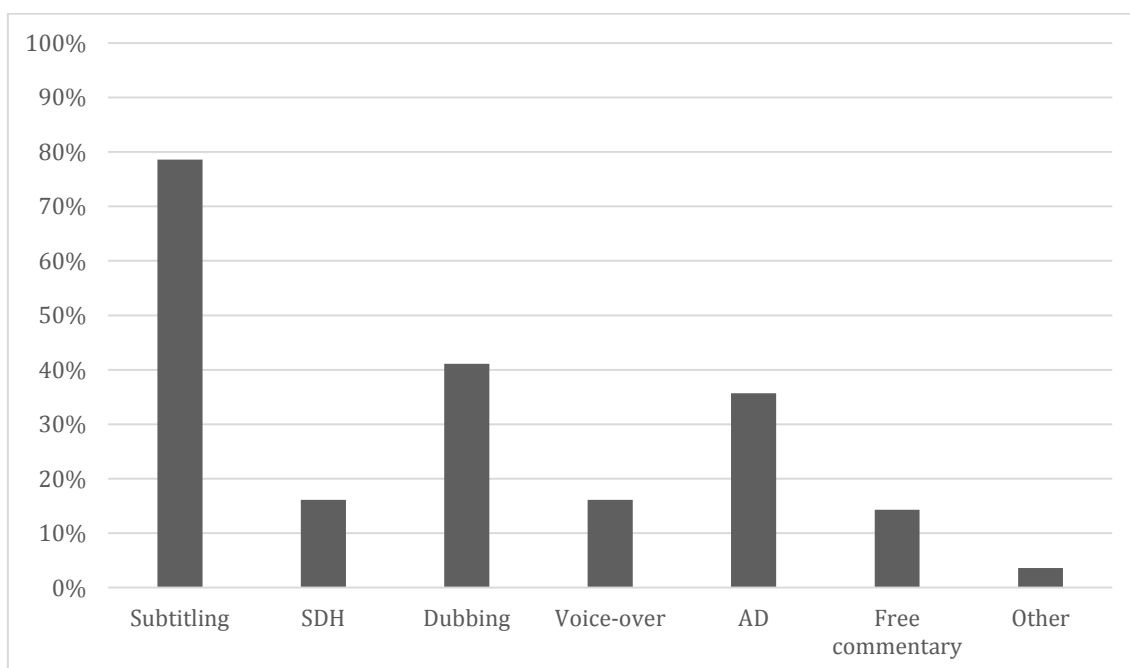


Figure 3. Most used AVT typologies in the language classroom

The main typology employed by the users is standard subtitling (78.6%), followed by

¹ As shown in figure 2, the CEFR contains six levels of language proficiency: A1 and A2 (beginners), B1 and B2 (intermediate), and C1 and C2 (advanced).

dubbing (41.1%) and AD (35.7%). SDH and voice-over are used equally amongst the participants (16.1%), closely followed by free commentary (14.3%). Finally, two participants use a typology other than those mentioned above.

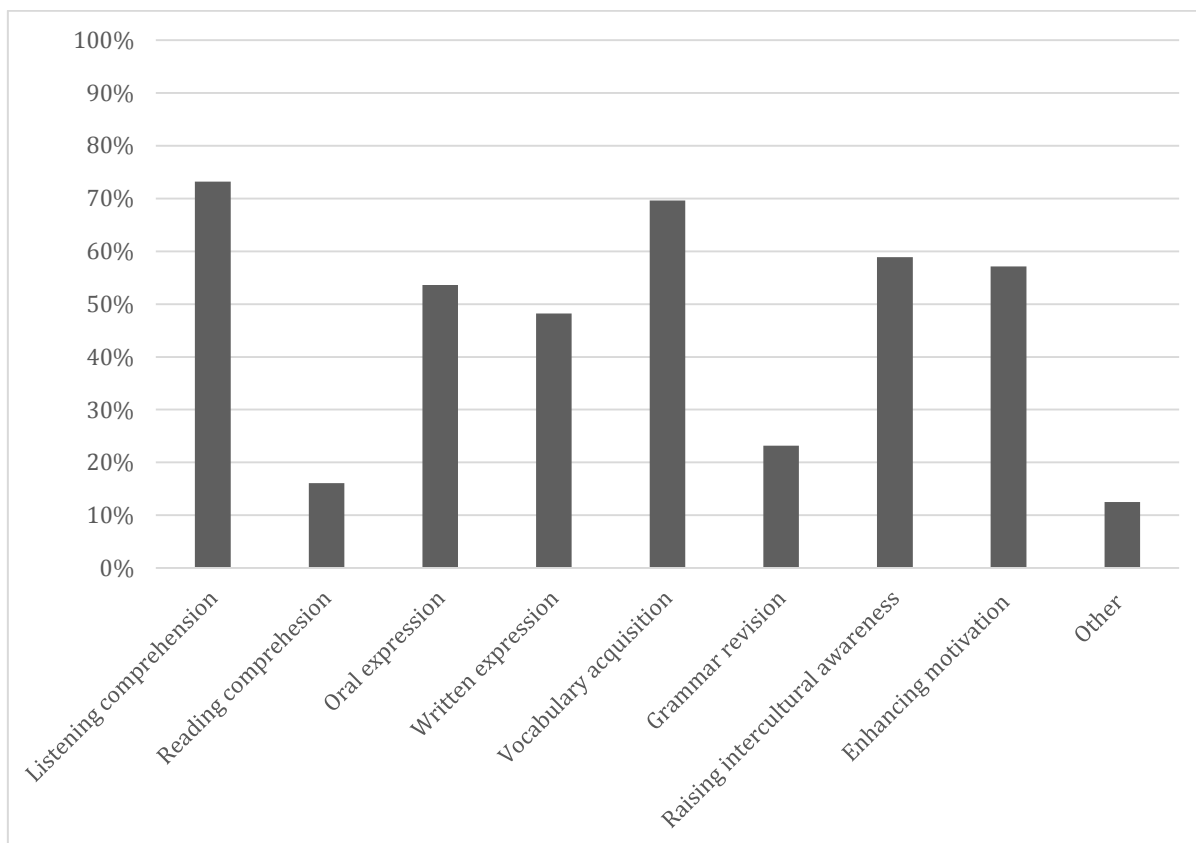


Figure 4. Areas enhanced by AVT typologies

The main focus of these sessions seems to be listening comprehension (73.2%), followed by vocabulary acquisition (69.6%), raising intercultural awareness (58.9%), enhancing motivation (57.1%) and oral expression (53.6%). This is closely followed by written expression (48.2%). To a lesser extent, participants also aim to develop grammar revision (23.2%), reading comprehension (16.1%), and other areas (12.5%). It is important to highlight that although the interest might be focused on one learning area, AVT resources will promote different skills at the same time, both intentionally and unintentionally.

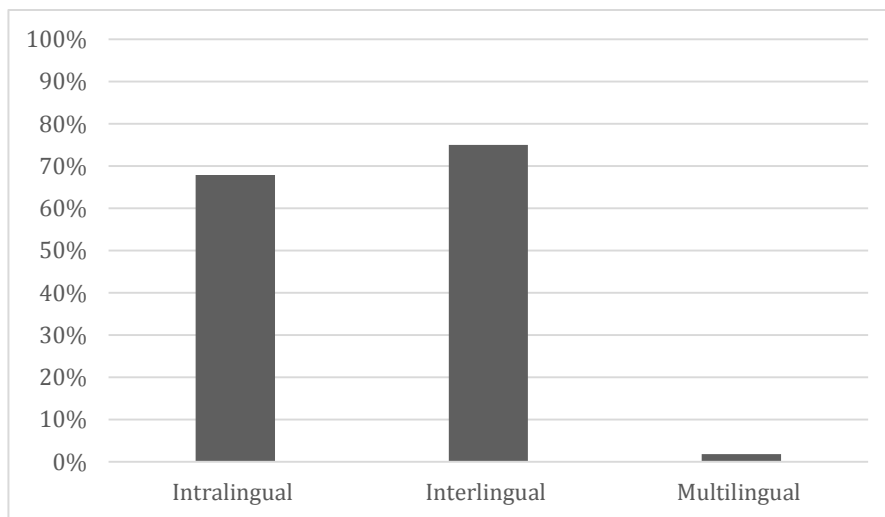


Figure 5. Most used language combinations

Regarding language combinations, it may be surprising that teachers work not only interlingually (75%) but also intralingually (67.9%) and that the percentages for each are very similar. Only one participant uses a multilingual combination and, therefore, combines at least three languages at once.

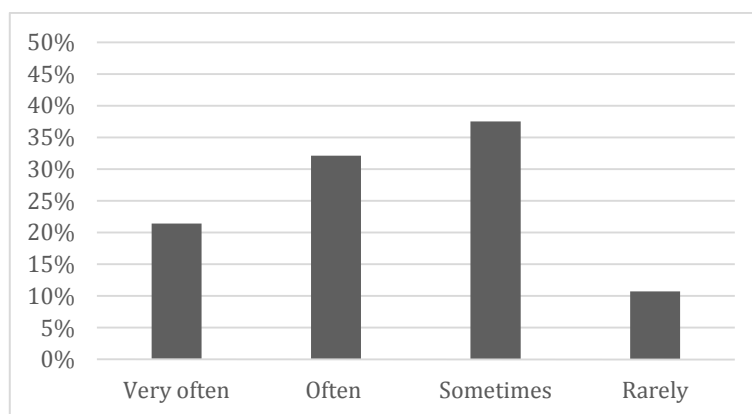


Figure 6. Frequency of use of AVT resources

Most of the teachers who surveyed said they use AVT in their lessons ‘sometimes’ (37.5%) or ‘often’ (32.1%), with ‘rarely’ being the response with the lowest percentage (10.7%). A good percentage (21.4%) said ‘very often’, which implies that some of the participants (12 out of 56) use AVT as part of a module or subject itself.

Table 2. Type and place of learning

Type and place of learning	
Type of learning	Percentage
Online	12.5%
Classroom-based	87.5%
Total	100%

Where AVT is used	Percentage
Outside the classroom (collaborative online work)	29.6%
Mainly in the classroom	81.5%
Total	111.1%

In relation to the type of learning, 87.5% of the participants teach face-to-face lessons and 12.5% teach online. Regarding where AVT typologies are used, 81.5% of participants use AVT typologies inside the classroom and 29.6% employ them as a collaborative online tool outside the classroom. As the participants were allowed to choose more than one option, the total percentage is higher than 100%.

Positive aspects

The responses in this section highlight the positive aspects of using AVT techniques from the teacher's point of view. The teachers' answers are their personal views, although their responses are also determined by their students' experiences and their general progress.

The five most commonly cited positive elements are motivation, fun, stronger bonds, reward, and IT knowledge. The two most commonly used words, which are repeated in

most of the answers, are motivation and fun. AVT activities seem to be motivating, stimulating and engaging, both for the teachers preparing the sessions and for the students, who get involved and are attentive while doing the activities proposed. Teachers enjoy monitoring their students and watching them become absorbed in the task. This further motivates the teachers, whose teaching practice is continuously innovative, and the students, who appreciate using a variety of learning methods. For instance, one of the participants expresses this as follows: "I personally enjoy it and I find it motivating and stimulating. It provides the chance to touch on more interdisciplinary topics [...]."

The second most commonly used word is fun: teachers said the students seem to enjoy the activities while learning, engaging actively in manipulating videos. In addition, the teacher has fun while selecting the material. The activities are student-centered and students tend to work in pairs or groups on AVT activities, promoting teamwork and collaborative skills, which are useful for their future working life. Likewise, the bond between teacher and student and between students is also strengthened. For instance, one comment reads: "during translation activities I can engage one-to-one with students". From the teacher's point of view, using AVT expands the teacher's knowledge of ICT and helps with their professional development. Adapting and integrating a variety of AVT activities and exercises is also a way to give students a taste of translation as a professional practice. One aspect that may differentiate AVT from other traditional activities is that it results in a final product that can be presented to the rest of the class: the teacher and students can see the progress they have made. This makes everyone feel rewarded. All of these perceptions are consolidated by teachers' reports of positive feedback from students during the sessions.

The material itself brings students closer to real-life language situations. The nature of the clips provides a double input – visual and aural – together with cultural elements (which can be integrated into the sessions), normal language speed and awareness of vocabulary and grammatical structures. There is also an opportunity to expose students to a variety of accents and dialogues. Once the material has been prepared, it can be used again and again. The material allows students to practise a variety of skills: pronunciation-intonation, vocabulary acquisition, written expression and listening comprehension, amongst others. The material gives students space to be creative and teachers mention that it is possible to include material that is more difficult, because the combination of visual and aural channels gives learners additional support. The activities seem to put less pressure on students, because students work on-screen more than in front of the whole class. This is a positive step that may reinforce students' confidence before they face their peers in an oral interaction, for instance. Some of the participants commented that after using AVT activities, their students gave better speaking and writing performances.

All in all, AVT seems to complement other classroom methods well and enhances different skills at the same time. Positive feedback from students reported by the teachers evidences that it is fun and motivating, makes use of authentic materials, provides a visual aid, enhances cultural awareness, introduces them to translation methods, promotes teamwork, helps create closer relationships with students, and promotes communicative skills, independence and engagement.

Negative aspects

The participants mentioned some constraints of using AVT in FL teaching and learning. This section provides an overview of the main problems that the participants have

encountered.

There is a universal feeling that teachers need to spend a lot of time choosing material and preparing sessions, including sorting out the computer rooms on some occasions. They feel that the preparation would be less time-consuming if copyright regulations for sharing and publishing material for other colleagues to use were more flexible. Amongst the aspects that involve more preparation, participants mentioned the difficulty of finding the right length of video at the right level; creating supplementary activities in a crowded syllabus; and finding appropriate material that links to the course. For example, one of the participants states that: "It is time consuming [...]; [the] software may not always function as desired; copyright issues can be a concern [...]; students' digital proficiency may vary greatly, this must be taken into account when designing the lesson".

In fact, participants said that AVT activities rely too much on ICT and, in many cases, on the specialist IT team in their education center. Some respondents said they have experienced technological failures in the classroom, such as images that freeze or trouble with the format of the videos or subtitles. They feel that the success of the lesson sometimes relies on the performance of the software or technology. In the case of Internet dropouts, it must be said that AVT techniques do not need the Internet to work. Teachers using AVT activities need to be well trained and feel confident about the benefits of using these resources in their classrooms before presenting the activities to students. Although careful planning and support materials are required to ensure that students understand the tasks properly, the same material and tasks can be reused in different academic years and with different groups.

There is also a general feeling of frustration, because AVT projects are not always

rewarding. This might be contradictory to the positive aspects section where AVT projects were described as rewarding. Nonetheless, it seems commonplace that AVT projects often have an opposite effect in participants, which could be due to their own personal experiences.

In many courses, these activities are not part of the assessment and, in general, participants claim that evaluation guidelines are lacking. Even though most of the participants mentioned an increase in motivation as one of the advantages of using AVT in the FL classroom, a minority feel that students are not learning, especially because they observe a lack of engagement if the task is not assessed. In addition, it was pointed out that it is difficult to get all the members of a group to submit the work on time.

Some of the other negative aspects mentioned seem to be related to fear of the unknown rather than being real problems with using AVT in the classroom. These include finding it difficult to understand what technology can offer, the possibility of students getting distracted (especially when the class is large), other teachers complaining about the noise, students getting confused about the tasks, making extra work for students at home, students having to make an extra effort to gain technological skills, not enough grammar being taught, students not feeling comfortable with recording themselves, and difficulties for lower-level students.

Future perspectives

This section focuses on participants' comments on how they see the field of AVT in FL teaching and learning developing in the future. Teachers were asked about their opinions on the possibilities offered by AVT in the near future.

Before going into details, this participant summarizes key ideas:

I think first of all we have a hard work while convince many language

colleagues of translation benefits. Many teachers turn down translation as a method because they only think about method Grammar-Translation. AV materials are a helpful resource which is essential to break down these resistances. Only when didactic "establishment" have accepted translation as a methodological resource, will AVT be able to be part of a curriculum.

Overall, 55% of the teachers mentioned explicitly that AVT could be integrated seamlessly into the curriculum, while 10% believed it would be difficult due to the rigidity of current educational programs; in this case, they propose short-term courses or occasional activities in the classroom. With regard to the future possibilities that AVT offers, most of the participants referred to the potential to integrate AVT activities into the curriculum, in face-to-face lessons and in online sessions. The aim could be to enhance motivation, to teach multiple language skills at the same time and to raise intercultural awareness. Of the teachers who are already working in the field on a regular basis, some are paying more attention to the accessibility typologies (SDH and AD). In addition, the participants also consider that AVT provides students with ICT skills and increases their digital literacy. AVT could be used in primary, secondary and higher education. In this way, rather than being a novelty, AVT projects should be integrated into the syllabus. Teacher training should be encouraged in order to make AVT visible and easy to apply.

However, the results show that there is no agreement on how to select or evaluate AVT material. It was suggested that more work should be undertaken in this regard, especially in relation to how assessments should be done and what should be assessed if these activities are to be included in the curriculum. Most participants stated that in order to include AVT in language teaching programs, it will be necessary to establish

final assessment tasks so that the students see more relevance in these types of projects. Finally, teachers also commented on the work that needs to be done in the near future to fill gaps in the field. The main issue, repeated throughout the process, is the need to train teachers to run these types of activities in class. Some of the participants mentioned that it is still necessary to make other colleagues aware of the benefits of using translation for language learning, because there is still a tendency to reject it. Resources linked to the exam board's content are also needed. Not everyone is willing to try new things. A minority suggested that even though AVT is gaining more importance in FL teaching and learning, there is still need for more empirical research.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results show a variety of opinions on the use of AVT in FL teaching and learning. Although not all the participants agree on each of the elements discussed, there are some patterns. There seems to be agreement about the potential to use AVT techniques in the FL language classroom at all levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. Teachers who have been using these techniques in class have had good experiences, considering AVT to be a motivating and engaging tool for the students and themselves. This shares similar ideas to the studies in this field previously mentioned in this article: students seem to have fun while learning; it creates stronger student-teacher and student-student bonds. Teachers find AVT activities and projects rewarding, since there is a final product where progress and results can be observed and showcased to the class. In addition, the participants feel that using AVT gives them a good reason to keep up to date with technological progress and that it improves students' IT knowledge and group-working skills. These benefits make AVT resources adequate for inclusion in the curriculum.

However, there is still some skepticism about the real possibilities to expand AVT use amongst teachers who are not as in favor of the use of ICT in the language classroom. Could this be due to a lack of knowledge about AVT resources? If so, what are the options for teachers to train in them? Currently, there are some courses that are designed specifically to train teachers in using AVT resources. Beyond this, further questions arise: is it only teachers with a background in translation who have an interest in this field? Should there really be such a distinction between linguists and translators? Efforts still need to be made to accept translation as a methodological resource. There is evidence that AVT techniques can be used for not only language learning but also translation training. We would like to point out that although it is desirable to have knowledge of linguistics, translation and ICT, the use of AVT in FL teaching is a possibility for any educator who is interested in learning about a new resource to use with their students. Nonetheless, further research should be undertaken to provide an objective justification of the previous statement.

In addition, the present study could be strengthened by using a bigger sample and by further investigating the characteristics of the participants involved. Aspects such as their freedom in the course to include AVT techniques, their reasons to choose a specific AVT typology or the personal situation of their participants could possibly complement the current conclusion. If AVT is to be used in the language classroom, some other questions are raised. What are the best methodologies for using AVT in the language classroom? What about regulating how-to guides, lesson plans and handouts? Does the lack of learner engagement have to do with whether or not the activities are compulsory and to how relevant they are to the curriculum? Should these activities be part of the final assessment? If so, how should the assessment be carried out and what

should be assessed? These are certainly good questions to begin working on answering in the field of AVT in the near future; they could also be addressed in teacher-training programs and a follow-up of those teachers' experience.

References

- Baños, R., & Sokoli, S. (2015). Learning foreign languages with ClipFlair: Using captioning and revoicing activities to increase students' motivation and engagement. In K. Borthwick, E. Corradini and A. Dickens (Eds.), *10 Years of the LLAS Elearning Symposium: Case Studies in Good Practice* (pp. 2013-213). Dublin and Voillans: Research-publishing.net.
- Blake, R. (2013). *Brave new digital classroom: Technology and foreign language learning*. Georgetown University Press
- Borghetti, C., & Lertola, J. (2014). Interlingual subtitling for intercultural language education: a case study. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 14(4), 423-440.
- Braun, S., & Orero, P. (2010). Audio Description with Audio Subtitling – an emergent modality of audiovisual localisation. *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology*, 18(3), 173-188.
- British Council. (2013). 'Innovations in learning technologies for English language learning'. Retrieved from <https://goo.gl/4DvKEf>
- Carreres, A. (2014). Translation as a means and as an end: reassessing the divide. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 123-135.
- Chapelle, C., & Jamieson, J. (2008). *Tips for teaching with CALL*. White Plains, NY:

Pearson Education.

Chaume, F. (2004). *Cine y traducción. (Cinema and translation)*. Madrid: Cátedra.

Chaume, F. (2012). *Audiovisual translation: Dubbing*. Manchester: St. Jerome Pub.

Chiu, Y. (2012). Can film dubbing projects facilitate EFL learners' acquisition of English pronunciation?. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 43(1), 24-27.

Clouet, R. (2005). *Estrategia y propuestas para promover y practicar la escritura creativa en una clase de inglés para traductores. (Strategy and proposals to promote and practise creative writing in an English class for translators)*, (pp. 319-326). Paper presented at *Actas Del IX Simposio Internacional De La Sociedad Española De Didáctica De La Lengua y La Literatura*.

Cook, G. (2010). *Translation in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Danan, M. (2010). *Dubbing projects for the language learner: a framework for integrating audiovisual translation into task-based instruction*. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 23(5), 441-456.

Díaz Cintas, J. (2001). *La traducción audiovisual. (Audiovisual translation)*. Salamanca: Ediciones Almar.

Díaz Cintas, J. (2003). *Teoría y práctica de la subtitulación inglés - español. (Theory and practice of English-Spanish subtitling)*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Díaz Cintas, J., & Remael, A. (2007). *Audiovisual translation: Subtitling*. Manchester: St. Jerome Pub.

Díaz Cintas, J. (2012). Los subtítulos y la subtitulación en la clase de lengua extranjera. (Subtitles and subtitling in the foreign language classroom). *ABEHACHE*, 2(3), 95-114.

Fernández Costales, A. (2014). Teachers perception on the use of subtitles as a teaching resource. In Pixel (Ed.), *Conference proceedings. ICT for language learning* (pp. 426-33).

Gambier, Y. (1994). *Language transfer and audiovisual communication*. Turku: Turun Yliopisto.

Gottlieb, H. (1997). *Subtitles, translation and idioms*. Copenhagen: University of Copenhagen.

Hadzilacos, T., Papadakis, S., & Sokoli, S. (2004). Learner's version of a professional environment: Film subtitling as an ICTE tool for foreign language learning. In J. Nall and R. Robson (Eds.), *Proceedings of World Conference on E-Learning in Corporate Government, Healthcare, and Higher Education* (pp. 680-685). Chesapeake, VA: AACE.

Holmes, J. (1972). The name and nature of translation studies. In: J. Holmes, *Translated papers on literary translation and translation studies* (pp. 67-80). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Ibáñez, A., & Vermeulen, A. (2013). Audio description as a tool to improve lexical and phraseological competence in foreign language learning. In D. Tsagari, and G.

Floros (Eds.), *Translation in language teaching and assessment*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing. DOI: 10.13140/2.1.4828.6720

Ibáñez, A., & Vermeulen, A. (2014). La audiodescripción como recurso didáctico en el aula de ELE para promover el desarrollo integrado de competencias. (Audiodescription as a didactic tool in the Spanish foreign language classroom to promote the integrated development of competences). In R. Orozco (Ed.), *New Directions in Hispanic Linguistics* (pp. 258-287). Newcastle Upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Ibáñez, A., & Vermeulen, A. (2015). Using VISP (VIdeos for SPeaking), a mobile app based on audio description, to promote English language learning among spanish students: A case study. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 178, 132-138.

Incalcaterra McLoughlin, L., & Lertola, J. (2015). Captioning and revoicing of clips in foreign language learning-using ClipFlair for teaching Italian in online learning environments. In C. Ramsey-Portolano (Ed.), *The Future of Italian Teaching* (pp. 55-69). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Incalcaterra McLoughlin, L., & Lertola, J. (2014). Audiovisual translation in second language acquisition. Integrating subtitling in the foreign-language curriculum. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 70-83.

Incalcaterra McLoughlin, L. (2009). Inter-semiotic translation in foreign language learning. The case of subtitling. In A. Witte, T. Harden and A. Ramos de Oliveira, *Translation in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 227-244). Oxford: Peter Lang.

Ivarsson, J., & Carroll, M. (1998). *Subtitling*. Simrishamn: TransEdit HB.

Kozoulyayev, A. (online). 3D Subtitling – a new deal beyond technology. Retrieved from <https://goo.gl/4AAri0>

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures. Applied linguistics for language teachers*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Lambourne, A. (2006). Subtitle respeaking: A new skill for a new age. *Intralinea special issue: Respeaking*. Retrieved from <https://goo.gl/F7XKQB>

Leask, M., & Pachler, N. (2014). *Learning to teach using ICT in secondary school*. London and New York: Routledge.

Leonardi, V. (2010). *The role of pedagogical translation in second language acquisition*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Lertola, J. (2012). The effect of the subtitling task on vocabulary learning. In A. Pym and D. Orrego-Carmona (Eds.), *Translation Research Projects* (pp. 61-70). Tarragona, Spain: Universitat Rovira i Virgili.

Lertola, J. (2015). Subtitling in Language Teaching: Suggestions for Language Teachers. In G. Yves, A. Caimi, C. Mariotti (Eds.), *Subtitles and Language Learning* (pp. 245-267). Bern: Peter Lang.

López Cirugeda, I., & Sánchez Ruiz, R. (2013). Subtitling as a didactic tool. A teacher training experience. *Portalinguarum*, 20, 45-62.

Luyken, G.M., Herbst, T., Langham-Brown, J., Reid, H., & Spinhof, H. (1991). *Overcoming language barriers in television: Dubbing and Subtitling for the*

European Audience. Manchester: European Institute for the Media.

Martínez Martínez, S. (2012). La audiodescripción (AD) como herramienta didáctica: Adquisición de la competencia léxica. (Audiodescription as a didactic tool: Lexical competence acquisition.) In M. Cruces Del Pozo, A. Luna and A. Álvarez (Eds.), Traducir en la frontera (Translating in the frontier) (pp. 87-102). Granada: Atrio.

Martínez Sierra, J. (2014). The use of audiovisual translation software in second language teaching. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Translation Studies*, 3(1), 74-84.

Mayoral, R. (2002). Nuevas perspectivas para la traducción audiovisual. (New perspectives for audiovisual translation). *Sendebarr*, 13, 123-140.

Navarrete, M. (2013). El doblaje como herramienta en el aula de español y desde el entorno ClipFlair. (Dubbing as a tool in the Spanish classroom and in the environment of ClipFlair). *MarcoELE*, 16, 75-87.

Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. New York and London: Prentice Hall.

Pérez González, L. (2009). Audiovisual Translation. In M. Baker and G. Saldanha (Eds.), *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (pp.13-20). London and New York: Routledge.

Peterson, M. (2016). The use of massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs) in CALL: An analysis of research. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 29(7), 1181-1194.

- Porteiro, M. (2013). The use of subtitles in speech-language therapy. *Perspectives*, 21(1), 57-67.
- Richards, J. & Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Romero-Fresco, P. (2011). *Subtitling through speech recognition*. Manchester: St. Jerome Pub.
- Salaberry, M. (2001). The use of technology for second language learning and teaching: A retrospective'. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(1), 39-56.
- Sánchez-Requena, A. (2016). Audiovisual translation in teaching foreign languages: contributions of dubbing to develop fluency and pronunciation in spontaneous conversations. *Porta Linguarum*, 26, 9-21.
- Schjoldager, A. (2004). Are L2 learners more prone to err when they translate? In K. Malmkjaer (Ed.), *Translation in undergraduate degree programmes* (pp. 127–149). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Schwarz, B. (2011). Translation for dubbing and voice-over. In: K. Malmkjaer and K. Windle (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of translation studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. DOI: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199239306.013.0027
- Snyder, J. (2005). Audio description: The visual made verbal. *International Congress Series*, 1282, 935-939.
- Sokoli, S. (2006). Learning via Subtitling (LvS). A tool for the creation of foreign language learning activities based on film subtitling. Paper presented at the

Multidimensional translation: Audiovisual translation scenarios, Copenhagen.

Talaván, N. (2013). La subtitulación en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras.

(Subtitling in foreign language learning). Barcelona: Octaedro.

Talaván, N., & Rodríguez-Arancón, P. (2014a). The use of interlingual subtitling to improve listening comprehension skills in advanced EFL students. In B. Garzelli and M. Baldo (Eds.), *Subtitling and Intercultural Communication. European Languages and Beyond* (pp. 273-288). Pisa: InterLinguistica, ETS.

Talaván, N., & Rodríguez-Arancón, P. (2014b). The use of reverse subtitling as an online collaborative language learning tool. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 84-101.

Talaván, N., Rodríguez-Arancón, P., & Martín-Monje, E. (2015). The enhancement of speaking skills practice and assessment in an online environment. In L.P. Cancelas y Ouviaña y S. Sánchez Rodríguez (Eds.), *Tendencias en Educación y Lingüística (Tendencies in education and linguistics)*, (pp. 329-351). Cádiz: Editorial GEU.

Talaván, N., Ávila-Cabrera, J.J., & Costal, T. (2016). *Traducción y accesibilidad audiovisual. (Audiovisual translation and accessibility)*. Barcelona: UOC

Talaván, N. & Costal, T. (2016). *Sub-LITE - SUBtitles for the deaf and hard of hearing to improve Listening and writing Skills in foreign language Education. Research and Innovation Network, UNED. Retrieved from <https://goo.gl/k7hVB3>*

Talaván, N., & Lertola, J. (2016). Active audiodescription to promote speaking skills in

online environments. *Sintagma*, 28, 59-74.

Terhune, N.M. (2015). Language learning going global: linking teachers and learners via commercial Skype-based CMC. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 29(6), 1071-1089.

Tommola, J. & Hyona, J. (1990). Mental Load in Listening, Speech Shadowing and Simultaneous Interpreting. Paper presented at the Meeting of the world congress of applied linguistics, Thessaloniki: Greece

Williams, H., & Thorne, D. (2000). The value of teletext subtitling as a medium for language learning. *System*, 28(2), 217-228.

Witte, A., Harden T., & Ramos de Oliveira, A. (2009). *Translation in second language learning and teaching*. Bern: Peter Lang AG.