THE ROLE OF TRANSLATION IN FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

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THE ROLE OF TRANSLATION

IN

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Supervised by Prof. Dr. Anthony Pym

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I hereby certify that the study *The role of translation in foreign-language teaching*, presented by Pınar Artar for award of the degree of Doctor, has been carried out under my supervision at the Department of English and Germanic Studies of the Rovira and Virgili University and meets all legal requirements.

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Abstract

Translation, a basic means of communication, has been disfavored and even ignored in the teaching of foreign languages. This research explores the extent to which people involved in foreign-language teaching in Turkey use translation in class, what they think about translation, and whether translation activities improve students' language skills.

A 33-item Beliefs Inventory was used to identify the initial beliefs of 30 learners and 32 student-teachers on a five-point Likert Scale, while an online survey was used determine the initial beliefs of 244 teachers. The results obtained from this initial administration of the Beliefs Inventory indicate that learners and student-teachers are relatively well disposed to the use of translation, whereas teachers tend to avoid it in their teaching.

An experiment group of 16 learners was involved in translation activities for eight weeks, while a control group of 14 learners did English-only activities. At the end of this period, the Beliefs Inventory Questionnaire was administered once again. The results indicated no significant change in the beliefs of the learners.

In addition to their beliefs, the success of learners was also considered as an important indicator. Thus, the pre-test and post-test scores of the learners were analyzed to find out whether there was any change in their success at writing and speaking in English. The comparison shows that there is a significant improvement in the writing performances of the learners, whereas the translation activities seem to have not improved their speaking performance significantly.

Given these results, it can be concluded that translation need not be avoided while teaching or learning a foreign-language under these conditions, as learners are likely to benefit from it with respect to their writing skills.

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Resumen

La traducción, un medio básico de comunicación, ha sido desfavorecida e incluso ignorada en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras. Esta investigación explora hasta qué punto las personas que participan en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras en Turquía utilizan la traducción en clase, qué piensan acerca de la traducción y si las actividades de traducción mejoran las habilidades lingüísticas de los estudiantes.

Se utiliza un cuestionario para identificar las creencias iniciales de 30 estudiantes y 32 profesores en formación en una escala Likert de cinco puntos, mientras que una encuesta en línea determina las creencias iniciales de 244 profesores turcos. Los resultados de esta administración inicial del cuestionario indican que los estudiantes y los profesores en formación están relativamente bien dispuestos al uso de la traducción, mientras que los profesores tienden a evitarla en clase.

A continuación, un grupo experimental de 16 estudiantes participó en actividades de traducción durante ocho semanas, mientras que un grupo control de 14 estudiantes realizó actividades sólo en inglés. Al final de este período se volvió a administrar el inventario de creencias. Los resultados indican que no ha habido cambios significativos en las creencias de los estudiantes.

Además de las creencias, el éxito de los estudiantes también fue considerado como indicador importante del impacto de las actividades con traducción. Las notas pre-prueba y post-prueba de los estudiantes fueron analizadas para averiguar si había alguna mejora en las destrezas escritas y orales en inglés. La comparación indica una mejora significativa en las notas de destreza escrita de los estudiantes, mientras que las actividades de traducción parecen no haber mejorado significativamente las notas de destrezas orales.

Teniendo en cuenta estos resultados, se puede concluir que la traducción no debe evitarse cuando se enseña o se aprende un idioma extranjero en estas condiciones, ya que es probable que los estudiantes se beneficien de ella con respecto a sus destrezas de escritura.

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Resum

La traducció, un mitjà bàsic de comunicació, ha estat desfavorida i fins i tot ignorada en l'ensenyament de les llengües estrangeres. Aquesta recerca explora fins a quin punt les persones que participen a l'ensenyament de llengües estrangeres a Turquia utilitzen la traducció a classe, què pensen de la traducció, i si les activitats de traducció milloren les habilitats lingüístiques dels estudiants.

S'utilitza un qüestionari per identificar les creences inicials sobre la traducció que tenen 30 estudiants i 32 professors en formació, i una enquesta virtual per determinar les creences inicials de 244 professors turcs. Els resultats del qüestionari indiquen que els estudiants i els professors en formació acceptarien relativament bé l'ús de la traducció, mentre que els professors tendeixen a evitar-la a classe.

Un grup experimental de 16 estudiants participa en activitats de traducció durant vuit setmanes, mentre que un grup de control de 14 estudiants realitza activitats només en anglès. Al final d'aquest període es torna a administrar el qüestionari. Els resultats indiquen que no ha hagut canvis significatius en les creences dels estudiants.

A més de les creences, l'èxit dels estudiants també es considera indicador important de l'impacte de les activitats amb traducció. Es comparen les notes pre-prova i post-prova dels estudiants per descobrir si hi ha hagut alguna millora en les habilitats d'escriptura i orals en anglès. La comparació indica una millora significativa en les notes d'escriptura dels estudiants, mentre que les activitats de traducció semblen no haver millorat significativament les notes de parla.
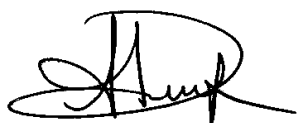
Tenint en compte aquests resultats, es pot concloure que les activitats de traducció no s'han d'evitar quan s'ensenya o s'aprèn un idioma estranger en aquestes condicions, ja que és probable que els estudiants es beneficiïn d'ella, sobretot respecte a les seves habilitats d'escriptura.

Declaration

I, Pınar Artar, hereby declare that, except where specific reference is made to the work of others, the contents of this text are original and have not been submitted in whole or in part for consideration for any other degree or qualification in this or any other university. This research is my own work and contains nothing that is the outcome of work done in collaboration with others, except as specified in the text.

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To Ada,

The most precious gift of life to me,

You cannot imagine how much I have learned from you in the last two years. I do not know if you will ever be proud of me for what you have now hold in your hands, but I am already very proud of you for every single step you take to discover the world…
I do promise to support you for everything you put faith in and find worth fighting for…
I am grateful to you for every single smile in your face, which is more encouraging and inspiring than any other thing…

> *"Hope is a good thing,*
> *maybe the best of things,*
> *and no good thing ever dies..."*
>
> *(Andy to Red in 'Shawshank Redemption')*

And to all those academicians who strive for a glimmer of hope…

Chapter 1. Introduction

I majored in translation and interpretation. I am a translator. However, I earn my life mainly from teaching. I also completed a teacher-training program and I have been working as an English teacher for fourteen years. I have worked in several institutions, from language courses to universities. I have taught students at various ages with diverse aims to learn English. I have worked with many colleagues with varying degrees of teaching experience. I can sincerely say that one thing common to all teaching contexts among most colleagues and students was a hesitant attitude towards translation. In all the institutions I have worked at, translation is not an approved activity in language learning. The majority of the colleagues I have worked with, or with whom I have had the opportunity to discuss language learning overtly, have mentioned that they avoid translation in their language classes. Likewise, the majority of the students I have taught, or with whom I have talked about language learning, have spoken of translation as an activity that is not recognized much in language learning, even though most of them also confess their inevitable tendency to translate mentally. Throughout my teaching years, as well as those I spent as a foreign-language learner, I have used many coursebooks for general English, most of which have been published by non-English-language publishers. In almost none of them is there a section allocated for translation exercises. The only exception published by one of the leading publishers was the book *English Plus*. It included a part asking the learners to translate the given English sentences into their L1. Similarly, I have attended many conferences or participated in many workshops where translation was not even an issue of concern. Despite this unflavored approach towards translation, I have sometimes tried it out in my class, finding that my students not only enjoy but also benefit from translating. Then I started to think that this somewhat negative attitude towards translation may not be a coincidence. It may be the result of systematic pressure put on teachers during their training. Alternatively, it might have resulted from attempts to use translation that did not yield successful outcomes.

To clarify these assumptions, I felt the need to go through the previous studies and literature about using translation in language training. After a thorough survey, I reached a point where I was more confused than ever. Surprisingly, there was vast amount of research on the role of translation in language learning, some of which highlighting its

detrimental effect; however, quite a number of studies also presented translation as a useful vehicle in language learning. Although there were quite a lot of studies that had been done abroad about the issue, the research in Turkey was quite restricted. This gave me the impression that the use of translation in language learning was very likely to be regarded as a taboo in Turkey and not considered as an issue to explore. Yet the existing research provided a good many examples of translation use, which at least deserved a try. This was how I developed my interest in the issue and decided to find out more about the possibilities of incorporating translation into language learning. To this end, I planned to conduct a study on the effect of translation on writing, which constituted the basis for my minor dissertation.

In the minor dissertation I mainly focused on the impact of translation on the writing skills of learners. This was particularly because I considered writing as a sound indicator of progress in language learning. Being one of the four basic language skills, writing requires learners to produce in L2 by using their whole language repertoire, including vocabulary and grammar. In addition, writing is generally the skill that most Turkish students of English have difficulty with. Despite their command of grammar, they tend to find it hard to express themselves fluently in L2. Thus, I conducted a comparative study with two groups of learners: an experiment group doing translation activities and a control group not being exposed to any. The results of the research indicated a positive effect on the writing of the experiment group. These initial findings encouraged me to go further into the issue and expand the scope of the research.

Having learned from the pilot study about the limitations of the research, the methodology to be followed and the alternative uses of translation, I embarked on a more comprehensive study. I planned to add more perspectives to the study and explore the effect of translation not only on writing but also on speaking.

As is evident, the present research is a combined result of my personal interest in using translation in language learning, which was triggered by the views opposing it, and the promising findings of substantial amount of other research, including my pilot study.

1.1. An overview of translation context

Today's world requires people to be equipped with multi-tasking abilities and advanced communication skills in order to be able to cope with the pace of life. Advanced language

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skills are among the prerequisites sought for almost all kinds of global jobs; people who want to be employed by international firms or do international businesses feel obliged to gain proficiency in a foreign-language. Being a competent speaker of at least one foreign-language becomes an essential aim for almost everyone, to be achieved preferably during their school education. Thus, offering well-designed language education is one of the critical issues for schools. They urge their language teachers to follow the curriculum and stick to syllabi that are prepared in accordance with the latest trends in foreign-language teaching.

Whether in their school years or in the years after graduation, those who aim to learn a foreign-language do so for various reasons. They may learn it for their academic studies, for their jobs, to communicate with foreigners abroad, to teach others or to translate for themselves and/or others. There are departments established at universities to educate people to become language teachers or professional translators and interpreters. From this perspective, translation can be regarded as a skill that can be used professionally when a person reaches higher language levels. In addition to this, translation can also be used as a means to achieve learning or at least to aid the learning process. This study mainly deals with the latter function of translation: translation in foreign-language learning.

1.2. The foreign-language learning context

'Language learning' may be used as the general term or confined to the process whereby language ability is gained as the result of a planned process, especially by formal study in an institutional setting (Council of Europe 2003: 139). In the framework of this research, the term is used to refer to the foreign-language learning that takes place in the classroom at school, university or in a language course. The term may also include the language learning carried out by learners themselves, although this kind of learning is not analyzed here. This is because the only decision-makers there are the learners themselves, whereas there are many other factors (e.g. school administration, school rules, peer pressure, curriculum in action) that play a role in the decision to use translation as a technique in language learning in a classroom environment.

The foreign-language teaching context in this study is thus restricted to primary, secondary and tertiary education, although the experimental study concerns only the tertiary level.

1.3. An overview of translation in foreign-language learning

"Translation has long been in exile", says Widdowson in his book *Defining Issues in English Language Teaching* (2003: 160). Theoretically, it really has been exiled. Only recently have there been strong voices to bring the issue back under discussion in institutional settings. A growing number of researchers has begun to work on the use of translation in foreign-language teaching (Duff 1989; Stern 1992; Widdowson, 2003; House 2009; Cook 2010; Pym et al. 2013). For many years, language researchers and experts imposed the striking idea of L2-dominant classrooms with a strong emphasis on excluding translation and avoiding L1 use. They came up with a variety of reasons for their claim, with almost no empirical justification for their arguments; they failed to give any scientific evidence for the detrimental effect of translation on and during the process of foreign-language learning. Carreres (2006: 1) summarizes the current situation in the field as follows: "much valuable work has been done in the past decade in the field of translation pedagogy, but we still lack a strong empirical foundation on which to base our practice".

Most of the debate tends to ensue from the individual beliefs of the researchers rather than scientific research. Surprisingly, however, there have recently been sound arguments advocating the use of translation in foreign-language teaching. This makes sense, particularly in contexts such as monolingual classes. There are researchers in quite different contexts who are exploring the issue deeply and carrying out empirical studies (Sad 2006; Pym et al. 2013). As a result of these empirical studies, beliefs regarding translation are also expected to change. Thus, as Stibbard (1998: 69) notes, "there seems to be a change in the attitude towards the pedagogical use of translation in foreign-language teaching". The results of the studies and the research conducted may have triggered a change in the attitudes of many teachers and encouraged other researchers to discuss the issue in their studies or projects.

A researcher in the field or a language teacher following the current trends can easily notice that today translation is back on the agenda. The research carried out, articles

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written and papers presented confirm the interest and signal the rebirth of translation (Cook 2010; Pym et al. 2013; Kerr 2014). Although it is also a topic that has featured very infrequently at ELT conferences in the last twenty-five years (Kerr 2014: 1), some prominent figures of the field have written books (Cook 2010; Kerr 2015), as well as articles with practical translation activities (Deller & Rinvolucri 2002; Gonzalez Davies 2004) and have carried out projects (Pym et al. 2013) on the topic and have prompted discussions about bringing translation back into our classrooms. The use of translation in foreign-language teaching, an issue that had even been out of discussions for years, has thus begun to attract interest from teachers in the field.

The *return of translation* is a controversial claim. This is mainly because what different teachers, researchers and field experts understand by a *return* seems to be hardly the same. Some would assume that the return of translation means awakening the *Grammar-Translation Method*. However, what the leading figures advocate is a rather interactive and communicative integration of translation activities into modern language teaching methods, rather than circling within the boundaries of the *Grammar-Translation Method* (Duff 1989; Cook 2010; Kerr 2014). The practices and the activities suggested in these works highlight that using translation in foreign-language teaching does not necessarily entail sticking to the frequently criticized techniques and principles of the *Grammar-Translation Method*. The proponents have introduced a variety of practical activities, tasks or techniques that involve translation in at least certain stages and can be incorporated into the contemporary methods used in foreign-language teaching (Cook 2010; Kerr 2014). Mostly designed for monolingual classes, they tend to be highly adaptable and can be applied at almost all levels.

To gain a better vision regarding the role of translation in foreign-language teaching, it is important to scrutinize the place of translation in the methods developed so far. This evaluation is also expected to shed light on the criticisms directed towards translation. *What* to teach while teaching a foreign-language, as well as *how* to teach it, seem to have been controversial issues in foreign-language teaching for more than a century. A variety of methods have been developed, tried and tested. Each method has considered the strong and weak aspects of the former ones, has built on the experiences gained from them, has determined its own priorities in foreign-language teaching, and has dealt with the issues they believed the former ones failed to address appropriately. Yet, even though research in the field has contributed to the development of a number of methods with different priorities, it does not seem possible to mention a single method

that can address all kinds of learners, since learners differ in their needs and purposes for learning a foreign-language. While one learner may gain maximum benefit from a program based on a specific method, another might find it quite useless. The difference in their evaluations is likely to result from their learner expectations as well as other environmental factors, institutional policies and the teachers themselves. In addition to the needs of the learners, the methods proposed also tend to consider the needs of the period in which they were developed. Since the needs of learners are subject to change, the methods underwent certain changes with respect to the demands of the period. Therefore, it is not really possible to come up with a one-size-fits-all method in foreign-language teaching that will be suitable for the needs of all learners at all times. There are other factors involved, such as the institutional constraints, learner expectations, supplementary course materials and course objectives.

In addition to the variation in teachers' attitudes, methods also differ among themselves in their attitude towards translation. Many have either welcomed translation and included certain translation activities in the teaching process or have strictly dictated avoiding translation while teaching a foreign-language. Their stances on the issue may have also been developed according to the particular areas of language in which they aim to make learners competent. Thus, a method aiming at oral proficiency as its fundamental goal usually does not tolerate translation at all, while a more grammar-based method tends to be more tolerant of its use. Cook (2010; xv) summarizes the role of translation in most of the methods as follows: "Translation in language teaching has nevertheless been treated as a pariah in almost all the fashionable high-profile language teaching theories of the 20th century". Although translation is not much appreciated in many methods, recent studies are questioning this attitude. Despite the prevailing negative approach towards translation, current research is showing that translation can find a place in the language-learning process as a communicative use and this can actually serve the goals of many of the methods (Cook 2010; Kerr 2014).

In this respect, the use of translation while teaching a foreign-language has been one of the most controversial issues in almost all methods. Each method adopts a perspective towards translation that is in line with the other principles of that particular method. There are some methods that do not allow the use of translation, mainly because they also reject use of the mother tongue. Within the framework of most methods, the approach to translation goes hand in hand with the approach to the use of the mother tongue. This seems understandable, since the use of translation necessitates the use of

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mother tongue in most cases; so if a method embraces translation, it is highly likely to favor use of mother tongue. If the teacher is against the idea of using L1 in the classroom, translation has almost no chance of being used, neither as a technique nor as an activity. If translation is not favored, teachers are likely to set rules to discourage the learners from using L1 and translating. It may even be the school administration that instructs teachers not to use L1 or translation in any case in their classes. However, even with the strictest teachers and under really firm classroom rules, teachers cannot stop translation taking place in the minds of the learners. Although learners are often advised by their teachers to avoid translating in their minds while reading, writing, listening or speaking, it is still known to be a common practice.

Although discussions regarding the use of translation inform and lead teachers in their decisions in favor of or against its use, the research shows that theoretical statements by the teachers may not reflect their teaching practice in the classroom. The actual attitude of the teachers to the issue is difficult to test. Despite a high number of people with negative attitudes, many teachers are actually believed to hide the use of L1 in their classes, since they are afraid of receiving too many criticisms or feeling guilty. Cook (2010: 3) highlights the frequent use of translation and marks that "even in the most hard-line mono-lingual classrooms, teachers who have been trained and contracted to teach without translation nevertheless occasionally resort to it when all else fails, which may be quite often".

While many teachers deny using translation or L1 in their classes, research shows that there are teachers who resort to it for various reasons (Malmkjaer 1998; Cook 2010; Pym et al. 2013). Although L1 use is inherently required in translation activities, it may also be used in cases other than actual translation activities, such as correcting learner mistakes and giving explanations, clarifying, giving the L1 meanings of unknown words, or talking about classroom rules. Even though it is often presented as a weakness of the teacher to use L1 in their classes, it may actually have a positive effect on the learners in terms of making them less stressed or more motivated. Particularly, those who are afraid of making mistakes may feel discouraged from participating if they are forced to speak only in L2 or prefer to keep quiet when they do not feel they can be successful enough. As House (2009: 68) notes "far from being an obstacle to learning a foreign-language, the L1 is a useful resource on which learners can draw to ease their way to a more secure knowledge of and proficiency in the foreign-language". Many teachers still approach the issue rather critically and tend to avoid it. There seems to be a significant number of

teachers or researchers showing resistance, either because they have never considered the issue seriously or because they simply insist on sticking to their way of teaching very firmly.

The relationship between language learning and translation seems mutually rewarding. The more proficient learners become in a language, the more competent they are likely to be at translating. On the other hand, translation can also be used to gain proficiency in a language so as to be a more competent user of that language. Despite this reciprocal relationship between translation and language learning, these two fields fail to value each other in their research areas. In other words, translation research more often focuses on the comparisons of multiple translations of a text or the mental translation process translators/interpreters go through, while the researchers in field of foreign-language teaching often disregard translation, let alone implement much research on it. However, the relationship between these two fields is clear and has been found worthy of research. In the final report of the European Project *Translation and language learning: The role of translation in the teaching of languages in the European Union* (Pym. et al. 2013), translation is found to be related to language learning on the basis of three propositions. The first of these posits that translation and language learning are opposites and there would be no need for translation if everyone could use all languages perfectly. The second notes that translation and language learning complement each other, which means translation is required because it is not possible for everyone to know a language, and language learning is required for a translator to master a language. The third proposition underlines that translation is inherent in language learning, where it can also be considered to be the fifth language skill (Pym et al. 2013: 8). Taking into account that final proposition, the present research is structured with the following aims and objectives.

1.4. Aims and objectives

A thorough search through the literature shows that, although there is an increasing number of studies worldwide about translation in language learning, in the Turkish context the issue still remains largely unexplored. I thus attempt to cross into the borders of this unexplored domain. In doing so, I lean on the pilot study I conducted in 2012, as well as some other research in the field. Unlike most of the previous research, including

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my pilot study, I approach the issue from different perspectives. The findings of the previous research undoubtedly make a substantial contribution to the field; however, they all focus on the impact of translation on a *single* aspect of language or they explore the issue from the teachers' or learners' perspective only. In this study, I aim to find out more about the beliefs of the learners, teachers and student-teachers (people being trained to be language teachers). Students and teachers are the indispensable agents in the learning process; it is difficult to consider their beliefs independently of each other. Thus, exploring the beliefs of these two agents is expected to provide more sound data. Assuming that there is a high number of teachers who approach the use of translation negatively, one of the aims here is to identify the reasons for their decision not to give a place to translation activities. Student-teachers, on the other hand, constitute an interesting group with their dual identity as both students and future teachers. They are also expected to make a substantial contribution to the study by sharing their beliefs about the use of translation in language learning.

Apart from exploring the beliefs of these agents, the fundamental aim of this study is to test a variety of ways translation is used or can be used in foreign-language teaching and to question whether it is conducive or detrimental to language learning. To do this, an experimental study was carried out with two groups of learners studying English at tertiary level. The study particularly explored the effect of translation on the writing and speaking performances of the learners in L2.

Within the scope of this research, translation is discussed as a *technique* in foreign-language teaching rather than a *method* itself. As noted above, some of the opponents of using translation in foreign-language learning believe that the use of translation is equal to adopting the *Grammar-Translation Method*. Indeed, as remarked by Widdowson (2003: 160), translation "is commonly associated with the universally condemned grammar-translation method." However, this study asks about the role of translation within all methods and discusses a variety of translation tasks and activities appropriate for the use in the majority of methods. One of the most favored methods since the 1980s has been *Communicative Language Teaching*. Therefore, the majority of the activities designed and adopted here are based on *Communicative Language Teaching*, although they may also be applied in other methods consistent with the principles of the communicative approach. It is put forward that "differences among methods at the level of approach manifest themselves in the choice of different kinds of learning and teaching activities in the classroom" (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 26). This research presents

translation as one of the techniques teachers can use to maximize the benefit their students gain in the course of their language-learning experience.

The language competence of learners worldwide, including Turkey, is today commonly designated by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). In the CEFR descriptors, the highest level that a language user can reach is C2 (Council of Europe 2003). A proficient language user at C2 level is expected to have the following competencies:

> Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of proficient meaning even in more complex situations. (Council of Europe 2003: 24)

Based on this descriptor, the criterion for proficiency is evidently not only what one can know (grammar and vocabulary knowledge) but also what one can *do* with the language (reading, writing, listening, speaking skills). The CEFR refers to competence in four language skills, i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking. This skill-based approach seems to have been welcomed in foreign-language teaching over the last two decades. Yet recently there has been much debate about translation being the *fifth* language skill, as also mentioned above. This argument seems to make sense since translation can also be improved as learners improve their language proficiency. Therefore, this study also explores whether translation can be considered a fifth language skill in foreign-language learning, alongside reading, writing, listening and speaking.

1.5. An overview of the research questions

Considering the aims and objectives of this study, the main research question to be answered is: *What are the beliefs of the teachers, learners and student-teachers with respect to translation*?

In connection with this, a further question is postulated: *Is there is any overlap in the beliefs of these three agents?*

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In the light of previous research, another research question is: *Does translation as a technique contribute positively to writing and speaking skills of learners?* This question is to be answered on the basis of an empirical treatment.

1.6. An overview of the methodology

Considering my aims and research questions, I decided to adopt a two-fold methodology for this study. As mentioned earlier, the initial aim is to discuss the place of translation as a technique by highlighting the views for and against its use. Thus, at this first stage, I attempted to identify the beliefs of learners, teachers and student-teachers. To do this, I applied different instruments.

I used a 33-item Beliefs Inventory to find out the beliefs of the learners included in the study. With the aim of testing any change in their beliefs after treatment, I applied the inventory twice: at the beginning and at the end of the treatment with experiment group. Any positive change in the beliefs is regarded as evidence of the beneficial role attributed to translation. The beliefs of the learners with respect to the use of translation are expected to provide invaluable data. The questionnaires submitted to the students in control and experiment groups in this study provide detailed information on how translation is regarded from learners' perspective. By sharing their views, students perhaps hold up a mirror to what actually happens in a classroom setting.

The data from teachers were acquired through an online survey that enabled me to reach a wider group of foreign-language teachers in Turkey. This survey asked about preferences for the well-known teaching methods, the reasons why teachers choose one method rather than another and the place they allocate to translation in their classrooms while teaching.

In addition to the beliefs of the teachers and learners, another set of data regarding beliefs was gathered from student-teachers. In order to see how the findings from different groups compare and contrast, student-teachers completed both the Beliefs Inventory given to the learners and the survey conducted online with the teachers.

Apart from the Beliefs Inventory and survey, an experimental study was carried out in the second stage of the study. The learner participants who answered the Beliefs Inventory participated in this study. The learners identified as the experiment group took

English courses with translation being used as one of the techniques, while the learners identified as the control group did not use translation as a teaching technique at all.

The translation tasks and activities designed or adopted in this study were expected to contribute to the speaking and writing skills of the learners. The data obtained from the analysis of the spoken and written exams of the learners are expected to indicate whether translation has any impact, either negatively or positively, on the writing and speaking performances of learners at intermediate level. This study asks about the impact of translation activities on writing and speaking skills as they are both productive skills. They require the learners to produce using the language they study, which offers data for analysis.

Following this methodology, I aim to discover whether translation is part of the existing curriculum and, if so, how translation activities are incorporated into the curriculum. The empirical study is expected to shed light on the impact of translation activities in foreign-language teaching. Then the advantages and disadvantages of using translation as a technique are discussed with reference to previous research. In short, as a result of this methodology, the study basically tries to say whether there is a relation between '*language learning'* and '*translation'*, and whether *translation can aid language learning* in a classroom setting.

1.7. Structure of the thesis

Chapter 2 introduces the concepts frequently used in this study so as to clarify the terms and indicate how they are used here. It also gives an overview of the *background of translation in foreign-language teaching* in sub-section 2.2, while the *arguments for and against the use of translation* are presented in sub-sections 2.3 and 2.4. Exploring the role of translation from different angles, *translation as a technique in foreign-language teaching* and *translation as the fifth language skill* are among the other topics discussed in this chapter.

The literature review is presented in Chapter 3. It introduces studies in the world and Turkish contexts. Considering the high number of studies in the world context, the reports are grouped on the basis of their research areas. Non-experimental and experimental studies are presented separately. Taking into account the main research questions, the review is arranged in sub-sections that also present the previous studies

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reflecting teachers' perceptions, learners' tendency to use translation, and the impact of translation on other skills.

Chapter 4 presents the methodology of the study. In the first sub-section the research design is introduced. After the description of the pilot study, which formed the basis for the present research, the research questions and the hypotheses, the instruments, the population and the relevant materials are explained. Ethical considerations are mentioned. In the subsequent sub-sections, the chapter goes on to describe the key points with respect to how translation is used in language learning in the experiment.

In Chapter 5, the results and the analysis are presented. The results are introduced in sub-sections according to the sources of the data: from the learner experiment, from the learner Beliefs Inventory, from the student-teachers Beliefs Inventory, from the teachers' online survey, and from the student-teachers survey. In addition to the descriptive statistical analysis, the correlations between different sources of data are also presented.

The results of the analysis are discussed in Chapter 6. The chapter first begins with the testing of the hypotheses and then presents additional findings based on the correlations.

In the conclusion chapter, the main findings of the study are summarized along with their possible contributions to translation studies in general and translation and language learning in particular. The limitations of the study are also outlined in this chapter and avenues for future research are mentioned.

Chapter 2. Conceptual Framework

The main purpose of this chapter is to clarify the way some frequently used terms or concepts are used in this study. To this end, in Section 2.1, a number of concepts are addressed and the way they are used within the framework of this research is specified. Section 2.2 presents an overview of the historical background of translation in foreign-learning arranged in three periods: the reign of translation, the collapse and stagnation period and the recent rebirth of translation. The details with respect to each period are presented in separate sub-sections. In Section 2.3, arguments against the use of translation are mentioned, while in the subsequent section these arguments are addressed. Section 2.5 explains the need to incorporate translation into FLT, taking note of five main reasons: humanistic, practical, technical, political and cognitive. In Section 2.6, translation is presented as a technique in FLT. In Section 2.7, language skills are explained and they are approached in more detail in sub-sections 2.7.1 and 2.7.2 as receptive and productive skills. Sub-section 2.7.3 presents an integrated approach towards teaching skills. In Section 2.8, translation is addressed as the fifth language skill and arguments for and against this claim are mentioned in order to provide a wider perspective. In Section 2.9, the use of translation in testing and assessment processes is explained and some national examples of its use are provided.

2.1. Conceptual Clarifications

Although we encounter some concepts frequently and become familiar with them, their references may sometimes be quite confusing when they are used in a rather general sense or when they refer to more than one thing. For example, *language learning* and *language teaching* may seem to be two ordinary concepts, but their use may differ in some contexts. Similarly, *foreign-language* and *second language* can be used interchangeably in many contexts but within the scope of this study there is a difference between them. And *translation* is a rather broad term requiring one to specify its borders. *Spoken translation* (interpreting) and *written translation* are the two modes of translating, which are also

addressed with different names. Thus, it also seems necessary to clarify what they refer to within the framework of this study.

The majority of the arguments against translation result from its association with the *Grammar Translation Method* (GTM) and the way translation is used in this method. A typical lesson in GTM is mainly based on the translation of sentences from a literary text and learners reading aloud their own translations (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015). However, translation need not be restricted within the boundaries of this method. Today, the role assigned to translation is largely discussed within the framework of exploiting it as a technique just like other techniques in the teaching process. Kumaravadivelu (2006: 83) explains that "a variety of labels such as approach, design, methods, practices, principles, procedures, strategies, tactics, techniques, and so on are used to describe various elements constituting language teaching". To discuss the different labels (i.e. method, technique, activity, etc.) attached to translation in a vast amount of research, first there seems to be a need to have a closer look at these commonly used concepts. Within the scope of this thesis, translation is explored as a technique among many others rather than a single method. Therefore, it seems particularly necessary to clarify these three concepts: approach, method and technique, so as to discard ambiguities and better highlight the role of translation.

In the experiment stage, translation is used as an exercise, task, activity and project with the experiment-group learners. Thus, defining these concepts with particular reference to how they are used in this study is likely to prevent any confusion that may arise because of their concurrent uses.

2.1.1. Language learning vs. language teaching

Language learning and *language teaching* are the two concepts that are frequently used in this field. They are also used repeatedly in this study. Most often they are used to refer to the same thing. In some cases, the context concerns the learners, which makes language learning a more appropriate choice, while in other cases the context concerns the teachers, and language teaching is the better alternative.

2.1.2. Foreign-language vs. second language

The terms 'foreign-language' and 'second language' are also sometimes used interchangeably. In this research, *foreign-language* is preferred as it is not a matter of concern here how many languages a learner already knows. As Cook (2010: xxii) notes, using the word "*second* misleadingly implies that all learners know only one other language". In this study, 'foreign-language learning' is used to refer to the learning of a language that is additional to the language or languages already acquired, regardless of the number of the previous languages. The abbreviation L2 is often used here to refer to the foreign-language being learned, while L1 is used to refer to the mother tongue or the native language of the learners.

2.1.3. Translation

The term 'translation' is defined as a process of replacing a text in one language by a text in another (House 2009: 4). This is a very common definition of translation, which highlights its linguistic function. Yet translating is not only a linguistic act; it is also a cultural one, an act of communication across cultures (House 2009: 11). From this perspective, translation may sometimes act as a means of learning about other cultures, a vehicle for the transfer of not only meaning but also of cultural values and experiences. It tends to be a component of many other disciplines such as literature, linguistics and language learning.

In certain contexts, translation is a process, referring to what is happening when someone translates, while in other contexts it refers to a product, a text reproduced in one language based on an original text in another language. In this research, the term 'translation' is used both as a process (learners' translating consciously or subconsciously while learning a language) and as a product (the translated texts produced by learners in the contexts where translation is used a technique). The former includes mental translation while reading, writing, listening or speaking, as well as the translation/interpreting done by the teacher. The latter includes the translation exercises and the translated texts produced by learners as an activity or part of an activity, as well as the interpreting of dialogues or spoken texts by learners.

The learners participating in this research also work on the translated texts to compare and contrast the uses of English, which they study as a foreign-language with

their L1, in addition to the identification of problems in a translated text, including texts produced by machine translation.

2.1.4. Spoken and written translation

It should also be noted that translation can be in both written and spoken modes. There is a widely known distinction between the translation of written texts and spoken texts, where the former is commonly named 'translation' and the latter is called 'interpreting'. Nonetheless, within the scope of this study, the term 'translation' covers both the written and the spoken modes. All the activities involving translation or interpreting are named translation activities. As Pym et al. (2011: 94) notes "the use of 'translation' as a superordinate is common enough in the language-education literature, and it is not unheard of or unmotivated in Translation Studies". Translation and interpreting are the terms generally used to emphasize the distinction between the professions. However, in the classroom setting there seems to be no need for a distinction between translation and interpreting because translation in the classroom tends not to refer to a profession.

2.1.5. Approach, method and technique in FLT

The three terms *approach, method and technique* have been defined and their intersections discussed by many researchers in the field (Anthony 1963; Stern 1991; Kumaravadivelu 2006; Harmer 2007; Ziahosseiny 2009; Richards and Rodgers 2014; Brown and Lee 2015; Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015). It was probably Anthony (1963) who first attempted to clarify the meanings of these three concepts: "He defined *approach* as a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning" (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 84). Almost two decades after Anthony, Richards and Rodgers [(2014: 20); 1st ed. in 1986] revised the framework by preserving its three main classes under different headings: *approach*, *design* and *procedure*. For them, "*approach* refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching". These practices and principles are expected to be in rapport with the approach adopted so as to bring success. Harmer also describes approach as the basis for achieving success in learning. He marks that "an approach describes how people acquire their

knowledge of the language and makes statements about the conditions which will promote successful language learning" (Harmer 2007: 62).

The framework outlined by Richards and Rodgers (2014) looks like "a system that is broader in scope and wider in its applications" (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 84). However, it can be noticed that *method* is not mentioned in their classification. For Richards and Rodgers method is "an umbrella term to refer to the broader relationship between theory and practice in language teaching" (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 86).

Anthony, on the other hand, defined method as "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic; a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods" (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 19). From this perspective, a single approach may include a number of methods. A method can also be seen as "the practical realization of an approach" (Harmer 2007: 62). This definition displays the relationship between approach and method in a clear way and the relationship seems to have been based on an order where an approach includes methods and a method involves certain techniques. In other words, "the tripartite framework is hierarchical in the sense that approach informs method, and method informs techniques (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 85).

According to Anthony's definition, "a technique is implementational -that is, which actually takes place in a classroom" (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 19). As this description emphasizes, a technique is generally related to classroom applications that serve to meet an objective. Anthony also underlines that in order to have a structured teaching, "techniques must be consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well" (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 19). Thus, a teacher may use many techniques, all of which are expected to match with the method(s) being followed. The technique can also be described as "a sequence of classroom activities performed in the classroom environment, prompted by the teacher and practiced by the learner" (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 85).

When these concepts are used to refer to different things, this may cause confusion in the minds of the readers. Therefore, it is hoped that the above clarification will avoid ambiguities.

2.1.6. Exercise, activity, task and project in FLT

Translation has not occupied much space in classroom practice since *GTM* lost its popularity. Much of this disinterest seems to result from the tendency to regard translation as a method only. However, translation can be used as a task or activity just like many others (role-playing, drilling, games, etc.) as well as a form of exercise. And it can also be used outside the classroom as a project. In all cases, it is open to different patterns of interaction such as pair work or group work. Since in this research translation is used in all these forms, it seems to be useful to touch on their distinctions.

'Exercise' is defined by Richards (2017: unpaginated) as "a teaching procedure that involves controlled, guided or open ended practice of some aspect of language. A drill, a cloze activity, a reading comprehension passage can all be regarded as exercises". Translation can simply be used as a form of exercise by having the learners translate a certain part of a passage. Although it can be rather mechanical, it seems to be a useful way of practicing form and meaning together. It can be criticized for not being communicative, however the source-language items can easily be given in a contextualized text rather than isolated sentences with a specific focus on the form to be practiced. Alternatively, the mechanical exercise can be transformed into an activity by a follow-up discussion on possible translations of a single source-language form.

Richards (2017: unpaginated) compares 'activity' to 'exercise' and accounts for the difference as follows: "The term activity is more general and refers to any kind of purposeful classroom procedure that involves learners doing something that relates to the goals of the course". There are more chances for communication in the process of an activity and learners are expected to take active role in an activity. For Richards (2017: unpaginated) "singing a song, playing a game, taking part in a debate, having a group discussion, are all different kinds of teaching activities". All these activities can be creatively designed in a way to include translation. Examples of this are provided in the methodology chapter.

Like 'exercise' and 'activity', a 'task' is an in-class procedure. There is a method as well as a syllabus named after it: Task-Based Language Learning (*TBLT*). Richards (2017: unpaginated) explains that a task "is something that learners do or carry out, using their existing knowledge resources or those that have been provided in pre-task work". According to this definition, learners find the opportunity to practice the knowledge they have been provided in advance while being engaged with the task or sometimes they learn

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while doing the task. However, Richards (2017: unpaginated) also notes that a task "has an outcome which is not simply linked to learning language, though language acquisition may occur as the learner carries out the task". Thus, learners are not expected to have a certain language focus while doing the task. Instead, they are expected to focus on achieving a certain goal. Tasks are common both in *CLT* and *TBLT*. There are different types of tasks in *TBLT* such as an *information-gap task*, which requires an exchange of information between learners to complete the task, an *opinion-gap task* which involves learners' expressing their own ideas, feelings and beliefs, a *reasoning-gap task* which deems learners to make inference from the information they are already provided with in order to complete a task as well as *focused* and *unfocused tasks* which are designed to encourage learners to use a specific language item or not. In addition to these, *input-providing tasks* aim to practice the receptive skills of the learners while *output-prompting tasks* aim to practice productive skills (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 158-160). Apart from all that has been said, a task needs to be meaningful and it requires the learners to communicate while performing it. It should have a clear outcome that tells the teacher and students whether or not the communication has been successful (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 149). Thus, as a result of the interaction with other learners to carry out the task, students practice their communication and interactional strategies. A task is a purely communicative procedure and as a communicative act translation can well be used as a task. For instance, as a very simple example of an information gap and an output prompting task, a learner who is provided with certain information in L1 can be asked to share it in L2 with a learner who does not have that information. In other words, the learner is expected to engage in a translation task. Following this, the learner who is provided with the new information can complete a schedule that includes some missing information.

A final procedure used in the present research is the 'project', which is currently rather popular in teaching. Like an activity and a task, a project aims to encourage learners to practice language the way it used in the real world. By focusing on real-world language use, a project familiarizes students with the world outside the classroom. Unlike an activity or a task, a project is also implemented outside the class, although it may be initiated, monitored or completed as a part of classwork. It consists of three stages. In the first stage, learners prepare for the project under the guidance of their teacher. In the second stage, learners work outside the classroom to gather the information they need. In the final stage, learners review their work, perform it and receive feedback from their

teacher. At any stage of the project, learners may consult the teacher and ask for opinions (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 157-158). The present research involves a translation project, which is explained in detail in the methodology chapter.

2.2. Historical background of translation in FLT

For years, the idea of resorting translation while teaching a foreign-language has been theoretically rejected, mainly because of its close association with *GTM* and its negative reputation. Cook (2010) calls this an "insidious association" and adds that "it has lodged itself […] deeply in the collective consciousness of the language-teaching profession" (2010: 156). As a result of this, some have probably never thought of any alternative ways to exploit translation and tend to believe that the only way to incorporate translation into FLT is the way it was done in *GTM*. That is, once you welcome translation in your class, it would mean that the whole lesson is structured within the framework of translation. Many people seem to have the mistaken idea that translation activities can have no place in teaching through other methods. However, more recent work (Duff 1989; Malmkjaer 1998; Stibbard 1998; Gonzalez Davies 2004; Cook 2010; Pym et al. 2013; Kerr 2014) has shown a number of creative ways of incorporating translation into other methods. A closer look at the shift in attitudes towards translation in the history of FLT should contribute to the discussions for and against translation.

2.2.1. The sparkling reign of translation in FLT

Until the beginning of the 20th century, the *Grammar-Translation Method* (*GTM*) dominated almost all FLT contexts. It was called different names but the classroom practice was more or less similar. Since it was mainly used in the teaching of the classical languages Latin and Greek in the early 19th century, it was first called the *Classical Method* (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 11). At those times, language instruction was mainly carried out at individuals' houses. Later, language teaching became institutionalized in the mid-19th century in Germany and the method came to be known as the *Prussian Method* and then called the *GTM* (Richards and Rogers 2014: 5).

As the name suggests, *Grammar-Translation Method* entails the teaching of a language by putting great emphasis on the grammar and practicing it through translation.

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This can also be deduced from the descriptions that identify the method. Stern (1983: 453) notes that "its principal practice technique is translation from and into the target language.". Likewise, Richards and Rodgers (2014: 5) describe the teaching process through the *GTM* as "the detailed analysis of grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of target language". As a result, grammar and translation are believed to be the two significant features of the method. Contrary to common understanding, Howatt and Widdowson (2010: 151), nevertheless, argue that "the grammar-translation label is misleading in some respects". They explain that grammar and translation, highlighted in the name, were put there by the critics in the late 19th century who wanted to emphasize the teaching of grammar without any texts and the overuse of translation, not only to teach meaning but also to practice language use. However, these two features were not really of great importance to the creators of the method in the late 18th century. The reason for them to stick to the main features of grammar and translation was because these were the techniques that both the teachers and the learners of the time were acquainted with (Howatt and Widdowson 2010: 151).

The name does not suggest any reference to specific language skills. However, since it flourished at a time when there was a great interest in reading classics, the *GTM* aimed to improve the reading skills of the learners so that they could become competent readers. When the context in which *GTM* was born is considered, it is easier to understand the reasons for its flourishing: intellectuals wanted to be able to read the Latin and Greek classics. Like most methods, *GTM* was born as a result of the needs of the given period and maintained its popularity as long as it continued to serve those needs.

Although the importance of the role assigned to grammar and translation in the *GTM* cannot be denied, even in the *GTM* the goal of teaching cannot be described as being to teach students how to translate. Gaining competence in grammar and translation was actually seen as a means to an end, which was to become competent readers. Being able to make grammatically correct sentences and competence in translation were believed to serve this purpose. Despite its excessive use, from this perspective, this approach towards translation is similar to the one used in this research: translation is a vehicle to reach the ultimate goal. The reign of translation, however, was shaken by the criticisms directed at it, as well as the changing needs for learning a foreign-language.

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2.2.2. The collapse and stagnation of translation in FLT

The popularity of the *GTM* began to lessen as a result of change in the need to learn a foreign-language. Being able to read world classics was no longer a prevalent reason for learning a foreign-language. Instead, the primary goal of learners was to achieve *oral* proficiency to be able to communicate (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 7). The shift in learning goals seems to have triggered a shift in teaching principles. "The Reform Movement was founded on three basic principles […]: the primacy of speech, the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process, and the absolute priority of an oral classroom methodology" (Howatt and Widdowson 2010: 189). The principles of the Reform Movement indicate a shift in priorities, emphasizing improvement of the speaking skill. Thus, the change in the objectives would inevitably bring a change in the techniques used in the class. Translation was no longer favored.

To explain the attitude of the reformers towards translation, Howatt (1984) remarks that translation was used for two main reasons in language learning. One of them was the use of L1 to scaffold the learners when they felt confused with a word or expression. The reformers did not reach agreement on this issue. While some of them stood against it by emphasizing the importance of mental work in trying to figure out the meaning of a word or expression, others consented to its use on the grounds that it enabled the teacher not to waste the time that could be spent on other useful activities. The other use of translation, its actual use as an activity in itself, was rather disfavored by the reformers. They agreed that learners would benefit more from composition exercises than translation (Howatt 1984: 191).

The Reform Movement, along with the *Direct Method* that followed it, brought about a change in the goal of language teaching. There was a shift in focus of learning from reading to learning. A vast number of learners aimed to learn a foreign-language within a short period of time and become proficient at speaking. Translation was no longer regarded as a useful technique to practice or improve the speaking skills of the learners. Cook (2010: 20-21) describes the period as a time when translation was actually ignored rather than rejected, as it was not even considered an issue to be discussed. The Reform Movement favored the use of L2 as a medium of instruction and of interaction in the class; accordingly, there was no room for translation.

The two methods originating after the Reform Movement were the *Direct Method* and the *Audio-Lingual Method*. Neither of these allowed translation. As a matter of fact,

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in the Audio-Lingual method, there was strong emphasis on habit formation, and the learners' habits in L1 were thought to hinder their progress in L2 learning (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 5-46).

The years between 1950 and 1980 witnessed the emergence of many alternative methods, which were usually rather short-lived and attracted few people (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 15). The methods were applicable in certain contexts with specific groups of learners. For instance, the US *Army Method* had great success with a highly motivated group of adult learners in classes with small numbers of learners. It was mainly developed after World War II to enable military personnel achieve mastery in speaking certain European languages in the shortest time possible. The instruction was carried out mainly by a native speaker accompanied by a linguist; there was no room for translation (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 51). Two decades after the mid-20th century, there was interest in comparing L2 and L1 to mark out where they differ. This was called the *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*, which "by no means entails the use of translation" (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 25), yet apparently allowed one to refer to L1.

The *Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning* and *Total Physical Response* all adopted rather moderate attitudes towards L1 use. Although they did not include any translation activities designed for practice, they were not against the use of L1. They commonly allowed it in the initial stages of learning, particularly to give instructions or provide feedback and sometimes to facilitate the learning process by encouraging learners to build bridges from the known to the unknown (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2015). However, although this tolerant attitude towards translation seems to have been promising, it does not seem possible to interpret this as an active period for translation. In most cases, the purpose of allowing translation was to break the ice with learners at the beginning, to achieve meaningful communication and to provide a good learning atmosphere. In none of the methods given above was translation used as a technique for practice.

The cautious attitude towards translation prevailed during the movements that yielded *Communicative Language Teaching* (*CLT*) and *Task Based Teaching* (*TBLT*) in the late 20th century. Of these, the former put emphasis on meaning and its main goal was to make learners able to communicate in L1. To achieve this, the advocates of *CLT* highlighted the importance of using L2 during communicative activities and as a medium of interaction between the teacher and the learners. Yet, they still allowed the "judicious" use of L1 (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 115-125). *TBLT* had the goal of

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encouraging the learners to learn by working on various tasks with specific outcomes. The tasks were expected to be similar to real-life situations. There was no role assigned to L1 explicitly, which meant there were not any translation tasks. In addition, learners were encouraged to interact in L2 while working on the task (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015: 149-157).

The historical overview reveals that the rejection of translation at the beginning of the 20th century was replaced with a relatively objective attitude towards the end of the century. Some voices were raised in favor of translation (Atkinson 1987; Tudor 1987; Malmkjaer 1998; Cook 2010) and research was done by some prominent figures in the field (Widdowson 1978; Howatt 1984; Stern 1991). Translation at least became an issue. Nevertheless, much of the debate still predominantly addressed L1 use, putting translation in a peripheral position. Yet, since translation entails the use of L1, this can be interpreted as an important step towards rebirth.

2.2.3. The rebirth of translation in FLT

The reign of translation in the 19th century was followed by a harsh rejection. This negative attitude towards L1 use and translation gradually lessened and led to a relatively silent period. In the majority of the discussions in the 20th century, translation was not even considered as an issue. Today, this aloof attitude has been replaced with a more tolerant one, probably as a result of the changes taking place in the academic and political atmospheres. The first decade of the 21st century has seen an increased interest in the use of students' own languages (Cook 2010: 37). This change may have taken place owing to the recognition of bilingualism or multilingualism. There seems to be a tendency towards embracing the use of more than one language, not only in political contexts but also in academic contexts.

In the political setting, the effects of globalization have tended to bring in variety. As globalization promotes the connection between different countries, nations and cultures, communication between them is enhanced as well. Cross-cultural communication is inherently associated with translation. Since learning a foreign-language is not a short-term ambition, those who fail to communicate with others inevitably call on translation.

In the academic setting, the borders between languages and disciplines seem to have been removed to a large extent. Different languages and disciplines appear to be

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benefiting from each other. Interdisciplinary approaches are appreciated in many settings. The old strict approaches have also begun to be replaced. Cook (2010) summarizes the changes in the field of linguistics as follows:

> In linguistics the old preoccupation with separating language from context, as well as other rigid dichotomies in the study of language, such as those between mind and society, form and meaning, classroom and reality, native and foreign speaker, synchronic and diachronic study, are giving way to more complex and fluid categories. (2010: 38)

In addition to these modifications, an apparent change took place in the attitude towards native-speaker teachers. In the past, great importance was attached to being educated by a native speaker and native speakers were paid a lot more than non-native teachers. Language schools and institutions based their publicity on the possibility of being taught by native speakers. However, native-speaker teachers seem not to be valued so highly anymore. Neither is native-like pronunciation. It is widely accepted today that English is the most popular foreign-language and the majority of people who communicate through English are not the native speakers but those who use it as a second or third language.

This appreciation of bilingualism might be expected to cause a shift in attitudes to translation. However, this possible support has failed to transform translation into a common practice in the two most widely-used methods: *CLT* and *TBLT*. While L1 use was more tolerantly accepted as a result of positive attitudes towards bilingualism, translation was kept apart from this issue. Translation seems to have been associated with the *GTM* so much that the vast number of ways to exploit it were assumed to be trapped within the boundaries of the *GTM*. Nevertheless, it is an undeniable fact that translation is not criticized as harshly as it used to be and it has become an issue on the agenda of the prominent figures of the field. Books are written to discuss alternative ways of incorporating translation as an activity (Cook 2010; Kerr 2014) and chapters are devoted to the issue, along with L1 use (Harmer 2007). There are papers presented at the national and international English Language Teaching conferences. All these contribute to making translation an issue to be considered and discussed. Although there are still voices against translation, the fact that it is being discussed is rather promising and it seems that once translation manages to get rid of its ties with the GTM, it will be reborn from the ashes.

2.3. Arguments against translation in FLT

The history of FLT reveals that objections to translation in the teaching of a foreign-language tend to stem from disapproval of the goals of the *Grammar Translation Method* (*GTM*) (Malmkjaer 1998; Cook 2010; Kerr 2014). The *GTM* is actually the method that is assumed to have placed translation at the core of language teaching: "The reaction against the use of *GTM* has been transformed into a reaction towards all kinds of translation activities and this reaction has prevailed until today" (Bear 1996: 228). Indeed, the negative attitude reached a point where no act of translation was welcome in the classroom: "For a long time the pivotal point of foreign-language teaching, translation has been banned from the language classroom for quite a while" (Popovic 2001: 3). In some cases, neither the teachers nor the students are permitted to translate. This ban can sometimes manifest itself in the form of peer pressure or may be imposed as an institutional policy: "Around the globe, there are language schools that threaten to dismiss teachers who use translation in class" (Kerr 2014: 9).

My personal experience also confirms that language teachers in Turkey prefer to avoid or often are told to avoid translation while teaching a foreign-language. As Duff (1989: 5) notes, "[t]oday translation is largely ignored as a valid activity for language practice and improvement". Duff (1989: 5) attributes this neglect to the fact that "over the centuries translation had gradually become fossilized. It became less and less associated with the excitement of new discoveries, more and more with the tedium of book learning". Duff points out the inability of translation to be integrated into the more modern methods and techniques used to teach foreign-languages. While "GTM preserved the basic framework of grammar and translation because these were already familiar both to teachers and pupils from their classical studies" (Howatt and Widdowson 2010: 151), translation may have not sounded functional to those teaching and learning for purposes other than those of 19th century language learners.

When the idea of incorporating translation into language teaching is raised, teachers tend to express their disapproval and unwillingness by voicing repeated concerns. Researchers have also highlighted the disadvantages of pedagogical translation in terms similar to those used by teachers. Since there are arguments that are common to both theorists and teachers, they are worth considering. The most widespread criticisms of translation are as follows:

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Translation decreases learners' exposure to L2. When teachers rely too much on L1, learners will not be exposed to enough input within the classroom.

Translation is not communicative. In communicative approaches, the tasks and activities are expected to have a place in real life (Harmer 2007; Howatt and Widdowson 2010; Richards and Rodgers 2014). Although translation inherently serves communicative purposes, translation activities are often criticized for not having any communicative value (Carreres 2006). It seems that translation is not believed to be a language skill that can be applied in life outside the classroom. For its opponents, "translation is an artificial stilted exercise that has no place in a communicative methodology" (Carreres 2006: 5). Besides, since learners may spend most of the time working alone when they translate, there is limited interaction to enhance communication, or so it is argued.

Translation slows learners down during their production process. Having been regarded useless at enhancing communicative abilities, translation is also thought to have a negative effect on the pace of communication. Language teachers often warn their students against translating before they speak or write in L2. They underline that translating would slow them down and suggest that they should think in L2. It is argued that translation "prevents students from thinking in the foreign-language" (Malmkjaer 1998: 6), which seems to be a desirable goal for many teachers. Cook (2010) explains the harmful effects of translation as follows:

> Translation is often considered to be detrimental both to fluency in communication and to the learner's development of a new language. [...] The person who has learned through translation will forever be locked into this laborious process, and always be condemned to start production and finish comprehension in their own language, and unable, to use a popular formulation, 'to think in the language' they have learned. (2010: 88)

Translation is not appealing. Apart from being uncommunicative, translation is also identified as being boring, pointless, difficult and/or irrelevant (Duff 1989: 3; Bear 1991: 228). Translation exercises are often associated with the *GTM* and learners are thought not to be interested in those exercises. It is often beyond imagination that teachers could design translation tasks and activities that can both improve the language abilities of the learners and encourage them to remain engaged.

Translation leads to interference from L1. When learners give translation a pivotal role, their L1 knowledge is thought to be interfering with their L2 learning. They may try

to search for the exact equivalent for every word in L2 and this can "mislead students into thinking that expressions in two languages correspond one-to-one" (Malmkjaer 1998: 6). While trying in vain to find equivalence for every word or expression, the learners' production pace slows down. Therefore, as Carreres (2006: 5) puts the argument, "translation into L2 is counterproductive in that it forces learners to view the foreign-language always through the prism of their mother tongue; this causes interferences and a dependence on L1 that inhibits free expression in L2".

Translation does not contribute to the improvement of other skills. Today it is common to teach the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) with an integrated approach. Each skill is expected to be complementary to the others. However, translation is thought to be "confined to only two skills -reading and writing" (Duff 1989: 5); therefore, it is not expected to help develop the other skills. It is also sometimes claimed that translation cannot be related to the other skills at all, to the extent that "translation is independent of the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening" (Malmkjaer 1998: 6).

Translation is a waste of time. Some researchers argue against the pedagogical use of translation on the grounds that it "takes up valuable time which could be used to teach these four skills" (Malmkjaer 1998: 6). Instead of translating, learners are believed to benefit more from other activities that develop their skills. Translation is thus not favored as a classroom activity because "it is also time consuming and wasteful" (Duff 1989: 5).

Translation is feasible only in monolingual classes. In multilingual contexts, the learners (and sometimes the teacher) do not have shared knowledge of all the languages involved. Therefore, learners cannot engage in the same translation task using the same L1 (Kerr 2014: 10-11).

Apart from these major widespread arguments, the use of translation is also not favored for a variety of other reasons. As Duff (1989: 5) notes, "[i]t is associated with 'different language', with literary or scientific texts, and it is not suited to general needs of the language learner". From this perspective, a typical language learner need not develop competence in translation while learning a foreign-language. For Bear (1991: 228) "there are people who argue that translation cannot have a place in teaching as it is regarded as an artistic work and requires knowing both languages very well". In other words, in addition to advanced level of linguistic knowledge, translation requires some artistic ability as well. And Malmkjaer (1998: 6) notes that translation "is claimed to have no use in the teaching process and is defined as a 'bad test of language skills'".

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All of these major and minor reasons are being discussed within the latest approaches and methods in FLT. Recent research and empirical studies address these arguments and offer justifications for each, as we shall see in the next chapter.

2.4. Addressing the arguments against translation in FLT

The arguments against the use of translation are widely voiced in many different contexts. Yet only in limited contexts can teachers who do not take a negative stand confess their translation practice and related beliefs. This should explain why teachers may tend to under-report their inclination to include translation in their teaching practice (see Chapter 6). Before discussing the uses of translation in language teaching, there is a need to address the arguments stated above. The counter-arguments can be summarized as follows:

Translation decreases learners' exposure to L2. There can be no doubt that learners benefit from intensive exposure to L2. However, translation need not be confused with overuse of L1 by the teacher or the learners, as there are many other interactive and communicative means of using translation in the classroom. As Kerr (2014: 3) notes, "[t]he fact that some teachers overuse the students' own language in translation-aided teaching cannot justify the complex exclusion of this language, especially if judicious use of it may generate large amounts of the target language".

Translation is not communicative. This argument basically ensues from close association of translation with the *GTM*. However, the more recent research into translation indicates many communicative uses of pedagogical translation (Duff 1989; Tudor 1997; Gonzalez Davies 2004; Kerr 2014). This communicative use of translation also matches the communicative function of translation in real-life: "The incorporation of translation into task-based activities teaches students that translation is not a discrete and useless grammar drill but rather a communicative tool to help them achieve real-life tasks" (Ali 2012: 429). Thus, there seems to be a need to consider translation from a different perspective. As Duff (1989: 14-15) puts it, "translation need not be done in isolation. Most of the activities are based on work in pairs or small groups. The purpose of this is to give the students a chance to be heard, to test their ideas against those of other, and to listen and compare". Working in pairs and groups also fits in well with the principles of communicative approaches. Learners can be involved in translation in a

group, carrying out discussions to come up with a more appropriate translation and thus keeping interaction at the maximum level.

Translation slows learners down during their production process. Because of the retarding effect of translation on the pace of communication, the fluency of learners is thought to be impeded. It is often thought that learners are likely to become more fluent speakers of L2 when they start to think in that language. This is one of the clear aims of the Direct Method, which was generated as an alternative to the *GTM*: As Larsen-Freeman and Anderson explains (2015: 30), "[t]eachers who use the Direct Method intend that students learn how to communicate in the target language. In order to do this successfully, students should learn to think in that language". Yet this does not seem so easy, since people may instinctively tend to think in their L1. Besides, learners are likely to develop the ability to think in L2 as they advance their grammar and vocabulary knowledge as well as spoken language skills.

Translation is not appealing. This argument is also associated with how the *GTM* treated translation. Briefly expressed, the learners are given a text (or sometimes isolated sentences) that could even be incomplete and out of context and they are not informed about what kind of a text it is or why and for whom they are translating (there is no mention of target readers of the translated text). The focus is on the language structures they are trying to practice through translation (Malmkjaer 1998: 6). However, the pedagogical use of translation can go far beyond that practice. Although learners may not find it interesting to do mechanical translation exercises where they take the floor one by one to translate the next sentence, translation can be integrated to the teaching program in innovative ways. If the teacher attempts to use the old translation techniques within a teaching program that includes many other interactive, technological and communicative activities, it is quite possible for translation to yield disappointing results. Translation needs to be adapted to today's teaching techniques. For instance, a number of activities (e.g. subtitling and dubbing) can be designed using technologies that are expected to enhance interest in translation. Further, translation is not an activity to be carried out alone by each learner. Learners are likely to become engaged with translation in pairs and in group work. Through collaborative work, they can learn from each other and benefit more from the process.

Translation leads to interference from L1. All learners of a foreign-language have a mother tongue, which they cannot put aside. It is quite understandable to resort to it when they are struggling to write or speak in L2. If they know one thing, inevitably they

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tend to make use of it when learning another thing. Lightbown and Spada (2013: 57) support the idea of exploiting previous knowledge in the course of learning something new by highlighting that "learners draw on the patterns of other languages as they try to discover the complexities of the new language they are learning". This comparison does not seem to be something that can be prevented easily. As Harmer (2007: 133) argues, "students will make these comparisons anyway, so we may as well help them do it more effectively. It will help them to understand certain classes of error if we are able to show them such differences". Thus learners can also benefit from contrastive analysis between two languages. Teachers often complain about their students translating word for word, which can nevertheless function as a useful way of drawing attention to these variations. Duff (1989: 6) emphasizes the role of translation in recognizing the differences in the way two languages operate by noting that "translation helps us to understand better the influence of the one language on the other, and to correct errors of habit that creep in unnoticed". Translation may thus enhance the awareness of the learners by transforming the unnoticed into noticed.

Translation does not contribute to the improvement of other skills. It is quite impossible to regard translation as being separate from the other skills, since the act of translating necessarily entails reading and writing or listening and speaking, if it is oral translation. As Malmkjaer (1998: 8) argues, "far from being independent of the other four skills, translation is in fact dependent on and inclusive of them, and the language students who are translating will be forced to practice them". How could translating have no effect on the other skills when it inherently requires their practice? There is a large amount of recent research scrutinizing the effects of translation on other language skills, with rather promising results (Brooks 1996; Cohen et al. 2000; Kim 2010; Hosseini-Maasoud and Mahdiyan 2012; Boshrabadi 2014).

Translation is a waste of time. Considering the uses mentioned above, the time spent on translation cannot be regarded as having been spent in vain. Perhaps a translation activity may take longer in some contexts with some groups of learners and at certain levels; however, if it is proven to meet needs, then it is worth a try.

Translation is feasible only in monolingual classes. It is quite natural for translation to receive more interest in contexts where the teacher and learners share the same language. Yet there are ways to integrate translation into multilingual classes. When learners share a common language but the teacher does not, it is still possible to engage in pair and group work. In contexts where the learners do *not* share a common language,

learners may be encouraged to consider the differences between their L1 and L2 or use translation for self-study (Kerr 2014: 10-11). Learners can be encouraged to explain how their own language works to the other learners in the class. By sharing the similarities and differences, they learn about the way other languages work.

Considering these counter-arguments, translation seems to deserve a chance in language classrooms. In light of these encouraging explanations, we will now discuss the grounds on which translation might be deemed necessary in language-teaching contexts.

2.5. The need to incorporate translation into FLT

The use of translation as a pedagogical tool has been justified by many researchers (Harmer 2007; Cook 2010; Kerr 2014). Having highlighted this need, Howatt (1984) also draws attention to the fact that translation should not be used the way it was in the *GTM*:

> The practice of translation has been condemned so strenuously for so long without any really convincing reasons that it is perhaps time the profession took another look at it. Was it really translation that the reformers objected to a hundred years ago, or, as Prendergast suggest, the way in which it was used? (Howatt 1984: 161)

When there are so many alternative ways to exploit translation in the classroom, it would be a pity to condemn it with the old arguments about the *GTM* and vote for its exclusion. Even if it is excluded from the classrooms, today translation is everywhere in our lives: "Outside the classroom […] translation is going on, all the time. Why not inside the classroom?" (Duff 1989: 6).

Beyond the simple replies to negative arguments, there are several main reasons why the role of translation is being reconsidered. We will now consider the many levels on which these reasons operate.

2.5.1. Humanistic reasons

It seems obvious that learning is facilitated when learners feel relaxed and free. This means that having many prohibitions in the classroom is likely to affect the learning process negatively. One of the most frequently observed restrictions in the classroom is the amount of L1 use. Although it is admittedly useful to encourage learners to

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communicate in L2, it seems rather discouraging to impose this as a rule. This is likely to create a hostile atmosphere in the classroom by having relatively shy learners prefer not to express themselves. The teachers can also resort to translation whenever they feel learners are becoming tense and are not keeping up with the lesson. Harmer (2007: 133-134) thus considers that "students (and their teachers) can use the L1 to keep the social atmosphere of the class in good repair".

Although more emphasis is placed on using translation as a mediating tool, learners at all levels are likely to benefit from multiple translation activities. Learners engaging in translation in pairs or groups can improve by sharing their opinions, justifying their decisions and considering other possibilities. As Stibbard (1998: 71) notes, "justification for the use of translation is also found in the role assigned to it in affective-humanistic approaches in TEFL, which emphasize the need to reduce anxiety in the early stages of language learning by allowing some use of the mother tongue".

2.5.2. Practical reasons

Translation can be used in classes for practical reasons. In other words, it is practical because it saves time. Teachers sometimes spend minutes explaining something in L2 and their efforts can be in vain because their words do not make much sense to the learners. However, if the teacher uses a word or two in L1, the likelihood of the learners grasping the meaning could be higher. A learner who does not understand anything is more likely to lose interest in the lesson than will a learner who tries to keep up with a teacher who uses one or two L1 words as a clue. Kerr (2014) suggests teachers leave the jargon in L1 when using meta-language, which he describes as taking the short cut.

Learners can also benefit from code-switching. When teachers use code-switching in the class, they move between L1 and L2. Cook (2010: 46) notes that "[m]any recent studies and materials have, with varying degrees of caution, been supportive of code-switching". When a lesson is interrupted by a student who asks the meaning of a word while they are engaged with a reading task, the teacher can quickly give the meaning in L1 and proceed with the lesson. Particularly when it is not a target word in the context, this is unlikely to have a detrimental effect on the learning process. Code-switching may sometimes help learners proceed in carrying out a task. When they are stuck in trying to explain something just because they cannot figure out the meaning of a word, expression or usage, they can benefit code-switching instead of simply choosing silence. As Cook

(2010: 32) puts it, "[a] learner may well resort to unidiomatic formulations or to code-switching or translation in order to complete a task in an authentic way". In addition to the classroom context, code-switching and loan words are quite frequent in everyday life. In the news, in films or on the street, Turkish people frequently use English words even where there are clear equivalents in Turkish. It seems that this is a popular trend in the rest of the world, as well. Stibbard (1998) takes note of the wide use of code-switching in Hong Kong in everyday life, which makes it difficult to exclude it from the classroom: "This code-mixing and code-switching is so characteristics of the Hong Kong linguistic situation that to ignore it in the classroom would be foolish and try to ban it would be futile" (Stibbard 1998: 70).

The judicious use of all these ways of using L1 needs to be considered for practicality in the teaching process.

2.5.3. Technical reasons

We are living in a digital world where technology is indispensable. So technology occupies a large space in language classrooms today. Coursebooks are designed in accordance with the popular technological tools and teachers are trained to exploit them to the fullest. However, there is one technological tool that is often presented as a villain: online translation sites like *Google Translate* or *Microsoft Translate*. These are accessible to all learners who are familiar with technology. Since these systems do not offer definitely accurate solutions, learners are often forbidden to make use of them. Nevertheless, learners do use these technologies. It is common for them to resort to them when they are trying to write something in L2. It is thus imperative to teach learners how to use online machine translation in a principled way, instead of banning its use. The prospective employees of the future are likely to make use of it at certain stages in their professional lives; therefore, it seems useful to learn about them while in training.

2.5.4. Political reasons

Some political reasons are given by Kerr (2014) when he notes the dominance of L1 speakers of English in the world of FLT. For him, the discourse of FLT is created mainly by L1 speakers of English and their teaching background is identified with monolingual classes in languages with ideally twelve students. However, this is not the reality today.

In the Turkish context, for instance, it is rarely possible to have classes with such a limited number of learners. Further, only a limited amount of learning is guided by L1 speakers of English. In Turkey, it is not common to have an L1 speaker of English in a public school and there are only a few L1 speakers teaching in most private schools. The institutions where the number is relatively higher tend to employ L1 speakers of English for commercial reasons. They believe that they will attract more learners if they offer the opportunity to be taught by an L1 speaker of English. In other words, "many private schools sell themselves on their native speaker teachers" (Kerr 2014: 4). Since the teacher does not share the language of the learners there is no room for the L1 of the learners. Thus, translation has no place either. However, changing needs have resulted in a shift in this commonly-valued way of teaching.

As a consequence of globalization, there is an immense need for translation. English is a medium of communication in many contexts, and those who fail to communicate in English potentially demand translation services. Thus, translators are becoming more visible in many political and social settings. Particularly in the tourism sector as well as trade, there is a clear need for translations. No matter what nationality one belongs to, the preferred language for communication is English. As Stibbard (1998: 71) notes "English is a lingua franca for travel and trade and many speakers of it will be called upon to translate to and from their mother tongue". Travel agencies, for example, employ translators or bilingual guides when they organize international tours, and established companies prefer bilingual or multilingual employees. Even when people are not trained to become translators, they are likely to find themselves in a situation where they need to translate just because they know a foreign-language. Therefore, having experience in translation offered during foreign-language education would probably help future performance.

2.5.5. Cognitive reasons

Despite all the intimidating warnings by teachers, it seems impossible to interfere with the minds of language learners and prevent them from translating in their heads. That is to say, translation might be excluded from the classroom, but it cannot be excluded from the heads of the learners. When we learn something new, we use what we already know as a basis for building these new pieces of information Ellis (2009: 153) explains this with a comparison by noting that "the language calculator has no 'clear' button". In other

words, you cannot simply act as if you do not have any L1 linguistic knowledge while you are learning a new language. Learners of L2 are highly likely to make use of their L1 sources through comparison when they try to learn a new language. All learners of a second or foreign-language bring in a large repertoire in L1. They have already built linguistic knowledge in L1, so they are likely to benefit from a mode of learning built on their previous learning. For instance, when people learn how to drive a car, if they have any knowledge of how to ride a bike they are likely to transfer their previous knowledge. Evidence from both cognitive linguistics and neuroscience points strongly towards a role for the students' own language in the language classroom (Kerr 2014: 5). Contexts that bring learners with the same L1 together serve as a good setting to encourage learners use their L1 repertoire. The latest tendency in textbooks to teach L2 German (e.g. *Deutsch ist easy!* and *Menschen*) is to include translation activities as well as parts that encourage comparative grammar (Pym et al. 2013: 68). This is an example of how learners' previous knowledge can be used while teaching a new language.

2.6. Translation as a technique in FLT

Technique in this research is used to refer to all kinds of in-class work carried out to meet the goals of the teaching. A project is considered to be work carried outside the class and is expected to supplement the class work. Within this framework, translation is suggested as a technique that can be used alternatively in each method: "For every method, there are some techniques, that is, classroom activities" (Ziahosseiny 2009: 2). Translation may be adapted to the method the teacher applies and can provide learners with an opportunity to practice.

As discussed above, one of the strongest reasons for translation remaining unpopular for such a long period is its close association with the *GTM*. In the *GTM*, the whole method was based on the translation act and this is not an appealing practice anymore. Therefore, translation needs to have a different image in order to meet the needs of today's learners. In this research translation is assigned a variety of roles as a form of exercise, activity, task or project. In other words, it is used as a technique that may be designed in a vast number of ways depending on the needs of the learners as well as the goals of the lesson.

Whether being used as an exercise, activity, task or project, translation techniques can be used to improve the receptive and productive language skills of the learners. Since translation can be used as means of communication in either an oral or written form, it seems to be an ideal way to practice those skills in an integrated way. As this research aims to scrutinize the impact of translation on the writing and speaking performances of the language learners, it is worth having a closer look at the language skills.

2.7. Language skills

The main language skills used in the context of FLT tend to be divided into four: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Of these, reading and listening are classified as *receptive skills*, while writing and speaking are classified as *productive skills* (Harmer 2007: 265). Each of these skills is further divided into sub-skills, which will not be considered within the scope of this research.

Certain common distinctive features require the skills to be grouped under separate headings. However, it is not possible to separate them from each other: "[p]roduction and reception are two sides of the same coin" (Brown 2007: 316). In most cases, they function together not only in the classroom but also in real life. Thus, they complement or support each other. The skills are nevertheless scrutinized under these two main headings below in order to clarify their interrelatedness as well as their role in this research.

2.7.1. Receptive skills

The term *receptive skills* is used for reading and listening. These are the skills where the listener or the reader extracts meaning from an oral or written discourse. To grasp the meaning in a certain oral or written discourse, learners are expected to become fully engaged with what they hear or read (Harmer 2007: 265). They receive messages from what they are hearing or reading and are expected to comprehend them.

The impact of translation work on the improvement of *receptive* language skills is not considered within the framework of this research.

2.7.2. Productive skills

The term *productive skills* is used for writing and speaking. These are the skills where learners are required to produce language. Since learners engage in production, they actively use language while using these skills (Harmer 2007: 265).

In this research, the impact of translation on the productive skills of the learners is scrutinized. The language produced through speaking and writing is accepted as an important index of the level and improvement of the learners' language use. Further, since translation is a means of communication that requires production, it is expected to help to improve these two language skills that involve production.

2.7.3. An integrated approach towards teaching skills

Although skills are grouped under different headings according to their specific characteristics, it is not possible to separate them from each other, neither in the classroom nor in the real world. When we start a conversation with someone, it requires us to listen and react in speaking accordingly. Therefore, we integrate listening and speaking skills. Similarly, when we read an article, we may take notes for further consideration. In this case, reading and writing skills are integrated. Since the integration of language skills is a natural procedure in the real world, it seems rational to reflect it to the classroom practice. Today, the prevalent tendency is not to teach skills in isolation, as they are almost never used separately in real life.

In his list including the advantages of integrating two or more skills, Brown remarks that "one skill will often reinforce another" (Brown 2007: 316). Thus, when learners practice speaking by initiating a conversation with other learners or their teacher, they also practice listening.

2.8. Translation as the fifth language skill

In an ordinary language learning process, learners are generally expected to achieve improvement in four traditional language skills, i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (*CEFR*) identifies C1 and C2 level language users as proficient users (Commission of Europe

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2003). A proficient language user is described as "someone who can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read […], express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely" (Brown 2007: 137). In other words, the description points to proficiency in the four language skills. Today, however, translation is also argued to be the fifth language skills by some researchers (Stibbard 1998; Naimushin 2002; Saricoban 2012). Indeed, it is included under the fifth language skill called "mediation" in *CEFR*.

One of the reasons for this argument is the close association of translation with other skills. The act of translation requires using the basic four language skills. While doing a written translation, the translator first reads the source text then writes the translation in the target language. Similarly, while interpreting, the interpreter first listens to the source language and then utters the translation by speaking. Therefore, it is not possible to consider translation separately from the other language skills. It can be considered the fifth skill "since the translator contributes his/her creativity, productivity and knowledge of the target and mother tongues into his/her work and since translation requires a collective mixture of the related four skills, and it is still not enough for translation" (Saricoban 2012: 2960).

Stibbard (1998: 71) notes the usefulness of translation in a language learning process and argues that "this aspect of linguistic ability can be included as an ongoing element in a teaching program as a fifth skill alongside the four other skills, reading, writing, speaking, and understanding speech".

The idea that translation can be accepted as the fifth language skill has given rise to a rather recent discussion and there have already been some voices raised against it. Weller (1989: 43), for example, describes translation "as a skill unrelated to the other four". Likewise, Lado argues that translation cannot be accepted as a skill practiced and improved in the course of learning a language: "We, therefore, teach the language first, and then we may teach translation as a separate skill, if that is considered desirable" (Lado 1964: 53) Lado believes that translation is a skill that requires mastery in language. Therefore, language users are expected to have achieved certain proficiency in L2 if they are to endeavor in certain translation task. Liao also notes that advanced learners' mastery at using language will be conducive to them translating better: "Advanced learners may have already developed a somewhat solid foundation of the target language, and thus can be more likely to discern the subtle differences of vocabulary meaning and grammar usage between their L1 and L2" (Liao 2006: 193). For him, someone who can use grammar and vocabulary better is more likely to translate better.

In this research, translation is considered to be a skill that helps to improve other language skills, particularly writing and speaking. It is not referred to as the fifth language skill, although arguments favoring translation as the fifth language skill are all accepted to the extent that they confirm the interrelatedness of translation with the other language skills.

2.9. The role of translation in testing and assessment of a foreign-language

The historical journey of translation in FLT has reached a point where it now receives more appreciation than the past. Yet it has still not become a prevalent practice in language learning. There is a common belief in testing and assessment in FLT that one should test what is being taught. In other words, if something is not taught, it should not be tested. Thus, when translation does not occupy much space in the learning experience, it is not expected to manifest itself in the testing and assessment. As each institution may have different testing and assessment procedures, the role translation plays in high-stake exams has to be considered here as well. High-stake exams are "tests which provide information on the basis of significant decisions are made about candidates, e.g. admission to courses of study, or to work settings" (McNamara 2000: 133).

In the international context, the two widely accepted tests for English proficiency, *TOEFL* and *IELTS*, do not include any translation sections. This is acceptable as these are the tests taken by thousands of people worldwide and it would not be practical to prepare translation sections that would have to be equally valid for each country the test is applied in.

In Turkey, the role translation plays in the testing process is quite different from the role it plays in the learning process. As explained earlier, translation is still not so popular theoretically in teaching although actual practice may be otherwise. However, in testing and assessment it has been valued for years, as the two most important language exams in the country -YDS (Foreign-language Test) for university entrance and YDS for academic studies- include sections with multiple-choice translation questions. Of these, the former is taken by high-school graduates who aim to study at a department related with foreign-languages such teaching, translation, linguistics or literature. The latter is a prerequisite for those who want to do a Masters or PhD in Turkey as well as those who want to pursue an academic career. Both tests are considered to involve high stakes. From

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this perspective, the approach to translation in the testing seems to contradict what happens in the classrooms. The idea that translation works successfully at testing the learners' knowledge of a language should trigger the idea that it might also work in the teaching.

Chapter 3. Literature Review

An overview of the literature that has been produced in the field so far reveals that while much has been said on the use of translation in foreign-language teaching (FLT), not all of the arguments for and against translation actually provide substantial evidence. Translation has thus remained a controversial subject. Despite not carrying out empirical research, a high number of prominent figures have discussed the role that translation can play in the process of teaching and learning a foreign-language (Duff 1989; Malmkjaer 1998; Stibbard 1998; Cunningham 2000; Gonzalez Davies 2004; Cook 2010; Vermes 2010; Pym et al. 2013; Kerr 2014).

The studies mentioned below have been selected in order to offer a variety of data and findings from different settings. The number of the studies is limited so as not to move away from the main matter of concern: translation in FLT.

The chapter presents a brief overview of the previous research carried out in a larger context. It includes noteworthy empirical and non-empirical works done in the world and in Turkey. Section 3.1 introduces the previous research on translation and language learning in the world. In the first sub-section, the non-empirical works that are believed to have paved the way are noted, while sub-section 3.1.2 highlights the major empirical works. In the following sub-sections, the works are arranged and presented on the basis of their scope and aims. Sub-section 3.1.3 studies translation as a teaching method; sub-section 3.1.4 looks at studies worldwide on teachers' perceptions; sub-section 3.1.5 deals with learners' tendency to use translation; sub-section 3.1.6 considers the effect of translation on other skills; and finally sub-section 3.1.7 introduces direct writing vs. translated writing. Section 3.2 presents research done in the Turkish context. Since it is quite limited in number, all the studies are covered in a single section. In Section 3.3, the studies on the use of L1 are mentioned, as L1 use is an issue quite often associated with translation.

3.1. Previous research on translation and language learning worldwide

3.1.1. Previous non-empirical studies worldwide

Tudor (1987) focuses on the communicative use of translation with advanced learners at tertiary level. He emphasizes the communicative nature of translation. For him, the fact that the purpose of translation as a profession is to be able to carry out communication makes translation suitable to be used in foreign-language teaching (1987: 365). Tudor's study is on an advanced group of learners and he justifies his decision by pointing out that they have a sufficient level of competence to tackle translation. He also adds that the learners' knowledge goes beyond simple functional proficiency in the TL, reaching a level required by the cognitive problem-solving nature of translation.

Many other researchers explore alternative means of using translation in FLT while also giving place to its advantages and disadvantages (Duff 1989; Stern 1991; Widdowson 2003; House 2009; Cook 2010; Kerr 2014). However, when the contents and the aims of the studies are scrutinized, it is clear that there has been a change in attitude towards translation over the years. This change manifests itself in the form of approaching translation in a more tolerant way (see Chapter 2 for detailed information about the role of translation in language teaching history). The majority of the research highlights translation as a useful pedagogical tool and proposes that its uses are worth exploring further (Duff 1989; Malmkjaer 1998; Stibbard 1998; Newson 1998; Kallkvist 1998; Gonzalez Davies 2004; Laviosa and Cleverton 2006; House 2009; Cook 2010; Kerr 2014).

The research that will be mentioned in the following sub-sections has been triggered by a few noteworthy books. Among these, Duff can be considered the pioneer with his book *Translation* (1989), presented as a resource for teachers who wish to use translation as a language-learning activity. To validate the activities that can be used in the classroom, Duff firstly explains the rationale behind using translation in FLT and touches on the arguments for and against its use.

Malmkjaer (1998) is a volume of articles on translation and language teaching written by different researchers. The work is a significant contribution to the field as it is a cooperative project bringing together the insights and opinions of many scholars.

Gonzalez Davies (2004) explores the training of translators, the transformation from being a language learner to translator, the link between translation and linguistics as

well as cultural studies, along with a list of activities that can be applied to teach a foreign-language using translation.

House (2009) discusses the basic concerns and key concepts in Translation Studies, where she also tackles the pedagogical uses of translation. In her book, the pedagogical use of translation finds a place among other fundamental issues in Translation Studies.

Cook (2010) represents a giant step in changing attitudes towards translation in language teaching. Cook argues that translation can operate as an effective tool in language teaching. He also briefly explains the place translation has occupied in the history of FLT, along with related issues such as bilingualism, code-switching and own-language use. Cook's is probably the first work that mentions the opposing views in a detailed way.

Another thought-provoking work is Kerr (2014), which tackles translation and L1 use together. Kerr mainly focuses on the variety of uses of translation in the classroom as a technique or tool to practice language skills, grammar or vocabulary. His innovative ideas are designed to convince foreign-language teachers to try translation in their classes.

Many other researchers in the field of FLT have also touched on the use of translation or L1 while teaching a foreign-language (Stern 1991; Brown 2007; Harmer 2007; Richards and Rodgers 2014; Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2015). Yet, their interest is generally limited to the discussion of the issue within the traditional boundaries of the methods and approaches developed to teach a foreign-language.

There seems to have been a marked increase in studies in the field after 2010, which can be interpreted as a revival of translation FLT (Cook 2010; Pym et al. 2013; Kerr 2014). All these works, by leading figures in the field, are of great value in encouraging other researchers to explore the issue. It is also promising that more and more empirical research is being conducted.

3.1.2. Previous experimental studies on translation and language-learning worldwide

The studies referred to below have mostly been conducted within the framework of experimental research. They are reviewed here in search of a base for my own research.

Translation has been used to teach or practice a foreign-language in a variety of teaching contexts. One of the earliest articles is Hall (1952), which presents a teaching method where translation is used as a core practice the translation service at the Department of Modern Languages of North Carolina State College. The translation

service gave material of interest to advanced-level technical students who were believed to have improved their reading skills by translating the articles. Teachers were satisfied with the results of their teaching and the accomplishments of their students (Hall 1952: 7). The criteria or instruments through which the skills of the students were measured are not mentioned. Yet the personal satisfaction of the teachers can be accepted as a valid reason for experimenting with translation in the teaching of a foreign-language.

Kallkvist (1998) compares translation to writing as a tool for testing and finds that learners tend to make more lexical errors when they translate compared to when they write, in contradistinction to the assertion by Weller (1989) that the mistakes are the same. This is one of the rare studies to approach translation as a testing tool. Based on her findings, Kallkvist points out that translation can be used as a test component, although she also confirms the view that different tests can be used to assess the proficiency of learners in foreign-language.

Shiyab and Abdullateef (2001) compare the use of translation in foreign-language teaching to using medicine, and propose that translation can have a curative effect when used in the correct dose, while it can also be harmful if used excessively. For Shiyab and Abdullateef, since comparing the language being taught and L1 of the learners reveals the similarities and differences between the two languages analyzed, engaging with such a comparative study facilitates the learners' comprehension processes. Like Tudor, Shiyab and Abdullateef stress the more frequent use of translation with the advanced level of learners in FLT.

Schjoldager (2003) presents the initial findings obtained from an experimental study that compares translation and picture verbalization as methods in FLT. The experiment was conducted with third-grade, secondary-level and university-level students, comparing the errors of the learners who translated from Danish to English with those who did picture verbalization in L2. Schjoldager concludes that the errors of the learners who translated outnumbered those who verbalized pictures. Despite the relatively negative effect revealed by the study, she underlines that she remains in favor of the use of translation in a functional communicative framework for advanced-level learners, and she concedes that there is need for further research before one can abandon or condone the use of translation.

Takimoto and Hashimoto (2010) argue that interpreting as well as translation is suitable for language learning at university level. They justify this by noting that interpreting activities are mainly (but not exclusively) related to the learners' speaking

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and listening, while translation is utilized primarily for both reading and writing. Thus, they aim to cover all four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). As with most of the empirical research in the field, they conduct their research with advanced-level language learners. The learners participate in a variety of translation and interpretation activities to promote the skills. Their data was gathered through semi-structured interviews with the learners, using a qualitative methodology that distinguishes this study from most of the research in the field. The findings are that translation and interpreting help to ensure lively interactions and can be used to create relevant materials.

While some studies explore whether translation can be used as an effective technique in FLT, others focus on *how* it can be used. For instance, McLoughlin and Lertola (2014) discuss the use of subtitling as an effective activity involving translation and report on students' feedback on their subtitling processes (2014: 70). The data were obtained from the responses of 40 students to an evaluation survey given after a 24-week subtitling module. Based on their research with intermediate-level learners, they argue that subtitling can be usefully employed (2014: 72).

These studies mostly look at adult learners. I have found no study that focuses specifically on the use of translation by young learners between the ages of 5 and 12. This may be attributed to a supposition that adult learners make more conscious choices about their learning processes and are better at justifying their choices. It might also be attributed to the belief that advanced learners can benefit more from the translation activities or perhaps that it is possible to design communicative translation tasks for them, while this is not the case for lower-level learners. Yet young learners can also provide significant data on their foreign-language learning.

3.1.3. Empirical and non-empirical studies on translation as a teaching method

The research mentioned so far either explores translation as a useful technique in FLT or suggests useful ways of incorporating translation into the teaching process. It does not mention whether translation can function better in the context of a certain teaching method or approach. The following studies explore the possibility of using translation as a teaching method.

Parks (1992) draws attention to the possibility of giving room to translation tasks in a teaching process based on the communicative approach. The time of his research overlapped with the reign of communicative approaches in most FLT contexts. Parks

argues that it is possible to prepare and design translation tasks that resemble real-life communication. He highlights the relation between language and culture, positing that, through translation, students can also explore this relation better. Parks suggests a few communicative translation activities. However, his article does not include experimental research where these activities are implemented.

Machida (2008) reports on an action-research project that explored the integration of translation as a major method in FLT. Working with advanced learners, he carried out a variety of translation activities for 12 weeks. The activities were grouped into two: in-class activities comprised sentence-level translation and short-article translation, while outside-class activities comprised semi-independent project work. Through the feedback received from test results and surveys given to the learners at the end of the semester, Machida concludes that it is feasible to adopt translation as a main teaching methodology. He defends translation as a *method* in FLT, rather than as a *technique* to be incorporated into other methods or one of many other techniques that can be used during the teaching process.

Károly (2014) presents a case study carried out from a functionalist perspective. She adapts Nord's functional-textual approach to the translation of EU texts by second-year undergraduate students in a Department of English Studies. This subject group distinguishes the research from others because it included novice translation students, whereas the other studies that have been mentioned so far all included subjects who were not majoring in English. Károly aims to explore the problems that students face while translating, as well as the individual differences that lead to these problems. She argues that "foreign-language teachers are likely to benefit from the study for two reasons: firstly, developing translation competence by using translation activities is useful in itself because translation skills are often required on today's job market" (Károly 2014: 91). Even though they do not carry out translation as a profession, most people who know a foreign-language are asked to translate for a friend in some part of their lives. Secondly, "by activating various language skills, translation can also contribute to the development of students' overall communicative competence in the foreign and native language" (Károly 2014: 91). Reading, writing, listening and speaking are the language skills assumed to be activated through translation. Data are obtained from translations of the EU texts by the students, and semi-structured interviews are designed to identify individual difficulties. Károly classifies the common translation problems as pragmatic, convention-related, lexical, syntactic and text-specific and complements the data with

textual analyses of the interviews conducted with the students. The interviews provide detailed information regarding certain aspects of the translation process such as time constraints, self-assessment and overall planning of the process. As Károly emphasizes, the study is likely to contribute to the FLT pedagogy by encouraging teachers to involve translation activities in their teaching and thus enhance the status of translation as a useful tool (Károly 2014: 102).

Whether used as a method or as a technique, translation needs to be welcomed by teachers if it is going to function in a language class. Thus the following section presents studies that aim to shed light on teachers' views.

3.1.4. Previous empirical studies worldwide on teachers' perceptions

The only European Commission project to put the pedagogical use of translation at its core is Pym et al. (2013), which asks if translation activities can be used to contribute to foreign-language learning and explores the possible means to it. Data on the viewpoints of teachers and language experts were collected via online surveys. The quantitative data from 963 responses to the surveys were also supported by qualitative data from 101 contributors. The study has made a remarkable contribution to the field by presenting the beliefs and attitudes of teachers from many different countries and asking about current practices involving or rejecting translation worldwide. It may also result from the underlying belief that "translation can be used as scaffolding in initial L2 learning and as a complex communicative task at higher levels (Pym et al. 2013: 3).

Asgarian (2013) explores Iranian teachers' perceptions of the translation. The participants were all Iranian foreign-language teachers and they were selected through purposeful sampling. The data were obtained through semi-structured interviews including open-ended questions: "The content analysis of the interviewed data identified three major emerging themes: teacher/teaching, learner/learning and translation with their specific sub-themes" (Asgarian 2013: 923). The findings are that Iranian teachers prefer to avoid translation as a strategy and L1 is generally resorted to by less proficient teachers; students begin to think in English as they improve their language; and accurate translations can be ensured by professionals. Since the attitudes of teachers would inevitably affect the learners, it is expected that learners would likewise refrain from using translation as a part of language learning.

3.1.5. Previous empirical studies reflecting students' tendency to use translation

Liao (2006) explores learners' use of translation as a strategy in English learning through a study conducted with Taiwanese college students. He collected data from questionnaires and interviews and aimed to identify students' beliefs about using translation to learn, the learning strategies they use, and the relationship between those two variables and the learners' background variables and beliefs. It is found that translation plays a positive role in the learners' learning experience, and that students with different English proficiency levels and academic majors appear to hold different beliefs about translation. Since the background of the learners had not been addressed in previous studies, it is a variable to consider in future studies so as to ensure comparison.

Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) also focus on students' use of translation as a strategy in learning a language. They employ quantitative and qualitative methods to obtain data: 170 Iranian foreign-language learners answered a questionnaire, while 120 were selected to respond to an interview guide (Karimian and Talebinejad 2013: 605). It is found that translation is widely used among Iranian language learners for a variety of purposes, including comprehension, remembering and producing English. Mental translation while reading, using bilingual dictionaries and discussing the similarities and differences between their mother tongue and English were among the other reasons for students' L1 use. Moreover, "learners used translation as an effective strategy" (2013: 607) since they felt more secure and could be involved in the lesson.

3.1.6. Previous empirical studies exploring the effect of translation on other skills

There has been considerable research on the effect of translation on the language skills of learners, with reading being the skill that has received the most attention. Researchers underline the use of translation as a strategy to help comprehend L2 (Upton 1997), as a key element in processing target texts (Kern 1994), and as a specific mode of comprehension when learners analyze a text meticulously to determine the content before translating it (Leonardi 2009).

Boshrabadi (2014: 381) reports on an experimental study to investigate the pedagogical usefulness of translation, working on a sample of 180 Iranian students studying English as a foreign-language. He particularly aims to explore the effect of translation on the reading skills of the students. The results of the process are also

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supported by a questionnaire given to the students to reveal their attitudes towards the efficacy of the use of translation. The subjects involved in the research were elementary, intermediate and advanced-level students, although the report does not mention any comparative or contrastive findings between the different levels. As a result of the research, Boshrabadi finds a significant difference between the students' reading comprehension before and after the experiment, which shows that teaching through translation is conducive to students' learning. Boshrabadi believes that "curriculum designers may make use of the findings of the study and add sentences to translate in the grammar sections of the books so as to practice the newly learned structures" (2014: 393).

Hosseini-Maasoum and Mahdiyan (2012) also asks whether translation facilitates students' reading comprehension. Firstly, Maydiyan focuses on the reading skills of the learners, thus allowing direct comparison with other studies. Secondly, the subjects were learners at pre-intermediate level, a group of learners who are not very often included in research on this topic. Data were obtained through questionnaires as well as pre-tests and post-tests given to students. The results show that "there was a significant difference between the students' reading comprehension ability before and after treatment. Almost all students improved in the post-test and showed positive attitude in the questionnaire" (Hosseini-Maasoum and Mahdiyan 2012: 270).

Apart from reading, the effect of translation on the writing skills of the learners has also been explored. In a study conducted with Korean college students, Kim (2011) investigates the effective role translation plays in improve writing skills. Realizing that his attempts to improve the L2 writing of his students through process and product approaches were not bringing success, Kim made use of the L1 of his students. He believed that good grammar practice would inevitably lead to successful writing. This sounds meaningful, since books on writing skills tend to focus on language and grammar practice. The learners involved in the research were asked to translate their own writing as well as one of their peer's texts, then reflect on their translation process. The positive remarks by the students with respect to their translation experience reveal that the exercise helped make them aware of their errors. Although they differ in their methods, my research and the one by Kim (2011) both focus on the improvement of writing skills through translation practice.

When the research on the effects of translation on other skills is scrutinized, we notice that the data is predominantly obtained from the comparison of the learning output of the learners in the form of answers to a reading-comprehension test or a piece of written

work, as well as some quantitative and qualitative data obtained from learners directly. Though the studies mentioned above approach the issue from relatively different perspectives, one common feature is their positive attitude towards the use of translation as either a strategy or a technique to be resorted to among others. It is very likely that these studies have contributed to the change in attitudes towards translation in FLT.

3.1.7. Previous empirical studies worldwide on direct writing vs. translated writing

There are a few studies that compare *direct writing* with *translated writing*. One of them is by Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992). Japanese university students were asked whether they preferred translation or direct use of English in their composition writing. The findings indicate that 77% of the students preferred to write directly in English and were also more inclined to think in English while writing.

Following Kobayashi and Rinnert, Ali (1996) explores the effects of the first language of Arab students on their writings in second language. Ali looked at 60 subjects who wrote essays in Arabic and in English as well as translating essays from Arabic to English. Holistic ratings gave higher scores to direct writing in English.

Brooks (1996) compares the L1 and L2 writing of 31 intermediate-level students, finding that learners in translation mode scored higher in overall ratings.

Cohen et al. (2000) compare the quality of learners' direct writing and translated writing and find that the majority of the students did better in direct mode.

Lifang (2008) makes the same comparison and highlights the importance of the level of the learners. The lower-level learners seem to benefit more from the translated writing activity, while higher-level learners display no significant difference.

The above studies give contradictory results, which can be interpreted as the effect of other factors associated with the situations involved. These factors could include the level and age of the participants. The assessment and grading policies of the raters or the researchers may also have had an impact.

3.2. Previous research in the Turkish context

There has been significantly less research on the role of translation in FLT in the Turkish context. Remarkably, however, there has been a marked increase in the last two decades.

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The two articles that put translation on the agenda were Bear (1991) and Boztas (1991, 1996).

Bear (1991) draws attention to the value of translation classes in the education of English Language Teaching (ELT) students, in other words, trainee teachers. For him, translation classes in the ELT curriculum could play an important role in the improvement of language sensitivity. His work is the only local study that focuses on trainee teachers. Yet it is not based on an empirical study. The points raised are nevertheless enlightening for my research, which also includes trainee teachers. Although Bear is mainly interested in ELT students, his arguments can also be valid for language students in general.

Boztas (1991) explores the role of translation in the teaching of foreign-languages. Like Bear, he does not base his research on an empirical study but instead presents the history of translation in Turkey, mentions the role of translation as a means to achieve communication, and states the need to reorganize the translation programs at universities in consideration of the needs of the day. He concludes by emphasizing that translation can contribute to the use of a foreign-language at advanced levels and that it enables learners to think deeply about the language they are studying. He thus regards translation as a useful activity only when a certain level of proficiency has been achieved. Boztas (1996) also compares translation education to language education and argues that they are similar in many ways. For him, translation requires competence at reading comprehension and writing skills; therefore, engaging in translation at an advanced level contributes to the improvement of reading and writing skills.

Hismanoglu (1999) draws attention to the positive impact of translation in FLT and argues that translation has a pivotal role in foreign-language teaching in transforming receptive skills into productive ones. However, while the techniques he suggests seem to be useful in testing skills in an integrated way, as he also mentions, they cannot be relied on unless tested in various contexts.

Ergun (2004) offers an overview of the place of translation in foreign-language education and notes that the difference between the pedagogy of translation and pedagogical translation need not be discarded (Ergun 2004: 142). In other words, he draws attention to the discrepancy between translation education and using translation in foreign-language education, pointing out the place of translation among the other language skills, i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking.

After only a few studies exploring translation in FLT prior to 2000, the issue aroused interest in the new century. There were two dissertations defended on the topic

in 2006. While both discuss whether translation can aid teaching processes, they differ in their approaches.

Sad (2006) aims to find out whether the use of translation as an active method in foreign-language teaching affects the foreign-language levels of the learners positively. The participants comprised 100 vocational school students, who were given a pre-test and then received two weeks of instruction. The control and experiment groups were taught the *if conditional*, the only difference being the active use of translation while teaching the experiment group. It is important to note that in both groups the teacher used L1 and spoke the Turkish translations of the English sentences written on the board. Yet only the learners in the experiment group were engaged in intensive translation exercises. Following the instruction stage, the learners were given a post-test and the results seem to have indicated a statistically significant effect of translation on the students' success: "The significance of the effect of translation which is the experimental variable was tested at 0.05 probability level" (Sad 2006: v). Sad's research is one of the leading studies in the Turkish context and indicates the positive effect of translation on student performances. He points out the overall success of the learners in the post-test; however, details on the success of the learners in specific language areas and skills would also be enlightening.

In the same year, Erer (2006) defended a study exploring problematic areas in paragraph translation from Turkish to English. She also aimed to find out whether interaction among learners during group work in the course of the translation process would help them perform better. To this end, she focused on both translation as a product and the translation process itself. She collected data through error analysis and interaction analysis. She concluded that the students' common errors were in grammar, semantics and discourse. She also pointed out that translations done in groups were better than those done individually. Her findings highlight that the problematic areas in translation are likely to be useful in helping the teacher identify the points to be emphasized. The second phase of the study dealt with the interactions of the students during translation process. This is an area that has not been explored a great deal.

Kose (2011) carried out a comparative study to explore the effect of form- and meaning-focused translation instruction on the language skills of students. The participants were ELT students taking translation classes as part of their curriculum. While the experiment group was given meaning-focused instruction, the control group was taught with form-focused instruction. As a result of the ten-week treatment, the experimental group showed more improvement in their self-assessed language-skill

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levels. Since the participants were trainee teachers, their self-assessment was assumed to yield reliable data.

Another study carried out in the Turkish context focuses on the use of translation in elementary EFL classes. Calis and Dikilitas (2012) taught a group of elementary-level students certain grammatical features through translation for seven weeks. They also explored the learners' perceptions of their learning experience through a questionnaire and interviews. In line with international research (Hsieh 2000; Carreres 2006), both the quantitative and the qualitative data indicate that translation has a positive role in facilitating and promoting the learning process. More specifically, based on the Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (*IBT*), learners included in the study believe that translation is an aid to developing reading comprehension skills, vocabulary development, composition writing, and speaking (Calis and Dikilitas 2012: 5081). This classroom-based research stands out because it focuses on elementary-level learners. While the majority of the research in the field addresses advanced-level learners, these elementary learners yield significant findings regarding the use of translation with less proficient learners. The elementary learners included in this study had a two-hour translation practice per week for a period of seven weeks and they were merely asked to translate sentences from Turkish into English. They did not engage in any kind of communicative translation activities; therefore, the study provides no evidence that translation is an effective *communicative* activity to be used with low-level learners.

Another study that deserves to be mentioned is Pekkanli (2012), which discusses the value of translation in FLT and indicates the perceptions trainee English teachers have of translation. Data are obtained through a questionnaire consisting of 15 items. The first part of the questionnaire includes items to reflect the participants' opinions of translation as a pedagogical tool in FLT, while the second part focuses on translation as a foreign-language skill developing activity. The findings indicate that incorporating translation activities into L2 teaching contributes to and is a complement to the other teaching activities (Pekkanli 2012: 959)

The year 2012 stands out as the moment when a number of researchers investigated whether translation has any value in FLT. Saricoban (2012) suggests alternative ways of testing in FLT, which include translation as a testing tool. Indeed, the article is one of the rare Turkish studies to address translation as a testing tool. Yet, while Saricoban comes up with a number of items that are assumed to be useful question types concerning translation, his suggestions are not based on empirical research. He argues that translation

can function as a useful tool in the testing of the four language skills, as well as vocabulary grammar and punctuation. The article includes examples of questions to test reading and writing, using sentence translation, text translation, paragraph translation and multiple-choice items. Listening and speaking are tested by means of consecutive and simultaneous translation of short and long sentences. The vocabulary knowledge of the learners is tested by multiple choice, cloze and multiple cloze question types. Saricoban argues that translation reinforces and integrates the language skills (Saricoban 2012: 2963).

Oguz (2014) explores how translation can be integrated into language classrooms. Having assumed that translation already has a place in foreign-language teaching, she attempts to find out how this can be used most effectively (cf. Carreres 2006: 15). Although neither Ergun (2004) nor Oguz (2014) offer empirical data to form a sound basis for their arguments, they help put translation on the agenda in national circles. Further, as a teacher at a public primary and secondary school, Oguz seems to have realized the need to have translation in foreign-language learning practice rather than just discussing it theoretically. Indeed, she claims that translation is unavoidable in the foreign-language process (Oguz 2014: 55).

The study by Aktekin and Gliniecki (2015) is also worth notice as it explores the beliefs of the students about translation and their use of translation as a strategy in language learning. The results of the study reveal that students believe that translation assists the language learning and there is a connection between the students' beliefs and their strategy use of translation. The study stands out as the only study that considers the beliefs of the students at English Language Teaching (ELT) departments in the Turkish context. From this perspective, the findings of their study about learner beliefs offer the opportunity for comparison with the beliefs of the student-teachers participating in this research.

Even though the majority of the studies that have been carried out so far in the Turkish context support the beneficial role translation can play in the learning of a foreign-language (Sad 2006; Kose 2011; Artar 2012; Calis and Dikilitas 2012; Pekkanli 2012; Saricoban 2012; Aktekin and Gliniecki 2015), translation seems to find a place neither in the wider research panorama nor in practice in Turkey. The limited number of studies may not be sufficient to convince teachers to make use of translation; teachers may be avoiding translation because they still associate it with the Grammar Translation method. It is also possible that teachers prefer to conceal their actual beliefs and

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implementations in their classrooms: they say that there is no place for translation in their classrooms because of the harsh criticisms they are likely to receive from their colleagues. In either case, there is a need for further research which could open up new horizons for teachers and help them break with their traditional teaching methods and try new techniques, welcoming translation in their classes.

3.3. Previous research on L1 use

Using translation while teaching a foreign-language has often been associated with L1 use. (Here I use "L1" to refer to what is elsewhere called the "mother tongue", "native language" or "first language".) Since translation and translation-related activities inherently necessitate the use of the learners' first language, L1 use in the classroom is often treated as an evil that will harm the language-learning process of the learners. However, as Kerr (2014: 5) notes, "evidence from both cognitive linguistics and neuroscience point strongly towards a role for the students' own language in the language classroom".

As one of the prominent scholars discussing the issue, Atkinson (1987: 241) associates the use of L1 with translation but refers to both L1 use and translation under the heading "mother tongue", which he regards as a "neglected resource". Atkinson first explores the reasons for the negative attitude and then mentions certain advantages of using L1. He also lists some uses of L1 such as checking comprehension, giving instructions, and presenting and reinforcing language. Yet he still acts cautiously and recalls that neither teachers nor learners should be excessively dependent on L1.

Translation may be used for a variety of purposes within the classroom, such as an explanation, a clarification, a method, a technique, an activity or an exercise. Nevertheless, no matter what the purpose is, it brings in use of L1. Likewise, L1 can also be used for multiple reasons, either by the teacher or by the learners. It is often treated as an inferior act, and teachers or learners are thought to prefer it because of their lack of ability to express themselves in the language they are teaching or learning. Although this may be a valid reason for using L1 in the classroom, it is only one of the reasons. The issue has been addressed by a number of researchers. Harmer (2007) mentions three particular cases where teachers may benefit from using L1 in the classroom: to talk with learners about their needs and opinions regarding their learning processes, to help them

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make effective comparisons between their own-language and the one they are studying, and finally to maintain a constructive social atmosphere to aid learning (Harmer 2007: 133).

Khresheh (2012) points out the use of L1 in Saudi Arabian EFL classrooms and asks when and why teachers or learners resort to it. He carries out classroom observations in beginner, intermediate and advanced classes, as well as structured interviews with teachers and learners. He finds that L1 is used to clarify misunderstandings and cultural words or expressions and to overcome the problem of expressing difficult L2 constructions. Learners are also observed to code-switch when they are unable to come up with the English equivalent of some Arabic words. Khresheh concludes that "choosing to use L1 in instances [such] as the ones presented above may reflect a highly effective procedure which can be used with sets of other procedures to achieve successful way of learning English in the Saudi Arabian EFL classroom" (Khresheh 2012: 86). He thus proposes the use of L1 as part of an eclectic technique.

Code-switching is also a frequently used strategy that inherently necessitates the use of L1. It is mainly used by learners when they cannot handle certain words or expressions in L2. It is often disregarded by those who also disfavor the use of translation and L1. In a study carried out on code-switching in a Turkish secondary school, Eldridge (1996: 304) reports that "there appeared no relationship between level of achievement in the target language and use of code-switching strategies". Thus, code-switching was used by high-achievers just as much as by low-achievers: proficiency level did not make any difference in the frequency of code-switching.

While code-switching can be regarded as one of the reasons for using L1 in the classroom, learners or teachers exploit their own language to serve many other purposes as well. The data obtained from class observations in research conducted in a Cypriot context by Copland and Neokleous (2010: 271-272) indicate that these purposes include "organizing, explaining, giving instructions, questions and answers, reprimands, jokes, praise, translating, markers, providing hints and giving opinions". The relatively high number of different functions for using L1 seems surprising when the prevalent negative attitude towards the issue is considered. Yet most of the time teachers' use of L1 is subject to criticism. Therefore, teachers may tend to hide their actual beliefs and practices and do not report the reality about own-language use in their classes. Copland and Neokleous report that "all teachers were fairly unanimous in their belief that the L1 should be limited, which in some cases contradicted their practices" (Copland and Neokleous 2010: 278).

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To illustrate the functions and frequency of code-switching in a Colombian context, Sampson (2012) observed two pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate language classes. Two different levels were specifically chosen so as to explore the possible link between code-switching and proficiency level. However, the number of total code-switches at both levels was exactly the same, suggesting that there is no relationship between the proficiency level and the frequency of code-switching.

3.4. Summary of the literature review

The review of the literature presents invaluable studies that have contributed to the research about the role of translation in language learning. However, there seems to be quite important areas that have not been explored much. Although there are a number of non-empirical studies on how to exploit translation in language-learning, there is a need for more empirical studies to make generalizations for particular contexts.

Interestingly, most of the researchers included adults to their researchers. I have found no studies that investigate the tendency of young learners between the ages 5-12 to use translation while learning a language. Similarly, advanced learners are the most popular group included in the studies. I have not found any studies focusing on the learners with low levels of language proficiency. Thus, any research that include elementary or pre-intermediate language learners are likely to contribute to the field not only by shedding light on the effect of translation on the language-learning of that particular group but also by offering possibilities of comparison with learners at different language levels.

The use of translation in language testing is also an area which is not explored much apart from the work of Kallkvist (1998) standing out in the international context. In Turkey, there is no research that explores the means of using translation in language testing.

The use of L1 is an area that is popularly researched in the field of language-learning. However, there is no research that focuses on the relation between L1 and translation although translation is often condemned because it necessarily allows the use of L1 in the language classroom.

Finally, the substantial amount of research in the field all explores translation in language-learning from a particular perspective such as the learners, the teachers or

student-teachers. Nevertheless, there is no research that aims to reflect the perspective of all these agents in a particular context. Thus, this study aims to focus on a specific context and explores the beliefs of all the agents involved in this context to be able to provide comparisons.

Likewise, there are quite a number of studies that explore the effect of translation on the success of the learners. However, there are no studies that explore both the effect of translation on the success of the learners and the perspective of that particular group of learners. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap by looking into both the beliefs of the learners and the effect of translation on the success of the same group of learners.

Chapter 4. Methodology

In this chapter, I present the methodological framework of my research. First I introduce the research design. In Section 4.2, I offer a description of the pilot study that formed the basis for my research, since the lessons I learned from it helped me to shape the present project. In Section 4.3, I revisit the research questions and main hypothesis as well as sub-hypothesis so as to address the aims of the study. Section 4.4 presents a description of all the instruments I used to obtain data from the three different sources included in this research: the learners, the student-teachers, and the teachers of foreign-languages. Section 4.5 introduces the population and sampling and it gives a detailed description of the setting for the experiment as well as the participants taking part. In Section 4.6, I present the materials used to conduct the research, while in the subsequent section I introduce the teachers teaching the learner groups**.** In Section 4.8, I address the ethical issues I took into consideration in the course of the data collection and analysis. Section 4.9 is dedicated to the detailed description of the whole procedure followed to collect data. In Section 4.10, I describe translation as a technique used to teach the experiment group and in the following section I take note of the techniques used with the control group. The last two sections address the assessment and grading of the written and spoken work of learners.

4.1. Methodological Framework

The methodological framework of this research is twofold. In the first stage it is designed to identify the beliefs of the three different sources of data on using translation in teaching or learning a foreign-language. Given the variety of the sources, different perspectives are sought: the learners, teachers, and student-teachers are three agents that look at the same scene through three different windows. What they see through their windows may not be the same and this difference may shape their learning/teaching preferences. When considered from this point of view, the research is a comparative one that describes the similarities and the differences among the beliefs of the learners, teachers, and student-teachers regarding translation.

The second stage is designed to complement the data obtained from the Beliefs Inventories. At this stage of the research, the role of translation in the classroom is explored through an experimental study in order to shed light on whether classroom practice and its results comply with the beliefs. It involves an experimental study with two groups of learners. I assume that the translation variable is likely to generate a difference in the performances of the experiment group as well as in their beliefs regarding the issue.

This multi-dimensional approach allows me to discuss the role of translation from various perspectives. The main reason for bringing different views together lies in the pilot study I conducted prior to this research.

4.2. Pilot Study

The pilot study underlying this research was carried out at the Prep School at İzmir University in the academic year 2011-2012. The main objective of the pilot study was to explore how the use of translation as an active instrument in English-language teaching affects the success of students in their writing. This was to shed light on a more complicated project.

The pilot study was similar to the present research in terms of its main aims, although the instruments used and the data acquired were more limited. It exclusively explored the impact of translation on the improvement of writing skills, while the present research focuses on speaking skills as well. Although the present research is thus more comprehensive in scope, the pilot study nevertheless enabled me to familiarize myself with the use of translation exercises in the teaching of a foreign-language.

4.2.1. Participants

The participants in the pilot study comprised 38 Prep School students at İzmir University. There were 21 male and 17 female learners, ranging from 18 to 24 in age. Unlike the present research, the participants involved in the pilot study were upper-intermediate-level students. Given the vast amount of research on higher-level students, this project aimed to explore the case with less proficient users.

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The participants were randomly placed in the experiment and control groups. There were eighteen learners in the control group and seventeen in the experiment group. Both groups were taught, assessed and graded by the same teacher, while the techniques used were different. The experiment group participated in a series of translation tasks and activities. In the control group these tasks and activities were replaced with similar ones that did not involve translation.

4.2.2. Procedure

The learners participating in the pilot study provided data through their writing outputs and the questionnaires they completed. Learners in both groups wrote two pieces of writing to be assessed and graded. The scores of the learners served as an indicator of any improvement. Detailed analysis of the errors in the writing, on the other hand, served as the basis for the assessment and comparison of their performances. In addition to the written work, the learners in the experiment group also provided another set of data by completing a questionnaire at the end of the module. The aim of the questionnaire was to determine the factors affecting the learning process.

4.2.3. Results

The error analysis indicated that the learners in the control group had difficulty with establishing the word order in some complex sentences, subject-verb agreement, as well as the use of sentence connectors and conjunctions. Further, the learners in both groups seemed to be having problems with paragraph organization and generating ideas to enrich content.

Apart from analysis of the repetitive errors, the questionnaire that the experiment group learners also provided data regarding the factors that affect language learning. To summarize, the majority of the learners noted that writing was the skill that they aimed at improving most and they also stated that translation activities had a positive effect on the development of vocabulary, writing, use of language, reading, speaking, and listening.

4.2.4. Discussion

Although the pilot study was limited in scope, the results can be discussed with reference to previous studies. They indicated that translation does not have to be a dull or mechanical activity. As Stibbard (1998) advocates, translation can be used in a communicative way in language learning.

The weak points in the writing of the control group can be attributed to the positive effect of translation activities on the experiment group, yet a more structured error analysis is needed to make generalizations. The problems that the control group had using words in the correct sense and form were not observed in the experiment group. This supports the learners' own judgments and beliefs about the improvement they went through.

The constructive feedback from the learners in the experiment group can be interpreted as a sign of the benefit they acquired as a result of the translation activities. Although the translation activities were designed in a way to integrate all four skills, the major improvement was in the writing skill. Since the pilot study did not explore the effect of translation on other language skills, the feedback of the learners was the only data on this.

The pilot study, as well as feedback from my supervisor, led to a list of things to consider in designing a more comprehensive study.

4.2.5. Lessons from the pilot study

I learned a lot while designing and implementing the pilot study. Reading the related literature not only contributed theoretically but also helped me to discover the richness of the sources and the work done in the field. This triggered my desire to embark on a more comprehensive study.

First of all, the constructive feedback from the learners regarding the activities assured me of the possibility of using translation in language teaching. Their interest inspired me to design more activities that included translation and that could be used communicatively. Adding variety to the translation activities would hopefully contribute to the process. It should also be kept in mind that in order to ensure comparability between the two groups, similar activities with no translation needed to be designed as well.

The survey was informative in terms of giving an idea of the learners' views. However, I had an urge to find a way to add more perspectives to the research. This, I believed, could also enhance the validity of the study.

The pilot study concentrated on the impact of translation on writing and yielded promising results. Including another skill to the scope of the research would be more stimulating. Therefore, I decided to search through the literature for studies that focused on other skills.

4.3. Aims of the research

The initial aim of this study is to problematize translation as a technique in a foreign-language teaching setting. Although this is an issue dealt with by a number of researchers, the majority of the studies approach it from one single angle. In other words, they focus on either the learner or the teacher. As a distinctive feature of this research, I have attempted to approach translation from the perspectives of different agents and complement the data regarding their beliefs with data that pinpoint the learners' success. A multi-directional study is thus necessary because approaching the issue from a single direction would not recognize the beliefs of both teachers and learners.

Firstly, I intend to scrutinize the beliefs of the learners, teachers, and student-teachers and explore the similarities and differences regarding their attitudes towards translation by means of a comparative study. From my personal experience as a language learner and teacher, I am aware that sometimes beliefs are taken for granted as general truths and people feel are not ready to question their beliefs by trying new things. Thus, my second objective is to test whether the use of translation activities would result in any difference in the beliefs of the learners. As my final objective, I aim to find out whether translation activities affect the writing and speaking performances of learners.

4.3.1. Research questions and initial hypotheses

Considering the objectives mentioned above, I intend to address the following research questions:

- To what extent do teachers of foreign-languages in Turkey make use of translation while teaching a foreign-language?

- To what extent do teachers of foreign-languages in Turkey believe that translation can be an effective technique to teach a foreign-language?

- If translation does not form a part of the teaching habits of the FLT teachers in Turkey, will they be willing to introduce it? If not, what are the reasons behind their unwillingness?

Those same questions are then asked of learners and student-teachers, leading to comparisons:

- Do the beliefs of the teachers, learners and student-teachers coincide with respect to adopting translation as a valid learning technique?

To compare the beliefs of the learners at the onset and end of the experiment, the following research question is asked:

- Do the beliefs of the learners change after using translation activities in language learning?

There are also specific questions on the improvement of skills:

- Does the use of translation as a technique while teaching English have an effect on the improvement of the writing skill of the learners?

- Does the use of translation as a technique while teaching English have an effect on the improvement of the speaking skill of the learners?

Previous research has displayed both positive and negative views towards translation (Duff 1989; Malmkjaer 1998; Stibbard 1998; Gonzalez Davies 2004; Cook 2010; Cunningham 2010; Vermes 2010; Pym et al. 2013; Kerr 2014) and the pilot study for this research (Artar 2012) yielded promising results regarding the use of translation while teaching English. Taking these studies into consideration, my initial hypotheses are as follows:

H_1: People involved in foreign-language teaching initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

H_1-SH_1: Teachers initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

H_1-SH_2: Learners initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

H_1-SH_3: Student-teachers initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

H_2: The beliefs of the learners of foreign-languages are more positive towards translation following the use of translation activities in class.

H_3: Translation is a technique that improves the writing and speaking performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do.

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H₃-SH₁: Translation is a technique that improves the writing performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do.

H₃-SH₂: Translation is a technique that improves the speaking performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do.

4.4. Instruments

The data collection in this study has been through various means. The questionnaires and inventories as well as the speaking and writing grades of the learners all provided me with measurable data that could be analyzed statistically. In the overall data analysis, a quantitative approach was used. Bio-data questionnaires were used to gather detailed information about the learner profiles. The Beliefs Inventories were used to gather information on the teachers', learners' and student-teachers' beliefs regarding translation. The data obtained from the inventories were used to make inferences and reach conclusions about their beliefs as the agents involved in teaching or learning process. Finally, the speaking and writing grades of the learners were analyzed statistically to complement the data obtained from the inventories.

The data collection was planned in two stages, as pre-experiment data and experiment data collection. The pre-experiment data involves the Beliefs Inventory pilot study and the pre-test exam grades. The experiment data collection process consists of three data collection methods: the questionnaires, the Beliefs Inventories, and the learner grades.

4.4.1. Pre-experiment data

A variety of data is used during the experiment stage. One of them is the Beliefs Inventory pilot study, which was designed to be a valid and reliable questionnaire to use with the experiment and control groups. The other data set is the exam scores of the learners, used to make sure they have more or less the same level of English. The procedures used to acquire the data are explained below.

4.4.1.1. Beliefs Inventory pilot study

At the preparation stage of the inventory, I created different versions and discussed them with my thesis supervisor. I also asked the opinions of my colleagues at İzmir University, who are teachers acquainted with the habits of language learners in Turkey. With their feedback and advice, I developed the version of the inventory used in the pilot study.

There were fifty items in the original version of the questionnaire (see Appendix 1), which was then brought down to thirty-three as a result of the SPSS (*Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*). In the development process of the thirty-three item questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha was applied to measure internal consistency. The five dimensions obtained were named as (1) *the role of translation*, (2) *the effect of translation on other skills*, (3) *difficulties in translation*, (4) *translation as a skill*, and (5) *translation as a strategy*. 'The role of translation' dimension contains twelve items. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient for this dimension of our scale was 0.73. The second dimension was called 'the effect of translation on other skills' and it contains ten items. Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient for this second dimension of our scale was found to be 0.65. The following dimension including ten items was named as 'difficulties in translation' and its Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient was found to be 0.54. The last two dimensions were 'translation as a skill', with ten items, and 'translation as a strategy', with eight items. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients for both of these dimensions were found to be 0.56.

Following the measurements regarding internal consistency, this thirty-three item Beliefs Inventory was used with the learners in the experiment and control groups as well as the student-teachers.

4.4.1.2. Pre-test exam grades

The pre-test exam grades were obtained from the exam learners took with the objective of assessing their language proficiency to start the intermediate level module. The exam included language use and vocabulary sections, in addition to separate parts testing the four main language skills. It included gap filling and open-ended questions.

For the assessment and grading procedure, the answer key for the exam was provided by the Testing Office. The exam papers were checked and graded by the teachers at the Prep School, who were assigned the role of assessor. All the assessors were expected to apply the answers given in the answer sheet. In the case of alternatives raised,

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the assessors meet with the Testing Committee to agree on the acceptable answers. All the assessors had to stick to the procedure to maintain conformity in the assessment and grading.

The learners with or above the average grade of 60 were considered to meet the passing criteria. Thus, they were prospective intermediate module students who would then be put into classes by the module coordinator.

4.4.2. Experiment data

The experiment data collection process was carried out from the same sources in sequence. I visited the two groups in their classes and thoroughly explained the nature and objectives of the research, giving some instructions about how to fill out the questionnaires and inventories.

Initially, I handed out the bio-data questionnaires, which were followed by the Beliefs Inventories. The learners then had an eight-week language-teaching period at the end of which the same groups of learners were given the same questionnaire to explore any change in their beliefs. The writing and speaking grades of the learners were also collected at certain intervals.

The student-teachers were given the same Beliefs Inventories as the learners. Their dual character as both learners and prospective teachers of English was expected to allow interesting comparisons with both the teachers and the learners.

Apart from the information acquired from the learners and student-teachers, data collection was also carried out simultaneously from other sources. An Online Survey was shared with teachers of foreign-languages in Turkey. The data acquired from teachers were expected to shed light on their teaching habits.

4.4.2.1. Bio-data questionnaire for learners

The bio-data questionnaires were given to learners in the experiment and control groups at the initial stage of the experiment. The participants were informed about the experiment and were requested to provide some personal information through the questionnaire. It was delivered on paper and the participants were asked to complete it themselves. It consisted of some open-ended questions as well as items on the participants' background, language skills and knowledge, and study habits. The purpose was to acquire some

information regarding the population and their previous learning experiences. The bio-data questionnaire for learners is provided in Appendix 2.

4.4.2.2. Beliefs Inventory for learners

There are several factors that are likely to be effective for learning. One of these factors is the belief the learner has about a specific aspect of learning. The learner is quite prone to act in accordance with these beliefs, which may be overtly expressed or remain covert until investigated. In other words, if learners have experienced a certain activity and developed a belief presupposing that this particular activity is useless for the learning process, they may avoid trying it forever. On the other hand, once they believe that they can benefit from a particular activity, they may stick to it forever. Thus, the beliefs of the learners regarding translation in language learning are very likely to shape their practices. Acting on the basis of their beliefs, they may either be motivated to embrace translation or prefer to avoid it without even a try. Considering the importance of beliefs in having the learner adopt a certain practice, the Beliefs Inventory was designed.

The learners were given the Beliefs Inventories at the beginning of their eight-week module. The learners in both the experiment and the control groups were given the same inventory, which was adapted from the one used in the pilot study. The pilot study conducted at the pre-experiment stage provided me with a revised version of the inventory for learners. The items that did not work were eliminated and a new version with 33 items was obtained.

This 33-item Beliefs Inventory had a Likert scale. There were five values for each item, ranging from 1 for 'completely disagree' to 5 for 'completely agree'. The items in the inventory were originally written in English and then translated into Turkish, which was the L1 of the majority of the learners. The inventory in English was translated into Turkish by three different translators and I then selected the translation that best expressed the intention of the item. It included a concise explanation of the scope and objectives of the research and brief instructions on how to fill out the inventory. The inventory was to be completed on paper and the learners were also supplied with a multiple-choice optic form so that I could compare and check the markings to prevent false ticking.

The 33 items in the inventory provided information on basically five dimensions regarding translation: the role of translation in language learning, the effect of translation on other skills, the difficulty of translation, translation as a skill and translation as a strategy. The first dimension included eight items while the second one included seven

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items. There were five items in the third dimension. The numbers of items in the fourth and fifth dimensions were 7 and 6, respectively. In the analysis, the items numbered 11, 15, 22, 30, 31, and 32 were reversed because they measure the belief in question from a negative aspect.

4.4.2.3. Beliefs Inventory for student-teachers

Another set of data was obtained from the Beliefs Inventories given to the student-teachers. This inventory was exactly the same as the one administered to learners. By acquiring data from the same inventory applied to two different groups, one can directly compare the results.

The 33-item Beliefs Inventory both for learners and student-teachers is provided in Appendix 3.

4.4.2.4. Survey for student-teachers

The beliefs of the student-teachers were studied via two different instruments. The dual character of the student-teachers made it necessary to approach their beliefs from the perspective of these two perspectives. In other words, since student-teachers are still a group of learners on the one hand while being candidate teachers on the other, their beliefs as teachers were also considered of value. Thus, they were also given the survey administered to teachers.

Student-teachers are group that have already developed a perspective regarding teaching a foreign-language. However, they have not transformed their theoretical beliefs into practice as they are not yet officially accredited as teachers. Therefore, the surveys given to them were altered in wording in order to better address their position. For instance, the question "*What is your teaching context?*" was transformed into "*Which of the teaching contexts below would you like to work in?*" The survey for student-teachers is provided in the Appendix 4.

The survey for student-teachers was administered on paper, unlike the online version provided to the teachers. Since the student-teachers were immediately accessible to me, they were given the survey in a classroom setting in the last class hour of the semester. I informed them about the purpose of the survey before delivering the papers. There was also a concise description of the aims and scope of the survey written at the front page of the survey. The survey took them approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

This survey enables me to compare the beliefs of the student-teachers with those of the teachers. Any possible difference or overlap in the beliefs is expected to contribute to the discussions regarding translation as a pedagogical tool.

4.4.2.5. Online Survey for teachers

The questionnaire administered to FLT teachers in Turkey provided another data set for the research. Data from teachers working in a variety of settings (primary and secondary schools as well as tertiary level) was collected over a period of five months.

Unlike the thirty-three item inventory given to learners and student-teachers, the survey for teachers was conducted online. The link to the survey remained open from November 2014 to March 2015. An online survey tool called Easygoing Survey was used to collect data from the teachers. Data collection via the Online Survey enabled me to reach a larger number of people than I could access in person. Thus, it proved to be practical and effective in terms of administration.

The main objective in conducting this survey with the teachers was to gain information on the place of translation in the current teaching practices of FLT teachers in Turkey. Even when teachers do not use translation in their particular teaching context, the survey aimed to find an answer if they would be willing to do so when the conditions were different.

At the preparation stage, I looked through the samples of the surveys administered for similar purposes. The survey that was most similar in terms of its objectives was the one reported on by Pym et al. in 2013 as part of the research carried out as a European project. However, it was not possible to apply it without modifications because of the differences in the participant group and the scope of the research. Thus, I decided to create a new survey, similar in design and purpose to the one created by Pym et al. but with small modifications to better address the respondent group. I created a draft version of the survey and asked for the advice of my supervisor. Based on his feedback, the survey was made available online. The link to the survey was sent to FLT teachers in Turkey via e-mail. The e-mail also provided brief information about the aims and scope of the research. My contact address was indicated at the beginning of the online survey page. I reached the participants via my own personal communication network as well as through my colleagues. It was reported by the respondents that the survey took approximately ten minutes to complete.

The survey included 13 questions. There were selective items, items with Likert scales, and open-ended questions. The questions aimed to find out to what extent FLT teachers apply L1 and translation while teaching in the classroom and to gain some information on the teaching methods they favor or disfavor in their particular teaching context. The survey also included statements about translation where the respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a Likert style. The open-ended questions were related to the questions preceding them and aimed to give the respondents the opportunity to further share their opinions on the relation between translation and language teaching. For detailed information, a sample of the online survey for teachers is provided in Appendix 5.

4.4.2.6. Writing grades

One of the objectives of this research is to explore the role of translation in the productive skills of the learners. Writing is one of the two productive skills in traditional FLT (translating may be a further productive skill). Thus, the writing grades of the learners in the experiment and control groups are a set of data in this research. The learners do a series of writing tasks to improve their writing skills and this improvement is assessed through written exams. There are two different grades considered: the pre-study grade obtained from the writing exam given at the beginning of the module, and the post-study grade obtained from the exam given at the end of the module. The grades are calculated out of 15 because the writing part constitutes fifteen percent of the whole exam, which otherwise is on the use of English, vocabulary, reading, and listening. The exams also included a speaking part, which constitutes another skill explored in this research.

The procedures for conducting the writing exam as well as the grading of the exam papers are explained in detail in Section 4.9.4.

4.4.2.7. Speaking grades

Since the research aims to explore the impact of translation on the productive skills, speaking is another skill to be considered. The learners in both the experiment and the control groups were involved in certain speaking tasks to improve their speaking skill throughout the eight-week module. By considering the speaking grades given at the beginning and at the end of the module, I aim to explore whether there was an improvement in the speaking performance of the experiment group learners.

The procedures for conducting the speaking exam as well as the grading of the exam papers are explained in detail in Section 4.9.5.

4.5. Population and sampling

The research looks at three different groups of participants: learners, student-teachers, and teachers. The learners who participated in the experiment and who completed the Beliefs Inventory are the same students. They were students taking the Intermediate module at the Prep School at İzmir University. There were 32 learners in total: 15 in the experiment and 17 in the control group. The experiment and control groups were two different classes involving students who had successfully completed the pre-intermediate module. The placement of these students in these classes was done by the Prep School coordinators randomly. All of the students in these two groups participated in the experiment and similarly all students completed the Beliefs Inventory. All the participants were contacted in person and volunteered to participate in the experiment and share their beliefs via Beliefs Inventory.

The student-teachers constitute another population participating in the study. They are the junior students at the English Language Teaching Department at İzmir University. In other words, they are students for the time being but also they are the prospective English teachers. They were taking the translation course when they participated in the study. They completed the Beliefs Inventory. They also completed the paper version of the online survey by considering their prospective teacher identity. Being a participant to both the Beliefs Inventory and the survey, they enabled me to compare their beliefs with that of the learner group and teacher group. All the learners taking the translation course in the semester completed the Beliefs Inventory and the survey voluntarily.

The participants were all teachers of foreign-languages working at different institutions. The aim was to provide substantial and varied insights by the teachers into the role of translation. There were in total 244 teachers who completed the survey. The teachers were from many different institutions although the ones working at tertiary level were in majority. Teachers who worked in İzmir province also outnumbered the others. Once the online survey was open to public, teachers participated in the survey voluntarily.

4.5.1. Setting

The setting of the research is the FLT teaching context in Turkey in general and in İzmir University in particular. The foreign-language being looked at here is English, indicated as L2 throughout. In order to develop a perspective on valid FLT policies in Turkey, however, it is also important to present the overall language policy in the country.

The official language in Turkey is Turkish. There are other languages spoken by minorities in the country, though. For instance, Kurdish is widely spoken in the eastern part of Turkey, and Lazuri is common among people in the Black Sea region, while there are many people in the southern part of the country who speak Arabic. Some people living in these areas communicate with their family members mainly through these languages, so they define their L1 as being Kurdish, Lazuri or Arabic. However, most of them can also speak Turkish. This is important for this research because there are participants who indicate their L1 as being Kurdish or Arabic.

4.5.1.1. Foreign-language teaching in Turkey

Foreign-language policy occupies an important place in the overall education policy of Turkey, as it serves political considerations as well as educational goals. To this end, a number of regulations have been put into force in recent years.

The most popular foreign-language being taught in schools is English, followed by German and French. Although these three have been by far the most common languages taught in schools, the new regulations have added Arabic and Kurdish to the existing curriculum. Kurdish became an elective course under the title *Living Languages and Dialects* in 2012 for fifth-grade students, while Arabic was included as a foreign-language in the elective courses in 2015. Primary-school students can now choose Arabic as a foreign-language in second grade. In defining the grounds for this regulation which came into force in 2015 the Turkish Ministry of National Education stated that there were historical and cultural reasons for learning Arabic. It is also an important language for religious reasons in Islamic countries. Kurdish was included in the elective courses mainly for political reasons, giving Kurdish speakers the opportunity to be taught in their L1. Thus, the policy adopts a rather tolerant approach towards multilingualism, seeing it a natural outcome of the multiculturalism embodied in the land of Anatolia.

There are basically two types of primary and high school in Turkey: public school and private school. Public schools are free of charge while in private schools it is required

to pay money to study. Due to the limited sources in public schools, the teaching hours allocated to foreign-languages is also limited. The weekly class hours for primary school is 30 hours and minimum 2 maximum three class hours are allocated for foreign-languages. Secondary schools have 35 class hours in total and only four of them are allocated to foreign-languages. Private schools do not have a fixed cost and the amount is determined by the school administration. In return for the amount paid to the school, students are offered better educational and social opportunities than the public schools. Thus, the foreign-language teaching hours per week in a typical private school can reach 30 hours for some grades. Also, the number of students in a class is fewer in private schools. The hours of exposure to L2, the number of the learners in a class, as well as other environmental factors, have a role in the teaching of a foreign-language. Private schools take advantage of these factors.

Although the intensity of instruction differs between schools, typical students in Turkey necessarily have foreign-language education in some part of their studies. After high school, those who wish may opt for university education. The medium of instruction at universities in Turkey is either Turkish or a foreign-language, depending on the department and university chosen. Those who want to study at a department whose medium of instruction is a language like English or German are required to pass the preparatory language examination. This is an exam prepared by each institution in consideration of their language goals. The students who cannot succeed in this exam have to study at the preparatory school until they meet the language level required to study in their departments.

4.5.1.2. The Preparatory School at İzmir University

The setting of this research, İzmir University, was one of five foundation universities in province of İzmir, Turkey. Foundation universities in Turkey are founded by private corporations and were supported by the government. The application procedure for these universities is the same as state universities. However, only a restricted number of students can study free of charge in these universities. Some students who do not pay money are granted a scholarship, while others pay a fee. This amount varies among universities. The medium of instruction is English in the majority of the departments. Thus, students who want to study in these departments have to take the English Proficiency exam at the beginning of the academic year. Those who are successful

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proceed to their education in their faculties, while those who fail start studying English at the Preparatory School.

The language education at the Preparatory School is based on a modular system. The students are grouped into levels, ranging from elementary (*A1*) to intermediate level (*B2*). Each level corresponds to an eight-week module. The goals of each level are defined according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (*CEFR*). Prep courses are highly intensive, with the class hours ranging from 25 to 30 per week. At the end of each module students take the level exam called *PAT* (Progress and Achievement Test). The averages of their *PAT* exam as well as the ones they get during the module are used to determine their final grade. The students whose scores are 59.5 or above can go to the next level. A typical student has to complete intermediate (*B1*) level successfully in order to be able to take the Proficiency Exam.

The learner group involved in this research consists of students at the Preparatory School at İzmir University studying the Intermediate level module. The detailed description of the participants is provided in Section 4.5.2.1.

4.5.2. Participants

The groups of participants are as follows.

4.5.2.1. Participants in the Beliefs Inventory for learners

The participant group for the Beliefs Inventory for learners consisted of learners taking the Intermediate (*B1*) level English class in the academic year 2013-2014. In all, 32 students aged 18 to 25 participated in this research, two of whom were eliminated during the statistical analysis due to response set. They were the students taking the intermediate module who had passed the pre-intermediate module exam successfully and were entitled to study at intermediate level. They were placed in their classes by the prep school coordinators. One of the classes was designated as the experiment group while the other became the control group. The decision as to which group was the experiment group was made randomly. However, both of the classes were taught by me with the partnership of another colleague.

4.5.2.2. Participants in the Beliefs Inventory for student-teachers

The group participating as student-teachers comprised the third-year students at the English Teaching Department at İzmir University. They were taking the translation course in the academic year 2015-2016. There were 32 students in total. Since they were both students and future teachers, they were given two different questionnaires: the Beliefs Inventory and an adapted version of the online teacher survey. The purpose was to obtain data that would enable separate comparisons between student-teachers and learners as well as teachers.

4.5.2.3. Participants in the Online Survey for teachers

The Online Survey was responded to by 246 teachers, although it was accessed 1443 times (possibly by the same people several times in some cases). Of these 246 teachers, 244 completed the survey, which is an adequate number for analysis. Participants included both male and female teachers from different cities in Turkey. The teachers worked in primary, secondary and tertiary teaching contexts and were teachers of foreign-languages including English, German, French, Spanish and Turkish as a foreign-language. English-language teachers outnumbered the teachers of other foreign-languages as English is by far the most common language studied in Turkey. This was expected, yet teachers of other languages were still included in the research as the role of translation in teaching a foreign-language is not specific to English only. The teaching experience of the participants ranged from 1 year to more than 20 years.

4.6. Materials

As the participants took an eight-week English course, learners were provided with or asked to supply certain course materials. Some materials were common to both the experiment and control groups, while others were intentionally designed or selected for the experiment group only. The basic materials included the course books, supplementary material, translation texts, and writing by the learners.

4.6.1. Coursebooks

Both the experiment and the control group were taught with *Speak Out*, published by Pearson Publishing House. This was the main course book selected by the preparatory school teachers for the academic year 2013-2014. *Speak Out* is a series of six level textbooks designed for adult learners aged 15 years and more. It aims to develop the speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills of the learners, as well as to reinforce their language use and vocabulary knowledge through authentic materials. Since the participants were Intermediate-level learners they used *Speak Out* Intermediate level course book, corresponding to *B1+* in the *CEFR* descriptors. In addition to the main course book, all learners used a writing book called *Effective Academic Writing 1* published by Oxford University Press. A separate course on writing was included in the curriculum as Turkish learners of English mostly have particular difficulties developing their writing skills. The fact that writing is a productive skill requiring a lot of practice to gain mastery makes the writing classes an important opportunity for further practice. It needs to be noted that neither of the course books included any translation exercises, activities, or tasks, as they are designed for the world market. Thus, the learners in the experiment group were provided with certain supplementary material that included translation practice.

4.6.2. Supplementary material

The supplementary material comprised PowerPoint presentations prepared by the teacher. They were created to present the topics in an interactive way. They were also used for practice purposes, enabling the learners to focus on the board or each other rather than solely on the books. The experiment and control groups were taught the same topics via the same PowerPoint presentations.

4.6.3. Translation texts

The experiment group did translation activities in addition to the presentation and practice techniques applied in both groups. Translation was used in exercises, activities, tasks or projects involving sentences or texts written in L1 to be translated into L2.

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The translating of isolated sentences may be criticized for not being appropriate for real-life language use; however, the activity was found to be useful for the purposeful practice of certain structures. The learners were also given authentic texts or abridged versions of original texts to enable them to see the language in larger contexts. Through the translation of these texts, the learners should develop the ability to consider the meaning beyond words. Apart from these activities, the learners themselves were urged to create their own original texts to be translated. They were directed to translate into L1 the texts they had written in L2. In some group work, they were involved in a series of activities where they were assigned tasks involving writing, translating, and then editing. The detailed descriptions of the exercises, tasks, activities and projects are presented in Section 4.10.

4.6.4. Writing by learners

The participants in both the experiment and control groups were assigned a number of writing tasks during the module. By keeping each piece of work in a file, the learners were asked to create a writing portfolio. The writing portfolios included all the written work done by the learners and was submitted to the teacher at the end of the module.

The writing tasks were completed either in class or as homework. The learners in both groups were assigned the same number of writing tasks. The tasks involved process writing, which values all the stages gone through while writing, and product writing, which values only the end-product (Harmer 2007: 352-356). The writing papers were assessed by me as the writing teacher for both groups. Upon completion of each task, the learners handed in their papers to me. Within a reasonable time period, not more than a week, they received written and oral feedback on their work. The intensive tasks were designed to encourage the learners to engage in writing as much as possible.

4.7. The teachers teaching the learner groups

There were two teachers teaching both the experiment and control groups. One of them was me as the researcher, the other was a male colleague of mine whom I had been working with for nearly ten years. We divided the work load and taught exactly the same

class hours to each class. In addition to the main classes, I was responsible for teaching writing to both classes, while he took responsibility for the reading classes.

The other teacher to teach the groups was decided after negotiation with other colleagues. His teaching experience, the similarity in the teaching techniques we use, and his interest in my research made him the most appropriate teacher to work with. Both groups were taught exactly the same parts by the same teacher. The only difference was the use of translation as a technique in the experiment group.

4.8 Ethical considerations

The research gathered a considerable amount of personal information about the participants. The learners were asked private questions about themselves, including their education background and learning habits. The information was gathered in written form. To obtain their written approval for this, I prepared a consent form (see Appendix 6) in order to have clear evidence of voluntary participation. The form included brief information about the research as well as the participants' right to withdraw from the research at any time. It was also noted in the consent form that the responses would be confidential and anonymous, in the sense that the names of the participants would not appear in any public records or publications. By having them sign the consent form, I also proceeded in conformity with the guidelines of the Intercultural Studies Group (this was prior to the setting up of an Ethics Committee at the Department of English and German Studies in Tarragona). The learners were also informed verbally about all this information and the details of the research. They were ensured that they could contact me at any time to obtain further information about the research.

The same procedure regarding ethical considerations applied to the student-teachers. Although I informed them verbally about the whole procedure and saw great enthusiasm to take part in the research, their volunteer status was confirmed through the consent form.

The teachers participating in the research through an online survey were also asked to indicate their consent by reading the same form and clicking the *Yes* button on the screen. They were told that they would not receive any monetary payment for participation and were free to discontinue their participation at any time.

To make sure that all participants could contact me to ask further questions about the research, I shared my email address with them. I also assured them that the results of the research could be shared with them if they showed interest.

4.9. Data-gathering procedures

Various procedures were used to collect data. The first stage involved designing the Beliefs Inventory, which would be used for the learners and student-teachers. To this end, an inventory with 50 items was prepared to be used in the pre-experiment stage. This 50-item inventory entailed the collection of data from a larger group of learners in order to create the final version of the beliefs inventory used in the research. The participants comprised students at the Preparatory School of İzmir University studying in the academic year 2013-2014. Upon the analysis of the data as explained in Section 4.4.1.1, the items in the Beliefs Inventory was reduced to thirty-three and the beliefs inventory to be used with the learners and student-teachers was created.

4.9.1. Data collection from learners

The learners provided a variety of data, through bio-data questionnaires, Beliefs Inventories, and the experimental study. While the data from questionnaires and inventories were collected in a short period of time, the collection of data from the experimental study took eight weeks. The same students were involved in all of these data collection processes. The detailed procedure regarding each process is described below.

4.9.1.1. Data collection from learners through bio-data forms

The bio-data form was the first step in the process of data collection from learners. As explained in Section 4.4.2.1, the aim was to gain personal information about the participants. The learners were first informed about the procedure orally and requested to put their signature on the consent forms. After the written consent, they were requested to share some information about themselves to be used in the analysis of the data. The participants completed the forms on paper in nearly ten minutes and proceeded to the next stage.

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4.9.1.2. Data collection from learners through Beliefs Inventory

The following phase of data collection involved Beliefs Inventories. As mentioned above, Beliefs Inventories were designed to capture the beliefs of the learners regarding translation and language learning. The Beliefs Inventory used at this stage was developed from the 50-item questionnaire used in the pre-experiment stage.

The learners who completed the Beliefs Inventories were the students in the experiment and control groups. The data were collected during the eight-week module lasting from March to February in 2014. As described in Section 4.4.2.2, the learners in both groups were given the beliefs inventory twice: initially at the beginning of the eight-week module and once again at the end of the module. The objective of having it done twice was to track any change in the beliefs of the experiment-group learners, while the control-group learners were expected to remain stable in their beliefs.

The learners completed the inventory individually in the classroom setting. They were asked to mark the papers, including the items as well as the optic forms, so as to avoid any difficulties that may arise from double marking or failure to erase appropriately. As the researcher, I was in the classroom in order to be able to answer any questions. The students answered the questions in nearly twenty minutes and handed back the completed inventories to me.

Since translation is generally a technique not favored in FLT, the learners were not expected to have strong opinions in favor of translation. However, the eight-week translation exposure was expected to yield a change in the beliefs of the experiment group learners. Thus, both groups were given the same inventory right after they completed the module. In this second round, it took the learners approximately 15 minutes to complete the inventory, five minutes shorter than the first administration, which could be attributed to their familiarity with the items.

4.9.1.3. Data collection from learners through the experiment

Learners at the preparatory school provided another set of data by taking part in the experimental study. The experiment was designed to monitor classroom activities involving translation and relate the results to the information gained from the Beliefs Inventories.

Both groups of learners were told about the experimental study and were asked to confirm their volunteer participation. The learners in the experiment group were informed that they would be doing some translation work in addition to the other exercises, tasks,

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and activities they did in the classroom. Their first reaction was quite positive, which could be attributed to their relief at being able to use L1 in the classes. They also wanted to know if there would be any translation tasks in their exams, which was not possible due to institutional constraints. However, the question indicates the close association learners make between teaching/learning and exams. They expect what they do in the class to appear in the exams.

In the course of the eight-week module, the learners in the experiment group were exposed to a considerable number of translation exercises, tasks, and activities. They were also encouraged to prepare projects where they would continuously engage in translating. These exercises, tasks, activities, and projects were either designed by me or adopted from examples in other sources. The detailed descriptions of the activities are given in the following sections.

During the eight-week module the experiment-group learners were to work with translation while the control-group learners engaged with other techniques used to teach English. The techniques used with the control-group learners were also used with the experiment-group learners in order to maintain conformity. At certain intervals the students were given writing tasks to be graded and assessed to monitor any impact of translation on the learners' writing skills. The writing exam was administered once at the beginning of the module and once at the end. Speaking was also assessed and graded at the beginning and at the end of the module. The writing and speaking grades of the learners were used as data for quantitative analysis. The assessment and grading procedure of the writing and speaking performances are described in Section 4.9.4 and Section 4.9.5, respectively.

4.9.2. Data collection from the student-teachers

Student-teachers contributed to the research by sharing their beliefs regarding translation and language learning through two different instruments: the Beliefs Inventory and the online survey. The Beliefs Inventory was the same one developed for learners and was used as the basis for comparison. The survey, on the other hand, was similar to the online survey administered to teachers. It aimed to compare the beliefs of the teachers with those of the student-teachers.

4.9.2.1. Data collection from student-teachers through the Beliefs Inventory

The student-teachers are those studying at the English Language Teaching Department at İzmir University in the academic year 2015-2016. They were third-year students who were taking the *Translation* courses. Translation was one of the compulsory courses in the curriculum.

At the initial stage, the student-teachers were provided with a thorough explanation of the scope and aims of the research. After their written consent, they were provided with instructions on how to fill out the inventory. The inventory was administered on paper. Like the learners, the student-teachers were given the Turkish translation of the inventory and it took them approximately ten minutes to complete it. This duration was about ten minutes shorter than the first administration of the inventory to the learners and five minutes shorter than the second administration. Since there was no anticipation of a change in the beliefs of this group of participants, the student-teachers were given the inventory online once only, in the last class hour of the semester.

The information gained from the Beliefs Inventory was expected not only to shed light on views regarding translation but also to enable comparisons between the two groups: learners of English and student-teachers being trained to teach English.

4.9.2.2. Data collection from student-teachers through the teacher survey

Following the Beliefs Inventory, the student-teachers were given the surveys administered to teachers through online survey tools. Unlike the teachers, the student-teachers were asked to complete the survey on paper. There were basically three reasons for this choice. First, the student-teachers were a group of learners I could access directly. Second, having them complete the survey on paper right after the Beliefs Inventory helped me to save time. And third, the survey given was *adapted* from the teachers' survey. In other words, it was not exactly the same. Although the items aimed at reaching similar information, the wording was altered to address the student-teachers.

The items were in English. Being prospective teachers of English, they were not expected to have difficulty in understanding the items written in L2. Yet I assured them that I would help them by offering the Turkish translation whenever they needed it. The survey was completed in nearly fifteen minutes, five minutes longer than the Beliefs Inventory, which could be attributed to the open-ended questions involved.

The information gained from this survey was expected to offer another perspective on the results obtained from the teachers.

4.9.3. Data collection from teachers

Teachers are an important agent in the teaching/learning process. Their habits, beliefs, and choices are likely to have an impact on the learning process of the learners. Thus, it is important to explore translation from their perspective.

Since teachers are a group of participants with different working hours and class schedules, it was not easy to arrange a fixed time for them, even when they worked at the same institution. Further, being tied to a single institution would not yield a sufficient number of participants. For those reasons, an online survey was designed to reach a large population of participants.

The preparation stage of the Online Survey was carried out through email correspondence with my thesis supervisor. Necessary alterations and changes were applied based on his suggestions and warnings.

The Online Survey was designed to reach teachers I had never met. To this end, first I identified the institutions likely to be interested. Then I sought a colleague that would be willing to share the link to the survey through their own communication network. Finally, an email was sent to those contacts who would help disseminate the link. The email included brief information regarding the objectives of the research along with the link to the survey. The teachers were asked to confirm their volunteer participation by marking the relevant choice in the item preceding the questions.

The link to the survey was open to public from November 2014 to March 2015. There were 244 complete responses to the survey in total. The data obtained from the survey was analyzed with regard to the research questions given in Section 4.3.1.

4.9.4. Data collection from the written output of the learners

Another set of data was acquired from the writing performances of the learners. While the in-class writing of learners, described in detail in Section 4.12, aimed at improving their writing skills, it was neither graded nor considered as data for this study. The writing grades used as data for this study were obtained from the initial and final writing exams administered to both groups of learners in the same class hour. They took the exam in their classes. The exam lasted for forty minutes. The exam was prepared by the Testing Office. In each classroom an instructor assigned by the Testing Office was responsible for initiating and ending the exam at the given times. The learners could not use any

reference books or dictionaries during the exam. They were expected to leave their mobile phones at the teacher's desk before the exam started. They could not leave the exam hall during the exam.

The grading of the writing papers was also done by the instructors at the Prep School. Those who are assigned as assessors participate in a calibration session where they compare and discuss some samples of writing. Also, in order to avoid biased grading, double checking is applied in the assessment and grading phase of the exam. Two instructors assess and grade the writing papers consecutively, with no notice of one another's scoring. They calculate the average grades and submit the grade list to the Testing Office. The Testing Office staff is responsible for going through the list to identify any remarkably different scoring. The maximum difference between the scores of the two instructors should be three points. Cases with a greater difference are directed to third assessors.

This procedure was followed to acquire data for this research. A sample of the criteria used for the assessment of the students' written work is provided in Appendix 7.

4.9.5. Data collection from the spoken output of the learners

The speaking exam was considered another set of data in this research. While the in-class speaking performances of the learners are not graded, the learners are assessed and graded on their performances during the speaking exam. The data used in this research is obtained from the speaking exams administered at the beginning and the end of the module.

The learners were already familiar with the exam, as they had taken a similar type of exam in the preceding modules. Nonetheless, they were informed about the parts of the exam by means of the test specifications announced in advance. Speaking tests are prepared by the Testing Office, who are also instructors at the Prep School. Learners take the exam in pairs. The pairs are randomly determined by the Testing Office. Each learner is paired with someone in their class. A 15-minute exam duration is allocated to each pair and the exact time of their turn is announced a day before. The exam starts at the same hour in all exam halls.

There are two teachers conducting the exam: one of them is the interlocutor, who asks the questions, and the other one is the assessor, who listens but does not speak at all. Both of them assess and grade the learners' performance. However, the interlocutor gives an overall grade while the assessor does detailed grading. The assessment grid for the

speaking exam is provided in Appendix 8. It was prepared by the instructors at the Prep School and had been in use for a year. For both groups the interlocutor was one of the instructors teaching the given class while the assessor was a randomly chosen instructor working at the Prep School. Regardless of the role assigned as an interviewer or assessor, all instructors had to attend an exam calibration session before the exam date in order to achieve conformity and consistency.

4.10. Translation as a technique used to teach the experiment group

Within the framework of this research, translation is considered a technique that can be exploited as an exercise, a task, or an activity in the classroom, in addition to being used as a project. Examples are provided below. All those presented as an exercise, task, activity, or project were used with the experiment group participating in this study.

4.10.1 Exercises

As defined in Chapter 2, "exercise" refers to the controlled and guided practice of language (Richards 2017: unpaginated). Thus, translation exercises involve the practice of language by means of translating a given phrase, sentence, or text. The translation phase is generally followed by a comparison, discussion, and feedback phase. Due to their rather mechanical nature and probably their close association with the *GTM*, translation exercises are generally not favored in FLT. This may be true in cases where the teacher assures the learners that there can be only one correct translation. In that case, the learners would probably focus on finding that single truth that would please the teacher, instead of combining their language and vocabulary resources with their creativity to produce a meaningful translation. However, the procedure does not have to be like this. Learners need to be assured that there can be more than one acceptable translation of a single phrase or sentence, depending on the context or even the speakers involved. Thus, these alternatives can be interpreted as a sign of the richness of the language. This attitude may encourage learners share their translations and justify their choices.

Considering the possible drawbacks of translation exercises, the procedure used in this research involved a discussion stage, where the teacher is not the sole resource for

the only correct alternative. Further, the exercises were designed so as to maximize interaction between the students and the teacher, as well as among students themselves.

To this end, the general aims of the exercises were to create awareness of the constraints on word for word translation, to realize the restricted use of certain expressions or phrases, to practice the meaning of certain expressions, to draw attention to the possible translations of a single expression or phrase, to practice certain uses of language by translating the given sentences, to point out the implicit meaning in certain expression and idioms, to practice the use and meaning of certain words, to practice conveying meaning in context, and to note contextual clues to help figure out the meaning.

4.10.2. Tasks

Tasks are also in-class procedures but they differ from exercises in that there is a specific outcome learners are expected to produce upon the completion (Richards 2017: unpaginated). The number of tasks involved in this study is limited to two because tasks take more time to carry out in class and more effort to design. Since I did not find any pre-existing translation tasks, I created them myself. In developing these, I modified the tasks I was familiar with in order to include translation. The informal feedback from the learners was quite promising and most of them seemed to be engaged with the task all throughout.

Both of the tasks used in this study involve an integration of at least two skills along with translation. Since the fundamental aim is to explore the role of translation in writing and speaking as the two productive skills, I made sure to practice one of these two skills in the given tasks. More specifically, the aims of the tasks used in this study were to note the variety in solutions to translation problems, to observe the difference between spoken and written language, to realize the importance of coherence in a written or oral text, to foster listening, speaking and writing skills, and to introduce the communicative use of translation.

4.10.3. Activities

Activities are more general in sense and seem to be used more commonly in FLT, regardless of the method the teacher follows. An activity needs to have a purpose as well

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and the procedures involved have to comply with the goals of the activity (Richards 2017: unpaginated). There were six activities involved in this study. Like the tasks, all the activities involve translation at certain stages and are designed for an integration of skills. Further, interaction among learners should be at maximum level. To achieve this, learners were continuously encouraged to work in pairs or groups. Pair-work and group work also help to improve the social skills of the learners by urging them to practice taking turns, expressing themselves, defending their opinions, and exchanging views, as well as agreeing and disagreeing.

The majority of the six activities in this study were adapted from other sources, while two of them were designed by me. The general aims of the activities can be summarized as familiarizing the learners with online translation tools as linguistic and lexical resources, raising awareness about the limitations of online translation tools and the possibility of alternative translations, monitoring the students' mental process while they are translating, introducing the communicative use of translation, fostering the four skills through translation, noticing the importance of register in communication, and marking the significance of context in spoken language and written language. The majority of the learners seem to have enjoyed the translation stages, as they all appeared to be involved. Mentoring and offering help when needed, the teacher had the role of a guide and facilitator.

4.10.4. Projects

Projects are another procedure used in this study to complement the class work. Projects are currently becoming more common in education in Turkey, not only in language teaching but also in other classes. They seem to be regarded as bridging the gap between theory and practice by familiarizing the learners with real-life activities.

The number of the projects in this study is limited to two, due to time constraints. Since projects require long-term work, learners need more time to work efficiently. Each project was planned for a two-week period, which was thought to be appropriate for maintaining the learners' interest. As projects have only recently become popular, there are not many examples published. For this reason, the two projects in this study were designed by me. I paid particular attention to the use of technology and social media at some stages of the projects, as the learners involved in the study were a young group of

students that have already made technology and social media indispensable parts of their lives.

The fundamental aim of the projects was to keep the learners engaged with translation outside the classroom by making it an element of their lives. More specifically, they were designed to allow the learners to familiarize themselves with colloquial English by making use of social media and technology, to foster the four language skills by means of real-life activities, and to encourage students to interact with each other and others by using L2. The aims of the projects were in conformity with the overall aims of the exercises, tasks, and activities. Similarly, they had the goal of raising interaction to the maximum.

The procedural stages and detailed descriptions of sample translation exercises, tasks, activities and projects used in the treatment are provided in the Appendix 9.

4.11. Techniques used with the control group

While translation was used as the prevalent technique in the experiment group, the control-group learners were engaged with exercises, activities, tasks, and projects that did not involve any translation work. In order to maintain conformity between the groups, the number of the exercises, activities, tasks, and projects remained the same, while they differed in procedure. For instance, a typical translation exercise involving translating a sentence or a text was replaced with a rewriting exercise. A role-play activity that involves translation was designed with different roles for the learners, who are also given different contexts. In the poster-preparation task, learners in the control group were asked to find a non-native figure and summarize the speech they chose in English rather than in Turkish. The learners in the control group were also assigned the same projects but were asked to engage with direct writing rather than translating.

The techniques in the course book were used with both groups. These techniques involve gap filling, matching, error correction, dialogue completion, paragraph writing, role-playing, scrambled sentences and picture strip stories, drills, and short presentations.

4.12. Assessment and grading of written works

Being one of the two traditional productive skills, writing was meticulously taught and regularly practiced throughout the module. The common goal of all the writing tasks was to have the learners become competent at expressing themselves by writing, which requires a good knowledge of vocabulary and grammar as well as an effective command of language. To this end, learners were continuously encouraged to engage in formal and informal writing in L2.

Learners in both the experiment and control groups did a considerable amount of written work, including paragraph completion, paragraph writing, and summarizing. They were informed about the rules, taught language to use while writing, and given tips on how to write more effectively. After practice sufficient to enable them to write on their own, they were given topics on which to write a paragraph. Writing tasks were completed in class or assigned as homework. While the majority of the tasks included process writing, learners were also encouraged to do product writing. In both cases, their written work was assessed by me as their teacher.

In process writing, the learners were encouraged to write a second draft after they received feedback on the first draft. The first draft included marking using error codes. The learners were familiar with the error codes, which had been regularly used in the preceding modules. Nevertheless, the learners were given a sheet indicating the codes and giving examples. They also received written feedback regarding their weak points. Learners with remarkably poor writing performances were also given oral feedback. For their product writing work, learners also received written feedback and oral feedback when necessary. The written work of the learners was not graded in order to prompt them concentrate on writing rather than on getting better grades.

Learners had to keep their writing tasks in a file and build up a writing portfolio to be submitted to the teachers at the end of the module. Keeping portfolios has recently become a common way of assessing the written work of learners. It gives the teacher the opportunity to assess the writing produced over a period of time; according to Harmer (2007: 340) the portfolio "is seen by many people to be fairer than a 'sudden death' final test." Harmer (2007: 340) also notes that "portfolios are used as a way of encouraging students to take pride in their work; by encouraging them to keep examples of what they have written, we are encouraging them to write it well and with care." The portfolios prompted the learners to have an orderly record of their work and to go back to it to review

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their papers. It was also practical for me as their teacher, since it enabled me to monitor their progress more effectively.

Learners were informed that there had to be at least five writing tasks in addition to the printed version of the *Blipfoto* project outputs in their writing portfolios, although they could include more work if they liked. The assessment of the pieces of writing was carried out in accordance with the writing assessment criteria used at the Prep School at İzmir University (see Appendix 7).

Although the writing tasks of the learners were not graded, they received grades for the portfolios they submitted. The criteria involved in the assessment of the portfolios included three factors: timely submission of the writing tasks, meeting the word limit, and progress achieved throughout the module. The learners' grades were added to their score for the module. Although the grades for the portfolios were not weighted highly in the overall average grade, the learners maintained their interest in writing and in building up their portfolio.

4.13. Assessment and grading of the spoken works

Being the other traditional productive skill, speaking was an indispensable component of the curriculum at the Prep School. Much of the emphasis put on it was a result of the difficulty learners tended to face to become competent speakers. Even for those who have good command of written English, speaking may remain a burden. To overcome this, the curriculum included a variety of speaking activities, and learners were constantly advised to participate in spoken interactions.

Since the main aim was to achieve maximum participation, the learners' speaking performances in class were not graded continuously. They received a final 'Class Performance Grade' (*CPG*) that also involved their speaking participation. All the learners received constructive oral feedback. Those showing less interest or a more timid attitude were called for a student-teacher meeting. Apart from their in-class performance, the speaking competence of the learners was assessed and graded at the end of the module by means of a speaking test. The speaking test is a component of the exam called *PAT* (Progress and Achievement Test) administered at the end of each module at İzmir University. The assessment of their speaking performance was carried out in accordance

with the speaking assessment criteria used at the Prep School at İzmir University (see Appendix 8).

Chapter 5. Results

In this chapter, the results of the statistical and descriptive analysis of the data are presented. There are five different types of quantitative data in this study: the speaking and writing exam grades of the learners given as pre-test and post-test scores, the Beliefs Inventory responses of the learners, the Beliefs Inventory responses of the student-teachers, the survey responses of the student-teachers, and the online survey responses of the teachers. Section 5.1 includes the quantitative analysis of the correlation between translation training and learners' success. In its sub-sections the results of the learners' writing and speaking exams are presented. In Section 5.2, the correlations between learners' bio data and success are presented. The purpose of Section 5.3 is to present the analysis of learner beliefs. Section 5.4 focuses on the correlations between the learners' bio-data and their beliefs. In Section 5.5, a comparison of the beliefs of the learners and student-teachers is presented. Section 5.6 consists of the analysis of the teachers' beliefs. In its subsections, the descriptive analysis of teachers' bio data and beliefs is presented, in addition to the correlations of the bio-data with beliefs, and correlations of the beliefs with one another. Section 5.7 compares the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers as well as the results of the related analysis.

5.1. Correlations between translation activities and learners' success

This study mainly aims to find out the impact translation may have on language learning, specifically on the writing and speaking performance of the learners.

The effect of translation on language learning can most objectively be measured through exams. Thus, the exam grades of the learners are used as the pre-test and post-test scores. Since the study focuses on the effect of translation on the improvement of writing and speaking skills, the exam scores pertaining to these two language areas are taken into account. Here the writing and speaking pre-test and post-test scores are analyzed separately.

There were two groups of learners participating in the study: the experiment group and the control group. The experiment group learners were exposed to various translation

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exercises, tasks or activities, while the control group learners were not. Both groups took the same exams, though. The exams did not include any translation tasks and they were administered under the same conditions for both groups. In the following two sub-sections, the results of the pre-test and post-test writing and speaking exams are presented.

5.1.1. Correlations between translation activities and learners' success at writing

A positive change in the success of the learners at writing in English would be considered to indicate improvement in their language levels. Figure 1 presents the pre-test and post-test writing exam scores of the control and the experiment groups.

Figure 1. The effect of the translation activities on writing success
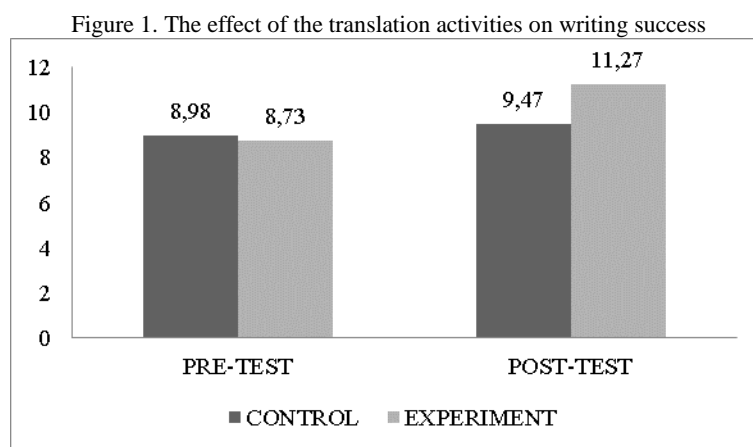
When the pre-test writing scores of both groups are compared, control group learners are observed to have slightly higher scores: the mean of the control group is 8.98, while the mean of the experiment group is 8.73. However, after the treatment, the experiment group learners increased their writing scores more than the control group learners did. The mean scores for the post-test writing exam of the experiment group learners increased to 11.27, while the mean score of the control group learners was 9.47. Table 1 shows the pre-test and post-test mean writing scores of both groups.

Table 1. Paired sample t-test results of the pre- and post-tests for writing exams

GT		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	SD			
Control Group	*ATW-PRE - ATW-POST	-0.5125	2.6184	-.783	15	0.446
Experiment Group	ATW-PRE - ATW-POST	-2.2500	1.7404	-4.837	13	0.001

* ATW stands for Writing Achievement Test

According to repeated measures analysis, the writing scores of the experiment group showed a statistically significant increase, $F(1,30) = 13.65$, $p = 0.001$. On the other hand, the increase in the writing scores of the control group was not statistically significant, $F(1,30) = 13.65$, $p = 0.446$.

5.1.2. Correlations between translation training and learners' success at speaking

Like the writing exam scores, the speaking exam scores of the learner group were used to measure their level of success. Following the same procedure, the learners took the speaking exam twice: the first exam was to be used as the pre-test scores and the second gave the post-test scores. The results of the analysis are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. The effect of the translation activities on speaking success
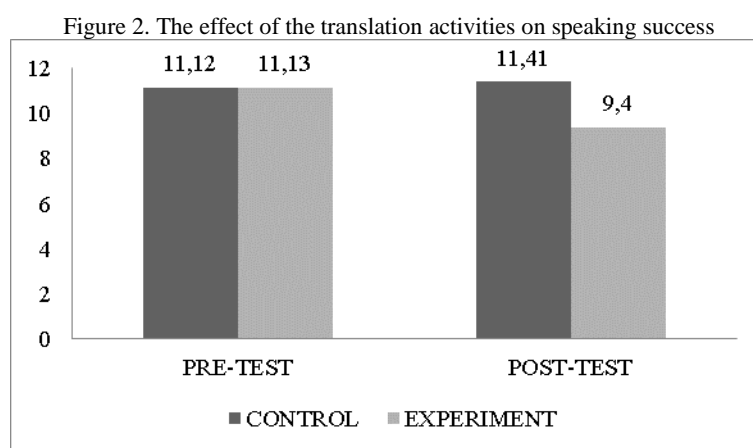
Both groups started the module with almost the same mean scores in their speaking pre-tests. However, in their post-tests, the control group showed a slight increase, while the experiment group showed a decrease. The results of the analysis of the speaking scores of both groups are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Paired sample t-test results of the pre- and post-tests for speaking exams

GT		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	SD			
Control Group	*ATS-PRE - ATS-POST	-0.6563	2.5411	-1.033	15	0.318
Experiment Group	ATS-PRE - ATS-POST	1.7500	3.6202	1.809	13	0.094

* ATS stands for Speaking Achievement Test

According to the repeated measures analysis, the speaking scores of the experiment group did not show a statistically significant decrease, F (1,30) = 13.65, p = 0.094. Similarly, according to repeated measures analysis, the increase in the speaking scores of the control group was not statistically significant either, F (1,30) = 13.65, p = 0.318.

Given these results, the only significant increase is seen in the writing scores of the experiment group learners, which may be due to the translation activities done with this group. The learners in the experiment group may have benefited from the translation activities which include writing and this may have led to a positive effect on the writing performances of the learners at the end of the module.

5.2. Correlations between learners' bio data and their success

Apart from their beliefs, the learners' success levels are also assumed to be influenced by their biographical features. In other words, there is a likelihood of a correlation between their personal qualifications and success at learning English. The following subsection presents the analysis conducted to explore this correlation.

5.2.1. The effect of English as a future language of instruction

In the Turkish university system, students who want to study at university take the university exam administered by OSYM (*Student Selection and Placement Center*). Upon receiving their scores, students make a list of twenty universities, from the most wanted to the least. Students make their choices by taking into account a number of factors. The medium of instruction at the given department or university may be one of the reasons for a student's choice. Therefore, their success and their reason for choosing İzmir University are expected to be interrelated. Table 3 shows the effect of English education on the choices of the learners.

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Table 3. The effect of choosing İzmir University for English education on the success of Turkish learners of English

Exams	Effect of English	Mean	SD	p-value
ATW-PRE	EEIC*	9.73	2.21	0.004
	NEEC*	7.00	2.67	
ATW-POST	EEIC	10.43	1.87	0.605
	NEEC	10.05	2.00	
ATS-PRE	EEIC	11.04	2.64	0.752
	NEEC	10.75	1.80	
ATS-POST	EEIC	10.73	2.13	0.403
	NEEC	9.90	3.34	

* EEIC stands for Effect of English in Choice and NEEIC for No Effect of English in Choice

There were two groups of participants in the learner group: those who chose İzmir University to study at departments whose medium of instruction was English, and those whose decisions were not influenced by that criterion. There were 24 learners who mentioned the impact of English education on their decision, while the remaining 10 students indicated that they were not influenced by the English education factor. Table 3 presents the mean scores of the exam grades of the learners in the writing and speaking exams administered at the beginning and at the end of the module. According to the group t-test, those who identified English education as a reason for choosing İzmir University obtained scores in the writing pre-test that were significantly higher than those who do not identify it as a valid reason, $t(32) = 3.08$, $p = 0.004$. The results seem surprising as the only the pre-test writing scores differ significantly. The speaking scores, on the other hand, do not show a significant difference. It is also surprising that when they completed the module, their scores did not differ significantly in either the speaking or writing exams.

5.3. Analysis of the learners' beliefs through the Beliefs Inventory

The Beliefs Inventory included 33 items. The learners were expected to respond to each item on a Likert scale where 1 corresponds to '*completely disagree*' and 5 corresponds to '*completely agree*'.

As mentioned above, there were two groups of learners participating in this study: the experiment group learners and control group learners. Both groups were given the Beliefs Inventory at the beginning of their Intermediate level module. This constituted the pre-test. Later, for eight weeks, experiment group learners engaged with several translation exercises, tasks and activities, while control group learners did not. After the eight-week module, both groups of learners were given the same inventory again to find

out whether there had been any change in the beliefs of the experiment group learners. This is considered to be the post-test. Since control-group learners did not engage with translation activities, they were not expected to undergo a change. However, a positive change was expected in the beliefs of the experiment group learners.

5.3.1. Statistical analysis of the effect of translation activities on learner beliefs

The effect of translation activities on the beliefs of the learners is explored by statistical analysis. The descriptive information with respect to the pre-test and post-test of the Beliefs Inventory completed by the learner group is presented in the Table 4.

Table 4. Descriptive information about pre- and post-tests

	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Statistic	Std. Err.	Statistic	Std. Err.
Mean	120.27	2.50	124.73	2.18
Median	119.50		125.50	
Variance	187.72		142.13	
Std. Deviation	13.70		11.92	
Minimum	84.00		106.00	
Maximum	144.00		152.00	
Range	60.00		46.00	
Skewness	-.440	.427	.117	.427
Kurtosis	.554	.833	-.175	.833

For normality analysis, a Shapiro-Wilk test was used. The pre-tests and post-tests were not found to be statistically different from the normal distribution ($SWPre_{(30)} = 0.968$, $p>0.05$; $SWPost_{(30)} = 0.957$, $p>0.05$).

To test whether there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the experiment and control groups, an independent sample t-test was used. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Comparison of the control- and experiment-groups
on the basis of their mean scores in the pre- and post-tests

Group		N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test	Control Group	16	122.75	14.36	1.064	28	.297
	Experiment Group	14	117.43	12.83			
Post-Test	Control Group	16	127.56	12.83	1.413	28	.169
	Experiment Group	14	121.50	10.29			

There were 16 learners who completed the pre-test Beliefs Inventory in the control group while there were 14 learners who completed the pre-test Beliefs Inventory in the experiment group. The mean score of the control group is 122.75 for the pre-test Beliefs Inventory while the mean score of the experiment group is slightly lower than the control

group with 117.43. According to the analysis, the difference between the two groups in their pre-tests is not statistically significant (TPRE$_{(28)}$ = 1.064, p = 0.297).

The control-group post-test means are slightly higher than the experiment group post-test means, like the pre-test results. However, the difference between the mean scores of the two groups in their post-tests is not statistically significant either (TPOST$_{(28)}$ = 1.064, p = 0.169).

In order to test whether there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the control and experiment group, a paired sample t-test was used. Table 6 presents the control and experiment groups' mean scores.

Table 6. Comparison of the pre- and post-tests mean scores of the control- and experiment-groups

GT		Mean	N	SD	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Control Group	Pre-test	122.75	16	14.36	-1.346	15	.198
	Post-test	127.56	16	12.83			
Experiment Group	Pre-test	117.43	14	12.83	-1.348	13	.201
	Post-test	121.50	14	10.29			

According to the analysis, there is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the control group (T$_{(15)}$ = -1.346, p = 0.198). The experiment group started with the mean score 117.43 and this increased only slightly to 121.50, which is not statistically significant (T$_{(13)}$ = -1.348, p = 0.201).

5.3.2. Descriptive analysis of the effect of translation activities on the dimensions of the Beliefs Inventory

As mentioned above, the 33-item Beliefs Inventory contained five dimensions, each of which focused on a particular connection between translation and language learning. These dimensions were (1) the role of translation in language learning, (2) the effect of translation on other language skills, (3) the difficulties of translation, (4) translation as a skill, and (5) translation as a strategy. Each of these dimensions is explained in the following subsections, along with analysis of differences between the pre- and post-tests of each particular dimension.

The items in the dimension are grouped on the basis of the similarity in the things being compared. However, there is a problem in assuming that the same things are being compared in each question. Although the given dimensions were obtained as a result of the factor analysis, it would not be sensible to add up questions that do not have the same value. Therefore, the value for each belief is given separately.

5.3.2.1. 'The role of translation in language learning' dimension

The 'role of translation in language learning' dimension included eight items, each of which highlights a specific role translation is likely to play in language learning. It consists of general statements on the relationship between translation and language learning. The items in this dimension and their mean difference between the pre-tests and post-tests of the control and experiment groups are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Differences between the pre- and post-tests of control- and experiment-group learners as items concerning
'*the role of translation in the language-learning*'

No	Item		Difference Mean BIPre-BI-Post	p-value
1	Translation activities should be included in the language teaching curriculum.	Con.	-.4375	0.150
		Exp.	-.0714	0.752
11	Translation is detrimental to language learning.	Con.	-.8125	0.018
		Exp.	-.5714	0.071
14	Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books.	Con.	-.2500	0.388
		Exp.	-.2143	0.426
21	A course titled 'Translation Techniques' can be useful for academic studies such as preparing assignments, writing thesis and making presentations.	Con.	-.3750	0.138
		Exp.	-1.0714	0.008
23	Communicative translation activities should be used in foreign-language teaching.	Con.	-.4375	0.168
		Exp.	-.2143	0.487
24	Translation is a skill that I will need when I graduate.	Con.	.5000	0.281
		Exp.	-.0714	0.836
25	I will have to translate while preparing assignments, writing thesis and giving presentations.	Con.	.3125	0.264
		Exp.	-1429	0.635
33	Translation can be used together with other methods while teaching a foreign-language.	Con.	-.1250	0.633
		Exp.	0.0000	1.000

As can be seen, the only significant change was in item twenty-one in the experiment group. The beliefs of the experiment-group learners seem to have undergone a change as a result of the treatment. Experiment-group learners are likely to have benefited from the translation activities done during the treatment and thus in their post-tests they expressed more positive beliefs about the possible benefits of a course on translation techniques. Their beliefs seem to have changed in a way that shows more tendencies towards learning about translation techniques. The negative values here are the result of the subtraction of the higher value in the post-test from the lower value in the pre-test, and indicate a positive change in the beliefs.

5.3.2.2. 'The effect of translation activities on other language skills' dimension

The second dimension of the Beliefs Inventory included items inquiring about '*the effect of translation on other language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking*'. Since this study aims to find out the impact of translation on success at writing and speaking

skills in particular, the beliefs of the learners regarding this issue were expected to support the relevant results. The mean differences between the pre-test and post-test results of the control and experiment groups are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Differences between the pre- and post-tests of control- and experiment-group learners concerning '*the effect of translation activities on other language skills*'

No	Item		Difference Mean BIPre-BI-Post	p-value
7	Translation activities help me to improve my writing skill while learning English.	Con.	-.0625	0.855
		Exp.	-.5714	0.071
10	Assignments, in-class tasks and projects that require me to translate will contribute to my language learning.	Con.	0.0000	1.000
		Exp.	-.3571	0.292
12	Translation activities improve my English vocabulary knowledge.	Con.	-.1250	0.497
		Exp.	-.2143	0.385
13	Translation activities improve my English grammar knowledge.	Con.	0.0000	1.000
		Exp.	-.2143	0.512
19	Translating from English to Turkish improves my writing skill.	Con.	.2500	0.523
		Exp.	-.2857	0.470
20	Translation activities will have a positive effect on my fluency in speaking English.	Con.	.3125	0.206
		Exp.	.1429	0.655
22	Mental translating decreases my fluency while speaking English.	Con.	-1.0625	0.006
		Exp.	-.6429	0.120

Of these results, the only one with a statistically significant difference is item twenty-two: "Mental translating decreases my fluency while speaking English". Control-group learners somehow changed their ideas about mental translating in time and tended to believe that they would face a decrease in their fluency if they translated mentally. As the control-group learners did not do any translation tasks, the change in their beliefs might have resulted from mental translating being common among language learners. Although they are generally told not to translate by their teachers, I have often heard from my students that they cannot keep themselves away from translating in their minds. However, as they become more proficient in the language, they gradually get rid of the habit of mental translating. Thus, it seems reasonable for them to mental translate less at the end of the intermediate module than at the beginning of it.

5.3.2.3. '*The difficulties of translation*' dimension

The third dimension in the Beliefs Inventory included five items concerning the difficulty faced by the learners while translating. Table 9 presents the items in this dimension and the mean differences between the pre-tests and post-tests of the control and experiment groups.

Table 9. Differences in the pre- and post-tests of control- and experiment-group learners concerning '*the difficulties of translation*'

No	Item		Mean Difference BIPre-BI-Post	p-value
16	It is important to have background knowledge about the text to be translated from Turkish to English.	Con.	.0625	0.843
		Exp.	.2143	0.512
17	The most challenging thing in translating from Turkish to English is the long and complex sentences.	Con.	-.1875	0.606
		Exp.	-.1429	0.612
18	The most challenging thing in translating from English to Turkish is long and complex sentences.	Con.	-.1875	0.580
		Exp.	0.0000	1.000
26	The most difficult thing in translation is the vocabulary.	Con.	-.0625	0.835
		Exp.	.2857	0.263
27	It is more difficult to translate from the target language to the source language.	Con.	-.8750	0.079
		Exp.	0.0000	1.000

None of the results for the given items in this dimension shows a statistically significant difference between the pre-tests and post-tests. In other words, the beliefs of the learners in both groups about the difficulty of translation in general did not undergo any significant change as a result of the eight-week language instruction.

5.3.2.4. The 'translation as a skill' dimension

The Beliefs Inventory included one further dimension, with seven items: translation as a skill. As its name suggests, the purpose of this dimension was to inquire whether translation was considered to be a language skill just like reading, writing, listening and speaking. In Table 10, the items in this dimension are presented along with the mean differences between the pre-tests and post-tests of the control and experiment groups.

Table 10. Differences between the pre- and post-tests of control- and experiment-group learners concerning '*translation as a skill*'

No	Item		Mean Difference BIPre-BI-Post	p-value
2	Translation is a skill that can be improved by communicative activities.	Con.	-.1250	0.497
		Exp.	.5714	0.026
8	Translation is a language skill just like reading, writing, listening and speaking.	Con.	-.3125	0.237
		Exp.	-.0714	0.818
9	Translation is a skill that can be tested in language learning.	Con.	-.1875	0.333
		Exp.	.2857	0.435
29	Translation is a skill that can improve when a person learns a language.	Con.	-.0625	0.855
		Exp.	.5714	0.006
30	Translation skill can be improved only by mechanical exercises.	Con.	.4375	0.343
		Exp.	-.1429	0.720
31	Everybody who can write in a foreign-language can translate from that language into his native language or vice versa.	Con.	.1250	0.779
		Exp.	-.2857	0.414
32	Everybody who can speak a foreign-language can translate from or into that language.	Con.	.3125	0.464
		Exp.	.1429	0.583

Given the results in Table 10, it is seen that there is a statistically significant difference in only two items when their pre-test and post-test results are compared: item

two ("Translation is a skill that can be improved by communicative activities") and item twenty-nine ("Translation is a skill that can improve when a person learns a language"). For both items, the change is seen in the beliefs of the experiment-group learners. After treatment, experiment-group learners tended to believe more that *translation is a skill that can be improved by communicative activities* and there is a statistically significant difference in their pre-test and post results. The learners in this group are likely to have enjoyed and benefited from the communicative activities done during the treatments. In addition, the experiment-group learners also started to believe more that *translation is a skill that can improve when a person learns a language* and the difference in the results of their pre-test and post-tests is statistically significant. Thus, the treatment may have caused some kind of awareness among the experiment-group learners that translation is a communicative language skill.

5.3.2.5. '*The role of translation as a strategy' dimension*

The last dimension in the Beliefs Inventory included six items that introduce *translation as a strategy* to be utilized in language learning. There were also some items on mental translation in this dimension, as well as other items designed to reveal the learners' tendency to translate before they write something in L2. Table 11 presents the mean differences between the pre-tests and post-tests of the control- and experiment-groups for the given items.

Table 11. Differences between the pre- and post-tests of the control- and experiment-group learners concerning '*the role of translation as a strategy*'

No	Item		Difference Mean BIPre-BI-Post	p-value
3	I translate the difficult sentences into Turkish in my mind while reading a difficult English text.	Con.	-.3750	0.232
		Exp.	-.2857	0.336
4	Translating the sentences from English to Turkish while reading an English text makes it easier for me to understand what I read.	Con.	-.3125	0.370
		Exp.	0.0000	1.000
5	While writing an English text, I translate the difficult sentences in my mind from Turkish to English.	Con.	-.3750	0.304
		Exp.	-.2143	0.385
6	Translating the sentences from Turkish to English while writing an English text helps me to express myself better in complex sentences.	Con.	-.3125	0.429
		Exp.	-.5714	0.252
15	Translation is not a skill that can be improved by studying.	Con.	.0625	0.923
		Exp.	0.0000	1.000
28	It is better to write the text in Turkish first and then translate into English instead of direct writing in English.	Con.	-.1250	0.708
		Exp.	.0714	0.818

The results in Table 11 show that there is no significant change in any of the items listed.

5.3.2.6. Summary of the effect of the translation activities on the Beliefs Inventory

The above five sections present the mean differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control- and experiment-group learners separately for each item in the Beliefs Inventory and highlight the significant changes in the given dimensions. As mentioned above, the Beliefs Inventory was administered twice: at the beginning and at the end of the module. The mean difference gives the difference in the pre-test and post-test score for each item.

The results obtained from the analysis indicate that there is a significant change in only four items included in the Beliefs Inventory. Of the change in these four items, three are observed in the beliefs of the experiment-group while one of them is seen in the control-group. This only one significant change in the beliefs of the control-group is about mental translating, which may be a natural outcome of these learners' becoming more proficient towards the ends of the module, when the post-test was administered. The significant changes in the beliefs of the experiment-group learners are observed in three items: their increased tendency to believe that learning about translation techniques would be useful for their studies, that doing communicative activities can help them improve their translation skills and that their translation skills are likely to improve naturally as

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they learn a language. The significant change in these beliefs could signal types of awareness that translation caused in the experiment-group.

5.4. Correlations between learners' bio-data and their beliefs

The learners also shared some biographical information about themselves. The purpose of gathering this information was to explore any connection between their bio-data and their beliefs.

5.4.1. The effect of gender

The data on the gender of the learners was collected as part of their bio-data. As women and men tend to develop different beliefs on a variety of topics, their beliefs regarding translation in language learning are likely to differ too. Thus, a comparison between the experiment and control groups across genders has been carried out for each item in the Beliefs Inventory. The learners' responses to the *first administration* of the beliefs inventory are used. Since there were changes in the beliefs of both groups after treatment, but more so in the experiment-group, the first administration of the beliefs inventory provided equal conditions for all the participants.

To analyze whether there is a statistically significant difference between genders in the Beliefs Inventory, independent sample t-test was used. The results for the male learners are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Comparison of the beliefs of the male learners in the control- and experiment-groups

		N	Mean	SD	Std. Err.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
BQI1-PRE	EXP	7	4.000	1.1547	.4364	-.528	14	.606
	CONT	9	4.333	1.3229	.4410			
BQI2-PRE	EXP	7	4.143	1.0690	.4041	-.183	14	.858
	CONT	9	4.222	.6667	.2222			
BQI3-PRE	EXP	7	4.429	.5345	.2020	1.587	14	.135
	CONT	9	3.778	.9718	.3239			
BOI4-PRE	EXP	7	4.571	.7868	.2974	1.755	14	.101
	CONT	9	3.778	.9718	.3239			
BQI5-PRE	EXP	7	4.429	.5345	.2020	1.163	14	.264
	CONT	9	3.778	1.3944	.4648			
BQI6-PRE	EXP	7	3.429	.9759	.3689	-.299	14	.769
	CONT	9	3.556	.7265	.2422			
BQI7-PRE	EXP	7	4.143	.6901	.2608	-1.765	14	.099
	CONT	9	4.667	.5000	.1667			
BQI8-PRE	EXP	7	3.571	.9759	.3689	-.883	14	.392
	CONT	9	4.111	1.3642	.4547			
BQI9-PRE	EXP	7	2.286	.7559	.2857	-2.769	14	.015
	CONT	9	3.444	.8819	.2940			
BQI10-PRE	EXP	7	3.714	.9512	.3595	-2.258	14	.040
	CONT	9	4.556	.5270	.1757			
BQI11-PRE	EXP	7	4.429	.7868	.2974	.777	14	.450
	CONT	9	3.889	1.6915	.5638			
BQI12-PRE	EXP	7	4.429	.7868	.2974	-.636	14	.535
	CONT	9	4.667	.7071	.2357			
BQI13-PRE	EXP	7	4.000	.5774	.2182	.505	14	.621
	CONT	9	3.667	1.6583	.5528			
BOI14-PRE	EXP	7	3.286	1.1127	.4206	-1.517	14	.151
	CONT	9	4.111	1.0541	.3514			
BQI15-PRE	EXP	7	3.143	1.4639	.5533	-.098	14	.924
	CONT	9	3.222	1.7159	.5720			
BQI16-PRE	EXP	7	4.286	1.1127	.4206	-.090	14	.930
	CONT	9	4.333	1.0000	.3333			
BQI17-PRE	EXP	7	4.714	.7559	.2857	1.946	14	.072
	CONT	9	4.000	.7071	.2357			
BQI18-PRE	EXP	7	4.714	.7559	.2857	2.769	14	.015
	CONT	9	3.556	.8819	.2940			
BQI19-PRE	EXP	7	3.429	.7868	.2974	1.435	14	.173
	CONT	9	2.444	1.6667	.5556			
BQI20-PRE	EXP	7	4.143	1.0690	.4041	.475	14	.642
	CONT	9	3.889	1.0541	.3514			
BQI21-PRE	EXP	7	2.429	1.1339	.4286	-3.151	14	.007
	CONT	9	4.000	.8660	.2887			
BQI22-PRE	EXP	7	3.429	1.1339	.4286	1.048	14	.313
	CONT	9	2.778	1.3017	.4339			
BQI23-PRE	EXP	7	3.714	.7559	.2857	-.321	14	.753
	CONT	9	3.889	1.2693	.4231			
BOI24-PRE	EXP	7	3.857	.8997	.3401	-.814	14	.429
	CONT	9	4.333	1.3229	.4410			
BQI25-PRE	EXP	7	4.286	1.1127	.4206	-.921	14	.373
	CONT	9	4.667	.5000	.1667			
BQI26-PRE	EXP	7	4.571	.7868	.2974	.516	14	.614
	CONT	9	4.333	1.0000	.3333			
BQI27-PRE	EXP	7	2.571	.9759	.3689	.024	14	.981
	CONT	9	2.556	1.5092	.5031			
BQI28-PRE	EXP	7	2.857	1.5736	.5948	-.191	14	.851
	CONT	9	3.000	1.4142	.4714			
BQI29-PRE	EXP	7	4.286	.4880	.1844	.917	14	.375
	CONT	9	3.889	1.0541	.3514			
BQI30-PRE	EXP	7	3.286	1.3801	.5216	.088	14	.931
	CONT	9	3.222	1.4814	.4938			
BQI31-PRE	EXP	7	2.429	1.1339	.4286	-.562	14	.583
	CONT	9	2.778	1.3017	.4339			
BQI32-PRE	EXP	7	2.571	.9759	.3689	-.546	14	.593
	CONT	9	2.889	1.2693	.4231			
BQI33-PRE	EXP	7	4.000	.8165	.3086	-1.010	14	.329
	CONT	9	4.333	.5000	.1667			

According to the given results, there is a significant difference in the beliefs of about the uses of a course titled 'Translation Techniques' between the male control- and experiment-group learners. There were seven male learners in the experiment group, while there were nine in the control group. The results show that the control-group male learners believe more that such a course would be useful for them as their mean score is higher than the experiment-group male learners.

The results for the female learners are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Comparison of the beliefs of the female learners in the control- and experiment-groups

		N	Mean	SD	Std. Err.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
BQI1-PRE	EXP	7	3.857	.8997	.3401	-.240	12	.814
	CONT	7	4.000	1.2910	.4880			
BQI2-PRE	EXP	7	3.857	.6901	.2608	-.965	12	.354
	CONT	7	4.286	.9512	.3595			
BQI3-PRE	EXP	7	3.429	1.3973	.5281	-.385	12	.707
	CONT	7	3.714	1.3801	.5216			
BOI4-PRE	EXP	7	4.143	.8997	.3401	.500	12	.626
	CONT	7	3.857	1.2150	.4592			
BQI5-PRE	EXP	7	3.571	1.1339	.4286	.385	12	.707
	CONT	7	3.286	1.6036	.6061			
BQI6-PRE	EXP	7	3.000	1.6330	.6172	.179	12	.861
	CONT	7	2.857	1.3452	.5084			
BQI7-PRE	EXP	7	3.000	1.1547	.4364	-1.279	12	.225
	CONT	7	3.857	1.3452	.5084			
BQI8-PRE	EXP	7	3.429	.7868	.2974	.255	12	.803
	CONT	7	3.286	1.2536	.4738			
BQI9-PRE	EXP	7	3.143	1.0690	.4041	.816	12	.430
	CONT	7	2.571	1.5119	.5714			
BQI10-PRE	EXP	7	3.571	.9759	.3689	-.891	12	.390
	CONT	7	4.000	.8165	.3086			
BQI11-PRE	EXP	7	3.714	1.3801	.5216	-.902	12	.385
	CONT	7	4.286	.9512	.3595			
BQI12-PRE	EXP	7	3.714	.7559	.2857	-2.449	12	.031
	CONT	7	4.571	.5345	.2020			
BQI13-PRE	EXP	7	2.857	1.2150	.4592	-2.294	12	.041
	CONT	7	4.286	1.1127	.4206			
BOI14-PRE	EXP	7	3.286	.9512	.3595	-.721	12	.485
	CONT	7	3.714	1.2536	.4738			
BQI15-PRE	EXP	7	2.143	1.2150	.4592	.440	12	.668
	CONT	7	1.857	1.2150	.4592			
BQI16-PRE	EXP	7	4.429	1.1339	.4286	.522	12	.611
	CONT	7	4.143	.8997	.3401			
BQI17-PRE	EXP	7	4.286	.7559	.2857	.548	12	.594
	CONT	7	4.000	1.1547	.4364			
BQI18-PRE	EXP	7	4.000	.8165	.3086	-.603	12	.558
	CONT	7	4.286	.9512	.3595			
BQI19-PRE	EXP	7	2.714	.9512	.3595	-1.960	12	.074
	CONT	7	3.857	1.2150	.4592			
BQI20-PRE	EXP	7	3.143	.6901	.2608	-1.155	12	.271
	CONT	7	3.714	1.1127	.4206			
BQI21-PRE	EXP	7	3.143	.8997	.3401	-1.100	12	.293
	CONT	7	3.857	1.4639	.5533			
BQI22-PRE	EXP	7	2.571	1.3973	.5281	-.201	12	.844
	CONT	7	2.714	1.2536	.4738			
BQI23-PRE	EXP	7	3.429	.7868	.2974	-.949	12	.361
	CONT	7	3.857	.8997	.3401			
BOI24-PRE	EXP	7	3.571	.7868	.2974	-2.782	12	.017
	CONT	7	4.571	.5345	.2020			
BQI25-PRE	EXP	7	3.286	.7559	.2857	-4.201	12	.001
	CONT	7	4.714	.4880	.1844			
BQI26-PRE	EXP	7	4.143	.3780	.1429	-.612	12	.552
	CONT	7	4.286	.4880	.1844			
BQI27-PRE	EXP	7	2.857	.6901	.2608	.322	12	.753
	CONT	7	2.714	.9512	.3595			
BQI28-PRE	EXP	7	3.000	1.2910	.4880	.570	12	.579
	CONT	7	2.571	1.5119	.5714			
BQI29-PRE	EXP	7	3.286	1.2536	.4738	.961	12	.356
	CONT	7	2.714	.9512	.3595			
BQI30-PRE	EXP	7	3.143	1.3452	.5084	-.980	12	.347
	CONT	7	3.714	.7559	.2857			
BQI31-PRE	EXP	7	2.857	.6901	.2608	0.000	12	1.000
	CONT	7	2.857	.8997	.3401			
BQI32-PRE	EXP	7	3.000	.8165	.3086	-.311	12	.761
	CONT	7	3.143	.8997	.3401			
BQI33-PRE	EXP	7	3.714	.4880	.1844	-.866	12	.403
	CONT	7	4.143	1.2150	.4592			

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There were seven female learners in both groups. According to the results, there is a significant difference in item twenty-five between the female control- and experiment-group learners. The female learners in the control-group believe more that they will have to translate in their academic studies.

In addition to the comparison of the beliefs of the experiment- and control-group learners, any possible change in the beliefs of the male and female learners is also explored. In this analysis, female or male learners in the control and experiment groups are assumed to be a whole single group here. To analyze the difference in the pre-test and post-test beliefs of the learners on the basis of gender independent sample t-test was used. Table 14 presents the analysis for male and female learners separately.

Table 14. Learners' beliefs by gender, means scores for both groups

Item	male		female	
	mean	p-value	mean	p-value
BI_1_pre-post	-.4375	0.150	-.0714	0.752
BI_2_pre-post	.1875	0.383	.2143	0.385
BI_3_pre-post	-.3750	0.188	-.2857	0.391
BI_4_pre-post	-.3750	0.287	.0714	0.775
BI_5_pre-post	-.2500	0.451	-.3571	0.239
BI_6_pre-post	-.2500	0.451	-.3571	0.210
BI_7_pre-post	.1875	0.549	-,8571	0.008
BI_8_pre-post	0.0000	1.000	-.4286	0.165
BI_9_pre-post	-.1875	0.485	.2587	0.336
BI_10_pre-post	-.1250	0.652	-.2143	0.426
BI_11_pre-post	-.7500	0.035	-.6429	0.033
BI_12_pre-post	0.0000	1.000	-.3571	0.055
BI_13_pre-post	.1875	0.485	-.4286	0.111
BI_14_pre-post	-.3125	0.312	-.1429	0.547
BI_15_pre-post	.4375	0.437	-.4286	0.396
BI_16_pre-post	.2500	0.468	0.0000	1.000
BI_17_pre-post	.1875	0.594	-.5714	0.040
BI_18_pre-post	0.0625	0.860	-.2857	0.435
BI_19_pre-post	0.0000	1.000	0.0000	1.000
BI_20_pre-post	.5000	.119	-.0714	0.720
BI_21_pre-post	-.8125	0.022	-.5714	0.055
BI_22_pre-post	-.7500	0.029	-1.0000	0.033
BI_23_pre-post	-.2500	0.451	-.4286	0.139
BI_24_pre-post	.5000	0.317	-.0714	0.793
BI_25_pre-post	.4375	0.186	-.2857	0.165
BI_26_pre-post	.6250	0.046	-.5000	0.003
BI_27_pre-post	-.7500	0.131	-.1429	0.547
BI_28_pre-post	-.1250	0.652	.0714	0.850
BI_29_pre-post	.8125	0.001	-.4286	0.396
BI_30_pre-post	-.0625	0.868	.4286	0.396
BI_31_pre-post	-.2500	0.544	.1429	0.720
BI_32_pre-post	.0625	0.843	.4286	0.306
BI_33_pre-post	-.0625	0.835	-.0714	0.671

According to the independent sample t-test, the beliefs of the male learners change significantly in five items, while the beliefs of the female learners show a significant change in four items. Of these changes, the change in item twenty-six is common to both genders However, while the beliefs of male learners in seeing vocabulary as the most

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difficult thing in translation increase significantly in time, the beliefs of female learners in seeing vocabulary as the most difficult thing lessen.

On the other hand, the beliefs of the male learners about considering translation detrimental to language learning also changed significantly. They started to believe *more* that translation can be harmful for their language learning.

There is also a significant change in the beliefs of the male learners about the uses of a course titled 'Translation Techniques'. They began to believe *more* that they would benefit from taking a course on translation techniques.

The beliefs of the male learners changed significantly on the adverse effect of mental translation on their fluency in speaking. They seem to have realized that their speaking performance is not affected much by their mental translation and their beliefs *lessened*.

Finally, male learners showed a significant change in their beliefs about translation being a skill that can improve naturally as a language is being learned. The difference between their pre-test and post-test mean scores revealed that they in time they started to believe *less* that the ability of the learners to translate can improve with no specific treatment when they advance their language knowledge.

Female learners showed a significant change in four of them items in the Beliefs Inventory. Firstly, their beliefs changed significantly in their beliefs about the effect of translation activities on their writing skill. After an eight-week time period, their beliefs about the effect of translation on their writing changed *positively*.

The belief of the female learners also showed a significant change in item twelve, which states that translation activities have a positive impact on their English vocabulary. In time, female learners started to believe *more* in the effect of translation on improving their vocabulary knowledge.

Female learners also changed their beliefs about the most difficult thing in translating from Turkish to English being the long and complex sentences. They started to believe *more* that translating long and complex sentences is the most difficult while translating from their L1 into L2.

It is interesting that the significant changes that took place in women are either in the beliefs about the effect of translation or about the difficulties in translation. For men, it is difficult to generalize the change in their beliefs.

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5.5. Comparison of the beliefs of learners and student-teachers

Student-teachers constitute another group that completed the Beliefs Inventory. This enables me to compare the beliefs of the learners and student-teachers about translation. Of the three participant groups in this research, two of them are the learners (who here are joined as one group of students) and the other comprises student-teachers, who are the junior students studying at the English Language Teaching Department at İzmir University. For the time being, they are students, but they are also future-teachers of English. Both of these groups (learners and student-teachers) expressed their beliefs on the role of translation in language learning by responding to the Beliefs Inventory.

The responses of both groups to each item in the Beliefs Inventory are analyzed. The results of the item analysis of the Beliefs Inventory across groups are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Mean scores of learners and student-teachers with respect to each item in the Beliefs Inventory

Item No	Group	Mean	SD	p-value	Mean Difference
1	Learners	4.067	1.1427	.001	1.0667
	Std-teachers	3.000	1.2443		
2	Learners	4.133	.8193	.070	.4458
	Std-teachers	3.688	1.0607		
3	Learners	3.833	1.1167	.087	.5833
	Std-teachers	3.250	1.4811		
4	Learners	4.067	.9803	.019	.7854
	Std-teachers	3.281	1.5077		
5	Learners	3.767	1.2507	.196	.4542
	Std-teachers	3.313	1.4688		
6	Learners	3.233	1.1651	.659	.1396
	Std-teachers	3.094	1.3041		
7	Learners	3.967	1.0981	.388	-.2208
	Std-teachers	4.188	.8958		
8	Learners	3.633	1.1290	.701	-.1167
	Std-teachers	3.750	1.2443		
9	Learners	2.900	1.1250	.294	-.3188
	Std-teachers	3.219	1.2374		
10	Learners	4.000	.8710	.178	-.3125
	Std-teachers	4.313	.9311		
11	Learners	4.067	1.2576	.000	2.4104
	Std-teachers	1.656	.9370		
12	Learners	4.367	.7649	.023	-.3833
	Std-teachers	4.750	.5080		
13	Learners	3.700	1.2905	.000	-.9563
	Std-teachers	4.656	.6530		
14	Learners	3.633	1.0981	.509	.1958
	Std-teachers	3.438	1.2165		
15	Learners	2.633	1.4967	.001	-1.2417
	Std-teachers	3.875	1.2115		
16	Learners	4.300	.9879	.562	.1750
	Std-teachers	4.125	1.3380		
17	Learners	4.233	.8584	.744	-.0792
	Std-teachers	4.313	1.0298		
18	Learners	4.100	.9229	.803	.0687
	Std-teachers	4.031	1.2044		
19	Learners	3.067	1.3113	.082	-.5896
	Std-teachers	3.656	1.3102		
20	Learners	3.733	1.0148	.069	.5458
	Std-teachers	3.188	1.2811		
21	Learners	3.400	1.2205	.275	-.3188
	Std-teachers	3.719	1.0545		
22	Learners	2.867	1.2521	.864	.0542
	Std-teachers	2.813	1.2297		
23	Learners	3.733	.9444	.851	.0458
	Std-teachers	3.688	.9651		
24	Learners	4.100	.9948	.207	.3813
	Std-teachers	3.719	1.3255		
25	Learners	4.267	.9072	.750	.0792
	Std-teachers	4.188	1.0298		
26	Learners	4.333	.7112	.113	.4271
	Std-teachers	3.906	1.2791		
27	Learners	2.667	1.0613	.104	.5417
	Std-teachers	2.125	1.4756		
28	Learners	2.867	1.3830	.322	.3667
	Std-teachers	2.500	1.5027		
29	Learners	3.567	1.1043	.023	.6292
	Std-teachers	2.938	1.0140		
30	Learners	3.333	1.2411	.051	.6458
	Std-teachers	2.688	1.3060		
31	Learners	2.733	1.0148	.376	.2646
	Std-teachers	2.469	1.2948		
32	Learners	2.900	.9948	.353	.2750
	Std-teachers	2.625	1.2889		
33	Learners	4.067	.7849	.016	.6604
	Std-teachers	3.406	1.2407		

According to the results of the independent sample t-test, the beliefs of the learners differ significantly for the items numbered 1, 11, 13 and 15.

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Item 1 posits that "translation activities should be included in the language teaching curriculum". The mean value of the learners for the given item is 4.067, while it is 3.000 for the student-teachers, and the difference is statistically significant. This means learners are *more* likely to appreciate translation as a technique in language teaching.

Item 11 posits that "translation is detrimental to language learning". The mean value of the learners for this item is 4.067 while it is 1.656 for the student-teachers, which means that there is a significant difference between the beliefs of the learners on this item. In view of these results, it can be assumed that learners find translation harmful to language learning more than the student-teachers do.

Item 13 is as follows: "Translation activities improve my English grammar knowledge". The beliefs of the learners and the student-teachers differ significantly on this belief, too. The mean value of the learner beliefs for this item is 3.700, while the mean value of the student-teacher beliefs is 4.656. Thus, student-teachers seem to believe that translation has a positive effect on their grammar knowledge more than the learners do.

Item 15 posits that "translation is not a skill that can be improved by studying". For this item, the mean value of the learners is 2.633 while it is 3.875 for the student-teachers. Thus there is a significant difference between the mean value of learners and student-teachers. Based on the result, it can be assumed that student-teachers are less likely to believe that they can improve their translation skill by studying.

Given these results, the beliefs of the learners and student-teachers follow a similar trend in most instances, while there is a significant difference in four of the thirty-three items. In view of this, the beliefs of student-teachers are likely to be influenced by their learner identity. It is interesting that learners believe that translation activities should be included into the language-teaching curriculum but also believe that translation is detrimental to language-learning. By showing strong beliefs about the harmful effects of translation, learners may be influenced by what they generally hear from their teachers, as it is a popular saying among teachers to stay away from translation. The student-teachers' belief that they cannot improve their translation skills by studying might result from their view of translation as being innate to a language learner, which either exists or lacks as a skill. Considering these contradictory results, it is not easy to make further generalizations about the comparison of the beliefs of the learners and student-teachers. However, the results pertaining to each item in the Beliefs Inventory can give an idea about the differences between the learners and student-teachers.

5.6. Teachers' Beliefs

The beliefs of the teachers regarding the use of translation in language learning were explored via an Online Survey adapted from the one developed by Pym et al. (2012). The participants in the survey included teachers of different languages from a variety of teaching contexts and with varying years of teaching experience in Turkey. The Online Survey was designed to reach more teachers than could have been reached through personal contact. The analyses of the teachers' responses are presented in the following sections.

The data obtained from the teachers are analyzed using two methods. First, a descriptive analysis is carried out to reflect certain distributions regarding teachers' bio data or beliefs. Then a correlative analysis is conducted to explore the correlations between specific features of teachers and their beliefs.

5.6.1. Descriptive analysis of the teachers' bio-data

The bio-data of the teachers participating in this research consists of information about their teaching context, teaching experience and the languages they teach. The biographic information obtained from the teachers themselves is assumed to correlate with the beliefs of the teachers regarding translation and language learning.

5.6.1.1. Teaching context

The teaching context involves a number of conditions ranging from the setting where teaching takes place to the learners being taught. Considering the possible roles of these elements in language teaching, *teaching context* is assumed to be a determining factor on the beliefs of the teachers. The teachers were asked to select one of the following teaching contexts: primary school, secondary school or tertiary level. Table 16 shows the distribution of the teachers on the basis of the teaching contexts.

Table 16. '*What is your teaching context?*' replies from 244 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers and percentages

Teaching Context	N	%
Primary	31	12.7
Secondary	37	15.2
Tertiary	176	72.1
Total	244	100

The highest number of participants is from the tertiary context, which includes the language teachers working at universities. This group constituted 72.1% of the whole sample and is represented by 176 teachers. This number is more than the sum of the teachers working in the other two contexts: primary and secondary schools.

5.6.1.2. Teaching experience

In addition to the three different teaching contexts, teachers also varied in their years of teaching experience. It is assumed that the years teachers have spent teaching may have a bearing on their beliefs regarding translation and language teaching. For reasons of practicality, the years of teaching were divided into five groups. Since the first years may be considered the time teachers shape their beliefs by trial and error, the first ten years are divided into three: teachers with 1-3, 4-6 and 7-10 years of teaching experience. With a similar perspective, since teachers tend to be more attached to their beliefs when they become more experienced, after 10 years of teaching there are two groups specified: teachers with 11-20 years of teaching experience and 20 and more years of teaching experience. Table 17 presents the number of the teachers falling into each of these categories.

Table 17. '*For how many years have you been teaching?*' replies from 244 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers and percentages

Years of Teaching	N	%
1-3	48	19.7
4-6	54	22.1
7-10	52	21.3
11-20	47	19.3
20 and more	43	17.7
Total	244	100

As shown in Table 17, the teaching experience of the participant teachers has a rather equal distribution. The largest group was the teachers with 4-6 years of teaching experience. There were 54 teachers, constituting 22.1% of the whole population. The total number teachers with up to 10 years of teaching experience was 154, while those with 10 years and more teaching experience equaled 90 teachers. The numerical difference between the groups with the highest and lowest number of teachers according to their years of teaching is not so high, and the minimum number of teachers was in the group with 20 and more years of teaching.

5.6.1.3. Foreign-languages being taught

Although the literature in foreign-language teaching often does not specify a specific language, the most taught language is English. Being the current *lingua franca*, English is taught more than any other language as a foreign or second language. Thus, a question about the languages teachers teach was also included as part of the participants' bio-data. Since there are numerous languages that could be included in the list, the question was designed to be open-ended. All participants were asked to type the languages they teach. Figure 3 shows the distribution of the language teachers participating in the online survey according to the languages they teach.

Figure 3. '*What foreign-language do you teach?*' replies from 208 teachers in Turkey
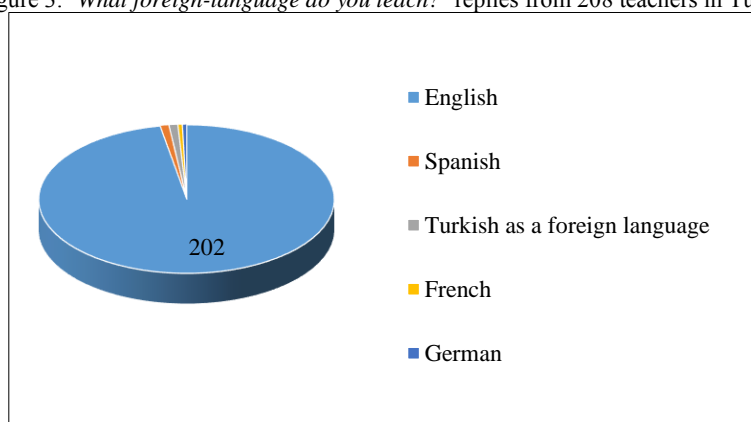
There were 208 responses to this question. Of these 208 participants, the overwhelming majority included English language teachers (202). Of the remaining six teachers, two were Spanish teachers, two were teachers of Turkish as a foreign-language, one was a French-language teacher, and another was a German-language teacher.

5.6.2. Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs

Besides the questions to find out biographical information on the teacher participants, the online survey also consisted of questions on the teachers' beliefs about translation and language learning. The sub-sections below present the analyses of these questions.

5.6.2.1. Beliefs about using L1 (Turkish)

Using L1 in language teaching or learning is one of the most controversial issues in the history of foreign-language teaching and much has been written in favor of or against it. Teachers often tend to be cautious about its use; however, practice may differ from theory.

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Since the primary concern of this study, the use of translation, inevitably necessitates the use of L1, teachers' beliefs regarding the use of L1 are assumed to offer a perspective. Table 18 represents the tendency of Turkish teachers of foreign-languages to use L1 while teaching a foreign-language.

Table 18. '*Do you use Turkish (L1)?*' replies from 244 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers and percentages

Frequency	N	%
Never	17	7.0
Rarely	150	61.5
Frequently	65	26.6
Almost Always	8	3.3
Always	4	1.6

Table 18 shows that the least chosen option is *'always'* followed by *'almost always'*, with 1.6% and 3.3% respectively. The number of teachers who claim not to be using L1 at all is also limited, with 17 teachers, which corresponds to 7.0%. Some 61.5% of all the teachers, which is equal to 150 teachers, noted that they rarely use L1 in their classes; 26.6% of the teachers, which equals 65, admit that they frequently use L1 while teaching. Thus, the majority of the teachers indicate that they do use L1 to a certain extent while teaching, although they obviously abstain from relying entirely on L1 use.

As seen in Table 18, the majority of the teachers report *rarely* using L1. Yet there are also some teachers who report *never* using L1. The teachers who selected the *rarely* and *never* options for the use of L1 were also asked to select a reason from a list. Table 19 includes the reasons selected by the teachers for avoiding L1 use.

Table 19. '*Why do you* never *or* rarely *use L1 in language teaching?*' replies from 171 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers and percentages

Reasons	N	%
The curriculum forbids it	1	0.6
The institution does not allow it	31	18.1
I think its detrimental to language learning	104	60.8
Other reasons	35	20.5

The total number of the teachers giving *rarely* or *never* for use L1 in their classes was 167 (Table 18). However, 171 teachers shared their reasons for avoiding L1 use, which means four teachers who had not chosen the *never* or *rarely* options also specified reasons. Since other reasons option was presented only to people who had selected *rarely* or *never*, it is highly likely that four teachers selected more than one reason.

There were basically three reasons given. Of these 171 teachers, only one mentioned the *curriculum restrictions* as a reason, while 31 noted that *L1 use was not allowed by the institution*. The majority of the teachers (60.8%) declared that they do not

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use L1 while teaching because *it is detrimental to language learning*. There were 35 teachers who mentioned other reasons for not using L1.

The most frequent items included in the "other reasons" can be grouped under three main headings: '*Providing the learners with maximum exposure to L2*', '*Teaching upper-level learners who can professionally communicate in L2*' and '*Limited knowledge about translation activities*'. '*Forcing the learners to use L2 as a means of communication in the class*' and '*having English as the medium of instruction at university*' were two other striking reasons mentioned.

5.6.2.2. Beliefs about teaching methods

Teachers of foreign-languages generally tend to stick to a method or a combination of methods while teaching. The exercises, tasks and activities they plan for their classes are expected to be in conformity with those methods. Similarly, the course books used and the supplementary materials given are expected to support the method being followed. Throughout the history of foreign-language teaching, a number of methods have been created, some of which are now rather outdated. Nevertheless, depending on the teaching contexts and goals, these methods may be given a higher or lower status. The attitudes of the teachers towards both L1 use and use of translation are likely to be influenced by the method they follow. Thus, the discussions about translation in language teaching cannot be carried out effectively without exploring the attitudes towards the methods in language teaching.

Table 20. '*How are these language teaching methods viewed in your institution at the level you teach?*' responses from teachers in Turkey, as means (5=very positively) and percentages

Attitude	Very negative		Negative		Indifferent		Positive		Very positive	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
ALM*	7	3.3	30	14.1	52	24.5	76	35.8	47	22.2
AVLT*	2	0.9	7	3.1	25	11.3	105	47.3	83	37.4
BM*	20	10.6	66	34.9	62	32.8	33	17.5	8	4.2
CLT*	1	0.4	1	0.4	9	3.9	72	31.3	147	63.9
DM*	21	11.1	44	23.4	68	36.2	42	22.3	13	6.9
GTM*	62	28.7	81	37.5	41	19.0	24	11.1	8	3.7
HLT*	1	0.6	6	3.4	55	31.1	66	37.3	49	27.7
IMM*	6	4.5	16	12.0	71	53.4	27	20.3	13	9.8
SUG*	10	6.1	20	12.3	84	51.5	41	25.2	8	4.9
TBL*	3	1.4	7	3.3	20	9.4	102	47.9	81	38.0
TPR*	8	4.2	19	9.9	74	38.5	60	31.3	31	16.1

*ALM stands for Audio-Lingual Method, AVLT for Audio-Visual Language Teaching, BM for Bilingual Method, CLT for Communicative Language Teaching, DM for Direct Method, GTM for Grammar-Translation Method, HLT for Humanistic Language Teaching, IMM for Immersion, SUG for Suggestopedia, TBL for Task-Based Learning and TPR for Total Physical Response.

As shown in Table 20, the views of the teachers varied to a great extent. There are 11 methods in total. Of these, the *Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)* is the least

favored, with 62 teachers indicating a very negative view, followed by the *Direct Method*, the *Bilingual Method* and *Suggestopedia,* mentioned by 21, 20 and 10 teachers respectively. The sum of the percentage of *negative* and *very negative* views towards *GTM* is 66.2%, which is more than the half the sample. On the other hand, *Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)* shines out with predominantly positive views: 222 teachers indicated *positive* and *very positive* attitudes towards it. The *Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)* and *Task-Based Learning (TBT)* rank second and the third in *positive* views, with 188 and 183 respectively.

Although the list includes quite well-known methods, the teachers were asked not to indicate any preferences with respect to those methods unfamiliar to them. Figure 4 presents the number of teachers unfamiliar with each method.

Figure 4. Total responses to the given language teaching methods and the number of teachers unfamiliar with each method, raw numbers
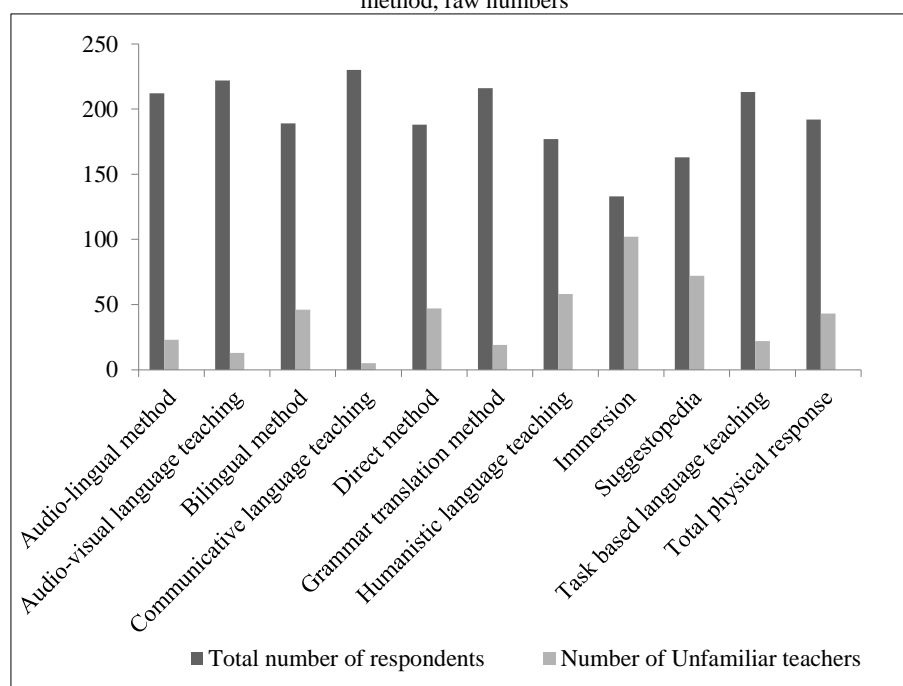
Figure 4 presents the total number of teachers expressing their views regarding the list of methods. The teachers were warned against not ticking any of the views if they had no idea about the given method. The results indicate that *Immersion (IMM)* is the method that teachers are most *unfamiliar* with, as it is the method that received the lowest number of mentions, regardless of their being *positive* or *negative.* The exact number of teachers who shared a view about *IMM* was 133. When the results about the views on teaching methods in Turkey are compared with other countries, interesting differences are

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observed. According to Pym et al. (2013), *IMM* is the most popular method in Tarragona, Spain. On the other hand, *CLT* is the one that was mentioned by an overwhelming majority of the teachers (230). As in Turkey, *CLT* is the most popular method in all countries except Spain, according to the results of the research by Pym et al. (2013).

5.6.2.3. Relation between teaching context and language teaching methods

The popularity of the methods may rise or fall in time depending on a number of factors, including new research in the field. However, the teaching context may have an impact on the choice of teaching method. Teachers may stick to different methods according to the context they work. Even the same teacher may adhere to a different method or methods in different teaching contexts. Hence there is a need to look at the relation between teaching context and language teaching methods.

Table 21. Teaching contexts by teaching methods used

Method	Primary School		Secondary School		Tertiary Level	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Audio-Lingual Method	4.10	0.94	3.52	1.15	3.51	1.08
Audio-Visual Language Teaching	4.48	0.72	4.03	0.95	4.13	0.79
Bilingual Method	3.19	1.06	2.88	1.12	2.56	0.93
Communicative Language Teaching	4.57	0.57	4.24	0.98	4.65	0.53
Direct Method	3.68	1.02	2.93	1.11	2.72	1.02
Grammar-Translation Method	2.58	1.33	2.85	1.33	2.04	0.94
Humanistic Language Teaching	3.80	0.82	3.92	1.06	3.89	0.86
Immersion	3.65	0.86	2.82	1.18	3.19	0.85
Suggestopedia	3.62	0.97	2.92	1.10	3.05	0.82
Task-Based Language Teaching	4.29	0.81	3.93	1.25	4.20	0.74
Total Physical Response	4.38	0.70	3.67	1.21	3.23	0.91

Table 21 presents the analysis of teaching methods at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The tertiary level included teachers working in schools of foreign-languages at universities in Turkey. A Scheffe post-hoc test was used for the analysis of variance. An ANOVA was run and once a significant f-value was obtained, the Scheffe test was run to find out which pairs of means are significant. The two teaching methods found to be statistically insignificant are *Humanistic Language Teaching* and *Task-Based Language Teaching*. Apart from these, significant variance is found in all the methods.

Table 22. ANOVA analysis of teachers' teaching methods by institutional level of teaching

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ALM	Between Groups	9.072	2	4.536	3.969	.020
	Within Groups	237.687	208	1.143		
	Total	246.758	210			
AVLT	Between Groups	3.903	2	1.951	2.977	.053
	Within Groups	142.903	218	.656		
	Total	146.805	220			
BM	Between Groups	9.885	2	4.942	5.018	.008
	Within Groups	182.222	185	.985		
	Total	192.106	187			
CLT	Between Groups	4,962	2	2.481	6.460	.002
	Within Groups	86.793	226	.384		
	Total	91.755	228			
DM	Between Groups	21.142	2	10.571	9.827	.000
	Within Groups	197.927	184	1.076		
	Total	219.070	186			
GTM	Between Groups	21.098	2	10.549	9.425	.000
	Within Groups	237.274	212	1.119		
	Total	258.372	214			
HLT	Between Groups	.204	2	.102	.132	.877
	Within Groups	134.290	173	.776		
	Total	134.494	175			
IMM	Between Groups	6.594	2	3.297	3.950	.022
	Within Groups	107.671	129	.835		
	Total	114.265	131			
SGT	Between Groups	6.738	2	3.369	4.303	.015
	Within Groups	124.478	159	.783		
	Total	131.216	161			
TBL	Between Groups	2.166	2	1.083	1.546	.215
	Within Groups	146.376	209	.700		
	Total	148.542	211			
TPR	Between Groups	30.670	2	15.335	17.504	.000
	Within Groups	164.702	188	.876		
	Total	195.372	190			

A significant difference among groups in their views towards *Audio-Lingual Method* is observed, $F (2,208) = 3.97$, $p = 0.020$. According to the post-hoc Scheffe test, the primary-school teachers tended to remain significantly more negative towards this method. The unfamiliarity of the primary school teachers may result from the method being dated.

For the same purpose, an ANOVA variance test was run to observe the difference in *Audio-Visual Language Learning (AVLT)* between teaching contexts. A significant difference is observed in primary-school teachers, who had a more positive view towards AVLT than the other two groups, $F (2,208) = 2.98$, $p = 0.053$.

For the *Bilingual Method*, primary school and tertiary level teachers' views show variance, $F (2,185) = 5.02$, $p = 0.008$. Primary school teachers tend to be more positive towards the *Bilingual Method*, where L1 use is tolerated.

Communicative Language Teaching stands out as the method with the greatest mean scores among all the given methods, which is an indicator of the positive approach attitude to it at all teaching contexts. However, the statistical analysis reveals that there is significant variation in the views between primary school and tertiary level teaching contexts, where the tertiary level is more positive, $F (2,226) = 6.46$, $p = 0.002$.

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Although the *Direct Method* is assumed to be rather outdated today, the statistical analysis indicates its use particularly in the primary-school context. According to the Scheffe post-hoc test results, the *Direct Method* is regarded more positively by primary school teachers, $F(2,184) = 9.83$, $p < 0.001$.

As can be deduced from the mean scores given in Table 21, the *Grammar Translation Method* is the method with the lowest mean scores in all three teaching contexts. However, it still shows significant variation among groups, $F(2,212) = 9.43$, $p = 0.001$. The Scheffe post-hoc tests show that tertiary-level teachers are more negative towards this method, in which translation is of utmost importance.

When the three teaching contexts are compared by their view towards *Immersion*, it is observed that primary- and secondary-school teaching contexts display significant variation, $F(2,129) = 3.95$, $p = 0.022$. Primary-school teachers tend to be more positive towards the use of *Immersion* while teaching a foreign-language.

Suggestopedia ranks the second least favored method, based on the mean scores in Table 22. As the mean scores suggest, the primary-school teaching context shows a significantly more positive attitude, $F(2,159) = 4.30$, $p = 0.015$.

Total Physical Response stands out to be the method that bears the highest mean score in the primary-school context, which is considered to be statistically significant with respect to the other contexts, $F(2,188) = 17.5$, $p < 0.001$.

5.6.2.4. Beliefs about the role of translation in language learning

As research increases, a number of hypotheses have been voiced regarding the role of translation in language teaching. Since each study feeds on the findings of others and the findings of each project are likely to complement others, our subjects' attitudes towards some position statements about translation are worth exploring.

Figure 5. '*To what extent do you agree with the following statements?*' replies from 223 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers (5=strongly agree)
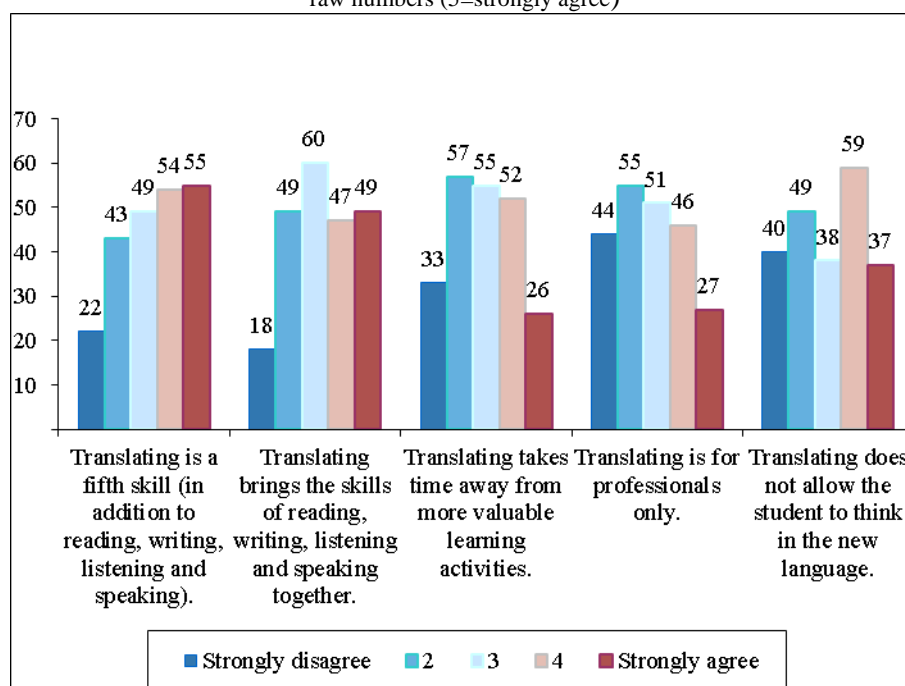

Figure 5 shows the teachers' beliefs on the use of translation in language teaching. The beliefs were expressed as five separate sentences. For each statement, the survey included a Likert scale where 1 corresponds to *strongly disagree* and 5 corresponds to *strongly agree*. This question was replied to by 223 teachers in total.

For the first statement, 'translation is the fifth language skill', the participants were predominantly in favor of considering translation as a language skill alongside reading, writing, listening and speaking: 25.1% of the teachers *agreed* with the idea of translation being the fifth language skill, while 22.5% indicated *strong agreement*.

With respect to the second statement, 'translating brings the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together', 67 participants indicated *disagreement* while 96 participants indicated *agreement*. The remaining 60 participants seem to be *indecisive* about the issue.

Two-thirds of the participants could not state strong views about whether 'translation takes time away from more valuable activities'. Of the remaining 67 teachers, 18 *strongly disagreed* while 49 *strongly agreed*. Slightly more than 10% of the teachers *agreed* that 'translation takes time away from more valuable activities'. Considered in detail, the total number of participants expressing *disagreement* is thus more than the total number of the *agreeing* respondents.

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The teachers predominantly *disagreed* with the fourth statement, 'translation is for professionals only', with their number reaching 99, while 73 of them believed that translation is an activity that can be done only by professionals.

The fifth question proposes that 'translation prevents learners from thinking in L2'. The hindering effect of translation on learners' ability to think in L2 was actually mentioned by some of the participants in the open-ended question asking for other reasons for avoiding L1 use while teaching. In their responses to this question, 43.8% of the teachers *agreed* with the statement, while 39.8% expressed *disagreement*.

The participants were also asked whether they believed there was any connection between translation and language learning in addition to those mentioned above. Of the 46 replies, four were short answers like '*yes*', '*no*' or '*might be*'; they were not taken into account. In the remaining 42 replies, participants overwhelmingly mentioned a positive connection between translation and language learning, where translation can be utilized in specific contexts or to teach specific language items. More specifically, they emphasized that translation can allow the students to make comparisons between two languages by going through contrastive analysis; it can improve their critical thinking skills; it helps to link the known with the unknown by prompting them to make connections between their L1 and L2; and it can enhance their writing. Some teachers also noted the importance of the learners' level and the need to avoid overusing translation. It was also noted that translation could be a useful but time-consuming activity for the learners. There were two negative views. One of them stated the hindering effect of translation on language learning by urging the learners to search for an exact equivalent for each word, which is not always possible. The other remarked that translation fails to improve the communication skills of the learners in L2.

Some of the other statements made by the teachers are as follows, here presented verbatim:

- *"Appropriate amount of translation may give the learner a chance to compare and contrast his mother tongue with the relevant foreign-language."*

- *"It is very useful for teaching the sentence structure of the target language. Students can clearly see and understand the difference between L1 and L2."*

- *"It could improve critical think and contrastive analysis skills of learners."*

- *"Translation is, to some extent necessary, for learners especially in learning reading, writing, or new structures."*

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- *"There is of course a relation bet. translation and language learning. Esp. when activities re. translation aim at teaching, transferring knowledge and synthesizing the new language this relationship becomes greater."*

- *"Translation is a very useful but time-consuming task. It demands a lot on the part of a learner, thus it requires a lot on the part of a learner. Beginner level learners prefer this method so it can be regarded as a method frequently used at early stages of language learning."*

- *"It has to do with not only learning the language but also diving into the culture and its sub genres."*

- *"For some analytic students translation works well."*

- *"I think translation is a way of teaching a second language. I don't mean grammar translation, but if a person can make translations from one language to another it means that s/he really knows both languages. Translation requires a person to think, write, speak, listen and read in both languages so it can be used for language teaching."*

- *"I believe that esp. For adult learners translation sometimes works because they mostly question the underlying reason of a particular structure. Sometimes while explaining the meaning of an abstract word, I simply give the Turkish definition not to waste time.."*

- *"Grammar points and abstract lexical items should be taught via translation."*

- *"Translation demands a sensitivity and creativity that not all students are capable of. It also requires some cultural understanding."*

- *"It may help to check understanding"*

- *"Personally i think that translation can be used in the levels like A2-B1 etc but just when paraphrasing, in order to attract students' attention to the topic. it should not be like meal, spoon-feed by a mother to the baby. Students should be included in this translation period."*

- *"I think for the writing purposes especially in weak classes translation can be a good form of teaching the sentence structure"*

- *"At the very beginning of teaching, translation may be used to take the attention of students to the topic."*

- *"It makes the brain work, which may lead to long-term retention of the knowledge."*

- *"The translation is a useful activity for the reflection on the structure of the language; -The translation serves to make discover originality of the language which we*

teach; -The translation brings a help to the weak pupils; -The translation assures the practice of the mediating function of the language."

- "It is useful to learn why one makes errors in L2 - errors are often due to influence from L1 and translation raises the learner's awareness of this, enabling them to work on avoiding L1 influence."

It is interesting that quite a number of the comments made about the connection of translation and language learning note the positive effect of translation on various aspects of language learning. Although the majority of the teachers believe that translation is detrimental to language learning and it prevents learners from thinking in L2, there are also some teachers who believe that translation can be useful at some stages of language learning.

5.6.2.5. Beliefs about using translation

Since the main focus of this research is the use of translation in language learning, teachers' beliefs regarding the issue are of utmost importance. Thus, in the online survey, teachers were also asked if they used translation while teaching. The results from 222 participants are presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6. '*Do you use translation in language teaching?*' replies from 222 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers
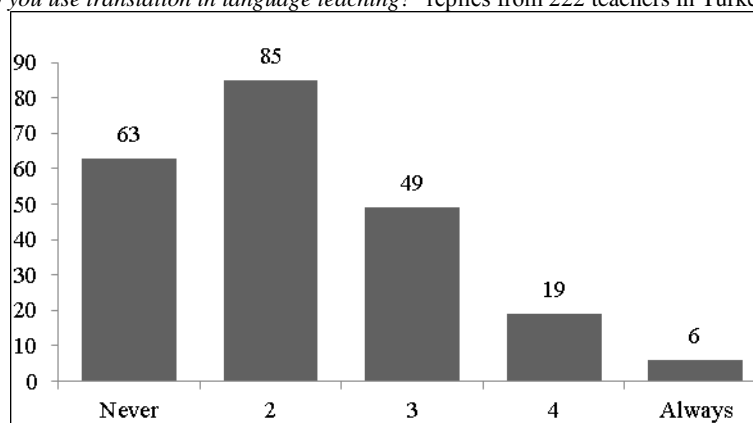
As shown in Figure 6, the percentage of the teachers who stated they *always* use translation is rather low. Of 222 teachers, only 25 stated they *always* or *almost always* use translation activities. This corresponds to 12% of the whole group. On the other hand, 85 teachers noted that they *rarely* use translation, while 63 teachers declared not using it at all. Thus, the total percentage of those who prefer to stay away from translation is 64.2%, which constitutes the majority of the group. While 22.1% of the teachers state that

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they *sometimes* use it, the teachers who tend not to use it outnumber those who are more prone to use it.

In a follow-up question, the teachers were asked to choose a reason for not using translation if they had selected the *never* or *rarely* options in the preceding question. There were actually 148 respondents who gave those answers; however, only 109 of them stated their reasons. There were five reasons proposed in the list, including an '*other*' option that invited the participants to share a reason that had not been mentioned. Figure 7 presents the distribution of the teachers according to their reasons for avoiding translation.

Figure 7. '*If you use translation* never *or* rarely *in your classes, please say why*'
replies from 128 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers
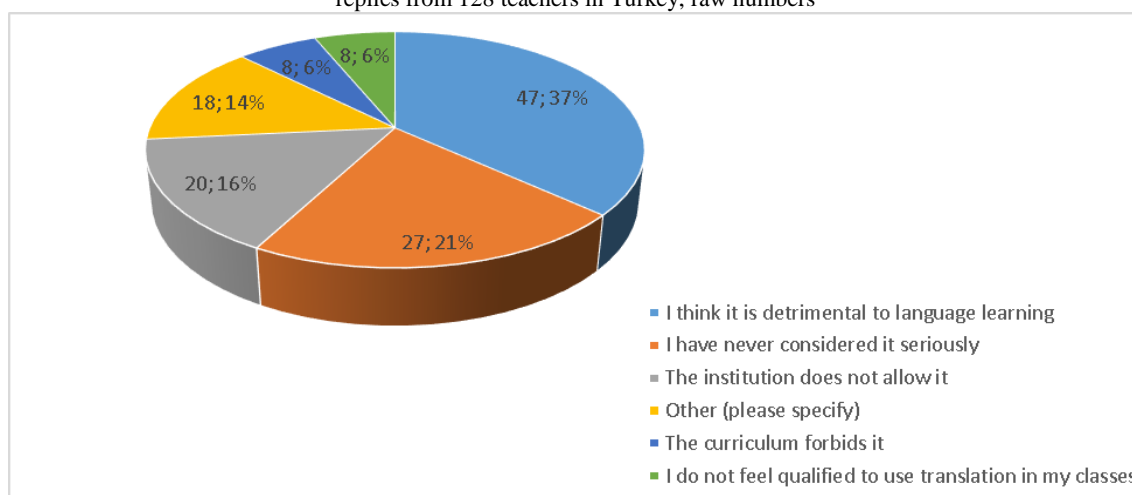
Figure 7 presents the reasons for *never* or *rarely* using translation and the number of teachers in each category. Of all the reasons stated, *detrimental role on language learning* takes the lead with 47 teachers (35.8% of the sample). The numbers of teachers who declared that they have '*not considered it seriously*' and those who claim that their '*institution does not allow it*' rank the second and the third reasons, with 27 and 20 teachers respectively. There were eight teachers who stated that they *never* or *rarely* use translation because '*it is forbidden by the curriculum*', and another eight because '*they do not feel qualified enough*'. The remaining 15.6% gave other reasons for not using translation. Among the reasons put forward by these 16 teachers, the most frequent was the time constraint. Teachers highlighted that course books do not give any translation activities and they have no time for any additional activity while trying to catch up with the syllabus. Some of the reasons mentioned are given below verbatim.

- *"As I stated earlier, I believe learners need maximum exposure to and practice in the target language."*

- *"Translation is a skill that requires training so when done by those who have no such background and little competence in L2, it needs to be handled effectively be beneficial. I do believe that students need to draw associations between what they already know (L1) and what is new (L2) but this type of comparative analysis can very well be carried out in the target language, especially with higher level learners.to"*

- *"The materials given are based on tasks and activities, which do not leave room for translation and students dont feel such a need. However, sometimes they want translation of vocabularies. Though not used as a systematic activity type, L1 equivalence of words and some phrases are discussed in the classroom."*

- *"Because students don't participate in translating activities, espacially in faculty english programs."*

- *"The materials given are based on tasks and activities, which do not leave room for translation and students dont feel such a need. However, sometimes they want translation of vocabularies. Though not used as a systematic activity type, L1 equivalence of words and some phrases are discussed in the classroom."*

- *"I don't want the students to lead their attention solely to this method as this might prevent them from developing efficient reading and listening skills since the student will be depending too much on translating what he's reading or writing."*

- *"Not all the classes are monolingual. The number of international students studying in Turkish universities has considerably increased in recent years."*

- *"Considering the level at which I teach, it is not necessary or useful to translate the language since I always speak in the target language while teaching young learners."*

- *"As it is primary school, i think translation as a method of teachin language, will be hard and much for them."*

- *"I think it is not the natural way people learn a language"*

Those who selected '*the institution does not allow it'* or '*the curriculum forbids it'* were asked another connected question to find out whether they would use it if they were permitted to do so. There were actually 28 teachers who selected one of those choices (see Figure 6). However, only six of them replied to this further question. Of those six, four said they would use translation, while one responded negatively. The remaining teacher indicated hesitation by selecting '*don't know'*.

Figure 8. '*How often do you use the following activities?*' replies from 72 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers
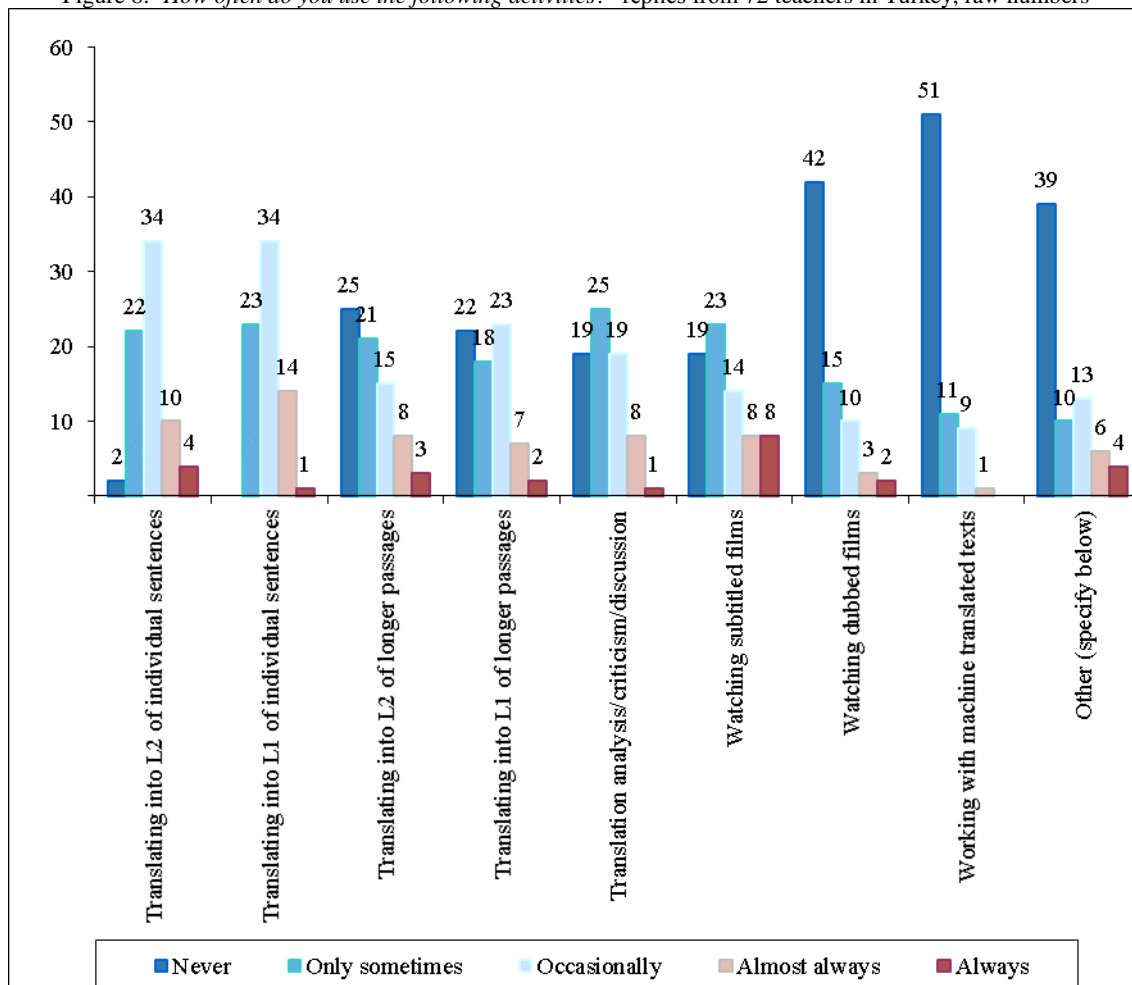

Figure 8 shows eight activities that involve translation at some stage; teachers were asked to mark the frequency with which they use these activities while teaching. They were requested to select a frequency option ranging from *never* to *always*. The question received responses from 72 teachers in total. None of the activities was reported to be used *always* or *almost always* by the majority of the teachers. Of all the activities, the most frequently used ones were '*translating sentences from and into L2*', with 72 and 70 teachers respectively who report using them with some frequency. On the other hand, the two activities that are *never* used by the majority of the teachers are '*watching dubbed films*' and '*working with machine translated texts.*' For the majority of the activities, the teachers that select the *never* option outnumber the others.

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Table 23. *'How often do you use the following activities?'* mean replies from 72 language teachers in Turkey

Activity	Mean	SD
Translating into L2 of individual sentences	2.90	0.75
Translating into L1 of individual sentences	2.89	0.88
Watching subtitled films	2.49	1.30
Translating into L1 of longer passages	2.29	1.09
Translation analysis/criticism/discussion	2.26	1.02
Translating into L2 of longer passages	2.21	1.16
Watching dubbed films	1.72	1.04
Working with machine translated texts	1.44	0.77
Other activities	1.97	1.26

The teachers who reported using translation activities with some degree of frequency were also asked what kind of activities they used. The mean scores for each activity are presented in Table 23. The activities with the highest mean scores were translating sentences into L1 and from L1, with mean scores 2.89 and 2.90 respectively.

Those who report using *other* translation activities were asked a follow-up question to specify those activities. Among the activities listed, there were some that do not involve translation and were thus were not taken into account. Some teachers also reported activities that were already listed in the previous question; those were not taken into consideration either. Some of the alternative activities are listed below verbatim.

- *"with upper levels translating authentic mats. like piece of news, articles, film reviews,and spontenous things like daily speeches made on the bus in the taxi etc."*

- *"Using on line dictionaries"*

- *"sometimes students in pairs tell each other sentences in L1 or L2 and they try to translate sentences from their partners, not from the teacher."*

- *"Some creative dialogue exercises, such as they watch a trailer and then I ask them to think about things they could say in L1 (as dubbing) and I ask them to do the same in L2."*

- *"translating literary texts translating texts for specific purposes such as legal texts simultaneous translation exercises"*

- *"Comparison of diverse translations - Exercises of oral translation - Games of raising awareness to a translation of the sense"*

The teachers were finally asked to give some reasons for using translation. However, this question seems to have been misunderstood as there are a lot of responses that either mention reasons for *avoiding* it or *restate* alternative translation activities. Among the reasons that accurately respond to the question, the ones found noteworthy are reproduced verbatim as follows:

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- *"Because it allows students to digest what they learned while translating example sentences(which should be as interesting as possible)into their own language. This way, they memorise the structure more easily."*

- *"We must also explain that translation is mostly impossible. So as to do so,we must use translation methods. It may seem as a paradox,however differences and common points teach much. The languages reflect the attitude of societies as well. These activities are advantegeous to learn both sides of everything. In this sense,some students become aware of the translation mistakes in the subtitles of most films,therefore they know that particular sentence cant mean 'that', so they get the gist of the language. Awareness of differences and common points provides quite enough perspectives."*

- *"I generally focus on translation activities for technical courses"*

- *"I like it."*

- *"If students don't understand the gist of something that we are doing in the classroom, they will be lost. Another reason is to raise awareness or encourage students to understand what is going on in the activity or in the text or in the grammar point. In other words,I prefer translation in order to make students understand /comprehend"*

- *"Ibelieve students will gain a lot from a comparison between the L1 and the L2 when they are given some translation activities. These activities will help them to understand better any grammar point."*

- *"hese activities foster language acguisition and help students feel more secure while learning."*

- *"To save time"*

- *"To promote communication."*

- *"If my purpose of using a reading text to teach syntax, I can use grammar translation. What I have observed so far in my teaching is that it is helpful for learners to understand the system of the language.. after teaching it in a context, I support it with many different kinds of communicative tasks.. such as role plays, discussions and simulations.."*

- *"I believe there is room for translation in every language anguage class. It can be used to the benefit of the students as long as the "dose" is right :)"*

- *"Through translation, the students learn more vocabulary in context and with watching films they realize every day speech."*

- *"I may use translation when teaching vocabulary sometimes if students cant really understand .."*

- *"I prefer translation activities to see whether the students really understand what I taught. For example, after teaching "used to" a few weeks later I ask them to tell me what "ben şişman bir kızdım" is in English."*

- *"For certain structures that are difficult to comprehend with students' existing proficiency level, i find it useful to give them a chance to compare and analyse differences between L1 and L2."*

- *"To make the lesson more attractive and also sometimes to let my students have some short breaks."*

- *"I believe letting students translate a few sentences from Turkish to English or vice versa makes them excited and enhusiastic. They find it challenging, but helpful. They mostly enjoy it. Since we mostly do literature, we cannot allocate a certain amount of time for translation activities. We focus more on the other skills so we ignore it. But I think it is useful especially for the intermediate learners of English."*

- *"I prefer these activities because I want my students to link what they are learning to what they are living - experiencing. Maybe it is because I'm a translator/interpreter as well. However, I have a tendency to consider the lessons in a real-life-context. There is no exposure to L2 outside the classroom, by adding some translation exercises I believe I get my students to think outside the box even when they are not in class."*

- *"t helps students understand the structure of the language they learn. -It is fun and eucating when they are used as a variety (e.g. translating lyrics or short poems, etc.)"*

- *"To be honest, translation helps me in teaching vocabulary as it saves time. other than that I try not to let them translate. If the proficiency level of the class was high (upper intermediate), then I would use translation activities just to let them play with the sentence and be familiar with the target language structure."*

Given these reasons for using translation, it can be said that translation is found to be most useful in teaching vocabulary, along with its time-saving effect. Facilitating the learning process though translation is another reason commonly mentioned by teachers, as they state that they believe translation helps learners understand things better. Creating awareness about languages, motivating learners and having them realize translation mistakes in subtitle translation are among the other reasons given by the teachers.

5.6.3. Correlations between teachers' bio-data and beliefs

As mentioned above, the teachers' bio-data are assumed to have some bearing on their beliefs regarding translation in language learning. In the following subsections, the correlations of the teachers' biographical information with their beliefs about language teaching practice are explored.

5.6.3.1. The correlation between teaching experience and use of L1

The close association between using translation and using L1 makes it necessary to investigate teachers' beliefs about L1 use. Apart from the descriptive analysis provided in 5.4.2.1 above, the correlation of L1 use with other factors must also be explored. Among these factors, teaching experience is assumed to have an impact on the perspective of the language teachers. Teachers are likely to undergo a change, either positively or negatively, in their beliefs about L1 use as they become more experienced.

Table 24. L1 use in class by years of experience, replies from 237 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers

Experience years Frequency	Number of Teachers				
	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-20	20-above
Never	2	6	4	3	2
Rarely	26	36	32	28	28
Frequently	16	11	14	11	13
Almost Always	3	1	1	3	0
Always	1	0	1	2	0
Total	48	47	52	47	43

As can be seen in Table 24, 237 of the 244 teachers participating in the survey responded to this question. Surprisingly, the distribution of these 237 teachers over all five age groups is very close in numbers. When the correlation between teaching experience indicated by years and use of Turkish while teaching a foreign-language is explored, it is observed that the overall tendency to use Turkish in all five age ranges is similar. In all groups, the least chosen frequency option is *always,* whereas *rarely* is the one selected by the majority of the teachers. The group that consists of the highest number of teachers who selected *rarely* frequency option is the one including teachers with 4-6 years of teaching experience. There were no teachers choosing the *always* frequency option in this group and in the group of teachers with more than 20 years of teaching experience. Given these results, years of experience has no clear correlation with the use of L1.

5.6.3.2. The correlation between teaching experience and use of translation

Like perspectives on L1 use, teachers' attitudes to the use of translation in language learning might undergo change as they gain experience. This change may take place positively or negatively, depending on a number of reasons. To explore the issue, first the tendency of the teachers to include translation in their teaching practice is analyzed on the basis of teaching experience.

Table 25. Use of translation in language teaching, by years of experience,
replies from 240 teachers in Turkey, raw numbers

	Number of Teachers				
Experience years	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-20	20-above
Frequency					
Never	13	16	15	10	9
Rarely	15	20	17	18	15
Frequently	12	9	10	10	8
Almost Always	3	5	5	5	1
Always	1	0	4	0	1
Total	44	54	52	47	43

There were 244 teachers in total who participated in this survey and 240 of them responded to this question. Table 25 presents the distribution of translation use according to years of teaching experience. The results reveal that all five groups tend to be quite similar in their frequency of translation use. Regardless of their years of experience, the majority of teachers in all age ranges selected the *rarely* option. On the other hand, *always* was the option selected by the fewest number of people in all experience groups. There were no teachers selecting *always* option within the experience ranges of 4-6 and 11-20.

5.6.3.3. Relations between teaching experience and using L1 'rarely'

Although *rarely* is the option selected by the majority of the teachers when both use of Turkish and use of translation are considered, close inspection of Table 18 and Table 19 shows that the number of the teachers selecting *rarely* for using Turkish is higher than those selecting for using translation. There are 150 teachers who reported using Turkish *rarely* while 85 reported using translation *rarely*. Thus, the number who report using Turkish *rarely* is almost twice the number of those who report using translation *rarely.*

The distribution of the teachers across all five experience groups nevertheless seems to be quite similar. The minimum number of teachers is in the experience range between 7-10 with 17.33% of the group using Turkish *rarely*, while the minimum number of teachers is in the experience ranges 7-10 and 4-6 with 17.65% in the group using

translation *rarely*. The groups with the highest number of teachers in both categories include the teachers 4-6 years of experience, with 24% for Turkish use and 23.53% for translation use.

Since *rarely* stands out as the option selected by the majority of the teachers regarding the use of both Turkish and translation, a closer look at the distribution of the teachers as percentages in the experience ranges gives a more vivid picture of the choice.

Figure 9. Teachers who report using Turkish '*rarely*' in language teaching, as percentages, by years of experience
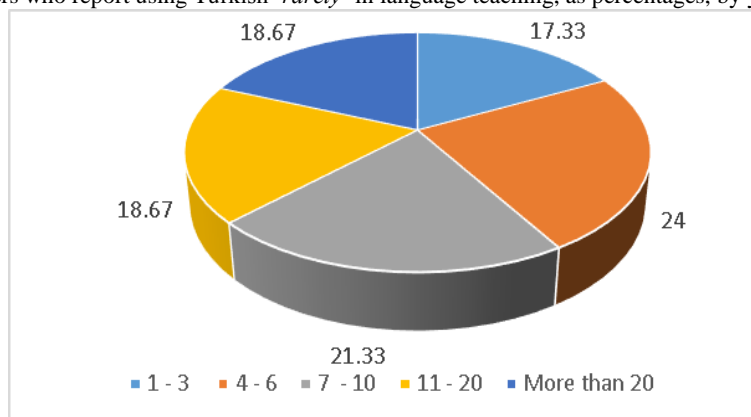
As shown in Figure 9, the percentages of the teachers by years of experience are quite close to one another, with those having 4-6 years of teaching experience taking the lead. The group with the most inexperienced teachers is the one where the smallest percentage of teachers choose the *rarely* option.

*5.6.3.4. Relations between teaching experience and using translation '*rarely*'*

Since *rarely* is the option selected by the largest number of teachers both for using L1 and using translation, a closer look at the distribution of those selecting this option for translation is likely to yield interesting results.

Figure 10. Teachers who report using translation '*rarely*' in language teaching, as percentages, by years of experience
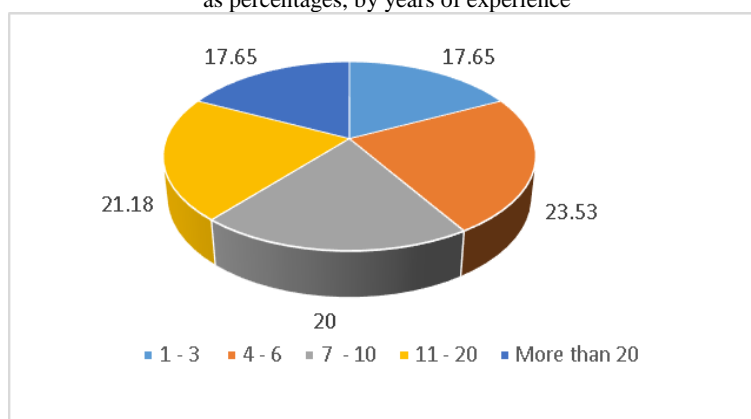
The distribution of the teachers who reported using translation *rarely* in language teaching is quite similar to the one regarding the use of Turkish, as seen in Figure 10. Similar to the previous case, the teachers with 4-6 years of teaching experience are the ones that constitute the highest percentage of those choosing the *rarely* option for the use of translation.

5.6.3.5. Relations between negative and positive attitudes towards the use of L1 and use of translation

As Figure 9 and Figure 10 suggest, there seems to be an accumulation in the *rarely* and *never* options. If we assume that the options *rarely* and *never* in all age groups for both use of Turkish and use of translation represent negative beliefs, and similarly *almost always* and *always* options represent positive beliefs, there is an obvious difference in the number of teachers with negative attitudes and positive attitudes towards both the use of Turkish and use of translation, as illustrated in Figure 11.

Figure 11. Negative and positive attitudes towards the use of Turkish and use of translation by Turkish teachers of foreign-languages, raw numbers

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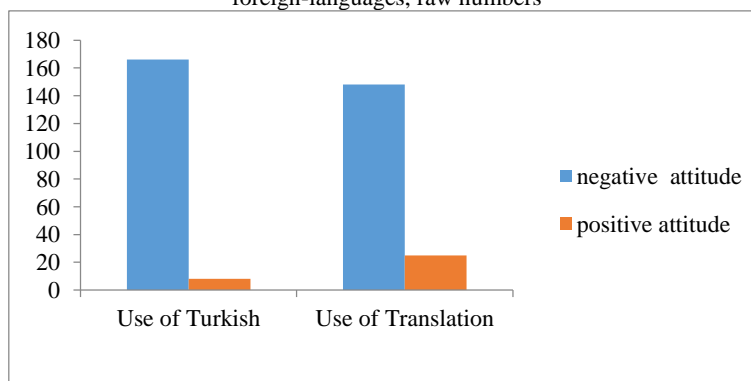
As shown in Figure 11, the gap between negative attitudes and positive attitudes is very wide. While there are 166 teachers who report *never* or *rarely* using Turkish, there are only eight teachers who report using it *always* or *almost always.* Likewise, while there are 148 teachers who report *never* or *rarely* using translation in language teaching, there are 25 teachers who report using it *always* or *almost always*. Despite the predominantly negative reported use in both cases, it is remarkable that those who report using translation *always* or *almost always* are greater in number than those who report using Turkish *always* or *almost always*, with the exact numbers being 25 and 8 respectively. Since L1 can be used for many other purposes in the classroom (greetings, giving instructions, explanations, etc.), the result is interesting in the sense that one would expect L1 to be used more than translation. Thus, the number of those who report using L1 was expected to be much higher.

As mentioned earlier, *rarely* is the option selected by the highest number of people. It is the second option after *never* that represents a relatively negative reported use. Thus, the sum of the number of teachers selecting these two options is assumed to give the number of those who do not report using L1 or translation much. When this negative reported use represented by these two options in all age groups and for both use of Turkish and use of translation is explored, it is observed that their increasing and decreasing tendencies by age groups show tendencies similar to those shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12. Negative attitudes towards the use of Turkish and translation by Turkish teachers of foreign-languages, raw numbers by years of teaching
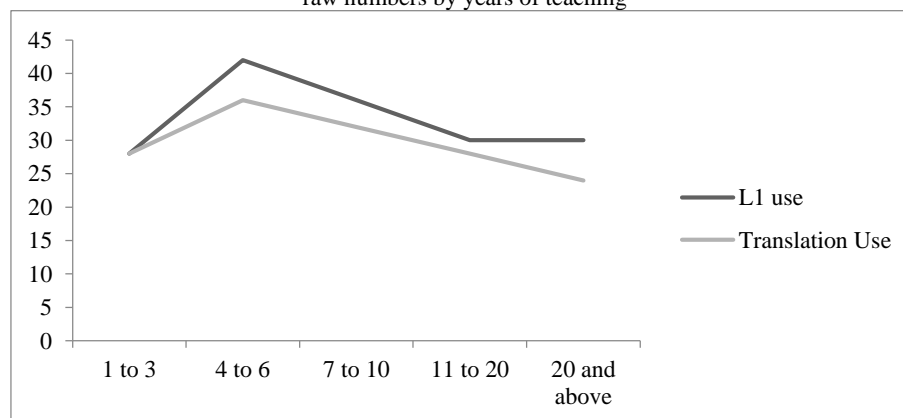
The most inexperienced group tends to start with a relatively negative attitude towards both issues, with the highest number of teachers, and this negative attitude initially increases in both groups as they become more experienced. The negative attitude reaches its peak with the groups with 4-6 years of experience, for both L1 use and

translation use. Then the negative trend seems to fall gradually until teachers reach 11 to 20 years of teaching experience. From that point onwards, the negative attitude towards the use of Turkish remains in a stable mode while the negative attitude towards the use of translation continues to decrease gradually as teachers become more and more experienced.

5.6.3.6. Relations between teaching context and use of L1

The teachers participating in the online survey were asked to make a choice among three teaching contexts: primary school, secondary school and tertiary level. As shown in Table 16 the percentage of teachers reporting working at tertiary level is higher than the others. According to Table 16, there were 244 teachers participating in the survey. However, the total number of teachers responding to this item in the survey is 243, with one teacher missing in the tertiary group.

Table 26. Teaching context by frequency of L1 use, as percentages of teachers

Teaching context Frequency	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Never	9.68	5.41	6.86
2	58.06	43.24	65.71
3	29.03	32.43	25.14
4	0	13.51	1.71
Always	3.23	5.41	0.57

Analysis of the relation between teaching contexts and L1 use reveals that in all three contexts teachers tend to avoid using L1, as illustrated in Table 26. In all groups, the highest percentage of teachers report using L1 *rarely*. Similarly, the second preferred option by all the teachers in all three teaching contexts is the *occasional* use of L1. The option that is selected by the lowest percentage of teachers in secondary and tertiary teaching contexts is *always*, with ratios of 5.41 and 0.57 respectively. On the other hand, there is one primary school teacher who reports using Turkish *always*; however, since there is no teacher who reports using Turkish *almost always*, the least favored option by primary school teachers remains *almost always*.

5.6.3.7. Relation between teaching context and use of translation

As mentioned earlier, according to Table 16 there were 31, 37 and 176 teachers in the primary, secondary and tertiary teaching contexts respectively. However, the number of teachers responding to the question about use translation in language teaching is 30, 34

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and 158 in the primary, secondary and tertiary teaching contexts respectively. Thus there are in total 22 teachers who did not respond to this question.

Table 27. Teachers by teaching context and use of translation, as percentages of teachers

Teaching context Frequency	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Never	33.33	26.48	27.85
Rarely	30.00	35.29	40.51
Frequently	23.33	32.35	19.62
Almost Always	6.67	5.88	9.49
Always	6.67	0.00	2.53

When it comes to use of translation in language teaching, primary school teachers have the highest percentage of teachers selecting the *never* option, as illustrated in Table 27. For secondary and tertiary teachers, *rarely* is still the most popular option. In conformity with the general trend, the lowest percentage of teachers selected the *always* option in the tertiary group, while there are no teachers selecting *always* option in the secondary group and there are two teachers selecting both the *always* and *almost always* options in the primary school teachers group.

5.6.3.8. Relation between teaching contexts and reasons given for using translation 'never' or 'rarely'

The reasons given by teachers for *never* or *rarely* using translation in language teaching were also explored on the basis of their teaching contexts: tertiary, secondary and primary. Although the question about the reasons was not answered by all the teachers participating in the survey, there is still a huge difference between the number of teachers reporting working in the tertiary level and primary or secondary schools. Here the number of teachers in each category is given as percentages.

Figure 13. Teachers reporting *rarely* or *never* using translation, 93 tertiary teachers, as percentages of the reasons they give
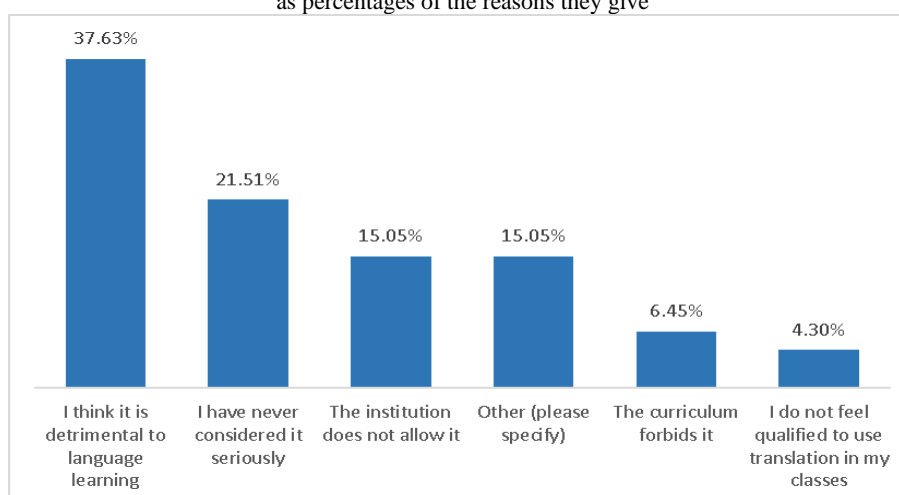
There were 176 teachers teaching in the tertiary teaching context, yet only 93 responded to the question, which means 83 of them skipped the question. As seen in Figure 13, the majority of these teachers, 37.63% of the group, reported *never* or *rarely* using translation for the reason that it is *detrimental to language learning*; 21.51% reported that *they have never considered translation seriously*; 15.05% stated *the institutional prohibitions* as the reason for their avoidance, and exactly the same percentage gave other reasons that are not listed. These other reasons included '*the time constraints because of the curriculum*', '*translation not being a goal for learners*' and '*monolingual classes*'. There were also explanations highlighting the '*adverse effect of translation on other skills*', which could actually be included in its being *detrimental to language learning*.

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Figure 14. Teachers reporting *rarely* or *never* using translation, 18 secondary school teachers, as percentages of the reasons they give
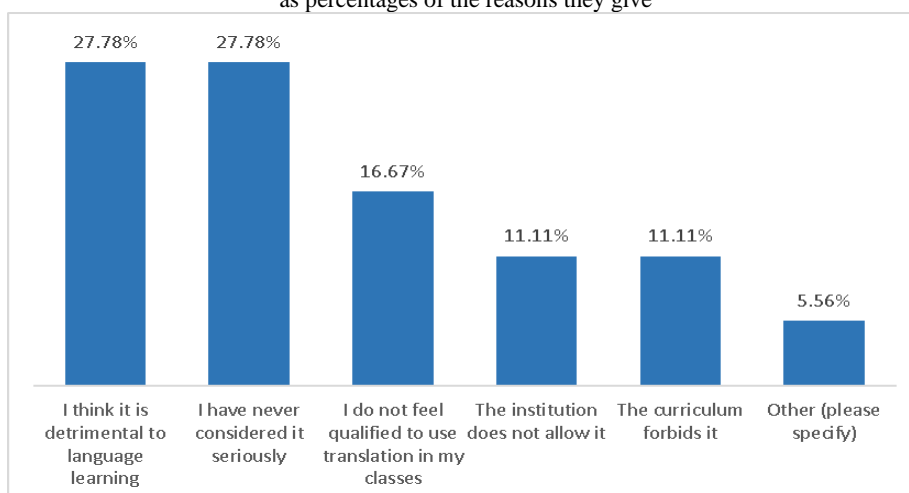
As can be seen in Figure 14, secondary-school teachers constitute a relatively small group of participants, with only 18 teachers who answered the question while the remaining 19 skipped it. There were two reasons given: 27.78% reported that *they have never considered the use of translation seriously*; another 27.78% said they think *it is detrimental to language learning*; 16.67% reported using translation never or rarely translation on the grounds that *they do not feel qualified enough to use it in their classes*; 11.11% named *curriculum* or *institutional prohibitions* as a reason for their avoidance of translation. Only one teacher selected *other reasons*, but they did not specify any reason.

Figure 15. Teachers reporting *rarely* or *never* using translation, 16 primary school teachers, as percentages of the reasons they give

Primary-school teachers make up the smallest group, with only 16 teachers. Like the tertiary level and secondary teachers, the majority of them (43.75%) reported *never*

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or *rarely* using translation as they thought *it is detrimental to language learning*, as shown in Figure 15. *Institutional prohibitions* were also given as a reason by a quarter of the participants. *Not considering it seriously* ranks third with 12.50% of the teachers, while exactly the same percentage specified *other reasons* not included in the given list. The two other reasons specified focused on two different aspects of translation: one of them underlined that '*translation would not be useful for primary school teachers'* while the other participant gave the reason as '*its being hard for primary school students'*.

5.6.3.9. Relations between teaching context and beliefs about translation in language teaching

As mentioned earlier, teaching context is the determinant of many choices made by the teacher with respect to the teaching procedure. Using translation while teaching a foreign-language or avoiding its use is also a decision made by the teacher taking into account a number of factors. Thus, it is assumed that there is a relation with the beliefs of the teachers regarding translation in language teaching.

Table 28. Teaching context, by beliefs on translation in language teaching

Statement	Teaching Context	Mean	SD
Translation is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking)	Primary	3.67	1.37
	Secondary	3.03	1.36
	Tertiary	3.35	1.27
Translating brings the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together.	Primary	3.63	1.35
	Secondary	2.94	1.37
	Tertiary	3.27	1.19
Translating takes time away from more valuable learning activities.	Primary	2.63	1.19
	Secondary	3.32	1.39
	Tertiary	2.88	1.21
Translating is for professionals only.	Primary	2.70	1.37
	Secondary	2.79	1.27
	Tertiary	2.83	1.30
Translating does not allow the student to think in the new language.	Primary	2.87	1.61
	Secondary	3.38	1.30
	Tertiary	2.97	1.33

An ANOVA variance analysis test was conducted to explore any differences in the beliefs of the teachers based on their teaching contexts. Table 28 presents the mean scores for the beliefs of the teachers in three different contexts. According to the results of the ANOVA variance analysis tests, none of the differences is statistically significant.

5.6.3.10. Relations between teaching context and translation exercises

When teachers plan the exercises they use in the class, they tend to consider the teaching context, which is closely associated with the learner profile.

Table 29. Exercises involving translation, by teaching context

Exercises	Group	Mean	SD	p-value
Translating into L1 of individual sentences	Primary	3.10	1.10	0.227
	Secondary	2.92	1.17	
	Tertiary	2.60	0.83	
Translating into L2 of individual sentences	Primary	2.60	0.84	0.064
	Secondary	3.25	0.87	
	Tertiary	2.66	0.77	
Translating into L2 of longer passages	Primary	2.80	1.14	0.021
	Secondary	2.92	1.24	
	Tertiary	2.04	1.11	
Translating into L1 of longer passages	Primary	2.70	1.16	0.028
	Secondary	2.75	0.87	
	Tertiary	2.00	1.05	
Translation analysis/criticism/discussion	Primary	2.60	1.08	0.052
	Secondary	2.92	1.17	
	Tertiary	2.16	0.96	
Watching subtitled films	Primary	2.20	1.23	0.130
	Secondary	3.25	1.49	
	Tertiary	2.54	1.23	
Watching dubbed films	Primary	2.00	0.94	0.695
	Secondary	1.92	1.17	
	Tertiary	1.72	1.11	
Working with machine translated texts	Primary	1.50	0.71	0.036
	Secondary	2.00	0.85	
	Tertiary	1.34	0.77	

Since the main focus of this research is to explore the possibilities of using translation in language teaching, teachers in different teaching contexts were asked to indicate their use of a variety of activities that involve translation at some stage. According to the ANOVA variance analysis, the mean scores by teaching context of *translating longer passages both from and into L2* as well as *working with machine translated texts* were found to be statistically significant. In all these activities, *tertiary teachers are comparatively more negative* than the other two groups. The tendencies of tertiary level teachers to engage in *translation of longer passages from and into L2* are lower than both primary and secondary school teachers (F (2,69) = 4.1, p = 0.021 and F (2,69) = 3.76, p = 0.028). Likewise, tertiary teachers tend not to favor *working with machine translated texts*: their mean scores for this activity are found to be significantly low (F (2,69) = 3.49, p = 0.036).

*5.6.4. Correlations between teachers' reported use*

Apart from the correlations between the bio-data of the teachers and their beliefs, the correlations of their other reports with each other can also be explored. Since it would not be practical to search for the correlation between all reports, the ones that are likely to be associated are explored.

*5.6.4.1. Correlation between use of L1 and use of translation*

Discussions of the use of translation have always associated it with the use of L1 (see Chapter 3). Thus, the teachers participating in the online survey were asked to report their uses of both translation and L1. Figure 16 presents the correlation between positive reports about the use of L1 and use of translation in language teaching.

Figure 16. Teachers who selected *always* or *almost always* options for the use of L1: their frequency to use translation exercises in their language teaching classes, raw numbers
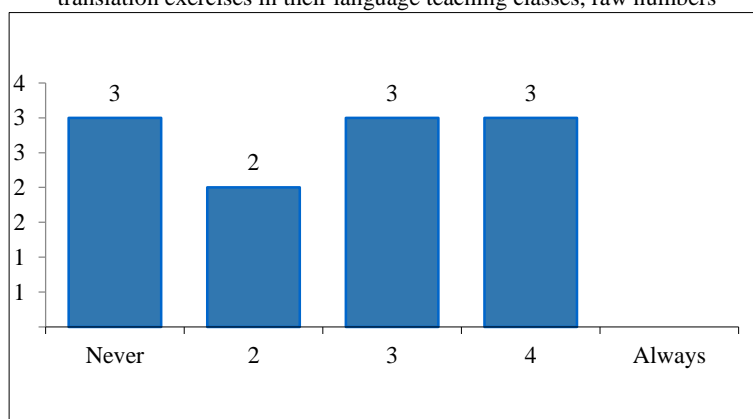
As shown in Figure 16, there were 12 teachers in total who selected *always* or *almost always* options for the use of Turkish. None of these teachers reported using translation in language teaching *always*. This is interesting because translation use is generally not preferred because it necessitates the use of L1. In this case, although these teachers do not have a negative stance about using L1, they are somewhat distant to the use of translation. Among these 12 teachers, there was one teacher who skipped the question. Of the remaining 11 teachers, two reported using it *rarely* while three teachers reported to be using it *never*, *occasionally* and *almost always*.

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Figure 17. Teachers who use translation *always* or *almost always*, by use of L1, raw numbers
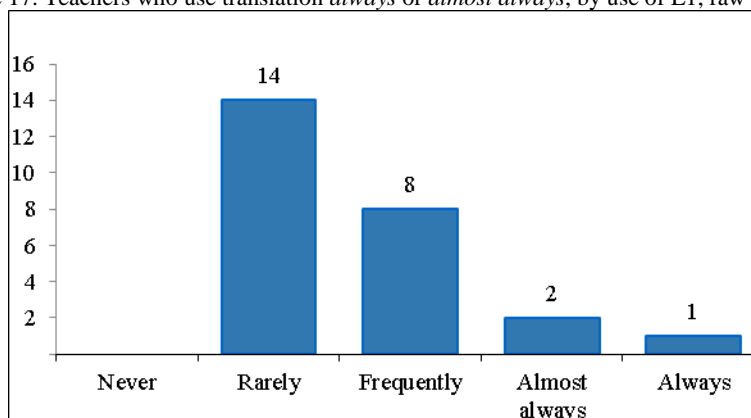
The data in Figure 17 show that there were 25 teachers in total who reported using translation in language teaching *always* or *almost always*. Figure 17 presents the L1 use frequency of these teachers. As is obvious in Figure 17, the option *never* was chosen by nobody. Although they reported using translation *always* or *almost always*, the majority of the teachers stated they *rarely* use L1 in their classes.

As can be observed, the reported use of L1 (Figure 16) is more limited than the reported use of translation (Figure 17). This limited use here is considered to be represented by the options *never* or *rarely* for both cases.

Figure 18. Teachers who use L1 *never* or *rarely*, by use of translation, raw numbers
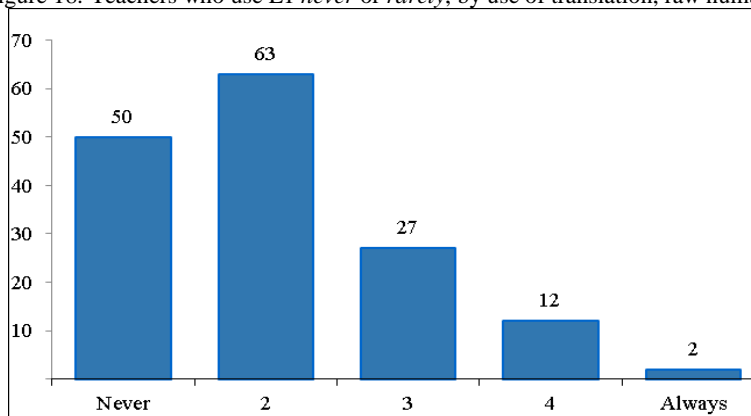
According to the data in Figure 18, there were 154 teachers in total who responded to the question about use of L1. Of these 157 teachers, three skipped the question about the use of translation. In the distribution of the remaining 154 teachers, the majority (63 teachers) selected the *rarely* option. The option *never* ranks second, with 50 teachers. Thus, the number of teachers with negative attitudes outnumbers the others. However, the sum of the number of teachers selecting *never* or *rarely* options is still less than the

sum of the teachers who selected *never* or *rarely* options for the use of L1. *Frequent* use of translation was reported by 17.53% of the teachers (27 teachers). There were 12 teachers who selected the *almost always* option and only two teachers who selected the *always* option.

Figure 19. Teachers who selected *never* or *rarely* options for the use of translation and their frequency to use L1 in their language teaching classes, as numbers of teachers
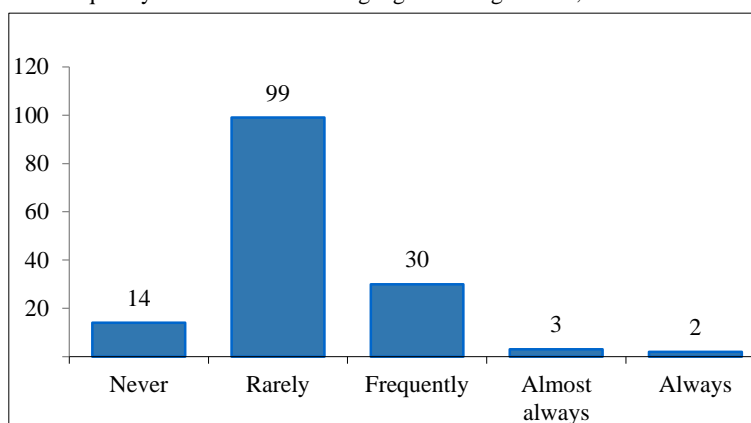

According to the results in Figure 19, there were 148 teachers who reported *never* or *rarely* using Turkish in their classes. Of these 148, those who also *rarely* used translation were in majority (66.89%, 99 teachers). The *never* option was selected by 9.46% of the teachers. Even though they allocated limited or no time to translation, 30 of the teachers reported *frequent* use of Turkish while three reported using it *almost always* and another three declared using it *always*.

5.6.4.2. Relations between the reasons given for 'never' or 'rarely' using L1 and translation in language learning

The teachers who selected *never* or *rarely* options for the use of Turkish or translation in language teaching were requested to respond to a follow-up question asking for their reasons. There were three reasons common to both: '*the curriculum forbids it*', '*it is not allowed by the institution*' or '*I think it is detrimental to language learning.*' Apart from these, the reasons given for use of translation included two more: '*I have never considered it seriously*' and '*I do not feel qualified enough to use translation.*' Of all these reasons, the one that was selected by the greatest number of participants in both cases was '*I think it is detrimental to language learning.*' This reason was given by 104 teachers who selected *never* or *rarely* options for the use of L1, and 47 teachers who selected *never* or *rarely* options for the use of translation. Since the use of L1 and use of translation in

language learning is assumed to be interrelated, we can ask whether the same reasons were given for both situations and by the same participants.

Figure 20. Reasons for the use of translation by those who selected
'*I think it is detrimental to language learning*' option for the use of L1, raw numbers of teachers
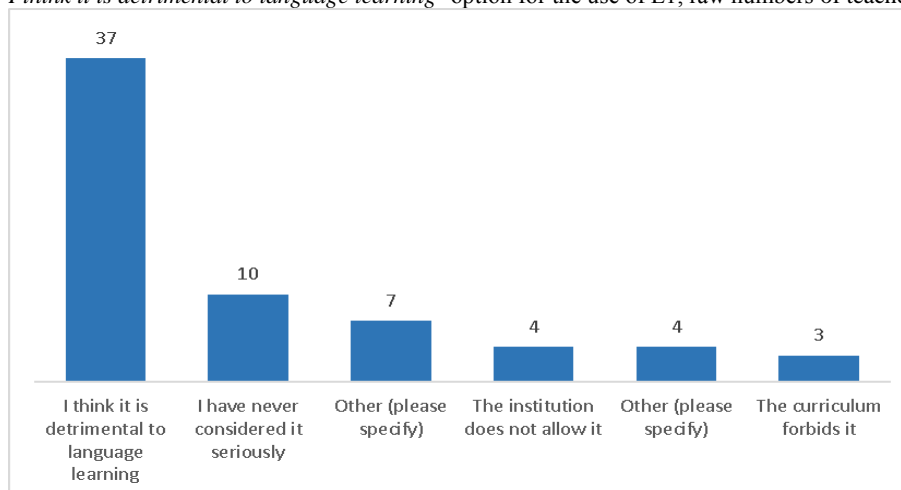
Although there were 104 teachers who selected '*I think it is detrimental to language learning'* option for *never* or *rarely* using L1, only 65 of them responded to the questions inquiring the reasons for *never* or rarely using translation. This question was skipped by 39 teachers. As can be seen in Figure 20, the great majority of these teachers (37) gave the same reason for avoiding translation. The second preferred response, '*I have not considered it seriously*', was not common to both. It was offered by ten of the teachers who reported to *never* or *rarely* use translation. There were other reasons given by seven people. Of these seven reasons, four actually mentioned the reasons listed such as '*curriculum restrictions*' or '*not seeing it as a natural way of learning a language.*' Nevertheless, the remaining three included some original reasons such as '*time constraints*', '*monolingual classes*' and '*different student goals.*' There were four people who put forward the '*institution prohibitions*' and their own '*lack of qualifications*' as a reason. The least selected option was related to the curriculum by only three participants.

Figure 21. Reasons given for use of L1 by those who selected '*I think it is detrimental to language learning*' for the use of translation in language learning, raw numbers of teachers
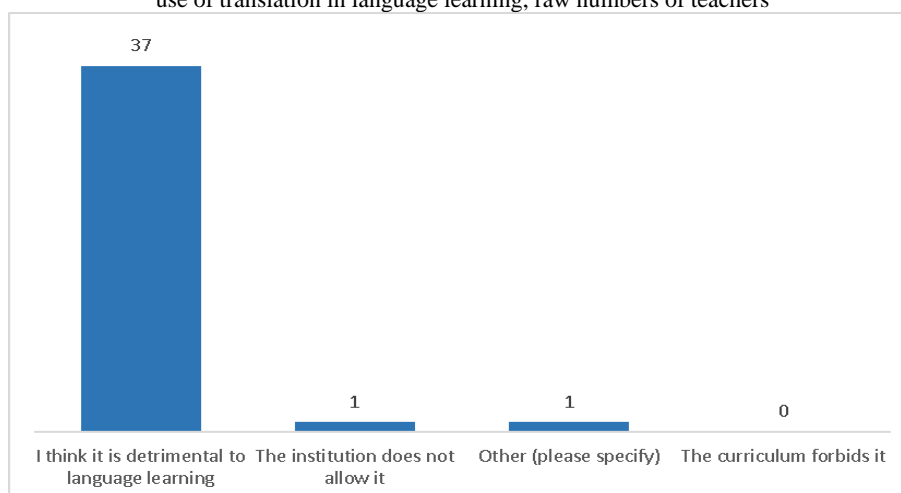
A similar relation would be expected between those who selected '*I think it is detrimental to language learning*' option for the use of translation and the distribution of the reasons given for *never* or *rarely* using L1 by the same participants. As is strikingly observed in Figure 21, almost all of these participants gave the same reason for both use of translation and use of L1. There were 37 teachers who found both L1 and translation '*detrimental to language learning*'. There was only one teacher who reported that '*it was not allowed by the institution*', another teacher who specified other reasons and one teacher who skipped the question. On the other hand, '*curriculum restriction*' was not offered as a reason by anyone.

As mentioned earlier, there were two different reasons included for using translation that were not listed for the use of L1. Thus, a comparison was made to reveal what the teachers who selected these two options for *never* or *rarely* using translation gave as a reason for *never* or *rarely* using Turkish.

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Figure 22. Reasons for the use of L1 by those who selected '*I have never considered it seriously*' for the use of translation, raw numbers of teachers
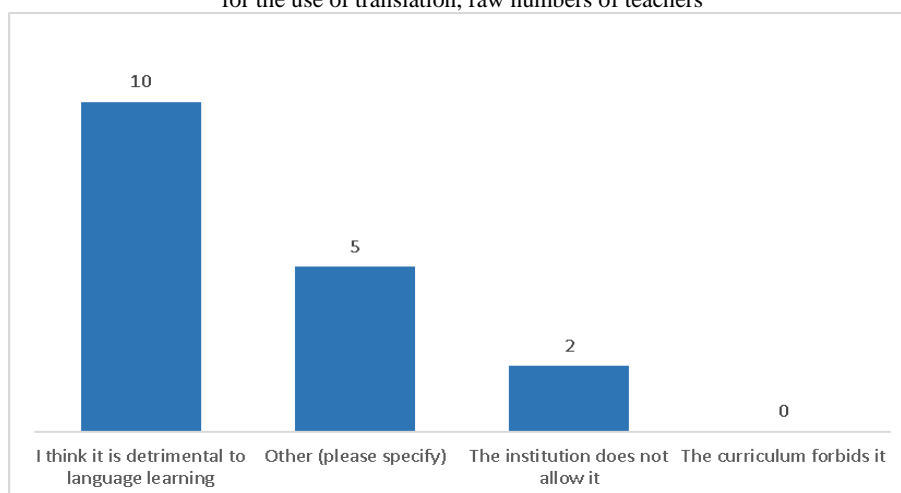
There were actually 27 teachers who chose '*I have never considered it seriously*' for the use of translation in language learning; however, ten of them skipped the question inquiring the reasons for the use of L1. Among this relatively small group of teachers, those who find it '*detrimental to language learning*' outnumber the others by ten, as can be seen in Figure 22. There are five teachers who gave some other reasons, while two teachers mentioned '*prohibitions by the institution*' as a reason. '*Curriculum restrictions*' were not mentioned as a reason at all.

The second reason that was *not* given for using Turkish but *was* included among the causes given for translation was '*not being qualified to use translation in language learning.*' It was not added to the list for the use of Turkish as it would not be meaningful for any language teachers to feel themselves unqualified to use their L1.

Figure 23. Reasons for the use of L1 by those who selected '*I do not feel qualified to use translation in my classes*' option for the use of translation, raw numbers of teachers
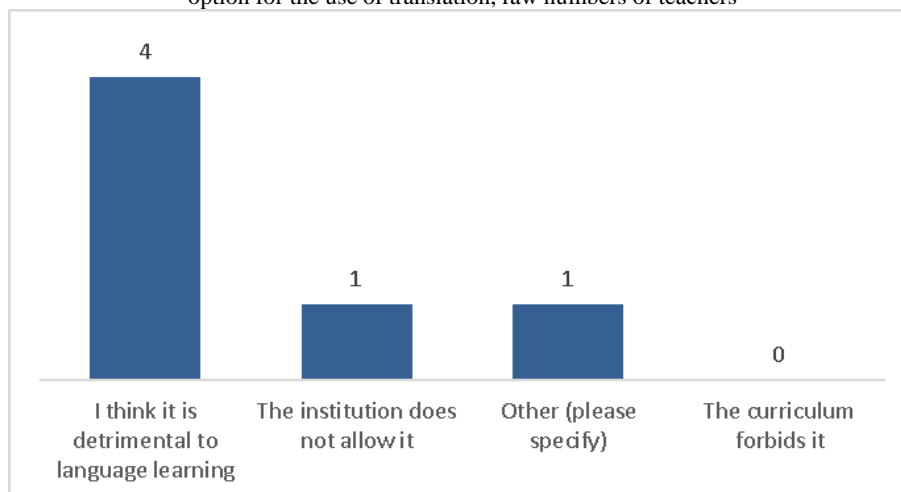
There were only eight teachers who '*do not feel themselves qualified for using translation*' and two of them skipped this question about L1 use, as illustrated in Figure 23. Similar to the results presented in the last two figures, '*curriculum restrictions*' was not a reason for this group of teachers either. '*Institutional prohibitions*' were mentioned as a reason by only one teacher, while there was also only one teacher who gave other reasons. '*Its being detrimental to language learning*' was selected as a reason by four of the teachers.

5.7. Comparison of the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers

The correlations between the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers were statistically analyzed and the results are shown in Table 30, Table 31 and Table 32. The online survey administered to the teacher participants was given to the student-teachers on paper. The answers to three questions by the different groups were compared.

5.7.1. Relations between the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers regarding language-teaching methods

The choice of the teaching method to be used is generally made by the teacher. However, it is obviously an issue for the learners, as well. If a learner benefits from the method used, the learning is more likely to end with success. In contrast, if the learners do not find a method conducive their learning, the teacher is likely to have made a wrong choice. Thus, teaching method is an issue that is expected to satisfy expectations on both sides. For this reason, a comparison of the beliefs of the teachers and the learners (to the extent that student-teachers are still learners) about the teaching methods can be enlightening.

Table 30. Beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers regarding language teaching methods

Method	Student-teachers		Teachers		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	p-value
Audio-Lingual Method	3.28	0.92	3.59	1.08	0.091
Audio-Visual Language Teaching	3.92	0.87	4.17	0.82	0.543
Bilingual Method	3.42	0.81	2.70	1.12	0.0002
Communicative Language Teaching	4.54	0.60	4.58	0.63	0.696
Direct Method	2.95	1.11	2.90	1.09	0.809
Grammar-Translation Method	1.93	1.10	2.24	1.10	0.099
Humanistic Language Teaching	3.69	0.89	3.88	0.87	0.276
Immersion	3.43	0.90	3.19	0.93	0.239
Suggestopedia	3.68	0.88	3.10	0.90	0.0005
Task-Based Language Teaching	3.92	0.93	4.18	0.84	0.087
Total Physical Response	4.51	0.56	3.45	1.01	0.000

Table 30 presents the beliefs of the teachers and the student-teachers regarding the teaching methods. The significance of the mean scores of the teachers and student-teachers regarding teaching methods was tested by an independent samples t-test. According to the results, the mean scores of the two groups showed significant variation in three methods: the student-teachers were more in favor of the *Bilingual Method* ($p = 0.0002$), *Suggestopedia* ($p = 0.0005$) and *Total Physical Response* ($p = 0.000$). Although these methods are quite dated, student-teachers could be in favor of these methods as they have been taught these in their courses. It also seems worthy of note that *Communicative Language Teaching* has the highest mean scores for both groups, while *Grammar-Translation Method* is the one with the lowest mean scores for both.

5.7.2. Correlation between the beliefs of the teachers and the student-teachers regarding the use of translation in language teaching

As the fundamental aim of this study is to track the use of translation in language teaching, a comparative analysis is expected to reveal more about the beliefs of the student-teachers and teachers regarding this issue.

Table 31. Beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers regarding the use of translation in language learning

Statement	Group	Mean	SD	p-value
1. Translation is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking).	Student-Teacher	3.44	1.12	0.670
	Teacher	3.35	1.31	
2. Translating brings the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together.	Student-Teacher	3.67	1.19	0.094
	Teacher	3.27	1.25	
3. Translating takes time away from more valuable learning activities.	Student-Teacher	3.07	1.14	0.190
	Teacher	2.91	1.24	
4. Translating is for professionals only.	Student-Teacher	2.63	1.05	0.450
	Teacher	2.81	1.30	
5. Translating does not allow the student to think in the new language.	Student-Teacher	2.14	1.21	0.0003
	Teacher	3.02	1.37	

As can be seen in Table 31, the views of the teachers and student-teachers coincide in the majority of the statements about translation. However, in the second and the third statements, student-teachers appear to be better disposed to translation, displaying significantly different mean scores – higher in statement 2 and lower in statement 3. That is, according to the t-test results, student-teachers may have a stronger belief in the capacity of translation to bring the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together, $p = 0.094$ (two-tailed), $p = 0.047$ (one-tailed). With stronger significance,

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student-teachers are comparatively less firm in their belief that translating prevents students from thinking in L2, $p = 0.0003$ (two-tailed).

5.7.3. Correlation between the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers regarding translation exercises

In addition to the comparison of the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers, the relation between the beliefs of these two groups about various translation activities can also give some idea about the role translation plays for them in their classes. Since student-teachers are the future teachers, the analysis is expected to reveal how similar their beliefs to those of the teachers'.

Table 32. Beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers regarding various exercises involving translation

Statement	Group	Mean	SD	p-value
Translating into L1 of individual sentences	Student-Teacher	2.95	1.19	0.274
	Teacher	2.72	0.94	
Translating into L2 of individual sentences	Student-Teacher	2.70	1.25	0.895
	Teacher	2.75	0.82	
Translating into L2 of longer passages	Student-Teacher	2.51	1.16	0.283
	Teacher	2.29	1.18	
Translating into L1 of longer passages	Student-Teacher	2.49	1.16	0.193
	Teacher	2.22	1.08	
Translation analysis/criticism/discussion	Student-Teacher	3.05	1.29	0.006
	Teacher	2.35	1.04	
Watching subtitled films	Student-Teacher	2.98	1.37	0.123
	Teacher	2.61	1.30	
Watching dubbed films	Student-Teacher	2.21	1.42	0.150
	Teacher	1.79	1.09	
Working with machine translated texts	Student-Teacher	1.88	1.10	0.026
	Teacher	1.47	0.80	

Table 32 includes eight examples of activities and exercises that involve translation. Independent sample t-tests indicate that the beliefs of the teachers and the student-teachers are not significantly different except for one activity. The mean scores of the student-teachers for *translation analysis, criticism and discussion* is found to be significantly higher than teachers' mean scores, $p = 0.006$ (two-tailed), and the student-teachers were significantly better disposed to using machine translation in class, $p = 0.026$ (two-tailed), albeit at a very low level of agreement (1.88, the lowest mean of all the student-teachers' responses).

Chapter 6. Discussion

The previous chapter presented the results of the Beliefs Inventory and survey, in addition to the results of the translation treatment carried out with learners. The present chapter discusses these results and reviews the hypotheses identified at the beginning of the study.

6.1. Hypothesis Testing

There were three hypothesis postulated at the outset of the study. In the following sub-sections, I test each hypothesis using the results presented in the previous chapter.

6.1.1. Hypothesis 1 (H₁): The beliefs of teachers, learners and student-teachers

H_1 posits that "*people involved in foreign-language teaching initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.*" It consists of three sub-hypotheses. Each of them is about the beliefs of one of the three agents involved in foreign-language teaching; each of them is discussed separately in the following sub-sections.

This hypothesis is based on assumptions about the prevalent negative attitude towards the use of translation in language learning. Associating translation quite often with the *Grammar-Translation Method*, teachers tend to feel they should avoid translation in any sense: as a method, as an activity, or as a means of scaffolding. Since the teachers and learners are the two main agents involved in language learning, their beliefs are assumed to be indicative of a certain common practice. In other words, if they do not hold positive beliefs towards translation, they are not likely to use it while learning or teaching and translation will not frequently find a place in language learning or teaching. In addition, since teachers tend to guide learners throughout their learning journey, their suggestions may sound imperative. To put it differently, if teachers tend to avoid translation and prescribe this to their learners, the learners are likely to develop negative beliefs towards it. Therefore, the beliefs of these two agents are expected to correlate. Student-teachers, meanwhile, are a group bearing the features of both learners and teachers. Thus, their beliefs are expected to correlate with those of the learners and teachers.

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In the following sub-sections, the statistical data pertaining to the beliefs of each group are discussed with reference to the relevant sub-hypothesis.

6.1.1.1. The beliefs of the learners

Learners' beliefs were tested via the Beliefs Inventory they completed. Sub-hypothesis 1 (H_1-SH_1) posits that "*learners initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.*" As shown in Table 15 in Section 5.5, the mean is 3.644 for learners. Since the scale involves values ranging from 1 '*completely disagree*' to 5 '*completely agree*', the mean is above the mid-point. Therefore, learners as a whole stand as a point closer to *agreement*.

The beliefs that learners agree with the most, according to the mean scores, are items 26, 16 and 25, in order of strength of agreement. The strongest belief is about the difficulty of vocabulary in translation, with a mean score of 4.333. Learners seem to agree that they have difficulty in finding the most appropriate equivalent for a word or expression while translating. Following this, learners believe that background knowledge plays an important role while translating. The mean score for this item is 4.300, which is also very close to the '*completely agree*' level. The item that ranks third in the list according to the mean score of the item is about the need learners feel for translation in preparing assignments, writing thesis and giving presentations. Learners show their agreement to the given belief about the need for translation with the mean score 4.267, which is slightly above '*agree*' level.

As a general conclusion to this hypothesis, it can be assumed that the learner participants in this study generally *agree* that *translation can be used in language learning*. Thus, the result does *not* confirm the hypothesis positing that the learners disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

These results are surprising, since translation does not seem to be a common practice in language learning in the given context. None of the previous syllabi prepared for the courses at İzmir University contained translation activities. There were no projects that included translation work, either. However, learners seemed willing to have it more often, since they generally did not hold negative beliefs towards it. It should also be kept in mind that these results are based on the *first administration* of the Beliefs Inventory. Therefore, learners may have reported agreement on the grounds that they were not well informed about the translation technique. Nevertheless, it might be considered an advantage to discover that learners start with relatively positive beliefs.

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It is common among the colleagues I work with to discourage learners from translating. This result shows that, although learners are frequently warned against translation while learning a language, it seems that they do use it or are open to using it. Enabling them to realize the communicative use of translation as technique in teaching, informing them about the alternative uses of translation, and encouraging them to get involved in a variety of new translation tasks, activities or even projects are measures likely to help them maintain and even strengthen their beliefs about the usefulness of translation.

6.1.1.2. The beliefs of the teachers

The data with respect to the beliefs of the teachers were gathered via the online survey. They were used to test sub-hypothesis 2 (H_1-SH_2), "*Teachers initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.*" The relevant results are presented in Section 5.6. Complementary findings about the beliefs of the teachers are given in Section 6.2.3.

The responses to two questions are mainly used to test the hypothesis: "*To what extent do you agree with the given statements (about using translation in language learning)?*" and "*Do you use translation in language teaching?*.

The main purpose of the first question was to find out the teachers' beliefs about the specific role of translation in language learning. The roles indicated in the statements are the ones that are often postulated in the literature about translation and language learning. The results showing the numbers of teachers selecting one of the five options for each statement are provided in Figure 5 in Section 5.6.2.4. For the first two statements, teachers are assumed to hold negative beliefs towards translation if they selected '*disagree*' or '*strongly disagree*' options. For the remaining three statements, negative beliefs are assumed to be represented by the '*agree*' or '*strongly agree*' options as the sentences are either grammatically negative or suggest a negative belief about translation.

The first two statements concern translation as a skill. The first one presents translation as "the fifth language skill", while the second posits that translation "brings all language skills together". For the first statement the number of the teachers who '*agree*' or '*completely agree*' (109) is higher than the sum of those who '*disagree*' or '*completely disagree*' (65). The third statement posits that "translating is not a useful classroom activity". For this item 90 teachers selected the '*disagree*' or '*completely disagree*' alternative, which shows that they do believe in the usefulness of translation in the classroom. On the other hand, 78 teachers selected the '*agree*' or '*completely agree*'

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alternative which shows that they *agree* with the given statement. Thus, the number of teachers who believe in the uses of translation is higher than those who do not. The fourth statement presents translation as "an activity that can be done by professionals only". The fact that 99 teachers '*disagree*' or '*completely disagree*' with this belief shows that these teachers believe translation has a place in the classroom. Fewer teachers (73 in all) believe that translation can be done by professionals only. The last statement highlights that "translation prevents the learners from thinking in L2". The number of the teachers who *agree* with this statement is more than those who *do not agree*; thus, teachers are *more likely* to believe that translation has an adverse effect encouraging the learners to think in L2.

The number of teachers showing disagreement was fewer than the half of the whole teacher participants for four of the five statements, which means teachers believe in the uses of translation in the classroom. Thus, on the level of abstract beliefs, *the hypothesis is refuted*, as teachers generally *tend to agree* with the use of translation in language learning.

As the statements highlight some of the specific roles translation can play in language learning, they are also assumed to provide indirect information on the use of translation in language learning. Thus, these figures can be interpreted as the tendency of the teachers to agree that translation is a useful classroom activity. As mentioned earlier, beliefs are assumed to direct the choices made during practice. Therefore, to find out more about their beliefs and to ground the reported beliefs, the teachers were directly asked if they use translation in language teaching, which is the other question that tests the hypothesis.

As responses to the questions, teachers were asked to make a choice among five frequency bands, ranging from '*never*' to '*always*'. The teachers' choices are shown in Figure 6 in 5.6.2.5. According to the results, the teachers who report '*never*' or '*rarely*' using translation outnumber the others. Thus, the tendency of the teachers to use translation in their classes does not seem to support their beliefs mentioned above. However, the results tend to confirm the hypothesis that teachers *disagree* with the use of translation in language teaching.

As a general conclusion about this hypothesis, the two questions give contradictory results. Therefore, it can be assumed that teachers agree that translation can be used in language learning *on the level of abstract beliefs* but they tend not to include any

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translation exercises, tasks, activities or projects *in the lessons they plan*. Given these results, this sub-hypothesis is only partially confirmed.

Although the direct question on teachers' preference to use translation in language teaching overtly shows their tendency, some other questions on related issues provide additional information to complement the given results. These additional findings on the teacher beliefs about the uses of L1 and translation are discussed in Section 6.2.

6.1.1.3. The beliefs of the student-teachers

Student-teachers are the third group involved in this study. They provided information about their beliefs via the same beliefs inventory completed by the learners and thereby also enable comparison of the results with the learner group. They also enabled comparison with the teacher participants by completing the printed version of the online survey for teachers.

To test the translation beliefs of the student-teachers, the data from the Beliefs Inventories was first used. This tests sub-hypothesis 3 (H_1-SH_3), which posits that "*student-teachers disagree with the use of translation in language learning*". As shown in Table 15 in 5.5, the mean is 3.555 for student-teachers, on a scale ranging from 1 '*completely disagree*' to 5 '*completely agree*'. Considering these values, the mean is above the mid-point. Therefore, on average, student-teachers stand as a point closer to agreement than disagreement.

When the items that student-teachers believe in the most are considered, item 12 is the top belief among all with the mean score 4.750. Student-teachers believe that translation activities have a positive effect on their vocabulary knowledge. The second item, with a mean score of 4.656, is item 13, which states that translation activities have positive effect on the grammar knowledge. There are two items with the same exact value that rank third: item ten and item seventeen with the exact mean score 4.313. Item ten posits that the translation assignments, tasks or projects affect the language learning process positively, while item seventeen posits that the long and complex sentences are the most difficult things in translation.

In a general sense, student-teachers thus tend to agree that translation can be used in language learning and teaching. The statistical data do not provide enough evidence to confirm the hypothesis positing that student-teachers disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

The student-teachers were expected to disagree with the use of translation in language teaching. However, their beliefs seem to be like the learners', albeit with a slightly lower mean value. Thus their student identity may have dominated their prospective teacher identity, although they were expected to be teachers in one year's time.

It is also noteworthy that three of the items that student teachers agree the most on are also the items that learners' and student-teachers' beliefs differ significantly about. The beliefs of the learners and the student-teachers shows a significant difference in the beliefs on the effect of translation on grammar knowledge, the contribution of the translation activities on their language learning and the long and complex sentences being the most difficult thing in translation. Thus, although the learners and student-teachers both tend to agree with the beliefs, the items that they *most* agree with differ.

6.1.1.4. Summary of the hypothesis testing for H_1

Looking at the analysis of the data acquired from the Beliefs Inventories for learners and student-teachers on the one hand, and from the online survey for teachers on the other, it can be concluded that H_1 is partly refuted. Since the use of translation in language learning is not common in the Turkish context, I assumed that this was because the agents involved in the learning and teaching process did not believe that translation was a useful activity. However, the results of the learner and student-teacher analysis have proved my assumption to be wrong. It seems that learners and student-teachers agree that translation can be used in language learning. However, the analysis of the online survey for teachers partly indicates the opposite, providing evidence to confirm H_1. Teachers involved in the research tend to agree that translation can be used in language teaching but they report that they mostly do *not* use it. Thus, the three agents involved in the research did not agree in their beliefs about using translation in language learning and teaching. While formulating the hypothesis, I assumed that the beliefs of the learners would be influenced by the beliefs of the teachers; however, the results show that this does not apply to their beliefs about translation.

As a final remark about H_1, I note that the numbers of the learner and student-teacher groups are smaller than the teacher group. There are 32 learners and exactly the same number of student-teachers involved in the research. However, there are 244 teachers in total who responded to the online survey. In addition, while both the learner and the student-teacher groups are all from the same context, the teachers are from many

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different contexts. Thus, the larger sample size and the contextual factors may have affected the consistency between the beliefs of the teachers and other two groups of participants: the learners and student-teachers. To overcome this, I can focus only on the tertiary teachers as they are the largest group, with 176 teachers included, among the given teaching contexts. However, the results in Table 27 in Section 5.6.3.7 show that the majority of the tertiary level teachers also report that they do '*never*' or '*rarely*' use translation in their classes. Thus, the reported use of translation by the tertiary level teachers is in conformity with the whole teacher participant group.

The reported (non-)use of translation by the Turkish teachers of English supports the findings of Asgarian (2013), which found that Iranian teachers tend to avoid translation as a strategy in language learning. On the other hand, the beliefs of the Turkish *learners* of English support Karimian and Talebinejed (2013), who found that translation is widely used by Iranian language learners. Likewise, the beliefs of the Turkish learners of English are also inconformity with the findings of Liao (2006), who found that translation affects the language learning of the Taiwanese college students positively. There is one study conducted in Turkey by Pekkanli (2012), which identified the perceptions of trainee teachers in Turkey about translation in language learning and found that translation activities contribute to the other teaching activities. In addition, the findings of this study about the beliefs of the student-teachers are in consistency with the findings of the study by Aktekin and Uysal (2015) which explored the beliefs of the students at the English Language Teaching (ELT) department about translation and found that students believed in the assisting role translation plays in language learning.

The data acquired from these three sources provide some additional findings worth mentioning. These findings will be discussed in Section 6.2.

6.1.2. Hypothesis 2 (H₂): Change in the beliefs of learners after treatment

H_2 posits that "*the beliefs of learners are more positive towards translation following the use of translation activities in class*". Since this hypothesis focuses on the expected change after treatment, the results of only the experiment group learners are taken into account. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that learners tend to disagree or agree to a certain extent with the use of translation in language teaching at the beginning of the module but as they become familiar with translation through various exercises, tasks, activities and projects during the module, their beliefs tend to change in a positive

direction. However, statistical analysis of the pre-test and post-test beliefs inventory scores of the experiment group does not confirm this hypothesis. As shown in Table 5 in Section 5.3.1, there was no significant difference between the control and experiment groups' mean scores in the pre-tests and post-tests.

Despite the statistically insignificant results between the pre-test and post-test scores, there are four items that show a significant change. Three of these four items are in the beliefs of the experiment group: 1) the beliefs of the learners about the translation being a communicative activity seem to have changed *positively* after the eight-week treatment; 2) the experiment-group learners also changed their beliefs about the usefulness of a course on translation techniques p*ositively*; and 3) the beliefs of the learners in translation being a skill that can improve naturally when they learn a language changed *negatively*.

These results seem to indicate that the eight-week translation treatment did *not* have a significant impact on the beliefs of the learners. As mentioned in Section 6.1.1.1, the pre-test Beliefs Inventory mean scores of the learners indicate that they already agreed that translation could be used in language learning. This assumption is grounded on the fact that the mean value of the learners' responses to the initial administration of the Beliefs Inventory was above the mid-point. They were expected to strengthen their beliefs after the eight-week exposure to translation. However, the post-test mean scores did not differ significantly, although there is a slight change towards more agreement. There may be several reasons for the lack of change in beliefs.

There must obviously be some doubt as to whether the learners understood the questions correctly or whether they thought their answers were all expected to run in the same direction in the pre-tests and post-tests.

The non-significant result might also be because the learners did not benefit from translation exercises, activities, tasks or projects as much as envisaged, so the activities only maintained their respective beliefs instead of strengthening them.

It is surprising that there was also an increase in the overall mean score of the control group, as they had not gained familiarity with translation activities. This increase may have resulted from interaction between the two groups. The students do talk to each other about what they do in class and the control-group learners may have been influenced by what they heard from experiment-group learners. Looking at the results, it is observed that the pre-test mean of the control group is higher than the experiment group. In other words, control-group learners already started with more positive beliefs about translation

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at the initial stage of the experiment, and a similar tendency prevailed afterwards. As they did not make an equal start, the mean value for the experiment group did not catch up with the control group mean value, even despite their slight increase.

The experiment-group learners may not have manifested the expected change in eight weeks because the time period may not be enough to make a change in an established belief. With a longer period of time allocated for the treatment, the experiment group learners may have shown a statistically significant change. The slight increase can be interpreted as a positive tendency towards this.

The number of the participants might also explain the results. With a larger group of participants and with a longer period of time, the experiment group might have caught up with the control group and manifested a significant change in their beliefs as a result of the treatment.

Given these results, it cannot be said that there is a significant change in the beliefs of the learners in a positive direction. Therefore, the results do not provide enough evidence to confirm the second hypothesis.

The previous studies mentioned in Section 3.1 do not include any research that focuses on the change in beliefs of the learners as a result of treatment. However, as mentioned in Section 6.1.1.4, the beliefs of the Iranian and Taiwanese learners about translation use in language learning were also positive and are in conformity with the findings of this study.

6.1.3. Hypothesis 3 (H_3): The effect of translation on language learning

H_3 postulates that "*translation is a technique that improves the writing and speaking performances of language learners*". Writing and speaking are the traditional productive skills in FLT. The writing and speaking exam scores of the learners are assumed to be the indicators of their success at the given skills. The pre-test scores represent the first exam they take at the very beginning of the module before treatment, and the post-test scores represent the final exam they take when they complete the module. The effect of translation on the writing and speaking performances of the learners is tested by two sub-hypotheses, so the results pertaining to the effect of translation on each skill are discussed separately in the following sub-sections.

6.1.3.1. The effect of translation on writing

The first sub-hypothesis (H_3-SH_1) posits that "*translation is a technique that improves the writing performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do*". To test this, the pre-test and post-test writing scores of the learners were analyzed. Given the results in Table 1 in Section 5.1.1, translation was found to have a significant effect on the writing performances of learners in L2 $F(1,30) = 13.65$, $p = 0.001$. Since a similar increase is not observed in the writing scores of the control group learners, translation exercises, tasks and activities are assumed to be beneficial for improving the English-language writing skills of Turkish learners. This positive effect of translation on the writing skills of the learners cannot be due to different hours of writing activities done as both groups spent equal amount of time on writing activities. The hours allocated for writing and speaking activities with or without translation in both groups are presented in Section 6.1.3.2.

Although it is a common belief among teachers that *translation is detrimental to language learning* (see Section 5.6.4.2), the results indicate their beliefs may not always apply in practice. Thus, a change in perspective, freeing minds from the traditional uses of translation, can provide learners with more creative uses of translation and support

6.1.3.2. The effect of translation on speaking

The effect of translation on the speaking performances of the learners was tested by sub-hypothesis 2 (H_3-SH_2), which postulates that "*translation is a technique that improves the speaking performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do*". The effect of the translation treatment on the speaking performances of the learners was also tested by comparison of the pre-test and post-test speaking scores of the learners. Like the writing exams, the speaking exams were administered twice: at the beginning and at the end of the module, which enabled comparison of the data. According to the results presented in Figure 2 in Section 5.1.2, translation was not found to have a significant effect on the speaking performances of the experiment group. At the beginning of the treatment, the control and experiment groups were at almost the same level in speaking, with the mean scores being 11.12 for the former and 11.13 for the latter. As shown in Figure 2, there was a slight improvement in the speaking performance of the control-group learners, with the mean score reaching 11.41, while there was a decrease in the speaking scores of the experiment group, with the mean score falling to 9.4. However, this decrease was not statistically significant, $F(1,30) = 13.65$, $p = 0.094$.

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As a general conclusion for H_3-SH_2, it may be suggested that translation had an adverse effect on the spoken performances of the learners, although this effect was not statistically significant. The learners who engaged with translation intensely for eight weeks may have developed a tendency to translate mentally, which could have impeded their fluency. Alternately, since the exercises, tasks, activities and projects designed and implemented mainly concerned written translation, with only a few oral translation activities, the effect of translation on spoken performance could have been minimized. To consider this second alternative, the time allocated for speaking and writing activities in each group should be considered. Table 33 presents the time allocated for translation activities in the experiment group.

Table 33. Total amount of time spent on speaking and writing activities including translation with the experiment-group

Week	Name of the exercise/task/activity/project	In-class/ Take-home	The technique used	The skill aimed to be improved	Time spent (minutes)
Week 1	Role-play 1 Liaison interpreting	In-class	Task	Speaking	30 min.
	Proofreading and editing	In-class	Activity	Writing	30 min.
	Working on collocations	In-class	Activity	Writing	30 min.
Week 2	Transformations	In-class	Activity	Speaking	50 min.
	Bitstrips comic translations	Take-home	Project	Writing	10 min. x 10 days
	Keep talking and translating	Take-home In-class	Activity	Writing	30 min. take-home 50 min. in-class
Week 3	Role-play 2	In-class	Activity	Speaking	30 min.
	Sentence Translation 1	In-class	Exercise	Writing	15 min.
Week 4	Back-translation 1	In-class	Activity	Speaking	15 min.
	Sentence Translation 2	In-class	Exercise	Writing	15 min.
Week 5	Text Translation 1	In-class	Exercise	Writing	20 min.
	Role-play 3	In-class	Activity	Speaking	30 min.
	Blipfoto Photo Journal	Take-home	Project	Writing	15 min. x 10 days
Week 6	Text Translation 2	In-class	Exercise	Writing	20 min.
	Writing Circle 1	In-class	Activity	Writing	50 min.
Week 7	Role-play 4	In-class	Activity	Speaking	30 min.
	Subtitles in context	Take-home	Project	Writing	120 min.
Week 8	Writing Circle 2	In-class	Activity	Writing	50 min.
	Back-translation 2	In-class	Activity	Speaking	15 min.
	Text Translation 3	In-class	Exercise	Writing	20 min.

As can be seen in Table 33, the total amount of time spent on *speaking activities including translation* is 200 minutes, whereas the total amount of time spent on *writing activities including translation* is 700 minutes.

Table 34 presents the activities done with the control group in place of the translation activities done with the experiment group. The *same* amount of time is allocated for each activity that replaces the activity done with the experiment group. The name of some activities and projects are the same in both tables; however, the procedure did not involve translation for the control group. Some steps were the same as the activity designed for the experiment group and the given activity aimed to improve the same skill with no translation work for the control group. For instance, both groups did the *Blipfoto*

Photo Project. Yet the experiment group wrote the English description of the photo along with its Turkish translation, while the control group learners added only a paragraph of English description. Similarly, role-plays were designed with no role assigned to the translator in the control group. Sentence translation exercises and text translation activities done with the experiment groups were replaced with rewriting in the control group. Oral back-translating activity was replaced with oral restatement activity; thus, in both cases it was aimed to improve the speaking skill of the learners. Table 34 presents the time allocated for activities in the control group while the experiment group learners were engaged with translation activities.

Table 34. Total amount of time spent on speaking and writing activities without any translation work with the control-group

Week	Name of the exercise/task/activity/project	In-class/ Take-home	The technique used	The skill aimed to be improved	Time spent (minutes)
Week 1	Role-play 1	In-class	Task	Speaking	30 min.
	Gap-filling to rewrite a text	In-class	Activity	Writing	30 min.
	Working on collocations	In-class	Activity	Writing	30 min.
Week 2	Transformations	In-class	Activity	Speaking	50 min.
	Bitstrips comic transformations	Take-home	Project	Writing	10 min x 10 days
	Paragraph Writing	Take-home In-class	Activity	Writing	30 min. take-home 50 min. in-class
Week 3	Role-play 2	In-class	Activity	Speaking	30 min.
	Sentence Rewriting 1	In-class	Exercise	Writing	15 min.
Week 4	Restatements 1	In-class	Activity	Speaking	15 min.
	Sentence Rewriting 2	In-class	Exercise	Writing	15 min.
Week 5	Text Rewriting 1	In-class	Exercise	Writing	20 min.
	Role-play 3	In-class	Activity	Speaking	30 min.
	Blipfoto Photo Journal	Take-home	Project	Writing	15 min. x 10 days
Week 6	Text Rewriting 2	In-class	Exercise	Writing	20 min.
	Writing and Summarizing 1	In-class	Activity	Writing	50 min.
Week 7	Role-play 4	In-class	Activity	Speaking	30 min.
	Subtitles in context	Take-home	Project	Writing	120 min.
Week 8	Writing and Summarizing 2	In-class	Activity	Writing	50 min.
	Restatements 2	In-class	Activity	Speaking	15 min.
	Text Rewriting 3	In-class	Exercise	Writing	20 min.

The total amount of time spent on *speaking activities without any translation work* is 200 minutes, whereas the total amount of time spent on *writing activities without any translation work is* 700 minutes. That is, the time spent on written activities was exactly the same in both the control and experiment groups.

Table 35 presents the speaking and writing activities done with both groups within the framework of the course book *Speak Out*. The activities are in the course book units. The time allocated for each activity was determined as a standard for all intermediate module classes at İzmir University while preparing the course syllabus.

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Table 35. Total amount of time spent on the same in-class speaking and writing activities without any translation work with both control- and experiment-groups

Week	Name of the exercise/activity/task/project	The skill aimed to be improved	Time spent (minutes)
Week 1	Class discussion about difference between men and women	Speaking	50 min.
	Writing an e-mail to learn to use formal and informal styles	Writing	30 min.
	Class discussion about life experiences	Speaking	30 min.
Week 2	Pair-work to talk about an important news-story	Speaking	20 min.
	Writing a short newspaper article	Writing	30 min.
	Group discussion about how things will change in the future	Speaking	30 min.
Week 3	Group discussion about communication preferences	Speaking	30 min.
	Class discussion about past habits	Speaking	50 min.
	Pair-work to talk about a day in your life	Speaking	20 min.
	Writing about daily routines	Writing	30 min.
Week 4	Writing a process paragraph	Writing	50 min.
	Delivering presentation of the Reading Circle group-work	Speaking	50 min.
	Class discussion about different types of transport	Speaking	50 min.
	Pair-work to present and describe a new machine	Speaking	20 min.
Week 5	Writing a process paragraph (Process Writing 2nd draft)	Writing	50 min.
	Class discussion about your emotions	Speaking	20 min.
	Role-play: giving someone news	Speaking	30 min.
	Writing about one of your happiest moments	Writing	30 min.
	Class discussion about how people can be successful	Speaking	50 min.
Week 6	Writing an opinion paragraph (Process Writing 1st draft)	Writing	50 min.
	Pair-work to describe your neighborhood	Speaking	20 min.
	Class discussion about problematic social situations	Speaking	50 min.
Week 7	Writing an opinion paragraph (Process Writing 2nd draft)	Writing	50 min.
	Group discussion about a big moment in history	Speaking	30 min.
	Pair work to talk about your personal history	Speaking	20 min.
	Class discussion about people who influenced you	Speaking	50 min.
Week 8	Class discussion about environmental issues and solutions	Speaking	50 min.
	Role-play: asking for and giving travel advice	Speaking	20 min.
	Class discussion about a special or endangered place	Speaking	50 min.

The total amount of time spent on *speaking through the same activities in both groups* is 740 minutes, while the total amount of time spent on *writing through the same activities in both groups* is 320 minutes.

Given that the time allocated for writing and speaking activities with our without translation in both experiment and control groups is the same, it can be concluded that the improvement in the writing scores of the experiment group learners is *not* due to their doing more writing.

It should also be noted that control group did not show much increase in their scores (see Table 1 in Section 5.1.1) as the increase in the writing scores of the control group was not statistically significant, $F(1,30) = 13.65$, $p = 0.446$. This lack of improvement can be attributed to the difficulty Turkish learners of English tend to have in speaking English. They tend to improve their speaking at a slower pace than the other skills.

In addition to these interpretations, it does not really seem possible to say that the possible fall in the speaking grades of the experiment group learners was solely due to translation. They may have found the exam difficult or they could have been nervous during the exam. It is often observed that even a remarkably successful student can perform poorly because of anxiety. Individual differences between the teachers in scoring could have also been effective. Although both groups of learners were assessed and

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graded on the basis of the same assessment criteria, the interviewers and the assessors for both groups were not the same. This was so because the exam was administered at the same hour within the same time slot. In any case, the suggested decline in speaking performance was not statistically significant.

6.1.3.3. Summary of the hypothesis testing for H_3

Given the results, H_3-SH_1 which postulates that *translation is a technique that improves the writing performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do* is confirmed, while H_3-SH_2 which postulates that "*translation is a technique that improves the speaking performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do*" is not confirmed. Thus, it can be concluded that H_3 is only partially confirmed, since there is a significant increase in the performance of the learners at one of the skills (writing) while there is a decrease in the other (speaking). According to the findings, translation seems to have had a positive impact on the writing performances of the learners, but might have influenced their spoken performance negatively. However, since this decrease is not significant, it may simply be due to chance. The time allocated for speaking practice (see Table 33) during the module may not be sufficient for the learners to make enough progress.

Although reading is the skill that has received the most attention in the previous research on the effect of translation on other skills (Hosseini-Maasoum and Mahdiyan 2012; Boshrabadi 2014), there are some studies on the effect of translation on the writing skills of learners. The findings of this study support Kim (2011), who found out that translation affects the writing skills of the learners positively. However, it is important to note that Kim did not use any quantitative methods in his study. His findings were based on the positive remarks of the learners about their translation experience. I have found no research on the effect of translation on the speaking skills of the learners.

6.2. Complementary findings

Some of the data obtained and presented in the Results chapter do not provide substantial information for the discussion of the main hypothesis; however, they do offer some findings that complement the main discussion. These findings are discussed in the following sub-sections.

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6.2.1. Gender and the Beliefs Inventory for learners

Within the additional findings, the relation between gender and beliefs can be discussed. Even though there is no statistically significant difference observed in their beliefs about translation, the male participants tended to display higher mean scores than the females did. Considering the cultural factors, it might be that male participants tend to express their feelings, opinions and beliefs more than female participants. Being influenced by Eastern culture, the female learners may have felt rather reserved in expressing themselves openly. However, further data would be needed to support this supposition.

6.2.2. The beliefs of student-teachers as indicators of possible change

Student-teachers were included in this study to provide data that would give an additional perspective on the issue. Their dual characters as future teachers and present learners were expected to provide interesting findings. The results show that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the learners and the student-teachers in the beliefs inventory. Given this result, it might be supposed that the student-teachers were still influenced by their learner character. Thus, both learners and student-teachers tended to agree with the use of translation in language learning, with their mean scores being above the mid-point. However, the mean score of the student-teachers is slightly lower than the mean score of the teachers (see Table 31 in Section 5.7.2), which may be interpreted as a tendency for change towards disagreement, which would bring them *closer* to the teachers. In other words, as student-teachers become closer to their teacher characters, their beliefs may also change in the same direction and become more negative towards translation in language learning. However, a longer and more detailed study would be needed to confirm this.

It is also possible to interpret the difference between the beliefs of the student-teachers and teachers from the perspective of the social change. The young may be more in favor of translation because there is a social change underway. However, one would a need to repeat the study after five years or so to see whether the student-teachers still maintain their positive views when they become teachers.

6.2.3. The Online Survey for teachers

In addition to testing the hypothesis about the beliefs of the teachers, the online survey also provided additional data on how teachers in turkey approach translation in language teaching.

6.2.3.1. Relations between avoidance of L1 and avoidance of translation

The teachers' tendency to use L1 and translation in language teaching is assumed to be interrelated, as translation is often associated with the use of L1, both in the literature and in practice. The analysis of whether teachers use L1 while teaching a foreign-language shows that the most frequently selected option is '*rarely*'. Similarly, among the responses to the question asking whether teachers use translation, '*rarely*' was the most frequently selected option. Teachers report that they prefer to abstain from both L1 and translation in language teaching, restricting their use to rare occasions. This similarity supports the association of translation with L1 use. Although teachers abstain from the use of both L1 and translation, according to the results presented in Section 5.6.4.1, the reported use of L1 (Figure 16) is more limited than the reported use of translation (Figure 17). This difference may be due to the fact that L1 can be used for other reasons in the classroom such as greeting, giving instructions and explanations. Even when the teachers explain the lesson in L2, they may still greet their students in L1. Likewise, they may explain how they are going to do an activity in L1 even though they ask their students to use L2 while doing the activity.

If they reported '*rarely*' or '*never*' using L1 or translation, the teachers were asked to state their reasons. Surprisingly, among the reasons listed, "*because it is detrimental to language learning*" ranks first for both cases, which could be taken as further evidence of the association of L1 and translation. Although there are two more reasons listed for translation avoidance and which were *not* provided as a reason for L1 avoidance, the detrimental impact is still the most preferred one. Teachers seem to associate L1 use and translation so closely that for most of them translation may be restricted to using L1 mainly for scaffolding purposes. In other words, for them the main reason why teachers resort to translation could be to help learners when they have difficulty grasping the meaning of a word or expression in L2 or achieving full comprehension when their teacher communicates in L2. Yet the use of translation need not be restricted to such purposes. Teachers may be uninformed about alternative uses of translation as a task or

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activity, or if they *are* informed they may still believe that it is not a useful task or activity for the classroom.

For the avoidance of translation, the second preferred reason is "*I have never considered it seriously*", which suggests that translation is not even an issue of concern for some language teachers. Although there is a considerable amount of research being done these days exploring and discussing how to make the most of translation in language teaching, teachers seem to be uninterested in it.

"*Institutional restriction*" is the third reason given for both L1 and translation avoidance, which is a sign that institutions do have policies regarding these. This reminds one of the Berlitz school rules prescribing complete dependence on L2 (Cook 2010). The institutions may be using this as a marketing policy in the belief that they attract more learners if they highlight their L2-dominant classes. Having native-speaker teachers may also be a part of this vision. However, it is widely accepted today that native-like speaking is not a current expectation in most contexts. The majority of speakers communicating in English use it as their second language (Kerr 2014). Thus, the policy need not make much sense these days.

There were some interesting reasons mentioned by those who selected "*other reasons*". Among the reasons mentioned for avoiding L1 use, "*ensuring maximum exposure to L2*" ranks first. This is also mentioned as a reason for not using translation. It cannot be denied that learners benefit from being exposed to L2 as much as possible. However, today learners have many more opportunities than in the past for gaining this exposure. The Internet provides learners with numerous ways to be exposed to L2 input. Therefore, opportunities for learners' exposure to L2 need not be restricted to the classroom. On the other hand, the research shows that L1 use is important for ensuring a low affective filter and having a social atmosphere conducive to learning (see Section 2.5.1). Learners may feel overstressed when they know that they cannot use L1 and are likely to keep quiet when they are unable to express themselves in L2. Thus, translation activities may provide them with a controlled environment for interacting with their classmates in pairs or groups. The learners who prefer not to participate much in group work in L2 might thus feel encouraged to become actively involved in translation activities: they transfer from being an audience to being a participant, which is likely to be for their benefit. It should be noted, however, that translation here is discussed as a technique rather than as a method. In other words, translation is to be used as one of the many other activities or tasks used in the class. Just like any other activity or task, the

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repetitive use of translation may bring boredom or fail to achieve the desired results. Taking into account the aims of the translation activities designed, teachers may allocate some time in their lesson for these activities.

6.2.3.2. Attitudes to the Grammar Translation Method

In a question in the online survey, teachers were asked about their attitude towards a number of teaching methods that are used in their institutions. It is not surprising that *Communicative Language Teaching* (*CLT*) ranks first among the given methods, since it is the most favored method in language teaching by teachers, teacher trainers, institutions and course-book publishers. It is also not so surprising that the *Grammar Translation Method* (*GTM*) is the least favored, with highest number of teachers reporting a very negative attitude. This negative attitude is assumed to be a reason why translation is still closely associated with the *GTM* in language teaching. Teachers may be of the opinion that if they use translation in their classes for any purpose, they will develop a tendency towards *GTM*. However, what is suggested here is the use of translation as a task or activity. The use of translation is not necessarily restricted to doing mechanical translation exercises. It can be used in a communicative way, in uniformity with communicative procedures or it can be incorporated into task-based learning. Considering their goals for teaching, teachers may exploit translation in a number of creative ways that can be adopted to the procedures of most teaching methods.

The analysis of the responses to this question in the Turkish context also support the previous research conducted by Pym et al. (2013) in several countries. *GTM* is one of the least popular methods at the institutional level in all the case-study countries including Croatia, Finland, France, Germany, Poland, Spain, the United Kingdom, Australia, China and the United States. (Pym et al. 2013: 47-130). Of course, the prevailing negative attitude towards *GTM* may result from ignorance of what *GTM* actually is. This negative attitude towards *GTM* seems to be nurturing the negative attitude towards translation all around the world, preventing it from becoming a normal practice in classroom.

6.2.3.3. Preferences for sentence-level translation

The teachers participating in the online survey were asked to report their attitude towards a number of translation activities. The results are surprising in the sense that "translation of individual sentences from and into L1" is the most preferred translation, as indicated by the highest mean scores. Translating individual sentences is popularly associated with

GTM. Considering the negative attitude towards *GMT*, it is surprising that the translation of individual sentences from and into L2 should be the most preferred activity. Given the mean scores in Table 23 in Section 5.6.2.5, teachers are generally not interested in using machine-translated texts as part of a classroom activity. Despite the advances in machine translation technology, texts translated by machines or online translation tools still have shortcomings that can serve as a useful basis for discussing translation problems. I often witness in my classes that machine translation is popular among students. More importantly, learners should be taught how to use machine translation, as it is highly common among them.

The fact that teachers tend to prefer traditional sentence translation more than other activities can be interpreted in two ways. They may be willing to try translation activities in language teaching as long as translation is not used as a method. The way translation is traditionally used in language teaching may stand as an old but familiar way of opening up room for translation in the classroom. Alternately, teachers may be avoiding other translation activities mainly because they are not well informed about various ways of using it. If institutions or teacher-training programs include seminars to inform and guide teachers about ways of using translation in language teaching, they are likely to find it useful and stop associating translation with *GTM*. Once they are provided with examples, they are likely to design and develop other creative activities of their own. In addition to the seminars, supplying them with material to be used in translation tasks and activities can also be encouraging, as materials development consumes a lot of the teachers' time. Since the course books do not include many translation activities, teachers may find it time-saving to access pre-prepared materials.

6.2.3.4. Summary of the discussion on complementary findings from the teachers' Online Survey

Considering the analysis of the online teacher survey, it could be concluded that teachers tend not to allocate much time to translation in their language teaching. A similar result is also reported for the use of L1. As a reason for avoiding their use in the classroom, for both cases the detrimental effect is reported the most. The similarity in the reasons given for avoiding both translation and L1 can also be interpreted as a sign of these two cases being associated. The association of translation with *GTM* might be another reason for this negative attitude towards translation. Since *GTM* is not considered a successful

method today, teachers may be of the opinion that translation will not bring success in achieving their goals in language teaching.

6.2.4. The survey of student-teachers

The Online Survey was administered on paper to the student-teachers. The data obtained from the survey have been analyzed and presented in the Results chapter and are further considered in this section.

6.2.4.1. Beliefs about teaching methods

The results show that *Grammar-Translation Method* has the lowest mean score for student-teachers, which is in conformity with the teachers' results. This is not surprising, as the student-teachers are taught by teachers with similar perspectives who do not allocate much time to translation while teaching. However, this is a group that is expected to have developed a certain amount of familiarity with translation, as they have taken translation classes. Therefore, their attitude can be interpreted as a conscious preference with respect to translation. Instead of restricting translation to the way it is used in *GTM*, student-teachers may be well aware that translation can be used in communicative ways. Thus, by reporting negative attitudes towards *GTM*, they may actually be reporting a negative stance towards using translation as a method only. On the other hand, they may be willing to use translation as a technique in their classes. For further discussion of this issue, it seems necessary to have a closer look at their beliefs about the use of translation.

6.2.4.2. Beliefs about translation in language teaching

Student-teachers are assumed to have projected their beliefs about translation by reporting their attitudes towards five statements about translation in language teaching. Table 31 in Section 5.7.2 shows the mean scores of the student-teachers with respect to these statements in comparison with the teachers.

As seen in Table 31, the mean scores of the student-teachers for the statement that posits that "*translation is the fifth language skill*" is slightly higher than the teachers' mean scores, while for the statement *"translating brings the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together"* it is significantly higher. This may be a sign that student-teachers are more prone to admitting translation as a skill. Their tendency towards translation may result from their age. While being inexperienced can be considered a

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negative thing in some contexts, it seems as an asset for the inexperienced teachers that they do not have fixed teaching habits and they may be more willing to try new techniques. While teachers who have already developed some attitudes towards certain practices in teaching may be reluctant to adopt new ideas, the young generation may be more open-minded towards transferring recent findings in the literature into practice. However, as mentioned, only a real-time longitudinal study can conclude whether this openness of the young generation prevails when they become teachers or not.

Likewise, for the two statements that highlight negative aspects of translation, the mean scores of the student-teachers are lower than the teachers' mean scores (see Table 31 in Section 5.7.2). The first statement posits that *"Translating takes time away from valuable learning activities"*, while the second proposes that *"Translation is for professionals only"*. These scores also support the view that student-teachers hold a more tolerant perspective towards incorporating translation into their teaching when compared to teachers. In addition to their relatively young age, the translation classes they took may have also been effective in shaping their beliefs towards translation. By experiencing the effect of translation in their own language progress, they may have started to question what has been prescribed to them in books about translation. Having become acquainted with a variety of different ways translation can be used in teaching, they may have come to the opinion that translation need not be considered within the boundaries of *GTM* only. As they are more informed about various translation activities, tasks and projects, they may be more critical about the traditional negative view towards translation.

Thus, considering the higher mean scores, it can be concluded that student-teachers are more inclined to develop a positive perspective towards translation in language teaching.

When the findings of previous research are considered, there is also a tendency for the teachers to avoid translation (Asgarian 2013), while learners, as a younger generation, tend to approach it more positively (Karimian and Talebinejad 2013; Liao 2006). Another study conducted in Turkey to explore the trainee-teachers' perceptions also found that translation activities are considered complementary and contributive to language learning (Pekkanli 2012). Thus, the previous studies support the finding that the younger generation tends to hold more positive beliefs towards translation than the older generation.

6.2.4.3. Beliefs about translation activities

In order to find out more about which translation activities student-teachers are best disposed to, I gave them a list of translation activities and asked them to indicate their attitude towards each. The list included the same activities as the ones in the list given to the teachers.

When the mean scores of the student-teachers are considered, the activities they favored the most differed from those favored by the teachers. The two activities opted for most by the student-teachers were translation analysis, criticism or discussion, and watching subtitled films, whereas teachers favored the traditional sentence-translation activity the most. This difference in attitude can result from the student-teachers' being more informed about how to make the most of translation in their classes. Teachers may also be familiar with all the activities listed; however, as mentioned earlier, they may be more resistant to change and adopt new practices in general.

When the mean scores of the student-teachers and teachers are analyzed comparatively, it is observed that there is a significant difference in the mean scores for translation analysis, criticism or discussion. While student-teachers favored his option the most, it does not seem a popular among teachers. In translation classes, learners are commonly warned that there is no single translation for one expression or sentence; there may be several acceptable translations. This is actually a practical way of encouraging language learners, who are sometimes looking for one-to-one correspondences in L2 for every single word or expression in their L1, to realize the differences between two languages through contrastive analysis. In addition, there is also a significant difference between the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers about using machine translation. Student-teachers were significantly better disposed to using machine translation in class than teachers. However, working with machine translated text was still the activity with the lowest mean among all the activities student-teachers responded to.

6.2.4.4. Summary of the discussion on complementary findings from the survey for student-teachers

Based on the above results, it can be concluded that student-teachers are more prone to using translation in language teaching than teachers are. The difference in the beliefs of the teachers and student-teachers with respect to their opinions on translation and various translation activities is assumed to be the result of the level of familiarity with the activities, in addition to a willingness to try new activities. The two groups display a

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similar attitude towards the methods in general, and towards *GTM* in particular. However, the reasons are not assumed to be the same, since student-teachers seem to be opposing *GTM* but approach the use of translation more positively.

Chapter 7. Conclusion

The present study has been developed on the basis of the pilot study (Artar 2012) conducted in advance in the same Turkish context but with a narrower focus. Even though it was relatively less comprehensive in scope, the pilot study not only enabled me to familiarize myself thoroughly with the related literature but also made me assess the opportunities for further research. To summarize, the findings of the pilot study showed that writing was the skill that the majority of the learners aimed to improve and they reported that translation activities had a positive effect on the development of the use of language and vocabulary knowledge as well as their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. In view of the findings of the pilot study, the present research was designed on the basis of a more structured methodological framework, which utilized several instruments to acquire data.

Taking into account the lessons learned in the pilot study as well as the previous literature, this research has been grounded on the assumption that *translation is not favored in language learning/teaching* by any of the agents involved. Although this seems to be a prevailing attitude towards translation, the assumption needs to be tested. This has been done here in two ways: by gathering information about the beliefs of those involved in language learning, and by testing the effect of translation on a group of learners. The beliefs analysis was expected to shed light on the general approach towards translation. The experiment was an attempt to see whether there would be a change in the beliefs.

With these aims in mind, the following research questions were asked:

- To what extent do teachers of foreign-languages in Turkey make use of translation while teaching a foreign-language?

- To what extent do teachers of foreign-languages in Turkey believe that translation can be an effective technique for teaching a foreign-language?

- If translation does not form a part of the teaching habits of the foreign-language teachers in Turkey, will they be willing to introduce it? If not, what are the reasons behind their unwillingness?

To be able to compare the beliefs of all the agents involved in language learning, the same questions were then asked of learners and student-teachers:

- Do the beliefs of the teachers, learners and student-teachers coincide with respect to adopting translation as a valid learning technique?

To compare the beliefs of the learners at the onset and end of the experiment, the following research question was asked:

- Do the beliefs of the learners change after using translation activities in language learning?

Another set of questions was also asked to find out the effect of translation activities on improvement of skills:

- Does the use of translation as a technique while teaching English improve the writing skill of the learners?

- Does the use of translation as a technique while teaching English improve the speaking skill of the learners?

The hypotheses postulated in relation to these research questions were as follows:

- H_1: People involved in foreign-language teaching initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

- H_2: The beliefs of learners of foreign-languages are more positive towards translation following the use of translation activities in class.

- H_3: Translation is a technique that improves the writing and speaking performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do.

The first hypothesis then was divided into three sub-hypotheses to explore the perspective of each agent more specifically. These sub-hypotheses are as follows:

- H_1-SH_1: Teachers initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

- H_1-SH_2: Learners initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

- H_1-SH_3: Student-teachers initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

The third hypothesis was also divided into two sub-hypotheses to explore the perspective of each agent more specifically. These sub-hypotheses are as follows:

- H_3-SH_1: Teachers initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

- H_3-SH_2: Learners initially disagree with the use of translation in language learning.

In order to test these hypotheses, an online survey was used to gather data on the beliefs of the teachers; a Beliefs Inventory was used to learn about the beliefs of the learners; both of these instruments were used to learn about the beliefs of the student-teachers. Meanwhile, an experiment was conducted with the participation of the same group of learners to test the effect of translation activities on language learning.

The results were broadly that not all the people involved in language teaching and learning disagree with the use of translation. Indeed, learners and student-teachers tend to show agreement, while teachers remain in disagreement. Further, translation was found to improve writing skills but not speaking skills.

I will now consider these results in detail.

7.1. Research questions answered

In view of the results presented in Chapter 5, it was concluded that translation is *not* a popular technique among *teachers* in the Turkish context. Teachers prefer to avoid translation and they assert its detrimental effect on language learning as the primary reason for their preference. In addition to this, teachers seem to associate the use of translation with the use of L1, as their responses to both of the related questions correlate. This tendency is understandable, since translation is one of the ways of welcoming L1 in a language classroom. Nevertheless, it is important to differentiate between translation used for the purposes of scaffolding and translation used as a teaching technique. This study highlights translation not only as a form of class exercise but also as a task, activity or project.

Surprisingly, the sub-hypothesis about an initially negative attitude to translation (H_1-SH_1) was not confirmed by the responses of the *learners* to the Beliefs Inventory. Contrary to my assumptions, learners reported that they agreed with the use of translation in language learning.

However, even though learners tended to agree with the use of translation in class, there was no significant change in their beliefs as a result of the translation activities they engaged with for eight weeks. Thus, the results do not provide enough evidence to confirm the second hypothesis.

The same research questions were asked with respect to student-teachers. The hypothesis positing a negative attitude to translation was not confirmed, as in the case of

the student-teachers. The mean score of the student-teachers was above the mean, suggesting they tend to agree with the use of translation in language learning. However, their slightly higher mean scores when compared to the learners might be interpreted as a tendency to transform into their teacher identities, distancing translation as they become teachers. The given findings might also be interpreted as age grading: the younger the subject, the more favorable they are to translation. This may be so because they have grown up in a more multilingual environment. Comparison between the student-teachers and the teachers shows that student-teachers are more inclined to use translation in their classes than are the teachers. The mean scores of the student-teachers and the teachers are quite close with respect to certain statements about translation as well as some translation activities (see Section 5.7).

The beliefs of the learners and student-teachers nevertheless tend to coincide, as both groups tend to agree with the use of translation, whereas the beliefs of the teachers do not coincide the other two groups, as they tend to disagree with the use of translation. In other words, the analysis of the learners' and the student-teachers' beliefs do not confirm H_1-SH_2 and H_1-SH_3, while the results of the analysis of the teachers' confirm H_1-SH_1. Thus, H_1 is only partially confirmed.

With respect to the beliefs of the learners after the treatment, the results indicate no significant change (see Section 5.3.1). Learners tended to agree with the use of translation in language learning at the beginning of the study and it seems that they maintained their beliefs: translation did not have a significant effect in changing the beliefs of the learners positively after treatment.

H_3 postulates that *translation is a technique that improves the writing and speaking performances of foreign-language learners more than non-translation techniques do.* The results show a significant change in the *writing performances* of the learners after treatment (see Section 5.1.1). Learners seem to have benefited from the translation activities, which is apparent in the improvement in their writing scores. However, there was no significant change in the speaking performances of the learners after treatment (see Section 5.1.2). The result is surprising, since speaking and writing are both productive skills.

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7.2. Contributions to the field

Having been an English teacher for more than twelve years, I have almost always heard my colleagues speaking negatively about translation. The negativity was so great that translation was not even considered an issue. Because the use of translation in language teaching is generally not explored in the Turkish context, the related literature was rather limited. In nearly all cases, translation was handled rather negatively or was associated with either the use of Turkish or the grammar translation method. The use of translation in language learning seemed to be in conformity with these attitudes. However, such assumptions should be tested on concrete evidence. This study contributes to the research in the area by doing that testing while at the same time providing some new perspectives and raising new questions.

Perhaps the most notable feature of this research is that it approaches the issue holistically rather than concentrating on only one of the agents in the language learning and teaching process. Teachers and learners are the indispensable agents involved in language learning. Ignoring the beliefs of one of these two agents would not reflect the prevailing situation in the given context. The student-teachers, on the other hand, have dual characters as present-learners and future-teachers. They have been involved in the language learning process for quite a long time, which has enabled them to develop certain beliefs about translation in language learning as learners. They are also becoming acquainted with the teaching methods and had already had the opportunity to practice teaching as trainees, which enabled them to approach the issue from the perspective of the teachers. In that sense, their beliefs provide not only data for comparison but also substantial information from another agents' perspective.

Similarly, although beliefs are one of the sources that can be used to discuss the issue, the study would not be complete without any reference to the effect of translation on success. Therefore, acquiring information about the beliefs of the learners as well as the effects of translation on success was expected to open wider perspectives.

7.3. Applicability

I hope that this study contributes to research in the field, not only by providing a substantial amount of information about the Turkish context but also by triggering interest

in conducting new studies. This should be for the benefit of all agents involved in the language-learning process, including teachers, learners, and student-teachers.

This research may not have found a significant change in the beliefs of the people involved in language learning but it is hoped that it has raised some kind of awareness with respect to translation. I hope that it can be successful in urging teachers to question their traditional practices and encouraging them to try new exercises, tasks, activities or projects involving translation. If they can at least give up associating translation with grammar translation and thereby assign new roles to translation in their language classes, this may be a first step to a change in perspectives.

From the perspective of learners, eight weeks may not be enough to result in a change in beliefs. However, I hope learners might now be more eager to do translation exercises, tasks, activities and projects. In their own language-learning journey, translation should not be something to avoid; learners should be aware that the use of translation need not be restricted to mechanical exercises. They can engage in communicative translation activities and even demand their teachers allocate more time to translation while teaching.

Student-teachers constitute the group that I place a lot of importance on because they are at the very beginning of developing their beliefs about certain language teaching issues, and they are very likely to put those beliefs into practice once they start teaching. In addition, because of their age they seem to be more inclined to questioning rather than simply rejecting a new idea.

I hope that I have managed to enhance awareness of translation in all those involved in language learning and teaching and who have participated in this research. I also hope that those who read this research will also feel encouraged to give translation a chance.

7.4. Limitations of the research

When the research design was planned, the instruments and the procedure were planned accordingly. However, there were a number of factors inherent to the nature of the research that placed limitations on the design.

In this research, I aimed to explore the effect of translation on language learning from the perspective of teachers, learners and student-teachers. The teachers were

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accessed through an online survey. Although the online survey helped me to reach a larger number of people, there were many people who opened the survey link but did not complete the survey. Therefore, I had to exclude the incomplete surveys.

The learners were the students at the university I worked for; thus, I had immediate access to them. However, the sample size of the learners was rather limited when compared with the teachers. This was mainly because the number of the learners in each class was determined by the school administration and I could not interfere with it. Also, it was observed in the first Beliefs Inventory that control-group learners had a more positive attitude towards translation, since they had higher mean scores than the experiment group. In other words, there was not an equal baseline regarding translation beliefs. However, it was not possible to change the people in the groups, and this could be considered another limitation of the study.

The experiment lasted for only one eight-week module. It was not possible to extend the duration of the experiment as the learners involved in the study would not be in the same classes in the next module and it would not be possible to pursue the experiment with the same participants. Therefore, the eight-week duration constituted another external limitation on the study. There might have been a change in the beliefs of the learners if the experiment had lasted longer.

In addition to the sample size and the time constraints, a final limitation might be the dimensions identified in the Beliefs Inventory used to test the learners' and student-teachers' beliefs. There were five dimensions identified in the Beliefs Inventory and it was assumed that the same things were being compared in each dimension. However, this might have constituted a problem as the items were not always on the same level. Therefore, although the mean scores of these dimensions have been provided, their significance levels have not been considered in testing the learners' change in beliefs.

7.5. Avenues for future research

Considering the limitations mentioned above, the sample size for the learners could be enlarged in future studies. It may also be possible to try the experiment with learners in different contexts, say, at different universities in Turkey. Alternatively, the translation treatment can be tested on participants studying at different levels in the same context.

Some of my findings are based on what teachers have reported in their responses to the Beliefs Inventory. A long-term observation of their classes could find out what really happens in the classrooms, enabling their beliefs to be compared with their practice.

In the present study, only a quantitative analysis has been conducted to test the variables and discuss the findings. However, a qualitative analysis of the open-ended answers would also provide invaluable data for discussion. Further, the qualitative data obtained from the participants through inventories and surveys could be triangulated with interviews of a relatively smaller number of participants from each group.

7.6. Final remarks

This study has explored beliefs about translation from three different perspectives: teachers, learners and student-teachers. It has also investigated whether there is any effect of translation activities on the success of learners in writing and speaking. With this two-fold methodological design, it was hoped to complement findings about the beliefs with data on success. The results of the study have indicated that the translation treatment has no effect on the beliefs of the learners and it only partially affects the success of the learners: writing performance improved significantly while there was no improvement observed in the speaking performances.

Although the present study provides a substantial amount of information about the use of translation in the Turkish context, there is a need for more research to ensure that translation becomes an issue in language learning. Translation is not viewed similarly in all contexts and by all people involved in language learning, and more studies conducted in different contexts and with different instruments are likely to offer wider perspectives on the issue. It seems to be the responsibility of all the people involved in language learning to be more critical of the traditional views and practices and more eager to adopt changes, which may, in the end, bring more success. This calls for people to push beyond the limits of the culture of submissiveness.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. 50-item Beliefs Inventory (in Turkish and English)

YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENİMİNDE KULLANILAN TEKNİKLERDEN BİRİ OLAN ÇEVİRİYE İLİŞKİN ÖĞRENCİ TUTUMLARI

Bu anket; İspanya'daki *Rovira i Virgili Üniversitesi, Çeviri ve Kültürlerarası Çalışmalar Bölümü*nde yürüttüğüm "*Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Çevirinin Rolü*" başlıklı doktora çalışmamın bir ön aşaması olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anketin amacı yabancı dil öğreniminde kullanılan tekniklerden biri olan çeviriye ilişkin öğrenci tutumlarını ölçmektir. Anket katılımcılarıyla ilgili bilgiler ve anket sonuçları bilimsel çalışmanın amacı dışında hiçbir yerde ve ortamda paylaşılmayacaktır. Ankete katıldığınız ve desteğiniz için teşekkür ederim.

Pınar Artar
Rovira i Virgili Üniversitesi
Çeviri ve Kültürlerarası Çalışmalar Bölümü
Doktora Öğrencisi

Aşağıda yer alan ifadelerin / yargıların sizin için ne ölçüde geçerli olduğuna beş basamaklı (1-5) cevap bölümünü kullanarak işaretleyiniz. (*1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum, – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)*

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	2	3	4	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Çeviri aktiviteleri tüm yabancı dil müfredatlarına dâhil edilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
2	İngilizce bir metin yazarken cümleleri Türkçeden İngilizceye çevirmek karmaşık cümlelerde kendimi daha kolay ifade edebilmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İngilizce bir metin okurken zor cümleleri zihnimde Türkçeye çeviririm.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Çeviri iletişimsel aktivitelerle geliştirilebilecek bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Çevireceğim metnin konusuyla ilgili art alan bilgisi çeviri sürecimi kolaylaştırmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İngilizce bir metin okurken cümleleri zihnimde Türkçeye çevirmek okuduğumu daha iyi anlamamı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Çeviri aktiviteleri İngilizce öğrenme sürecimde yazma becerimi geliştirmeme yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5

8	Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yapmak daha zorlayıcıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Çeviri aktiviteleri İngilizce gramer bilgimi geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Çeviri, yabancı dil öğrenme sürecinde geliştirilmesi gereken bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Çevirin kullanıldığı ödev, sınıf içi çalışmalar ve projeler dil öğrenme sürecinde faydalı olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Çeviri tıpkı okuma, dinleme, yazma ve konuşma gibi bir dil becerisidir.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yapmak yazma becerimi geliştirmede olumlu bir etki yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
14	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yaparken en zorlayıcı nokta uzun ve karmaşık cümlelerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Çeviri dil öğrenme sürecinde sınavlar aracılığıyla ölçülmesi (test edilmesi) gereken bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Çeviri yapmam gerektiğinde elektronik/çevrimiçi çeviri programlarını kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
17	İngilizce bir metin yazarken, zor cümleleri zihnimde Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviririm.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Çeviri çalışarak geliştirilebilecek bir beceri değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Çeviri günlük hayatımda ve iş hayatımda ihtiyaç duyacağım bir beceri değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
20	İngilizce düzeyime uygun bir metni Türkçeden İngilizceye kolaylıkla çevirebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
21	İngilizce öğrenimine yönelik ders kitaplarında çeviri aktiviteleri olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Yabancı bir dilde yazabilen herkes ana dilinden yabancı dile ya da yabancı dilden ana diline güzel bir şekilde çeviri yapabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Çeviri doğuştan gelen bir yetenektir.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yaparken en zorlayıcı nokta uzun ve karmaşık cümlelerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Çeviri aktiviteleri İngilizce sözcük bilgimi geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Zihnimde çeviri yapmak İngilizce konuşurken akıcılığımı azaltır.	1	2	3	4	5
27	'*Çeviri Teknikleri*' isimli bir ders ödev hazırlamak, tez yazmak ve sunum yapmak gibi akademik çalışmalarımda faydalı olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Çeviri yabancı dil öğrenimini olumsuz etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Yabancı dil öğreniminde iletişimsel çeviri aktiviteleri kullanılmalıdır	1	2	3	4	5
30	Çeviri mezun olduktan sonra ihtiyaç duyacağım bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Ödev hazırlamak, tez yazmak ve sunum yapmak gibi akademik çalışmalar yaparken çeviri yapmak zorunda kalacağım.	1	2	3	4	5

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32	Elektronik/çevrimiçi çeviri programları iyi çeviri yapabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Çeviri yapmak genel kültürümü geliştirmez.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yapmak için metnin konusu hakkında önceden bilgi sahibi olmak (art alan bilgisi) önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Çeviri yapmamı gerektirecek ödev, sınıf içi çalışma ve projeler dil öğrenim sürecime katkı sağlayacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Çeviri dil öğrenme sürecinde geliştirilebilir bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
37	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yapmamın Türkçe yazma becerilerim üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
38	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yapmak Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yapmaktan daha zorlayıcıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Çeviri aktivitelerinin İngilizce konuşurken akıcılığım konusunda olumlu etkisi olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
40	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yaparken metnin konusu hakkında önceden bilgi sahibi olmak (art alan bilgisi) önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
41	'*Çeviri Teknikleri*' isimli bir ders iş yaşamımda karşılaşacağım bazı iletişim sorunlarını çözmemde bana faydalı olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
42	Çeviri yapmak farklı kültürler hakkında bilgi edinmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
43	Çeviri yapabilmek için bir dili çok iyi düzeyde bilmek gerekir.	1	2	3	4	5
44	Çeviri bir kişi yabancı dil öğrenirken kendiliğinden gelişen bir dil becerisidir.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Çeviri yaparken en zorlayıcı nokta sözcük bilgisidir.	1	2	3	4	5
46	İngilizce düzeyime uygun bir metni İngilizceden Türkçeye kolaylıkla çevirebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
47	Çevirinin becerisi yalnızca mekanik alıştırmalarla geliştirilebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
48	Yabancı bir dilde konuşabilen herkes ana dilinden yabancı dile ya da yabancı dilden ana diline güzel bir şekilde çeviri yapabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Çeviri İngilizce öğretirken sınıflarda diğer metotlarla birlikte kullanılabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
50	Doğrudan İngilizce yazmak yerine metni önce Türkçe yazıp daha sonra İngilizceye çevirmek daha iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5

STUDENTS' BELIEFS TOWARDS TRANSLATION AS A TECHNIQUE USED IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

This questionnaire is prepared as a pre-study of my doctoral study titled *"The Role of Translation on Foreign-language Learning",* which I have been carrying out in the department of Translation and Intercultural Studies at *Universitat Rovira i Virgili* in Spain. The purpose of the questionnaire is to measure the student beliefs regarding translation as a technique used in foreign-language learning. The information regarding the participants to the study and the results of the questionnaire will not be used except for the purpose of the study. I would like to thank for your participation and support.

Pınar ARTAR, MA
Universitat Rovira i Virgili
Department of Translation and Intercultural Studies
PhD Candidate

Please mark the following statements according to the option which best suits you, using the 1-5 scale on the right. (*1: Completely disagree, – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5: Completely agree)*

		Completely Disagree				Completely Agree
1	Translation activities should be included in the language teaching curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Translating the sentences from Turkish to English while writing an English text help me to express myself better in complex sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I translate the difficult sentences into Turkish in mind while reading a difficult English text.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Translation is a skill that can be improved by communicative activities.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The background knowledge about the text I will translate does not facilitate the translation process.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Translating the sentences from English to Turkish while reading an English text makes it easier for me to understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Translation activities help me to improve my writing skill while learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
8	It is more difficult to translate from Turkish to English.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Translation activities improve my English grammar knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Translation is a skill to be improved while learning a foreign-language.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Translation assignments, activities and projects that involve translation can be helpful in learning a language.	1	2	3	4	5

12	Translation is a language skill just like reading, writing, listening and speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Translating from Turkish to English improves my writing.	1	2	3	4	5
14	The most challenging thing in translating from English to Turkish is long and complex sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Translation is a skill that can be tested in language learning	1	2	3	4	5
16	I use the electronic/online translation tools when I need to translate.	1	2	3	4	5
17	While writing an English text, I translate the difficult sentences in my mind from Turkish to English.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Translation is not a skill that can be improved by studying.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Translation is not a skill I will need in my daily life and business life.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I can easily translate a text appropriate for my English level from Turkish to English.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Everybody who can write in a foreign-language can translate from that language into his native language or vice versa.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Translation is an innate skill.	1	2	3	4	5
24	The most challenging thing in translating from Turkish to English is the long and complex sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Translation activities improve my English vocabulary knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Mental translating decreases my fluency while speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
27	A course titled 'Translation Techniques' can be useful for academic studies such as preparing assignments, writing thesis and making presentations.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Translation is detrimental to foreign-language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Communicative translation activities should be used in foreign-language teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Translation is a skill that I will need when I graduate.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I will have to translate while preparing assignments, writing thesis and giving presentations.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Electronic/online translation tool can translate well.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Translating does not improve my general world knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
34	It is important to have a background knowledge about the text to be able to translate from Turkish to English.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Assignments, in-class tasks and projects that require me to translate will contribute to my language learning.	1	2	3	4	5

36	Translation is a skill that can be improved while learning a language.	1	2	3	4	5
37	Translating from English to Turkish improves my writing skill in Turkish.	1	2	3	4	5
38	It is more difficult to translate from the target language to source language'	1	2	3	4	5
39	Translation activities have a positive effect on my fluency in speaking English	1	2	3	4	5
40	It is important to have a background knowledge about the text to be able to translate from English to Turkish.	1	2	3	4	5
41	A course titled "Translation Techniques" will help me to overcome some of the difficulties I face in business life.	1	2	3	4	5
42	Translating helps me to learn about different cultures.	1	2	3	4	5
43	It is necessary to know a language at proficient level in order to be able to translate.	1	2	3	4	5
44	Translation is a skill that can improve when a person learns a language.	1	2	3	4	5
45	The most difficult thing in translation is the vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I can easily translate a text appropriate for my English level from English to Turkish.	1	2	3	4	5
47	Translation skill can be improved only by mechanical exercises	1	2	3	4	5
48	Everybody who can speak a foreign-language can translate from or into that language.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Translation can be used together with other methods while teaching a foreign-language.	1	2	3	4	5
50	It is better to write the text in Turkish first and then translate into English instead of direct writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5

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Appendix 2. Bio-data form (in Turkish and English)

ÖĞRENİMİNDE KULLANILAN YÖNTEMLERDEN BİRİ OLAN ÇEVİRİYE İLİŞKİN ÖĞRENCİ TUTUMLARI ANKETİ KATILIMCI BİLGİLERİ

İspanya'daki *Rovira i Virgili Üniversitesi, Çeviri ve Kültürlerarası Çalışmalar Bölümü*nde yürüttüğüm "*Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Çevirinin Rolü*" başlıklı doktora çalışmamın bir ön aşaması olarak hazırlanan anketin sonuçlarının daha verimli ve doğru bir şekilde değerlendirilebilmesi için anket katılımcısı olarak aşağıdaki bilgi formunu doldurmanızı rica ederim.

Anket katılımcılarıyla ilgili kişisel bilgiler ve anket sonuçları bilimsel çalışmanın amacı dışında hiçbir yerde ve ortamda paylaşılmayacaktır. Ankete katıldığınız ve desteğiniz için teşekkür ederim.

Pınar Artar, MA
Rovira i Virgili Üniversitesi
Çeviri ve Kültürlerarası Çalışmalar Bölümü
Doktora Öğrencisi

Cinsiyetiniz:	Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐
Mezun olduğunuz okul:	Devlet Lisesi Özel ☐ Lise ☐
Ana diliniz: (Farklı ise lütfen belirtiniz)	Türkçe ☐ Diğer ☐ _____
(Varsa) İngilizce dışında bildiğiniz diğer yabancı dil(ler) ve düzeyleri	Yabancı dil: _____ Düzeyi: A1 ☐ A2 ☐ B1 ☐ B2 ☐ C1 ☐ C2 ☐ Yabancı dil: _____ Düzeyi: A1 ☐ A2 ☐ B1 ☐ B2 ☐ C1 ☐ C2 ☐
Resmi eğitim kurumları dışında (ilköğretim, lise, üniversite) herhangi bir kurumda (dershane, dil kursu vb.) dil eğitimi aldınız mı?	Evet ☐ Hayır ☐
İngilizce öğrenmeye kaç yaşında başladınız?	7-10 ☐ 11-14 ☐ 15-17 ☐ 18 ve üzeri ☐
Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?	1 yıldan az ☐ 1-4 yıl ☐ 5-8 yıl ☐ 9 yıl ve daha fazla ☐
Üniversiteye hazırlık sürecinizde İngilizce öğreniminize ara verdiniz mi?	Evet ☐ Hayır ☐
Daha önce (ortaöğretim ya da başka bir yükseköğrenim kurumunda) İngilizce hazırlık eğitimi aldınız mı?	Evet ☐ Hayır ☐
Bölümünüz:	_____

İzmir Üniversitesi kaçıncı tercihinizdi?	1. tercih □ 2-5. tercihler arası □ 5-10. tercihler arası □ 10-15 tercihler arası □ 15 ve üzeri tercihler arası □
İzmir Üniversitesini öğretim dili İngilizce olduğu için mi seçtiniz?	Evet □ Hayır □
İzmir Üniversitesinde alacağınız hazırlık eğitiminin akademik çalışmalarınız için yeterli olacağını düşünüyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
İzmir Üniversitesinde İngilizce hazırlık sınıfı B1 modülünden (*Intermediate* kurundan) önceki modüllerde/kurlarda sınıf içi ve/veya sınıf dışında hiç çeviri alıştırmaları yaptınız mı?	Evet □ Hayır □
Günlük yaşamınızda çeviri yapma ihtiyacı duyuyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
Akademik çalışmalarınızda çeviri yapma ihtiyacı duyacağınızı düşünüyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
İş hayatınızda çeviri yapma ihtiyacı duyacağınızı düşünüyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
Google Translate ve benzeri çeviri programlarının iyi çeviri yapabildiğini düşünüyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
Yazma ödevlerinizi yaparken *Google Translate* ve benzeri çeviri programlarından yararlanıyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
Sunum metinlerinizi hazırlarken *Google Translate* ve benzeri çeviri programlarından yararlanıyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □
Google Translate ve benzeri çeviri programları kullanarak yaptığınız çevirilerin tekrar üzerinden geçerek düzeltme yapma ihtiyacı duyuyor musunuz?	Evet □ Hayır □

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON STUDENTS' BELIEFS ON TRANSLATION AS A METHOD USED IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

In order to be able to carry out a more effective and accurate evaluation of the findings of the questionnaire, which is a pre-study of my doctoral research *"The Role of Translation on Foreign-language Learning"*, I would like you to fill out the demographic information survey below.

The information will not be used except for the purpose of the study. I would like to thank for your participation and support.

Pınar ARTAR, MA
Universitat Rovira i Virgili
Department of Translation and Intercultural Studies
PhD Candidate

Gender	Female □ Male □
What type of school did you graduate from?	Public School □ Private School □
Mother tongue (If different, please indicate)	Turkish □ Other □ _____
(If any) other foreign-languages except for English and their levels	Foreign-language: _____ Level: A1 □ A2 □ B1 □ B2 □ C1 □ C2 □ Foreign-language: _____ Level: A1 □ A2 □ B1 □ B2 □ C1 □ C2 □
Apart from formal institutions (at primary, secondary and/or tertiary level), have you studied English in informal institutions (language school, private course, etc.)?	Yes □ No □
How old were you when you started learning English?	7-10 □ 11-14 □ 15-17 □ 18 and above □
How long have you been learning English?	less than 1 year □ 1-4 years □ 5-8 years □ 9 years and above □
Was your foreign-language education interrupted while you were getting prepared for the university entrance exams?	Yes □ No □
Have you studied English (at secondary school or tertiary level) before?	Yes □ No □
Your department:	_____
What was İzmir University's rank among your university preferences?	1st preference □ between 2nd-5th preferences □ between 5th-10th preferences □ between 10th-15th preferences □ 15th preference and above □
Did you choose to study at İzmir University because the medium of instruction is English?	Yes □ No □
Do you think English as a foreign-language education you will get at the Prep School in İzmir University will be sufficient for you to carry out your academic studies?	Yes □ No □

Have you ever done any translation activities in the modules/levels prior to B1 module in the Prep School at İzmir University?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you ever feel necessary to translate anything in your daily life?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you think you will ever feel the necessity to translate anything to carry out your academic studies?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you think you will ever feel the necessity to translate anything in your business life?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you think *Google Translate* and/or other related translation programs can translate well?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you make use of *Google Translate* and/or other related translation programs while doing you writing tasks?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you make use of *Google Translate* and/or other related translation programs while preparing your oral presentations?	Yes ☐ No ☐
Do you feel the necessity to proofread and/or edit the translations you do by *Google Translate* and/or other related translation programs?	Yes ☐ No ☐

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Appendix 3. 33-item Beliefs Inventory both for learners and student-teachers (in Turkish and English)

YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENİMİNDE KULLANILAN YÖNTEMLERDEN BİRİ OLAN ÇEVİRİYE İLİŞKİN ÖĞRENCİLERİN VE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ İNANÇLARI

Bu anket; İspanya'daki *Rovira i Virgili Üniversitesi, Çeviri ve Kültürlerarası Çalışmalar Bölümü*nde yürüttüğüm *Yabancı Dil Öğreniminde Çevirinin Rolü* başlıklı doktora çalışmamın bir ön aşaması olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anketin amacı yabancı dil öğreniminde kullanılan yöntemlerden biri olan çeviriye ilişkin öğrenci inançlarını ölçmektir. Anket katılımcılarıyla ilgili bilgiler ve anket sonuçları bilimsel çalışmanın amacı dışında hiçbir yerde ve ortamda paylaşılmayacaktır. Ankete katıldığınız ve desteğiniz için teşekkür ederim.

Pınar Artar
Rovira i Virgili Üniversitesi
Kültürlerarası Çalışmalar Grubu
Doktora Öğrencisi

Aşağıda yer alan ifadelerden / yargılardan sizin için en uygun olanını sağ tarafta bulunan beş basamaklı (1-5) ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. (*1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5: Kesinlikle katılıyorum*)

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	2	3	4	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Çeviri aktiviteleri tüm yabancı dil öğrenim müfredatlarına dâhil edilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Çeviri iletişimsel aktivitelerle geliştirilebilecek bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İngilizce bir metin okurken zor cümleleri zihnimde Türkçeye çeviririm.	1	2	3	4	5
4	İngilizce bir metin okurken cümleleri zihnimde çevirmek okuduğum metni daha iyi anlamamı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
5	İngilizce bir metin yazarken, zor cümleleri zihnimde Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviririm.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İngilizce bir metin yazarken cümleleri Türkçeden İngilizceye çevirmek karmaşık cümlelerle kendimi daha kolay ifade edebilmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Çeviri aktiviteleri İngilizce öğrenme sürecimde yazma becerimi geliştirmeme yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Çeviri tıpkı okuma, yazma, dinleme ve konuşma gibi bir dil becerisidir.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Çeviri dil öğrenme sürecinde sınavlar aracılığıyla ölçülmesi (test edilmesi) gereken bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5

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10	Çevirinin kullanıldığı ödevler, sınıf içi çalışmalar ve projeler dil öğrenme sürecinde faydalı olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Çeviri yabancı dil öğrenimini olumsuz etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Çeviri aktiviteleri İngilizce sözcük bilgimi geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Çeviri aktiviteleri İngilizce gramer bilgimi geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
14	İngilizce öğrenimine yönelik ders kitaplarında çeviri aktiviteleri olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Çeviri çalışarak geliştirilebilecek bir beceri değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
16	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yaparken metnin konusu hakkında önceden bilgi sahibi olmak (artalan bilgisi) önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yaparken en zorlayıcı nokta uzun ve karmaşık cümlelerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
18	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yaparken en zorlayıcı nokta uzun ve karmaşık cümlelerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
19	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yapmamın Türkçe yazma becerilerim üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Çeviri aktivitelerinin İngilizce konuşulurken akıcılığım konusunda olumlu etkisi olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
21	'Çeviri Teknikleri' isimli bir ders ödev hazırlamak, tez yazmak ve sunum yapmak gibi akademik çalışmalarımda faydalı olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Zihnimde çeviri yapmak İngilizce konuşurken akıcılığımı azaltır.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Yabancı dil öğreniminde iletişimsel çeviri aktiviteleri kullanılmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Çeviri mezun olduktan sonar ihtiyaç duyacağım bir beceridir.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Ödev hazırlamak, tez yazmak ve sunum yapmak gibi akademik çalışmalar yaparken çeviri yapmak zorunda kalacağım.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Çeviri yaparken en zorlayıcı nokta sözcük bilgisidir.	1	2	3	4	5
27	İngilizceden Türkçeye çeviri yapmak Türkçeden İngilizceye çeviri yapmaktan daha zorlayıcıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Doğrudan İngilizce yazmak yerine metni önce Türkçe yazıp daha sonra İngilizceye çevirmek daha iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Çeviri bir kişi yabancı dil öğrenirken kendiliğinden gelişen bir dil becerisidir.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Çeviri becerisi yalnızca mekanik alıştırmalarla geliştirilebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Yabancı bir dilde yazabilen herkes ana dilinden yabancı dile ya da yabancı dilden ana diline güzel bir şekilde çeviri yapabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Yabancı bir dilde konuşabilen herkes ana dilinden yabancı dile ya da yabancı dilden ana diline güzel bir şekilde çeviri yapabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Çeviri İngilizce öğretirken sınıflarda diğer metotlarla birlikte kullanılabilir.	1	2	3	4	5

LEARNERS' AND STUDENT-TEACHERS' BELIEFS ON TRANSLATION AS A TECHNIQUE USED IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

This questionnaire is a pre-study of my doctoral research *"The Role of Translation on Foreign-language Learning",* which I have been carrying out with the Intercultural Studies Group at *Universitat Rovira i Virgili* in Spain. The purpose of the questionnaire is to measure student beliefs regarding translation as a technique used in foreign-language learning. The information will not be used except for the purpose of the study. I would like to thank for your participation and support.

Pınar ARTAR, MA
Universitat Rovira i Virgili
Intercultural Studies Group
PhD Candidate

Please mark the following statements according to the option which best suits you, using the 1-5 scale on the right. (*1: Completely disagree, – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5: Completely agree)*

		Completely Disagree	2	3	4	Completely Agree
1	Translation activities should be included in the language teaching curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Translation is a skill that can be improved by communicative activities.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I translate the difficult sentences into Turkish in my mind while reading a difficult English text.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Translating the sentences from English to Turkish while reading an English text makes it easier for me to understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
5	While writing an English text, I translate the difficult sentences in my mind from Turkish to English.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Translating the sentences from Turkish to English while writing an English text help me to express myself better in complex sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Translation activities help me to improve my writing skill while learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Translation is a language skill just like reading, writing, listening and speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Translation is a skill that can to be tested in language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Assignments, in-class tasks and projects that require me to translate will contribute to my language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Translation is detrimental to language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Translation activities improve my English vocabulary knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5

13	Translation activities improve my English grammar knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Translation activities should be included in the language teaching course books.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Translation is not a skill that can be improved by studying.	1	2	3	4	5
16	It is important to have a background knowledge about the text to be able to translate from Turkish to English.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The most challenging thing in translating from Turkish to English is the long and complex sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The most challenging thing in translating from English to Turkish is long and complex sentences.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Translating from English to Turkish improves my writing skill in Turkish.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Translation activities will have a positive effect on my fluency in speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
21	A course titled 'Translation Techniques' can be useful for academic studies such as preparing assignments, writing thesis and making presentations.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Mental translating decreases my fluency while speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Communicative translation activities should be used in foreign-language teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Translation is a skill that I will need when I graduate.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I will have to translate to while preparing assignments, writing thesis and giving presentations.	1	2	3	4	5
26	The most difficult thing in translation is the vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
27	It is more difficult to translate from the target language to the source language.	1	2	3	4	5
28	It is better to write the text in Turkish first and then translate into English instead of direct writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Translation is a skill that can improve when a person learns a language.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Translation skill can be improved only by mechanical exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Everybody who can write in a foreign-language can translate from that language into his native language or vice versa.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Everybody who can speak a foreign-language can translate from or into that language.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Translation can be used together with other methods while teaching a foreign-language.	1	2	3	4	5

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Appendix 4. Survey for student-teachers

Questionnaire for Trainee Teachers (Student-Teachers) in Turkey
Translation and Language Learning: An Analysis of Translation as a Technique in
Language Learning

The purpose of the questionnaire is to measure trainee-teachers' (student-teachers') beliefs regarding translation as a method/technique/procedure used in foreign-language learning.

In completing this questionnaire, I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research on Translation and Language Learning conducted in 2014-15. I understand I will not receive monetary payment for my participation.

I understand that the purpose of this research is to investigate the use of translation in the teaching of languages, that I am providing information on my personal opinions and teaching practices, and that I am free to discontinue my participation at any time.

I understand that all my responses will be confidential, in the sense that my name will not appear in any public records or publications, and that only researcher Pınar Artar and her thesis supervisor Dr. Anthony Pym will have access to these data. The data may be used over the next three years although they will be retained indefinitely as records. I further understand that information from all the respondents will be grouped together to provide general information about translation and language teaching.

I have been told that I am free to ask questions concerning the research procedure. I understand that if I would like more information about this research, I can contact Pınar Artar at pinarsabuncu.artar@gmail.com.

☐   I agree to the above   ☐   I do not agree

Which country are you planning to teach in?
☐   Turkey
☐   Other (Please indicate where)   _____

Which of the teaching contexts below would you prefer to work in?
☐   Primary
☐   Secondary
☐   Tertiary

Is this the first time you are taking ELT 332 (Translation from Turkish to English) course?
☐   Yes   ☐   No

Have you completed ELT 241 (Translation from English to Turkish) course?
☐   Yes   ☐   No

What is your view regarding the language-teaching methods mentioned below? Please indicate the values you think will be appropriate to the teaching context you are planning to teach in. (If you select "other" please name the additional teaching method or methods.)
(If a method is unfamiliar to you, please do NOT indicate any preferences with respect to it.)

	Very Negatively	Negatively	Indifferent	Positively	Very Positively
Audiolingual method					
Audio-visual language teaching					
Bilingual method					
Communicative language teaching					
Communicative Translation					
Direct Method					
Grammar-translation method					
Humanistic language teaching					
Immersion					
Suggestopedia					
Task based learning					
Total physical response					
Other					

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly Agree
Translating is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking)					
Translating brings the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together.					
Translating takes time away from more valuable learning activities.					
Translating is for professionals only.					
Translating does not allow the student to think in the new language.					

In addition to the above, do you think there is another relation between translation and language learning?

(Box for free-text response)

Do you think you can use translation exercises in your language-teaching classes?
- ☐ Never
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ Always

If you have answered "Never" or "2", please say why.
- ☐ The institution may forbid it.
- ☐ The curriculum may forbid it.
- ☐ I think it is detrimental to language learning.
- ☐ I do not feel qualified to use translation in my classes.
- ☐ Other

If "other" is selected, please specify here):

(Box for free-text response)

If you have answered "the institution may forbid it", would you use translation if you were permitted to do so.
☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Don't know

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If you have answered "the curriculum may forbid it", would you use translation if you were permitted to do so.

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Don't know

Please say how often you would prefer to use the following activities:

	Never	2	3	4	Always
Translating individual sentences into English					
Translating individual sentences into Turkish					
Translating longer passages into English					
Translating longer passages into Turkish					
Translation analysis/criticism/discussion					
Watching English-language films subtitled in English					
Watching English-language films subtitled in Turkish					
Watching dubbed films					
Working with machine translated texts					
Other (specify below)					

What other translation activities would you prefer to use?

(Box for free-text response)

Please state why you would prefer these other activities.

(Box for free-text response)

Many thanks for your participation! If you would like to receive the results of the survey, please indicate your e-mail below.

(Box for free-text response)

Appendix 5. Online Survey for teachers

Survey: Translation and Language Learning (Turkey)
Questionnaire for Language Teachers (Turkey)

Quest.1- The purpose of the questionnaire is to measure teachers' beliefs regarding translation as a method/technique/procedure used in foreign-language learning.

In completing this questionnaire, I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research on Translation and Language Learning conducted in 2014-15. I understand I will not receive monetary payment for my participation.

I understand that the purpose of this research is to investigate the use of translation in the teaching of languages, that I am providing information on my personal opinions and teaching practices, and that I am free to discontinue my participation at any time.

I understand that all my responses will be confidential, in the sense that my name will not appear in any public records or publications, and that only researcher Pınar Artar and her thesis supervisor Dr. Anthony Pym will have access to these data. The data will be used over the next three years although they will be retained indefinitely as records. I further understand that information from all the respondents will be grouped together to provide general information about translation and language teaching.

I have been told that I am free to ask questions concerning the research procedure. I understand that if I would like more information about this research, I can contact Pınar Artar at pinarsabuncu.artar@gmail.com.

   (* Tick only one option)

☐ Yes
☐ No

Quest.2.- What city do you teach in?
(* This question is obligatory)

(Box for free-text response)

Quest.3.- What is your teaching context?
(* This question is obligatory)
(* Tick only one option)

☐ Primary
☐ Secondary
☐ Tertiary

Quest.4.- Please write the name of the institution you work for.
(* This question is obligatory)

(Box for free-text response)

Quest.5.- What foreign-language do you teach?
(* This question is obligatory)

(Box for free-text response)

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Quest.6.- For how many years have you been teaching?
(* This question is obligatory)
(* Tick only one option)

☐ 1-3
☐ 4-6
☐ 7-10
☐ 11-20
☐ More than 20

Quest.7.- Do you use Turkish in your foreign-language-teaching classes?
(* This question is obligatory)
(* Tick only one option)

☐ Never
☐ Rarely
☐ Frequently
☐ Almost always
☐ Always

Quest.8.- If you have answered Never or Rarely, please say why:
(* Tick only one option)

☐ The curriculum forbids it
☐ The institution does not allow it
☐ I think it is detrimental to language learning
☐ Other (please specify)_____

Quest.9.- How are these language-teaching methods viewed in your institution at the level at which you teach? (If a method is unfamiliar to you, please do not indicate any preference with respect to it.)
(* Tick only one option by row)

	Very negatively	Negatively	Indifferent	Positively	Very positively
Audiolingual method					
Audio-visual language teaching					
Bilingual method					
Communicative language teaching					
Direct method					
Grammar-translation method					
Humanistic language teaching					
Immersion					
Suggestopedia					
Task-based learning					
Total physical response					
Other					

Please name the additional teaching method or methods, if any.

(Box for free-text response)

Quest.10.- To what extent do you agree with the following statements?
(* This question is obligatory)
(* Tick only one option by row)

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly agree
Translating is a fifth skill (in addition to reading, writing, listening and speaking).					
Translating brings the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking together.					
Translating takes time away from more valuable learning activities.					
Translating is for professionals only.					
Translating does not allow the student to think in the new language.					

Quest.11.- In addition to the above, do you think there is another relation between translation and language learning?

(Box for free-text response)

Quest.12.- Do you use translation exercises in your language-teaching classes?
(* This question is obligatory)
(* Tick only one option)

☐ Never
☐ 2
☐ 3
☐ 4
☐ Always

If you have answered Never or Rarely, please say why:
(* Tick only one option)

(Box for free-text response)

☐ The curriculum forbids it
☐ The institution does not allow it
☐ I have never considered it seriously
☐ I think it is detrimental to language learning
☐ I do not feel qualified to use translation in my classes
☐ Other (please specify)

Other reason:

(Box for free-text response)

If you have answered "the curriculum forbids it" or "the institution does not allow it", would you use translation if you were permitted to do so?
(* Tick only one option)

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ Don't know

Please explain why you have chosen YES or NO:

(Box for free-text response)

If you have answered "I think it is detrimental to language learning", please say why:

(Box for free-text response)

Please say how often you use the following activities:
(* This question is obligatory)

(Box for free-text response)

	Never	Only sometimes	Occasionally	Almost always	Always
Translating into L2 of individual sentences					
Translating into L1 of individual sentences					
Translating into L2 of longer passages					
Translating into L1 of longer passages					
Translation analysis/criticism/discussion					
Watching subtitled films					
Watching dubbed films					
Working with machine-translated texts					
Other (specify below)					

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What other translation activities do you use?

(Box for free-text response)

Quest.13.- Please say why you prefer some activities.

(Box for free-text response)

Quest.14.- Many thanks for your participation! If you would like to receive the results of the survey, please indicate your e-mail below:

(Box for free-text response)

Appendix 6. Consent Form (in Turkish and English)

Tarih: … / … / …

İlgili Kişiye/Makama,

10 Şubat 2014 – 04 Nisan 2014 tarihleri arasında eğitim alacağım *Intermediate* düzeyinde yapacağım yazılı/sözlü ödev, aktivite, proje, sınıf içi çalışma ve sınav materyallerinin araştırmacı Pınar Artar tarafından yapılan "*Çevirinin Yabancı Dil Öğretimindeki Rolü (The Role of Translation in Foreign-language Teaching)*" başlıklı doktora çalışmasında kullanılmasına onay veriyorum.

Katılımcının Adı / Soyadı   :

İmza   :

*****

Date: … / … / …

To whom it may concern,

I, hereby, approve all my written/oral assignments, activities, projects, in-class tasks and exam materials produced during the Intermediate level module I attend between the dates 10th February 2014 – 4th April 2014 to be used by the researcher Pınar Artar within the framework of her doctoral dissertation titled "*The Role of Translation in Foreign-language Teaching*".

Participant's Name / Surname   :

Signature   :

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Appendix 7. Sample of the writing assessment scale

İZMİR UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF FOREİGN-LANGUAGES
WRITING ASSESSMENT SCALE FOR PREP CLASSES

	ELEMENTS	POINTS		ASSESSMENT CRITERIA
FORMAT (30 pts.)	Writing Conventions (10 pts.)	5		The type of the paragraph is correct.
		3		Required word limit for the paragraph is achieved.
		2		The topic of the paragraph is acceptable.
	Organization (10 pts.)	9-10	VERY GOOD	All elements of the paragraph are positioned accurately. There are no problems with the unity, coherence and cohesion in the paragraph.
		6-8	GOOD	Main ideas stand out but seem inconsistent. There are minor problems with the unity, coherence and cohesion in the paragraph.
		3-5	NOT GOOD	The paragraph mostly lacks logical sequencing and has problems in terms of unity, coherence and cohesion.
		0-2	POOR	The paragraph lacks logical sequencing; unity, coherence and cohesion in the paragraph cannot be assessed.
	Mechanics (10 pts.)	3	FORMAT	There are no problems with the title, margin, spacing and indentation.
		3	SPELLING	There are no problems with spelling. (No points after 5 mistakes.)
		2	CAPITALIZATION	There are no problems with capitalization. (No points after 2 mistakes.)
		2	PUNCTUATION	There are no problems with punctuation. (No points after 3 mistakes.)
CONTENT (70 pts.)	Communicative Quality (5 pts.)	5	VERY GOOD	The paragraph is highly satisfactory and communicates quite fluently.
		3-4	GOOD	The paragraph communicates well despite occasional lapses.
		1-2	NOT GOOD	The paragraph requires considerable effort by the reader to communicate.
		0	POOR	The paragraph displays no ability to communicate.
	Topic Sentence (10 pts.)	9-10	VERY GOOD	Topic sentence is in an appropriate position and stated clearly and accurately.
		6-8	GOOD	Topic sentence is in an appropriate position but contains some minor mistakes.
		3-5	NOT GOOD	Topic sentence is weak in meaning and contains major errors.
		0-2	POOR	Topic sentence is not assessable or there is no topic sentence.

Concluding Sentence (10 pts.)	9-10	VERY GOOD	Concluding sentence is in the appropriate position and stated clearly and accurately.
	6-8	GOOD	Concluding sentence is in the appropriate position but contains some minor mistakes.
	3-5	NOT GOOD	Concluding sentence is weak in meaning and contains major errors.
	0-2	POOR	Concluding sentence is not assessable or there is no concluding sentence.
Vocabulary (10 pts.)	9-10	VERY GOOD	There is a considerable variety and range of words in choice, use, form and appropriateness to content.
	6-8	GOOD	Word choice and use seem appropriate but still need to be developed especially in terms of forms.
	3-5	NOT GOOD	Most of the words are inappropriate to the content. Choice, use and forms need much to be developed.
	0-2	POOR	Word choice, use, forms and appropriateness are weak and make no sense.
Use of English (15 pts)	13-15	VERY GOOD	The paragraph displays a clear and accurate grammar; mistakes are negligible; attempted sentence constructions are achieved; complexity in sentences reveals itself.
	9-12	GOOD	The paragraph has minor but still negligible grammatical mistakes. It seems acceptable, relatively.
	4-8	NOT GOOD	There are considerable and frequent errors; sentences are too simple for the student's level.
	0-3	POOR	The paragraph contains major grammatical errors which result in obstruction of meaning.
Ideas and Content (20 pts.)	18-20	VERY GOOD	Ideas stated are clear, to the point, original and relevant to the required topic. They can be followed easily and there is a remarkable consistency within the whole paragraph.
	14-17	GOOD	Ideas stated are generally clear, to the point and mostly relevant to the required topic but not that original. Although there are some lapses, they can be followed easily. Possible inconsistencies are negligible within the whole paragraph.
	9-13	DEVELOPING	Although the student's effort can be felt, there are problematic transitions among the ideas and some seem to be indirectly relevant to the required topic. Besides, they sound quite ordinary and lapses sometimes bring about misunderstanding. Clear guidance and feedback can help the student to develop his/her work.
	4-8	NOT GOOD	Ideas stated are mostly unclear, ordinary and irrelevant to the required topic. Lapses lead to misunderstanding and remarkable inconsistencies observed within the whole paragraph.
	0-3	POOR	The paragraph has almost no ideas relevant to the required topic and it also requires a lot of effort on behalf of the reader.

PLEASE NOTE: *In PAT and PINE, there are* NO half grades. *If one instructor awards 70 and the other 75, the grade is automatically 75. If one instructor awards 70 and the other 80, the grade is automatically 75. If one instructor awards 70 and the other 85, a third check is required and the grade is the mean of the three.*

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Appendix 8. Sample of the assessment grid for speaking exam

IZMIR UNIVERSITY
B1 LEVEL
SPEAKING TEST ASSESSMENT SCALE

	0	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.0
Grammar and Vocabulary *Control Range Appropriacy*	Performance does not satisfy the band 1 descriptor.	• Shows sufficient control of simple grammatical forms. • Uses a limited range of appropriate vocabulary to talk about familiar topics.	More features of 1.0 than 3.0.	Some features of 3.0 and some features of 1.0 in approximately equal measure.	More features of 3.0 than 1.0.	• Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms. • Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about familiar topics.	More features of 3.0 than 5.0.	Some features of 3.0 and some features of 5.0 in approximately equal measure	More features of 5.0 than 3.0.	• Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms, and attempts some complex grammatical forms. • Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar topics.
Discourse Management Extent Relevance Coherence Cohesion Flow of Language		•Produces responses which are characterized by short phrases and frequent hesitation. •Repeats information or digresses from the topic.				• Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. • Contributions are mostly relevant, but there may be some repetition. • Uses basic cohesive devices.				• Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. • Contributions are relevant despite some repetition. • Uses a range of cohesive devices.
Pronunciation Intonation Stress Individual Sounds		•Is mostly intelligible despite limited control of phonological features.				• Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.				• Is intelligible. • Intonation is generally appropriate. • Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. • Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.
Interactive Communication Initiating Responding Development		• Maintains simple exchanges despite some difficulty. •Requires prompting and support.				• Initiates and responds appropriately. • Keeps the interaction going with very little prompting and support.				• Initiates and responds appropriately. • Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.

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Appendix 9. Samples of translation exercises, tasks, activities and projects used in the treatment

Task	Liaison Interpreting
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To introduce students to the communicative use of translation. 2. To foster listening and speaking skills of students both in L1 and L2.
Steps	1. Students are put in groups of three. 2. Each student in the group adopts a different role (a student, a student-affairs officer, a translator) and given a situation cars describing his/her role. 3. In their groups, student-affairs officers start to have an interview with the students applying for a part-time job at the university with the purpose of deciding which job would be appropriate for him/her depending on his/her interests, abilities, experience and working hours. 4. Translators take turns to interpret what is said by each communicator. They are allowed to ask for repetitions and clarifications if they fail to understand what is being said. 5. Teacher monitors the groups and notes down the misunderstandings, syntactic errors and misuse of lexical items to be discussed in the debriefing sessions when the activity is completed. 6. Students may change roles and repeat the activity. 7. Students are asked to reflect on their experience in written and share what they found challenging/beneficial in the process
Variants / Extension:	1. In classes with more than 12 students, there may be an additional person in the groups to note down the misunderstandings, syntactic errors and misuse of lexical items instead of the teacher. The note-takers do not intervene in the communication and shares their notes in the debriefing sessions when the activity is completed. 2. The activity can be adopted to be carried out with different roles. 3. When there are foreign students in the class (Erasmus exchange students) they can act the role of the student who is not supposed to understand the class's L1)
Groups	Groups of three
Special Requirements	Role-cards to set the situations and give prompts to prepare the students for their roles.
Online	Unsuitable, unless you have very good video and audio connections.
Time Required	20-30 minutes
Reference	Adopted from the Final Report Translation and Language Learning: The role of translation in the teaching of languages in the European Union (2013)

Activity	Proofreading and Editing
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To raise awareness about the limitations of online translation tools such as *Google Translate*. 2. To use online translation tools as a linguistic and lexical resource. 3. To notice the importance of context in guessing the meaning 4. To draw attention to the importance of editing a text translated by online translation tools. 5. To discover and comment on the causes of the variation in L2. 6. To guide students how to make the most of online translation tools.
Steps	1. Students are given a short text in L2, which is translated by Google *Translate* and asked to edit the paragraph. 2. Then they are given the original text in L1 and informed that the previous text was the translation by *Google Translate*. 3. Students work on the original and the translated texts and produce alternative translations in pairs. 4. A class discussion is carried out to draw attention to the limitations of online translation tools, how to overcome these limitations, how to make the most of these tools as well as alternative translations of the text.
Variants / Extension:	1. Students can be asked to back-translate the English text -without looking at the translation by *Google Translate*. 2. The length and the complexity of the text can be altered depending on the level of the students. 3. The topic can be altered depending on the objectives of the lesson.
Groups	Individual work but it can be done in-pairs.
Special Requirements	None
Online	If computers and Internet connections is available for all the students, students can work online instead of hard-copy texts.
Time Required	20-30 minutes
Reference	-
Module:	B1 (Intermediate)
Week	1/8

Activity	Working on Collocations
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To brainstorm about common collocations used with the verbs *"go, take, get, do"*. 2. To highlight the change in meaning when the same verb combines with other words. 3. To create awareness about the possibility of alternative translations
Steps	1. Students are given a text (a text in their course book can also be used) including collocations. 2. They are asked to read the text and underline the collocations used with the verbs *"go, take, get, do"*. 3. They are given short paragraphs including these collocations in their L1 and asked to translate the paragraphs into English. The collocations will be bold and underlined in the original text. 4. To make the activity more interactive and encourage students exchange ideas with one another, they may be asked to work in pairs. 5. After they complete their translations, each pair joins to another (to a pair that has worked on the same task sheet) and compares the translations produced with a particular focus on the translations of the collocations. 6. Teacher elicits the translations for the collocations from the students. In the discussion part, the teacher and students do not work on the translation of the whole text as the primary focus of the activity is to work on collocations. Collocations are given in context in order to have a more authentic activity.
Variants / Extension:	The activity may be followed with a class discussion on the difficulties they may have had during the translation process.
Groups	Individual work, pair-work, group work
Special Requirements	None
Online	Not necessary
Time Required	20-30 minutes
Reference	Adopted from Duff, A. (1989)

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Activity	Keep talking and translating
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To explore the reasons why translations are different 2. To monitor the students' thinking and the mental process they go through while they are translating
Steps	1. Students are given a text about a topic they have discussed in the lesson to ensure background knowledge and lexical familiarity. 2. They are put into groups of four. 3. They work on different sections of the same text. 4. While translating students are asked to record their translation process. 5. Students then regroup to connect together their parts into a full text, with suitable connecting language. 4. Students reflect on their translating process, the challenging aspects of it and how they think they would benefit from it.
Variants / Extension:	1. Groups may join together to compare other translations with theirs and discuss the reasons for their choices 2. In addition to the written reflection, students may be encouraged to share their experience during the translation process orally and how they felt while recording their mental process.
Groups	Individual work and group work
Special Requirements	Mobile phone for TAP (Think Aloud Protocol)
Online	Unsuitable
Time Required	Approximately 30-minute take-home work and one 50-minute session
Reference	Adopted from http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/translation-activities-language-classroom . Accessed February 9, 2015

Activity	Transformations
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To notice the importance of register in communication 2. To mark the significance of context in spoken language
Steps	1. Students are divided into groups of three or four. 2. Teacher writes a relatively short, neutral statement on the board (Thank you, I agree/I don't agree, No smoking, I'm sorry, Sit down). 3. Students work in their groups to brainstorm various ways of conveying the same message in different words (Sit down: Take a seat. /Do sit down. /Why don't you sit down? /Can't you find a chair? /This seat is empty/ You are still standing., etc.) 4. Each group is going to work on one of the statements. 5. In their groups, students note down their suggestions. For each suggestion, they also add in what context they would expect to see or hear the words (who is speaking? to whom? where does the conversation take place?) 6. Finally, each group works on the phrases they come up with to translate to their mother tongue.
Variants / Extension:	The activity may be extended with a writing or speaking activity. Students may be asked to write down and act or improvise conversations using the phrases they have come up with.
Groups	Groups of three or four
Special Requirements	None
Online	Not necessary
Time Required	One 50-minute session
Reference	Adopted from Duff, A. (1989)

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Module	B1 (Intermediate)
Date(s)	10.02.2014-21.02.2014

Project 1	Bitstrips Comics Translation
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To urge students familiarize themselves with colloquial English by making use of social media and technology. 2. To help students create a context where they can express their feelings in a visual way and communicate with their friends by having fun.
Steps	1. Students sign up *Bitstrips* on Facebook or download the application on their smart phones. 2. They design cartoon versions (avatars) of themselves and their friends. 3. They are expected to choose a comic strip that show their feelings every day and add the translation of their status to the comic strip. 4. They share a comic strip that shows their feelings and update their status regularly for a two-week period. 5. A wall is created on the web site www.padlet.com by the teacher and the code to the website is shared with the students. 6. All the students share their comic strips along with their translations on the wall created on Padlet (Wallwisher). 7. After ten days, all the comic strips shared are reflected by a projector in the class and a class discussion is carried out referring to the different translations of the same comic strips and/or other possible translations that students may offer for their friends' comic strips.
Variants / Extension:	1. To keep the activity more controlled, class discussion can be carried out at regular intervals. This can also give the students an opportunity to discuss their approach while translating (whether to prioritize the meaning or the function) and the things they should consider while translating colloquial speech. 2. Students can also share their comic strips on a spreadsheet created on google documents (www.docs.google.com) and make corrections on each other's translations. 3. The duration of the project can be lengthened depending on the interest of the students.
Groups	Students work on their bitstrip comics individually, but it is followed by a class discussion.
Special Requirements	Internet connection on computers or mobile phones, a projector in the classroom.
Online	Required.
Duration	Two-week project
Reference	-

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Module	B1 (Intermediate)
Date(s)	24.02.2014-07.03.2014

Project 2	Blipfoto Photo Journal Project
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To foster reading and writing skills of the students. 2. To encourage students interact with each other and others by using L2. 3. To create a setting to use L2 where students can be kept engaged outside the classroom
Steps	1. Students sign up *Blipfoto* by entering the website www.blipfoto.com. 2. They also subscribe to each other's page to be able to follow one another easily. 3. Each student is expected to share a photo on the site every day and add an explanation in both L1 and L2 to their photo. The explanation may include the description of the photo or refer to the feelings of the person. 4. In order to create a photo journal, every student is expected to share a photo regularly. 5. After sharing a photo, every student is expected to look through each other's photos and leave a comment to one another. 6. After ten days, all the students will have created a photo journal including ten photos. Then they are expected to choose two photos to present on Photo Presentation Day. 7. On Photo Presentation Day, each student presents two printed photos and answers the guests' questions. 8. After the presentation session, all students vote for the Best Photo Journal and the winner is awarded with a small prize.
Variants / Extension:	1. The logic behind the blipfoto is to share a photo that the user has taken that particular day. However, the students may be given the opportunity to share photos that they have taken earlier or photos taken by others. 2. The duration of the project can be lengthened depending on the interest of the students.
Groups	Students work on their journals individually, but interact with each other in addition to the other Blipfoto users when leaving comments and replying comments.
Special Requirements	Internet connection on computers or mobile phones, printed photos to be sticked on cardboards.
Online	Required.
Duration	Two-week project.
Reference	-

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Module	B1 (Intermediate)
Date(s)	10.03.2014-21.03.2014

Project 3	Dubbing
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To notice the difference in spoken and written language. 2. To notice the variety in solutions to translation problems 3. To realize the importance of coherence in a written/oral text.
Steps	1. Students listen to an academic lecture of 5-6 minutes. 2. They are divided into two groups of 8-10 students in each. 3. All the students are given the script of the lecture, which is divided in parts to be translated by the students individually. 4. Students translate their part at home and come together with their group members to combine the parts together and produce a coherent text. 5. Each group chooses a student to dub the lecture. 5. They dub their translations and produce a translated version of the lecture in their L1. 6. The two groups display their dubbed videos and carry out a class discussion on the similarities/differences in the two videos as well as the reasons behind their choices.
Variants / Extension:	1. Students may be asked to add subtitles to the lecture in addition to dubbing. 2. Following the class discussion, students may be asked to reflect on their dubbing process and refer to the challenging aspects of it (if any).
Groups	Individually and in groups.
Special Requirements	Internet connection on computers for the dubbing process
Online	Required.
Duration	Two-week project.
Reference	-

Module	B1 (Intermediate)
Date(s)	24.03.2014-07.04.2014

Project 4	Subtitles in Context
Level	B1 and above
Aim	1. To foster listening and speaking skills of the students. 2. To introduce the communicative use of translation
Steps	1. Students are divided into two groups of 8-10 students. 2. They are asked to prepare a video for a campaign on a social problem such as women rights, animal rights, global warming, drug abuse etc. (For a sample video, click on http://vimeo.com/84997788) 3. Each group writes a text with the purpose of drawing attention to the importance of that particular social problem, its causes and/or results as well as our responsibilities as an individual. 4. Each student in the group is expected to speak in the video for at least 30 seconds. 5. After students produce their videos, they add subtitles in L1. 6. Each group displays their video on the Video Display Day and the displays are followed by group discussions on the given topics.
Variants / Extension:	1. Video displays can be followed by a class discussion or discussions can be organized in the pre-arranged small groups. 2. After watching the videos groups may choose the topics they want to discuss.
Groups	Individually and in groups.
Special Requirements	Internet connection on computers for the subtitling process
Online	Required.
Duration	Two-week project.
Reference	-

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