

**A Survey Study of Iranian Translation Students' Use  
of Translation Language Learning Strategies and  
Related Beliefs**

**Amir Asgarian**

Submitted to the  
Institute of Graduate Studies and Research  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy  
in  
English Language Teaching

Eastern Mediterranean University  
August 2014  
Gazimağusa, North Cyprus

Approval of the Institute of Graduate Studies and Research

---

Prof. Dr. Elvan Yılmaz  
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Teaching.

---

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülşen Musayeva Vefalı  
Chair, Department of English Language Teaching

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate in scope and quality as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Teaching.

---

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülşen Musayeva Vefalı  
Supervisor

---

Examining Committee

1. Prof. Dr. Işın Öner

2. Prof. Dr. Gürkan Doğan

3. Prof. Dr. Necdet Osam

4. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülşen Musayeva Vefalı

5. Asst. Prof. Dr. Ali Sıdkı Ağazade

## **ABSTRACT**

Translation language learning strategies, especially in relation to translation students, have not received adequate attention in the research to date. Therefore, the present study attempted to explore Iranian translation students' use of translation strategies, related beliefs and the effect of the factors of age, gender, university, academic achievement and self-rated proficiency on their beliefs and strategy use. It was a cross-sectional survey involving questionnaires and an interview. The survey was conducted with 320 undergraduate students majoring in English translation from six branches of Azad University in Iran. The results of the survey showed that the translation majors held mostly positive, somewhat conflicting beliefs though, about the role of translation in English language learning, that their repertoire and frequency of translation strategy use were not adequate yet, and, importantly that their university and academic achievement had an effect on their beliefs and strategy use.

The study findings revealed that the translation students with strong positive beliefs about the role of translation in general and translation into their native language specifically tended to apply translation strategies for acquisition of English language skills with higher frequency. Moreover, the translation majors with favourable beliefs about the role of translation tended to report using translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English frequently, and those with positive beliefs about reliance on their mother tongue would frequently make use of resource-related and social translation strategies. Further, the translation students from the North branches of Azad University held more positive beliefs about translation in English

language learning and benefitted more from the use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English than the translation majors in Tehran. Importantly, the translation students with higher achievement scores were more aware of L1 effects on their target language learning. In light of its findings, the present study offers pedagogical implications and makes suggestions for further research.

**Keywords:** survey; beliefs; translation strategy; first language (L1); second language (L2)

## ÖZ

Çeviri dil öğrenme stratejileri, özellikle mütercim tercümanlık öğrencileri bağlamında, yeterli derecede araştırılmamıştır. Zira bu kesitsel çalışma, İranlı mütercim tercümanlık öğrencilerinin çeviri dil öğrenme stratejilerinin kullanımını, ilgili inançlarını ve yaş, cinsiyet, üniversite, akademik başarı ve yeterlik faktörlerin stratejilere ve inançlara etkisini incelemiştir. Çalışma, anket ve mülakat uygulamıştır. Araştırma, İran'ın Azad Üniversitesi'nin altı şubesinden 320 İngilizce mütercim tercümanlık öğrencileri ile yürütülmüştür. Analizler mütercim tercümanlık öğrencilerinin çevirinin İngiliz dili öğrenimindeki rolü ile ilgili genellikle olumlu, fakat bazen çelişkili inançlara sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Ayrıyeten, öğrencilerin çeviri dil stratejilerinin repertuar ve kullanım sıklığı açısından çok yeterli olmadığını belirlemiştir. Ayrıca, bu bağlamda mütercim tercümanlık öğrencilerinin okudukları üniversite ve akademik başarılarının dil öğrenme stratejilerine ve ilgili inançlarına etkisi tespit edilmiştir.

Çalışma bulguları, genellikle çeviri rolü ve özellikle kendi ana dillerine çeviri hususunda güçlü, olumlu inançları olan mütercim tercümanlık öğrencilerinin çok sıklıkla İngilizce dil becerilerinin edinimi için çeviri stratejilerini uygulamaya yöneldiğini ortaya çıkardı. Ayrıyeten, çeviri rolü hakkında olumlu inançları olan mütercim tercümanlık öğrencileri, İngilizce sözcük-dilbilgisi edinimleri için sık sık çeviri stratejileri kullandıklarını ve ana dillerine güven konusunda olumlu inançlara sahip olan bu kişiler, kaynakla ilgili stratejiler ve sosyal çeviri stratejilerinden sıklıkla faydanlandıklarını bildirdiler. Ayrıca, Azad Üniversitesi'nin Kuzey şubelerindeki mütercim tercümanlık öğrencileri, Tahran'daki mütercim tercümanlık

öğrencilerine nazaran İngilizce dil öğreniminde çeviri konusunda daha olumlu inançlar sergilemiş ve İngilizce dil becerilerinin edinimi için çeviri stratejilerinin kullanımından daha fazla yararlanmışır. Daha da önemlisi, yüksek başarı puanlarına sahip olan mütercim tercümanlık öğrencileri, hedeflenen dil öğreniminde ana dilin etkilerinin daha çok farkındaydı. Bu bulguların ışığında, bu çalışma ileri araştırmalar ve dil eğitimi için önerilerde bulunmaktadır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Araştırma, inançlar, çeviri stratejisi, ana dil (L1), ikinci dil (L2)

# **DEDICATION**

**To my most beloved family for their ongoing support and unconditional love**

**&**

**To my beloved uncle Farzad who will always live in my heart ...**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Over the past six years I have received support and encouragement from a great number of individuals throughout the researching and writing of this dissertation. Here, I wish to acknowledge these remarkable individuals who contributed to this dissertation.

First and foremost, I wish to thank my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülşen Musayeva Vefalı, Chair of the ELT Department of the Education Faculty at EMU. She has been a mentor who generously shared her academic knowledge and professional expertise with me. It has been a privilege to work with her and to benefit from her thoughtful and systematic guidance.

I am also grateful to my examining committee members, Prof. Dr. Işın Öner, Prof. Dr. Gürkan Doğan, Prof. Dr. Necdet Osam, and Asst. Prof. Dr. Ali Sıdkı Ağazade, whose expert advice, encouragement, and constructive critical remarks contributed to the final version of the present study.

I express my gratitude to those students at Tehran, Chalus, Tonekabon, and Rasht branches of the Islamic Azad University who, despite their busy summer course schedule, participated in this study. I would also like to extend my acknowledgments to the English faculty members at the aforementioned branches of Azad University who welcomed me into their courses and helped me with data collection.



I extend my warmest appreciation to my friends, Fikret Vefalı, Ece Zorba Barişsal, and Özge Çakmak İşitmez, for their great support in various ways.

My special thanks go to my family in Iran, who have been the source of my energy and inspiration. They have always trusted and respected my decisions and have unconditionally supported me with their love throughout my life. They have given up many things for me to be where I am now; they have cherished and supported me whenever I needed it.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .....	iii
ÖZ .....	v
DEDICATION .....	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....	viii
LIST OF TABLES .....	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xx
1 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.1 Overview .....	1
1.2 Background to the Study .....	3
1.3 Statement of the Problem .....	5
1.4 Purpose of the Study.....	6
1.5 Significance of the Study .....	7
1.6 Definition of Terms .....	7
1.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study .....	10
2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
2.1 Introduction .....	11
2.2 Learner Beliefs .....	11
2.2.1 Definitions of Learner Beliefs .....	12
2.2.2 Approaches to Learner(s') beliefs .....	18
2.2.2.1 The Normative Approach.....	18
2.2.2.2 The Meta-cognitive Approach .....	20
2.2.2.3 The Contextual Approach .....	22
2.3 Learning Strategies.....	24

2.3.1	Definitions of Learning Strategies .....	24
2.3.2	Taxonomies of Learning Strategies .....	26
2.3.3	Good Language Learning Strategies .....	28
2.3.4	Factors Affecting Choice of Learning Strategies .....	29
2.3.4.1	Learner Factors.....	30
2.3.4.2	Social and Situational Factors .....	32
2.3.5	Learner Training .....	33
2.4	Translation.....	35
2.5	The Role of Translation in Language Teaching and Learning.....	40
2.5.1	Traditional Language Instruction .....	40
2.5.2	Innovative Language Instruction .....	47
2.6	Language Socialization .....	51
2.6.1	Language socialization theory .....	51
2.6.2	Second/Foreign Language Socialization .....	53
2.7	Translation Competence.....	58
2.8	Beliefs about Translation.....	63
2.9	Translation Strategies .....	65
2.10	Translation Studies in the Iranian Context .....	67
2.11	Summary .....	69
3	METHOD.....	70
3.1	Introduction .....	70
3.2	Overall Research Design .....	70
3.3	Research Questions .....	72
3.4	Context .....	72
3.5	Participants .....	74

3.6 Data Collection Instruments .....	85
3.6.1 Questionnaires .....	85
3.6.2 Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) .....	86
3.6.3 Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS).....	87
3.6.4 Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT).....	89
3.6.5 Inventory for Translation as Learning Strategy (ITLS).....	90
3.7 Interview Guide .....	91
3.8 Data Collection.....	93
3.8.1 Initiating Contact .....	93
3.8.2 Pilot Study .....	94
3.8.3 Administering Questionnaires .....	96
3.8.4 Conducting Interviews.....	97
3.9 Data Analysis .....	98
3.9.1 Descriptive Statistics .....	99
3.9.2 Factor Analysis .....	100
3.9.3 Canonical Correlation.....	102
3.9.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA).....	102
3.10 Summary .....	103
4 RESULTS .....	104
4.1 Descriptive Data Analysis of Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) .....	104
4.1.1 Beliefs about Using Translation either from English to Persian or from Persian to English .....	105
4.1.2 Beliefs about Using Translation from English to Persian only .....	110
4.1.3 Beliefs about Using Translation from Persian to English only .....	112

4.1.4 Beliefs about Avoiding the Use of Translation .....	113
4.1.5 Analysis of Open-ended IBT Questions .....	114
4.1.6 Summary .....	117
4.2 Descriptive Data Analysis of Inventory for Translation Learning Strategies (ITLS) .....	118
4.2.1 Analysis of Open-ended ITLS Question .....	125
4.2.2 Iranian Translation Students' Interview Reports .....	126
4.2.3 Summary .....	129
4.3 Factor Analysis of Inventory for Beliefs about Translation and Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy .....	129
4.3.1 Factor Analysis of Inventory for Beliefs about Translation .....	132
4.3.2 Factor Analysis of Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy .....	138
4.3.3 Factor Score .....	143
4.4 Canonical Correlation Analysis of IBT and ITLS Factors .....	143
4.4.1 Correlations between Composite Belief Variables and Composite Strategy Variable .....	144
4.4.2 Canonical Correlation Analysis Results .....	145
4.4.3 Interpretation of Canonical Variates .....	146
4.4.4 Canonical Correlation One (R1) .....	147
4.4.5 Canonical Correlation Two (R2) .....	147
4.5 Correlation of Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale with IBT and ITLS ..	154
4.6 Summary .....	158
5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION .....	159
5.1 Introduction .....	159
5.2 The Study .....	159

5.3 Major Findings .....	163
5.3.1 Iranian Translation Students' Beliefs about Translation .....	163
5.3.2 Iranian Translation Students' Use of Translation Strategies .....	163
5.3.3 Relationship between Translation Majors' Beliefs and Translation Language Learning Strategy Use.....	164
5.3.4 Effect of Learner Factors on Iranian Translation Students' Use of Translation Strategies and Related Beliefs .....	165
5.4 Discussion of Major Findings .....	166
5.5 Summary .....	170
5.6 Pedagogical Implications .....	172
5.7 Suggestions for Further Research.....	172
5.8 Final Remarks.....	173
REFERENCES.....	174
APPENDICES .....	214
Appendix A: Questionnaire Consent Form (English) .....	215
Appendix B: Questionnaire Consent Form (Persian).....	216
Appendix C: Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) (English).....	217
Appendix D: Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) (Persian).....	219
Appendix E: Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS) (English).....	221
Appendix F: Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS) (Persian) .....	223
Appendix G: Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) (English).....	225
Appendix H: Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) (Persian) .....	229
Appendix I: Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS) (English).....	232
Appendix J: Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS) (Persian).....	236
Appendix K: Interview Consent Form (English) .....	239

Appendix L: Interview Consent Form (Persian) .....	240
Appendix M: Interview Guide (English).....	240
Appendix N: Interview Guide (Persian).....	242
Appendix O: Frequencies of Responses on IBT .....	243
Appendix P: Frequencies of Responses on ITLS .....	251
Appendix Q: Factor Analysis Results for IBT .....	261
Appendix R: Factor Analysis Results for ITLS .....	264
Appendix S: Factor Score Coefficient Matrix for IBT.....	267
Appendix T: Factor Score Coefficient Matrix for ITLS .....	269
Appendix U: Pearson Correlation among IBT and ITLS Items .....	271
Appendix V: Participants' Responses to IBT Open-ended Questions .....	274
Appendix W: Participants' Responses to ITLS Open-ended Questions .....	290
Appendix X: Participants' Interview Reports .....	291

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. Universities and Higher Education Institutions in Iran.....	73
Table 3.2. Student Population at Different Tertiary Levels in Iran (2011).....	73
Table 3.3. Gender of Participants.....	75
Table 3.4. Gender of Participants at Azad University Branches in Tehran .....	75
Table 3.5. Gender of Participants at Azad University Branches in the North .....	75
Table 3.6. Age of Participants.....	75
Table 3.7. Age of Participants at Azad University Branches in Tehran .....	76
Table 3.8. Age of Participants at Azad University Branches in the North .....	76
Table 3.9. Minimum and Maximum Average Scores of Participants.....	77
Table 3.10. Frequency and Percent of Average Scores .....	77
Table 3.11. Minimum and Maximum Average Scores at Azad University Branches in Tehran .....	77
Table 3.12. Minimum and Maximum Average Scores at Azad University Branches in the North.....	77
Table 3.13. Frequency and Percent of Average Score Breakdown at Azad University Branches in Tehran .....	78
Table 3.14. Frequency and Percent of Average Score Breakdown at Azad University Branches in the North.....	78
Table 3.15. Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants.....	78
Table 3.16. Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-rated Proficiency of Participants	79
Table 3.17. Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University Branches.....	79



Table 3.18. Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University Branches .....	79
Table 3.19. Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North .....	79
Table 3.20. Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North .....	80
Table 3.21. Self-rated Reading and Listening Proficiency of Participants .....	80
Table 3.22. Self-rated Reading and Listening Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University .....	81
Table 3.23. Self-rated Reading and Listening Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North.....	81
Table 3.24. Self-rated Writing and Speaking Proficiency of Participants in the Study .....	81
Table 3.25. Self-rated Writing and Speaking Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University .....	82
Table 3.26. Self-rated Writing and Speaking Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North.....	82
Table 3.27. Self-rated Proficiency in Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms of Participants.....	82
Table 3.28. Self-rated Proficiency in Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms of Participants at Tehran Azad University .....	83
Table 3.29. Self-rated Proficiency in Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms of Participants at Azad University in the North .....	83
Table 3.30. Statistics on Other Characteristics of Participants .....	84

Table 3.31. Statistics on Other Characteristics of Participants at Tehran Azad University.....	84
Table 3.32. Statistics on Other Characteristics of Participants at Azad University in the North.....	85
Table 4.1. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Beliefs about Translation .....	105
Table 4.2. Overall Descriptive Statistics for IBT.....	105
Table 4.3. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Beliefs about Translation at Tehran Azad University Branches .....	107
Table 4.4. Descriptive Statistics for IBT in Tehran .....	107
Table 4.5. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Beliefs about Translation at Azad University Branches in the North .....	108
Table 4.6. Descriptive Statistics for IBT in the North .....	109
Table 4.7. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Translation Strategy Use .....	119
Table 4.8. Overall Descriptive Statistics for ITLS.....	119
Table 4.9. Means and Standard Deviations for ITLS at Tehran Azad University Branches.....	121
Table 4.10. Descriptive Statistics for ITLS in Tehran .....	121
Table 4.11. Means and Standard Deviations for ITLS at North Azad University Branches.....	123
Table 4.12. Descriptive Statistics for ITLS in the North .....	123
Table 4.13. Variance Accounted for by the Initial Seven Factors on IBT.....	133
Table 4.14. Positive Beliefs about Translation in English Language Learning (B1) .....	136

Table 4.15. Reliance on L1 in English Language Learning (B2) .....	136
Table 4.16. Constraints on Direct Use of L2 (B3) .....	137
Table 4.17. Awareness of Effects of L1 on English Language Learning (B4) .....	138
Table 4.18. Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items .....	138
Table 4.19. Variance Accounted for by the Initial Seven Factors on ITLS .....	139
Table 4.20. Use of Translation Strategies for Acquisition of Language Skills in English (S1) .....	140
Table 4.21. Use of Translation Strategies for Acquisition of Lexico-grammar in English (S2) .....	141
Table 4.22. Use of Resource-related and Social Translation Strategies (S3) .....	141
Table 4.23. Use of Translation Strategies for Exploration and Practice (S4) .....	142
Table 4.24. ITLS Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items .....	142
Table 4.25. Pearson Correlations for the Composite IBT Variables and Composite ITLS Variables .....	144
Table 4.26. Multivariate Tests of Significance .....	145
Table 4.27. Eigenvalues and Canonical Correlations .....	146
Table 4.28. Dimension Reduction Analysis .....	146
Table 4.29. Canonical Variate – Variables for IBT and ITLS Variables .....	147
Table 4.30. Multivariate Analysis of Variance .....	151
Table 4.31. Pearson Correlation between Students' Academic Achievement Average Scores and Dependent Variables .....	152
Table 4.32. ANOVA for Dependent Variables .....	153
Table 4.33. Means of Significant Dependent Variables Based on University .....	154
Table 4.34. Pearson Correlations between MCSDS and IBT .....	155
Table 4.35. Pearson Correlations between MCSDS and ITLS .....	156

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. The PACTE Group’s Translation Competence Acquisition Model (PACTE, 2000, p. 104) .....	62
Figure 4.1. Scree Test of IBT Factors .....	133
Figure 4.2. Scree Test of ITLS Factors .....	139
Figure 4.3. Relationships among IBT and ITLS Variables and Their Respective Canonical Variates .....	149

# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Overview

Over the past decades, various theories and approaches accounting for second language learning have been proposed, with related implications as well as applications to language pedagogy. In light of the recent research shift on the language learner, learning process and outcomes, exploration of learners' language learning experiences and related beliefs is crucial for effective teaching as well as learning. In this regard, language learners frequently resort to translation strategies in their learning; however, learners' translation language learning strategies and related beliefs, unlike other language learning strategies, have not received attention in the research to date.

Learner beliefs constitute mini-theories and affect both the process and product of second language learning (Ellis, 2008). Second Language Acquisition research has demonstrated that generally learners' previous educational experiences and specifically language learning experiences shape their attitudes towards learning (Little, Singleton, & Silvius, 1984). In addition, other individual learner differences as well as socio-cultural context may influence learners' beliefs. Importantly, regardless of the sources of beliefs, these can play a crucial role in how learners view the target language, their language learning endeavors, their progress or lack of any, and their classroom experiences. In this regard, exploration of learner beliefs can provide language teachers valuable insights into their learners' learning experiences

which can promote more effective teaching as well as positive learning outcomes. Therefore, investigating learner beliefs is significant in second language teaching and learning. Richards and Schmidt (2002) noted that learner beliefs as “ideas learners have concerning different aspects of language, language learning and language teaching ... may influence their attitudes and motivations in learning and have an effect on their learning strategies and learning outcomes” (p. 297).

It is noteworthy that second language pedagogy has been dominated by the argument that a second language should be taught and learned merely through itself (Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), leading to the idea that L1 use interferes with L2 and causes negative transfer (Marton, 1988). However, the advocates of first language use, for example translation to the mother tongue, have argued that it has a positive and facilitative role in the development of a second language (Atkinson, 1987; Baynham, 1983; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Ellis, 1985; Kern, 1994; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Newmark, 1991; Perkins, 1985; Prince, 1996; Titford, 1985). In foreign language learning, the use of native language and/or translation is not usually encouraged by language teachers, yet language learners frequently resort to it. According to Cohen and Dörnyei (2002), “most learners engage in [translation] from time to time or even extensively in order to function in all four of the basic skill areas” (p. 182). Language learners convert “the target language expression into the native language (at various levels, from words and phrases all the way up to whole texts)”, as well as convert their first language into the second language (Oxford, 1990, p. 46). In this regard, Malmkjær (1998) pointed out that teachers hold different views about the use of translation in language instruction. Due to this lack of consensus regarding the issue of L1 use in L2 in the pertinent research to date, its

role in second language teaching has been regarded as “one of the most long-standing controversies in the history of language pedagogy” (Stern, 1992, p. 279).

## **1.2 Background to the Study**

The predominant view in the history of English language teaching has been that a foreign language should be taught without reference to learners’ first language since translation into their native language impedes acquisition of the target language. Previously, the Grammar-Translation Method, which considered translation as an indispensable part of language learning and instruction, was criticized for its extensive use of mother tongue in foreign language education. Consequently, in the Direct Method and the Audio-Lingual Method, translation was totally banned as part of the classroom activity. More recently, Communicative Language Teaching approach has emphasized development of communicative competence through classroom activities aimed at meaningful communication through target language use. There seems to be, therefore, no room for translation in communication-oriented language instruction. In this regard, Scholfield (1995) observed the following:

there is the familiar argument that learners need to get into the habit of ‘thinking in the target language’: they will not be efficient comprehenders and users of English if they operate always via an extra step of translating into their first language. (p. 1)

According to Malmkjær (1998), “the issue of the use of translation in language teaching is one on which most language teachers have a view” (p. 1). However, there has been lack of consensus in language pedagogy on the role of translation in instructional contexts, with related views ranging from its complete banishment to occasional recourse to translation for teaching-learning purposes. In the event of the former, and even the latter practices, language learners cannot benefit from their L1

resources, and have to apply other strategies in order to cope with challenges of the target language learning.

Traditionally, translation was defined as “using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language” (Chamot, 1987, p. 77). Specifically, it was regarded as converting the L2 expression into L1 across all language levels or the opposite (Oxford, 1990). Recently, translation was defined as involving “transfer of meaning from one language to another” (G. Cook, 2001, p. 55). It has also been noted that many language learners resort to, occasionally or extensively, different types of translation for the development of receptive and productive skills in the target language (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002). In a recent comprehensive survey conducted in the Taiwanese EFL context translation has been referred to “using one language as a basis for understanding, remembering, or producing another language, both at the lexical level and the syntactic level, and also in either direction from the target or the source language into the other language ” (Liao, 2006, p. 194).

Importantly, translation, in addition to transferring meanings and conveying messages, can also be employed as a strategy for learning foreign languages. In this regard, the research to date has viewed translation as one of the cognitive learning strategies (Chamot, 1987; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Chamot, O’Malley, Küpper, & Impink-Hernandez, 1987; O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanaraes, Küpper, & Russo, 1985a, 1985b; Oxford, 1990). Cognitive strategies are defined as “specific conscious ways of tackling learning” (V. Cook, 2001b, p. 127). Richards and Schmidt (2002) regarded learning strategies as “the ways in which learners attempt



to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of the language they are learning” (p. 301). Recently, Ellis (2008) has referred to language learning strategies as “both general approaches and specific actions or techniques used to learn an L2” (p. 705).

It is noteworthy that the pertinent literature has acknowledged the positive and facilitative role of translation or L1 transfer in learning a second language (Atkinson, 1987; Baynham, 1983; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Ellis, 1985; Husain, 1994, 1995; Kern, 1994; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Newmark, 1991; Perkins, 1985; Prince, 1996; Titford, 1985). Importantly, Corder (1981) considered learners’ first language as a valuable resource for using L1 translation in order to make up for limitations in learning a second language. Further, Corder (1981) suggested to reframe the concept of interference as intercession in order to consider learners’ use of their L1 as a strategy of communication. It should also be noted that language learner beliefs may also influence their attitudes towards target language learning, as well as their language learning strategies and outcomes (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

Translation is one of the strategies which learners frequently employ to facilitate their foreign language learning. The role of translation seems vital in foreign language learning environments where learners’ exposure to the target language is limited. Therefore developing adequate translation language learning strategies is crucial to EFL learners’ success in conveying ideas and meanings from their mother tongue to the target language. As Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) stated, “the strategic use of translation” is “perhaps less conspicuous a skill area for strategizing, but undoubtedly an area that learners draw on” (p. 182). However, surprisingly, over the

past decades, whereas other language learning strategies as well as learner characteristics have become the centre-stage, in the research to date, translation as a learning strategy has been neglected. Importantly, in a recent comprehensive survey on translation, Liao (2006) has noted the following:

Although growing numbers of researchers have considered the positive potential of using translation in language teaching and learning, very little attention has been given specifically to student perspectives, that is, student's particular beliefs about translation and their frequent use of translation as a learning strategy. (p. 193)

#### **1.4 Purpose of the Study**

There seems to be a dire need to investigate translation strategy use and related beliefs in EFL contexts. Moreover, to our knowledge, translation strategies of translation students and their related beliefs have not been explored in the applied linguistic research to date. The present study, therefore, has been motivated by this research gap and it attempted to investigate Iranian translation majors' use of translation language learning strategies and related beliefs. The study was designed as a cross-sectional survey aimed at "describing the characteristics of a population by examining a sample of that group" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 101). It employed questionnaires as well as interviews and involved over 300 Iranian EFL students from translation departments of Azad University in Tehran and Northern provinces in Iran.

The present survey addressed the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do the Iranian translation students hold regarding translation use in English language learning?
2. What translation learning strategies do the translation majors reportedly use?

3. How do the Iranian students' beliefs about translation relate to their reported use of translation strategy?
4. Do learner factors have an effect on the respondents' beliefs about translation and translation strategy use?

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

It should be noted that language learning strategies have extensively been examined in terms of their definitions, classifications, as well as instruction (Bialystock, 1981; Chamot & Rubin, 1994; Cohen; 1998, Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Ellis, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; McDonough, 2006; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; O'Malley et al., 1985a, 1985b; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Rubin, 1981; Wenden, 1987,1991). However, translation strategies employed by second or foreign language learners and their related beliefs have received scant attention in the pertinent literature. Moreover, to our knowledge, translation strategies of translation students have not been explored in the applied linguistic research to date. Therefore, it is hoped that the study findings contributed to the pertinent literature and studies on translation and translation strategies, as well as related beliefs in EFL contexts. Importantly, the results of the study provided valuable insights to the instructional context under investigation, to be considered by the administration, English language instructors as well as translation tutors in order to enhance the efficacy of their educational services as well as their translation students' learning and outcomes.

### **1.6 Definition of Terms**

**Translation.** Translation, in addition to transferring meanings and conveying messages, can also be employed as a strategy for learning foreign languages. Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) defined translation as “the kind of literal or tough translation that most learners engage in from time to time or even extensively in order to function in

all four of the basic skill areas” (p. 182). Chamot (1987) defined the translation strategy as “using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language” (p. 77). In a similar vein, Oxford (1990) described translating as “converting the target language expression into the native language (at various levels, from words and phrases all the way up to whole texts); or converting the native language into the target language” (p. 46). G. Cook (2010) defined translation as involving “a transfer of meaning from one language to another” (p. 55).

For the research purposes of the present study we adopted the most recent definition by Liao (2006) due to its comprehensiveness. According to Liao (2006), translation refers to benefitting from a language “as a basis for understanding, remembering, or producing another language, both at the lexical level and the syntactic level, and also in either direction from the target or the source language into the other language” (p. 19).

**Survey.** According to Dörnyei (2007), “Survey studies aim at describing the characteristics of a population by examining a sample of that group. Although, survey data can be collected by means of structured interviews ... , the main data collection method in surveys is the use of questionnaires” (p. 101).

**Learner beliefs.** Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined learner beliefs as “ideas learners have concerning different aspects of language, language learning and language teaching that may influence their attitudes and motivations in learning and have an effect on their learning strategies and learning outcomes” (p. 297).

**Language learning strategy.** According to Ellis (2008), “strategies refer to both general approaches and specific actions or techniques used to learn an L2” (p. 705).

Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined learning strategy as “the ways in which learners attempt to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of the language they are learning” (p. 301). V. Cook (2001b) described learning strategy as “a choice that the learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning” (p. 126).

**Translation language learning strategy.** In general, ways in which language learners employ bi-directional translation in order to cope with, learn, and acquire various aspects of the target language.

**Source language.** It is the “language from which words have been taken into another language” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 496) or a translation is made.

**Target language.** It is the language “into which a translation is made” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 539) or a person is learning.

**Meta-cognitive strategies.** According to V. Cook (2001b) “these involve planning and directing learning at a general level” (p.127).

**Cognitive strategies.** V. Cook (2001b) defined cognitive strategies as “specific conscious ways of tackling learning” (p. 127).

**First language.** “A person’s mother tongue or the language acquired first” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 202).

**Second language.** As V. Cook (2001b) defined, this is “a language acquired by a person in addition to his mother tongue” (p. 12).

**L2 learner.** According to V. Cook (2001b), “an L2 learner is acquiring a second language rather than using it” (p. 12).

### **1.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study**

This study is not without its limitations. We are aware of the limitation of correlational studies in establishing associations among different factors related to language learner variables. Another limitation of the present study was that it did not involve observation of the actual use of translation language learning strategies by the Iranian translation majors. Also, questionnaire items may not necessarily capture the multiplicity of translation strategies and complexity of their use. Therefore, the students’ self-reports in this study were treated and interpreted with caution. However, we believe that the adequate number of the participants involved in the survey as well as the comprehensive quantitative and qualitative data contributed to the reliability of our findings.

## **Chapter 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a comprehensive review of the research to date on learner beliefs as well as language learning strategies. Further, it introduces the background on translation, its role in language pedagogy, and language socialization as the theoretical framework for the current study. The chapter also reviews the pertinent literature on translation competence, the research to date on the use of translation language learning strategies and related beliefs. It concludes with the pertinent studies conducted in the Iranian EFL context and a summary.

#### **2.2 Learner Beliefs**

Language learners develop different learning strategies to acquire another language. Learning strategies are usually affected by learners' beliefs about how best to learn and indicate way(s) learners prefer in learning a second language. In this regard, Ellis (2008) noted that "learners' strategies are governed by self-efficacy beliefs, as quite naturally they opt for an approach they feel comfortable with and able to implement and avoid actions that they consider exceed their ability to perform" (p. 703). In a similar vein, Richards and Schmidt (2002) held that in first language learning, the word 'strategy' is sometimes used to refer to the ways that children process language without implying either intentionality or awareness. However, in second language learning, strategies are usually regarded as possibly intentional behavior carried out with the aim of learning.

### **2.2.1 Definitions of Learner Beliefs**

Over the past decades, a plethora of studies on language learners' beliefs has been carried out (Barcelos, 2003). The research to date has emphasized that there are variations in language learners' beliefs about language and learning which affect both the learning process and product. Consequently, beliefs form "an individual difference variable" which is different from other learner variables since they are "neither an ability nor a trait-like propensity" in learning a language (Ellis, 2008, p. 698). Hosenfeld (as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 698) contended that language learners develop "mini theories" in learning L2. These theories include "beliefs about language and language learning" which form the way they perform learning tasks (Ellis, 2008, p. 698).

In cognitive psychology, learner beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning, also called epistemological beliefs, have been investigated as part of the underlying mechanisms of metacognition (Flavell, 1987; Ryan, 1984). These beliefs constitute the building blocks of epistemology (Goldman, 1986), and are a driving force in intellectual performance (Schoenfeld, 1983). Gradually, psychologists have acknowledged an extensive effect of individual and social epistemologies on academic learning (Dweck & Legget, 1988), and interpretation of information (Ryan, 1984; Schommer, 1990). In this view, beliefs about language learning are considered as a constituent of meta-cognitive knowledge categorized as follows: 1) person variable, 2) task variable, and 3) strategy variable in relation to which individuals have meta-cognitive knowledge. The person category of knowledge includes the person's knowledge and beliefs about himself/herself as a thinker or learner, and what s/he believes about other individuals' thinking processes. Importantly, one's



beliefs about himself or herself as a learner may facilitate or hinder performance in learning situations (Flavell, 1979). For instance, examples of knowledge would be a person believing that s/he can learn better by listening than reading, or an individual perceiving his or her friend to be more socially aware than s/he is.

Meta-cognitive knowledge was defined as “a system of related ideas, some accepted without question and other validated by ... experience”. However, meta-cognitive knowledge was considered as distinct from beliefs since beliefs are “value-related and tend to be held more tenaciously” (Wenden, 1999, p. 436). Moreover, meta-cognitive knowledge was also differentiated from meta-cognitive strategies regarded as “complementary components of the broader notion of metacognition” (Wenden, 1999, p. 436). Specifically, meta-cognitive knowledge was defined as “information learners acquire about their learning, while meta-cognitive strategies, i.e. planning, monitoring and evaluating, are general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, and guide their learning” (Wenden, 1999, p. 436). As regards the role of learners’ meta-cognitive knowledge in language learning, subsequently, Wenden (2001) focused on the nature of the interaction that explains the association between what language learners know and how they self-direct their language learning. Within this framework, Wenden (2001) identified three types of meta-cognitive knowledge, specifically as person, task, and strategy, based on eight selected extracts of language learners’ description, which were analyzed to indicate how meta-cognitive knowledge operates in language learning self-regulation. Importantly, it was emphasized that meta-cognitive knowledge is necessary for establishing self-regulatory processes which leads to learners’ autonomy, and the development of such autonomy depends on planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Wenden, 2001).

Further, in Second Language Acquisition beliefs, in addition to being seen as a component of meta-cognitive knowledge, have been labeled by different scholars, dependent on their theoretical perspectives, as the culture of learning languages (Barcelos, 1995), culture of learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996), cultural beliefs (Gardner, 1988), learning culture (Riley, 1997), learners' philosophy of language learning (Abraham & Vann, 1987), conceptions of learning and beliefs (Benson & Lor, 1999), learner representations (Holec, 1987), meta-cognitive phenomena (Wenden, 1987), folklinguistic theories of learning (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995), and representations (Riley, 1994).

Related definitions have been proposed as follows:

- beliefs: "Opinions which are based on experience and the opinions of respected others, which influence the way they act." (Wenden, 1986, p. 5);
- learners' philosophy of language learning: "Beliefs about how language operates, and, consequently, how it is learned." (Abraham & Vann, 1987, p. 95);
- learner representations: "Learners' entering assumptions about their roles and functions of teachers and teaching materials." (Holec, 1987, p. 152);
- meta-cognitive knowledge: "The stable, stable although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners have acquired about language, learning and the language learning process; also referred to as knowledge or concepts about language learning or learner beliefs; there are three kinds: person, task and strategic knowledge." (Wenden, 1987, p. 163);

- cultural beliefs: “Expectations in the minds of teachers, parents and students concerning the entire second language acquisition task.” (Gardner, 1988, p. 110);
- representations: “Popular ideas about the nature of language and languages, language structure and language use, the relationship between thought and language, identity and language, language and intelligence, language and learning, and so on.” (Riley, 1994, p. 8);
- the culture of learning languages: “Learners’ intuitive implicit (or explicit) knowledge made of beliefs, myths, cultural assumptions and ideals about how to learn languages. This knowledge, according to learners’ age and social economic level, is based upon their previous educational experience, previous (and present) readings about language learning and contact with other people like family, friends, relatives, teachers and so forth.” (Barcelos, 1995, p. 40);
- folklinguistic theories of learning: “Ideas that students have about language and language learning.” (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995, p. 294);
- culture of learning; “The cultural aspects of teaching and learning; what people believe about ‘normal’ and ‘good’ learning activities and processes, where such beliefs have a cultural origin.” (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 230);
- learning culture: “A set of representations, beliefs and values related to learning that directly influence learning behavior.” (Riley, 1997, p. 122); and
- conceptions of learning and beliefs: “Conceptions of learning are concerned with what the learner thinks the objects and processes of learning are (Benson & Lor, 1999, p. 464).

Regarding the plethora of terms and their related definitions, Barcelos (2003) made two general assumptions: firstly, “all the definitions stress that beliefs about SLA refer to the nature of language and language learning”; and secondly, “some definitions emphasize the social and cultural nature of beliefs” (p. 8). Further, the researcher observed that beliefs not only have a “cognitive dimension” but also a “social dimension” as they are “born out of our interaction with others and with our environment” (Barcelos, 2003, p. 8). In this regard, Miller and Ginsberg (1995) stated that folklinguistic theories of language learning assist learners to frame and to interpret experience. In the same vein, Gardner (1988) emphasized the role of the social milieu shared by learners; and Riley (1989) underscored the culture-specific nature of language and learning. Consequently, understanding learners’ beliefs signifies “understanding their world and their identity” (Barcelos, 2003, p. 8).

In the first half of the past century, one of the earliest definitions of beliefs was introduced by Dewey (1933) as a form of thought that

covers all the matters of which we have no sure knowledge and yet which we are sufficiently confident of to act upon and also the matters that we now accept as certainly true, as knowledge, but which nevertheless may be questioned in the future ... (p. 6)

Recently, Barcelos (2003) has argued that this definition underlines the contextual nature of beliefs and shows that beliefs are both a cognitive concept and a social construct created by our experiences and problems. In this regard, Freeman (1991) noted that exploring learners’ beliefs then means concentrating on what they know, instead of on what they need to know. Richards and Schmidt (2002) provided a more comprehensive view of learners’ beliefs or “learner belief systems” referring to the ideas language learners have about different aspects of “language, language learning and language teaching” which may affect their “attitudes and motivations” in

language learning and influence their “learning strategies and learning outcomes” (p. 297).

It should be noted that the interdisciplinary research indicated that learner beliefs about learning are associated with factors such as self-concept and identity, self-efficacy, personality, and other individual differences (Epstein, 1990). For instance, language learners may be directly affected by their perception of successful learning and levels of expectancy (Bernat, 2004; White, 1999; Yang, 1999). Based on Pintrich and DeGroot’s (1990) notion, Truitt (1995) described expectancy as learners’ beliefs about their abilities and responsibilities to do tasks. Truitt (1995) further regarded self-efficacy as beliefs about ability which is identical to expectancy. Language learners’ self-efficacy beliefs have also been examined in recent studies. For example, Breen (2001) explored how learners’ characteristics such as beliefs, personality, aptitude and identity influence their perception of themselves and the learning context and observed that students work selectively in their learning context, as well as upon the linguistic and communicative data which is accessible in that context. This selectivity comes from the language learners’ conceptualizations of the circumstances that they believe to facilitate or impede their learning, also their conceptualization of the language they are trying to learn. Further, Breen (2001) noted that students’ feelings and attitudes permeate these conceptualizations, leading to shaping of one’s cognitive conceptualizations or beliefs. Moreover, on the neurological level, emotions are part of reason (Damasio, 1994) and underlie most, if not all, of cognition in learning another language (Schumann, 1997).

## **2.2.2 Approaches to Learner(s') beliefs**

For the purpose of investigation of learner beliefs, three different approaches – the normative approach, the meta-cognitive approach and the contextual approach – have been differentiated (Barcelos, 2003).

### **2.2.2.1 The Normative Approach**

Within the framework of the normative approach, beliefs are perceived as “preconceived notions, myths or misconceptions” which can be examined by means of Likert scale questionnaires such as the Horwitz’s (1987a) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory – BALLI (as cited in Barcelos, 2003, p. 11). Horwitz (1985, 1987) employed a 34-item questionnaire to investigate students’, teachers’, and pre-service teachers’ beliefs. The popularity of BALLI questionnaire led several other researchers to conduct a number of related small and large-scale studies. For instance, three large-scale studies exploring teachers’ and students’ opinions on various issues related to language learning produced similar outcomes, although the findings of some studies were at variance in that (a) students underestimated the difficulty of language learning, (b) learners held misconceptions about how to learn a foreign language, and (c) learners viewed accent more valuable than teachers did (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Mantle-Bromley, 1995).

Subsequently, Yang (1992), Cotterall (1995), Kim-Yoon (2000), and Chawhan and Oliver (2000) conducted pertinent research studies in different contexts. Yang (1992) investigated the beliefs of more than 500 students studying English in Taiwan, Cotterall (1995) examined the beliefs of nearly 140 participants in New Zealand, Kim-Yoon (2000) explored 664 EFL learners’ beliefs in Korea, and Chawhan and Oliver (2000) investigated the beliefs of 54 foreign learners in Australia.

Significantly, the results of the aforementioned studies indicated that learners' beliefs about language learning were context-based in that there were significant differences between students of different language backgrounds. In addition, these studies confirmed the core argument raised by the previous research – that understanding learners' beliefs may promote the language learning process. More recently, Diab (2006) has investigated 284 Lebanese university students' beliefs about learning English and French. The study findings have indicated that the Lebanese students held various beliefs about learning English which were significantly related to their gender and language background. Moreover, the participants believed that the English language was easier to learn than the French language (Diab, 2006). In the ESL context, Chawhan and Oliver (2000) concluded that language teachers' awareness of learners' expectations “may contribute to a more conducive learning environment and to more effective learning” (p. 25).

Furthermore, various tools have been employed by the research to date for examination of learner beliefs (Cotteral; 1999, Kuntz, 1996; Sakui & Gaies, 1999). For example, Sakui and Gaies (1999) investigated beliefs of over 1.300 Japanese university students' through a self-developed questionnaire. The main aims of their study were to validate the 45-item questionnaire, to investigate the value of interview data to complement and interpret the questionnaire data, and to describe the Japanese students' beliefs about English language learning as well as to determine the organization of their beliefs. The study findings demonstrated that the students' beliefs about language learning were dynamic and situationally conditioned. Also they manifested that the Japanese students “have internalized a coherent set of beliefs

about methodological options for the English classroom” (Sakui & Gaies, 1999, p. 488).

### **2.2.2.2 The Meta-cognitive Approach**

Another – meta-cognitive approach – has been employed by a number of researchers in their studies on language learners’ beliefs (Goh, 1997; White, 1999); and related studies defined beliefs as meta-cognitive knowledge. Wenden (1986a, 1986b, 1987, 1998, 1999, 2001) using this framework conducted seminal research studies; within this approach, the underlying assumption was that learners’ meta-cognitive knowledge about language learning is “theories in action” which assist them to reflect on what they do and to develop potential for language learning (Wenden, 1987, p. 112). Thus, meta-cognitive knowledge was comprehensively defined as “stable, storable although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners have acquired about language, learning and the language learning process” (Wenden, 1987, p. 163).

Further, the researcher collected language learners’ interview self-reports (Wenden, 1987) to investigate their explicit prescriptive beliefs, as well as identify whether the learners held these beliefs, and if so, what such beliefs were, whether such beliefs were consistent with what learners reported they did to learn a second language, and finally, what the significance of their beliefs was. The participants of the study comprised 25 adults who had lived in the United States no longer than two years and who were enrolled in the advanced level classes of a university language program. The study results indicated that the learners held prescriptive beliefs which Wenden (1987) classified into three major groups.



The first belief group was related to the importance of using the language naturally by practicing as much as possible without worrying about mistakes, thinking in the second language and living and studying in a context where the target language was spoken. The second belief group dealt with learning about the language such as learning grammar and vocabulary, taking a formal language course, learning from mistakes, and being mentally active. Whereas the third belief group concerned the importance of personal factors such as the emotional aspect, self-concept and aptitude for learning. Some of the beliefs that Wenden (1987) found in her study were different from the beliefs in the BALLI (Horwitz, 1985, 1987); others were related to themes that could be classified as separate sets of beliefs, for instance, the role of culture and the nature of language. Such differences, according to Wenden (1987), led to the development of “a more comprehensive and representative set of beliefs” (p. 13). Importantly, the scholar suggested that “the genesis and development of beliefs should also be investigated” (Wenden, 1987, p. 13).

Subsequently, in order to explore the importance of meta-cognitive knowledge in language learning, Goh (1997) examined forty Chinese students’ meta-cognitive awareness in listening. The participants were requested to prepare a listening diary where they reflected on specific occasions they listened to English, reported what they did to understand better, included their thoughts about learning to listen, and said how they practiced their listening after class. Goh (1997) applied the same classification of meta-cognitive knowledge as Wenden (1991) employed in her study – person knowledge, task knowledge and strategic knowledge; moreover, the scholar developed her own subcategories of these three main groups. Finally, Goh (1997) reported that the students in the study had a high degree of meta-cognitive awareness

and were conscious of their listening learning strategies. In addition, the participants were able to both observe their cognitive processes in listening as well as verbalize their perspectives about learning to listen in English (Goh, 1997).

### **2.2.2.3 The Contextual Approach**

Yet another – the contextual approach – employs ethnography, narratives, and metaphors (Kramsch, 2003). According to Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005), the related studies were characterized by the diversity in the theoretical framework they applied, for instance, phenomenographical (Benson & Lor, 1999; White, 1999), neo-Vygostkian socio-cultural (Alanen, 2003), Bakhtinian (Dufva, 2003), and Deweyan (Barcelos, 2000). Moreover, they varied in data collection methods which included case studies, ethnographic classroom observation, informal discussions and stimulated recalls (Allen, 1996; Barcelos, 2000), diaries (Hosenfeld, 2003), discourse analysis (Kalaja, 2003), naturalistic interviews and other research procedures (White, 1999). Thus, within the framework of the contextual approach a number of qualitative studies investigated language learner beliefs (Allen, 1996) as embedded in their respective contexts; also, these studies contributed to an interpretive paradigm.

In this regard, White (1999) undertook a longitudinal study of 23 novice distance learners of Japanese and Spanish as a Second Language. The research comprised five stages aimed at developing an understanding of how learners experience, as well as articulate their experience of a language learning context by distance. The outcomes of the study revealed three main constructs, namely the learner-context interface, tolerance of ambiguity and locus of control, which are crucial for understanding of how learners conceptualized the early stages of their language learning. Further, the learner participants in the study (White, 1999) viewed self-instruction as requiring

learners to use their cognitive abilities in order to create successful working relationship with the target language learning materials in the context. Interestingly, the study revealed that while there was a shift from external to internal locus of control for the majority of the participants during their experience in the new learning environment, a small group of the learners retained an external locus of control and decreased their needs to the nature of the self-instruction context. The results, therefore, showed that some individual differences between learners may be due to the fact that they are less predisposed to being able to adapt themselves to less conventional context of language learning. Moreover, the study suggested that some learner characteristics or predispositions contribute to the way learners conceptualize and exercise their initial self-instructed learning (White, 1999).

Another contribution to the pertinent research to date was made by Benson and Lor (1999), who considered three levels of analysis: conception, belief, and approach. They attempted to explore whether or not a higher order of conceptions of language and language learning could be identified, and whether the notion of approaches to language learning could help understand the contextual function of beliefs. The study investigated 16 first-year students at the University of Hong Kong and found that the students' conception of the object and process of learning had an effect on their beliefs and consequently learning strategies (Benson & Lor, 1999). Thus, the research concluded the following about the nature as well as function of learner beliefs. First, it differentiated between conception and belief in language learning since conception deal with what the learner thinks the objects and processes of learning are, while beliefs are concerned with what the learner thinks to be true about such objects and processes. Next, conceptions of learning constitute a higher level of

abstraction than beliefs. And finally, conceptions and beliefs are manifested as relational as well as responsive to context (Benson & Lor, 1999). For Benson and Lor (1999), importantly, conceptions of learning are valuable since they help to classify learners' beliefs, and the approach to learning constitutes the level at which conceptions and beliefs operate.

In this regard, understanding the ways through which conceptions and beliefs are open to change seems of great significance. Benson and Lor (1999) concluded that “in order to modify beliefs, the learner must also modify the underlying conceptions on which they are based and pay attention to the context in which they function” (p. 471). Their conclusion provides implication for language teachers who need to know both what their students believe about language learning, whether their learners' beliefs are functional or dysfunctional, and how dysfunctional beliefs could be changed (Benson & Lor, 1999).

## **2.3 Learning Strategies**

### **2.3.1 Definitions of Learning Strategies**

Learning strategies refer to ways in which learners try to cope with the lexis, grammar and other aspects of the target language they attempt to learn. Oxford proposed a popular as well as comprehensive definition of learning strategies as “specific action taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). It should be mentioned that learning strategies were distinguished from production and communication strategies. Tarone (1980) defined a learning strategy as “an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language”, whereas a production strategy as “an attempt to use one's linguistic

system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum of effort” (p. 419). Communication strategies were regarded as ways to express meaning in another language on the part of learners with a restricted command of that language. In this regard, Ellis (2008) noted that “communication strategies consist of attempts to deal with problems of communication that have arisen in interaction” (p. 704).

Considering the plethora of definitions of learning strategies, it may be problematic to differentiate different strategy types since no single definition can account for multiplicity and complexity of learning strategies. Therefore, they can be described in terms of a set of characteristics summarized by Ellis (2008) as follows:

- Strategies refer to both general approaches and specific actions or techniques used to learn an L2;
- Strategies are problem-oriented – the learner deploys a strategy to overcome some particular learning or communication problem;
- Learners are generally aware of the strategies they use and can identify what they consist of if they are asked to pay attention to what they are doing/thinking;
- Strategies involve linguistic behavior (such as requesting the name of an object) and non-linguistic (such as pointing at an object so as to be told its name);
- Linguistic strategies can be performed in the L1 and in the L2;
- Some strategies are behavioral while others are mental. Thus some strategies are directly observable, while others are not;
- In the main, strategies contribute indirectly to learning by providing learners with data about the L2 which they can then process. However, some

strategies may also contribute directly (for example, memorization strategies directed at specific lexical items or grammatical rules); and

- Strategy use varies considerably as a result of both the kind of task the learner is engaged in and individual learner preferences. (p. 705)

### **2.3.2 Taxonomies of Learning Strategies**

Language learning strategies have been classified by the research to date through different taxonomies. In this regard, the contributions made by the works of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) have made important contributions. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) developed an overall model of L2 learning based on cognitive psychology and accounted for three basic types of strategies employed by second language learners. Firstly, *meta-cognitive strategies* involving planning and thinking about learning, such as planning one's learning, monitoring one's own speech or writing, and evaluating how well the task is done. Secondly, *cognitive strategies* dealing with conscious ways of tackling learning, such as note-taking (using dictionaries and other resources) and elaboration (relating new and old information). And finally, *social strategies*, specifically learning by interacting with others, such as working with fellow students or asking the teacher's help. It is also noteworthy that they found that cognitive strategies accounted for the majority of those reported by ESL students, namely 53 percent, the most important being repetition, note-taking, and questions for clarification (O'Malley et al., 1985a). Meta-cognitive strategies accounted for 30 percent, the most important being self-management and advanced preparation. And social strategies made up the remaining 17 percent, consisting about equally of cooperative efforts to work with other students and of questions to check understanding. Moreover, the type and use of

strategies varied according to the task and level respectively (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

More recently, V. Cook (2001b) observed the application of various strategies in relation to tasks as follows:

A vocabulary task calls forth the meta-cognitive strategies of self-monitoring and self-evaluation and the cognitive strategies of resourcing and elaboration. A listening task leads to the meta-cognitive strategies of selective attention and problem identification, as well as self-monitoring, and to the cognitive strategies of note-taking, inferencing and summarizing, as well as elaboration ... (p. 116)

Learning strategies, therefore, may be applied to simple tasks such as learning a list of new words, or more complex tasks involving language comprehension and production.

Within the same decade, Oxford (1990) provided a comprehensive hierarchical taxonomy of language learning strategies based on a general distinction between direct and indirect strategies, each of which was broken into a number of subcategories. In this regard Oxford (1990) stated the following:

Direct strategies include those that 'directly involve the target language' in the sense that 'they require mental processing of the language', whereas indirect strategies 'provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means. (p. 705)

Subsequently, a number of other taxonomies of learning strategies have been proposed by scholars. An interesting approach in this regard has been introduced by Purpora (1999), who, on the basis of a model of cognitive processing, differentiated strategies in terms of whether they related to comprehending processes, storing/memory processes, or using/retrieval processes. The advantage of this model,

according to Ellis (2008), was that “it aligns the study of learning strategies with mainstream thinking about the nature of language learning” (p. 706). Recently, another taxonomy was developed by Cohen, Oxford and Chi (2002) in their language Strategy Survey. Their questionnaire was designed based on the traditional distinction between language skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing – and two other components namely vocabulary and translation.

### **2.3.3 Good Language Learning Strategies**

It is a well-known fact that some learners are good at learning a foreign language while others are not; consequently, the former group might cope with the target language learning in different ways from the latter group, or they might behave in a similar way but more efficiently. Ellis observed in this regard that “Good language learners have a range of strategies at their disposal and select which strategies to use in accordance with both their long term goals for learning the L2 and the particular task to hand” (2008, p. 708). One of early studies by Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, and Todesco (as cited in V. Cook, 2001b, p. 130) identified six types of strategies used by good language learners (GLLs) as follows:

- Find a learning style that suits you.
- Involve yourself in the language learning process.
- Develop an awareness of language both as system and as communication.
- Pay constant attention to expanding your language knowledge.
- Develop the second language as a separate system.
- Take into account the demands that L2 learning imposes.

Thus, good language learners tend to employ a variety of strategies to develop their target language system, importantly, for communicative purposes.



Recently, Halbach (2000) examined the learning strategies in the diaries of successful and less successful students of English, and revealed that the weaker students were not equipped with self-evaluation strategies, whereas stronger students exhibited the ability to make the most of resources at their disposal and enhance their learning with subsequent activities. Further, Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) investigated the use of learning strategies in Chinese universities, and profiled successful and unsuccessful English learners. They reported that the successful students set specific objectives for themselves and identified systematic ways of achieving these. Conversely, the unsuccessful learners did not have a clear agenda and experienced difficulty in identifying their learning problems.

In light of the research to date, Ellis (2008) highlighted five main aspects of successful language learning such as “(1) a concern for language form, (2) a concern for communication (functional practice), (3) an active task approach, (4) an awareness of the learning process, and (5) a capacity to use strategies flexibly in accordance with task requirements” (p. 708). Thus, the nature and the extent of employment of certain learning strategies is crucial to language learners since it can lead them either to success or failure in mastery of the target language.

#### **2.3.4 Factors Affecting Choice of Learning Strategies**

The extensive research to date has indicated that learners vary in the overall frequency of strategy use as well as the specific types of strategies they employ (Chamot et al., 1987; Ehrman, 1990; O’Malley et al., 1985a). A considerable number of factors have been reported affecting strategy choice; some factors are learner oriented and others are related to situational and social context of learning.

#### **2.3.4.1 Learner Factors**

Age is one of the variables at work influencing the way strategies are used. In this regard, Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, and Campione (1983) reported that young children and adults employed strategies in a task-specific manner, while older children and adolescents benefitted from generalized strategies, which they used more flexibly. Further, Wong Fillmore (1976, 1979) in her study on Mexican children learning English in the United States identified a series of social strategies, each linked to a cognitive strategy. This study thus yielded different set of strategies compared to those used by adult learners.

Another factor, which is evidently related to the use of learning strategy, is motivation. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that “the degree of expressed motivation was the single most powerful influence on the choice of language learning strategies” (p. 294). In fact, types of strategies employed by motivated students differ significantly from those strategies used by (de)motivated learners. In this regard, Ellis (2008) noted that “Highly motivated learners used more strategies relating to formal practice, functional practice, general study, and conversation/input elicitation than poorly motivated learners” (p. 711). Another interesting finding of the research to date was that the type of motivation may also affect strategy choice. For example, Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) in a study on university students found that motivation affected strategy use, and that there was a link between strategy choice and different motives.

In addition, some studies suggested that learning style is related to strategy choice. In this regard, Littlemore (2001) found that those learners who had a holistic cognitive

style were more likely to use holistic communication strategies than analytic strategies, whereas the reverse was true for those students with an analytic style. Further, Carson and Longhini (2002) in a diary study of Carson's naturalistic acquisition of Spanish in Argentina reported that her selection of learning strategies was influenced by her learning styles. Furthermore, the research to date has shown that learner beliefs are related to strategy choice. One of these studies conducted by Bialystok (1981) demonstrated that grade 10 and 12 L2 learners of French in Canada held different beliefs in terms of involvement of formal as opposed to functional practices in language learning, and this affected their choice of strategies. In the same vein, Wenden (1987) reported that learners who believed in the importance of language learning used cognitive strategies which helped them understand and remember specific linguistic items, whereas learners who believed in the importance of language use depended on communicative strategies.

Moreover, there has been an extensive research supporting the relationship between learners' experience, language learning, and strategy use. In this regard, Ehrman (1990) found that professional linguists employed strategies more frequently than untrained teachers and students. Further, students who had five years of study experience used more functional practice strategies than students with fewer years of study experience. Another study (Nation & McLaughlin, 1986) involving teaching of an artificial language to groups of monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual subjects suggested the superiority of experienced language learners over inexperienced ones, in that that the multilinguals performed better than the others on an implicit learning task due to the fact that they were more able to utilize learning strategies automatically. Subsequently, Levine, Reves, and Leaver (1996) found that

“learners studying in a highly structured and uniform educational system will develop learning strategies reflecting that system” (p. 45). Recently, Magogwe, and Oliver (2007) explored the association between language learning strategies, proficiency, age and self-efficacy beliefs of Botswanan language learners and found that the more proficient students used language learning strategies more than the less proficient ones. The researchers also found that there was a relationship between the type of strategy use and successful language learning which was mediated by a host of factors including proficiency, age, and self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, they reported that the use of certain strategies, for example, social strategies, were preferred over others by the Botswanan learners which might be due to their culture or educational experience (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007).

#### **2.3.4.2 Social and Situational Factors**

Interestingly, choice of strategy use can also be affected by the type of the target language. In this regard, Chamot et al. (1987) reported that foreign language students of Russian in the United States utilized strategies more frequently than students of Spanish. Further, in a comparative study of students studying the French and Japanese languages, Wharton (2000) found that students of French had a higher overall mean of strategy use than students studying Japanese. It is noteworthy that the research on learning strategy use has suggested that social strategies are rarely employed. For example, in Chamot, Küpper, and Impink-Hernandez (1988) language learners reportedly employed social and affective strategies infrequently, the only exception being questioning for clarification. With regard to this study, Ellis observed that “the strategy use of the classroom learners she investigated was lower than that in second language learning situations and that affective strategies in particular were preferred. There may be also differences in strategy use according to

whether the classroom setting is second or foreign language ones” (2008, pp. 712-713). Furthermore, Chamot et al. (1987), for example, found that foreign language students tended to use some strategies not reported by the participants in O’Malley et al.’s (1985a) study. It was noteworthy that the foreign language students relied on cognitive strategies to a lesser extent than the second language students. Another interesting finding reported by Chamot et al. (1987) and Chamot et al. (1988) was that task type had a significant effect on learners’ choice of cognitive as well as meta-cognitive strategies.

Finally, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) in their study of university foreign language learners reported that another learner factor, gender, had an impact on strategy choice. They found that female students employed more strategies compared to their male counterparts. Subsequently, other studies supported Oxford and Nyikos’ finding (Ehrman, 1990; Kaylani, 1996; Peacock & Ho, 2003). However, Wharton (2000) reported no significant difference for gender. To conclude, learners use various learning strategies in different ways, and strategy choice and use can be (inter)related to other individual differences.

### **2.3.5 Learner Training**

Learner training originated from the attempts to find efficient ways to help learners become effective. To this effect, some researchers have endeavored to design learner training programs regardless of the fact that there does not seem to be a universal set of strategies that work best for language learning. With regard to the related studies, Ellis (2008) emphasized that “the lack of standardization of either the intervention packages or the manner in which learning was assessed makes it difficult to reach any firm conclusions regarding the effectiveness of strategy training” (p. 717).

The earlier research to date focused on the impact of vocabulary strategy training. For example, Bialystok (1983) reported that L2 learners of French as a second language who were provided a dictionary, through dictionary use, rather than picture cues, obtained better scores on a vocabulary test than those provided strategy training. In a subsequent experiment, the strategy training proved less effective in enhancing both comprehension and vocabulary acquisition than the other two conditions. Another study by O'Malley et al. (1985b) investigated the effects of two types of training on intermediate ESL students of mixed, Hispanic and Asian, backgrounds. Their results indicated that while the Hispanic training group outperformed the Hispanic control group, the reverse was the case for the Asian group as the latter preferred instead to rely on their well-tried strategy of rote memorization. In yet another study, Cohen, Weaver, and Li (1996) investigated the effect of strategy-based instruction on speaking in a foreign language. It was reported that "it would appear beneficial to engage learners in discussions of speaking strategies, having them review checklists of possible strategies . . . and practice those strategies in class" (p. 152).

Furthermore, Swain (2000) reviewed a study by Holunga that corroborated strategy training. This study investigated the impact of meta-cognitive strategy training on the correct use of verb forms by advanced learners of English. Basically three instructional conditions were involved: firstly, meta-cognitive strategy training together with communicative practice; secondly, meta-cognitive strategy training combined with a requirement to verbalize the strategies and communicative practice; and thirdly, communicative practice solely. The study findings showed that the first and third groups attended predominantly to message content producing interaction

that was typical of a negotiation of meaning task, whereas the second group focused on both message content and the conditional verb form that the task required. With regard to an interaction involving a pair of learners in the second group, Swain (2000) observed that “through their collaborative effort, they produce the appropriate verb form accurately, and propose a concrete plan to monitor its accuracy in future use” (p. 108). Thus, the study findings suggested that strategy training could be effective if it involved verbalizing the strategies employed together with the opportunity to use the strategies explicitly in the context of communicative activity. However, it was evident again that language learners vary in their learning strategy selection and application, and that these are mediated by other individual learner differences.

## **2.4 Translation**

It should be noted that the term translation has been interpreted differently by scholars and practitioners in different contexts. According to the classic definitions, “translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another” (Catford, 1965, p. 1); it “consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style” (Nida & Taber, 1969, p. 12). Subsequently, translation was defined as “using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language” (Chamot, 1987, p. 77). Specifically, it was regarded as “converting the target language expression into the native language (at various levels, from words and phrases all the way up to whole texts); or converting the native language into the target language” (Oxford, 1990, p. 46). Recently, translation has been defined as

involving “transfer of meaning from one language to another” (G. Cook, 2010, p. 55).

In the late 1950s Jakobson (1959) identified three types of translation in its broad sense: first, intralingual translation or rewording involving an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs in the same language; second, interlingual translation or translation proper which is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language; and finally intersemiotic translation or transmutation referring to an interpretation by means of a nonverbal sign system. Subsequently, Newmark (1988), on the interlingual level, identified eight categories of translation as follows: word-for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, semantic translation, adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation, and finally, communicative translation. Further, Newmark (1988) contended that the above-mentioned categorization of translation methods, dependent on the purpose of translation, type of texts, and the nature of readership, could possibly be used by foreign language students.

In the history of English language teaching the predominant view has been that a foreign language should be taught without reference to the learners’ first language since it impedes acquisition of a target language. In this regard, the Grammar-Translation Method, for which translation was an indispensable part of language learning and instruction, was criticized for its extensive use of mother tongue in foreign language education. Consequently, in the Direct Method and the Audio-Lingual Method, translation was banned as part of the classroom activity. In a somewhat similar vein, Communicative Language Teaching emphasized



development of communicative competence through classroom activities aimed at meaningful communication through target language use. There seems to be, therefore, no room for translation in communication-oriented language instruction. In this regard, Scholfield (1995) stated the following:

There is the familiar argument that learners need to get into the habit of ‘thinking in the target language’: they will not be efficient comprehenders and users of English if they operate always via an extra step of translating into their first language. (p. 1)

However, V. Cook (2001a) recommended the use of the learner’s native language for explaining challenging grammar or vocabulary items of the target language. Recently, within the framework of critical pedagogy, Akbari (2008) advocated L1 use in the L2 classroom since “a learner’s first language can be regarded as an asset that can facilitate communication in the L2 and as part of her communicative experience on which to base her L2 learning” (p. 279). Also, Turnbull, Cormier, and Bourque (2011) investigated the use of L1 in French immersion science classes. The study findings indicated a significant cognitive role of L1 in making sense of complex subject matter, as well as in developing L2 and problem solving skills in the immersion context.

It should be noted that teachers hold different views about translation use in language instruction (Malmkjær, 1998). Therefore, there has been lack of consensus in language pedagogy on the role of translation in instructional contexts, related views ranging from its complete banishment to occasional use for teaching-learning purposes. In the event of the former and even the latter practices, language learners cannot benefit from their L1 resources and have to apply other strategies in order to cope with challenges of the target language learning. Importantly, the fact that translation can be employed for “building bridges”, “carrying a message across”, or

“extending horizons” due to the “facilitative or enabling function inherent” in it (House, 2008, p. 136) has not been taken into account in many instructional contexts.

Thus, the research to date has argued both for or against translation use as follows:

the main arguments *against* using translation were that translation into the foreign language hinders the practical command of the foreign language, and translation from the foreign language corrupts the command of the native language due to the restraining co-presence of foreign language items in the mind. Arguments *for* using translation in the foreign language classroom were that translation is a means of economically ‘semanticising’, i.e. efficiently conveying the meaning of foreign language items, and also testing them (Palmer, 1968) – however never as the ‘daily bread of language instruction’, but as an interesting change in a predominantly monolingual instruction ... (House, 2008, p. 145).

It is a well-known fact that many language learners “engage ... from time to time or even extensively” in “literal or tough translation ... in order to function in all four of the basic skill areas” (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002, p. 182). Learners frequently employ translation to facilitate their language learning; its role is vital in foreign language learning environments where learners’ exposure to the target language is limited. Therefore, developing adequate translation strategies is crucial to EFL learners’ success in conveying messages across the source and target languages. As Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) stated, “the strategic use of translation” is “perhaps less conspicuous a skill area for strategizing, but undoubtedly an area that learners draw on” (p. 182). However, surprisingly, over the past decades, translation as a learning strategy has not been explored extensively; moreover, translation strategies of translation students have received scant attention (Cohen & Hawras, 1996; Kern, 1994).

Importantly, translation in addition to transferring meanings and conveying messages can also be employed as a cognitive strategy for learning foreign languages. Chamot (1987) defined the translation strategy as “using the first language as a base for

understanding and/or producing the second language” (p. 77). In a similar vein, Oxford (1990) regarded translating as “converting the target language expression into the native language (at various levels, from words and phrases all the way up to whole texts); or converting the native language into the target language” (p. 46). Recently, Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) viewed translation as “the kind of literal or tough translation that most learners engage in from time to time or even extensively in order to function in all four of the basic skill areas” (p. 182). In this regard, the pertinent literature noted the positive and facilitative role of translation in learning a second language (Atkinson, 1987; Baynham, 1983; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Ellis, 1985; Kern, 1994; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Newmark, 1991; Perkins, 1985; Prince, 1996; Tiftord, 1985).

Interestingly, in a recent comprehensive volume on language learner strategies edited by Cohen and Macaro (2007), translation learning strategies have been addressed only in one contribution, by Erler and Finkbeiner (as cited in Cohen & Macaro, 2007, p. 196). The authors explored L1 impact on L2 reading strategy and reviewed some related studies (Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Kern, 1994; Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001) which reported that L1 was employed by learners engaged in L2 reading comprehension to decrease their cognitive load; they also identified several situations for L1-based translations strategies for reading comprehension.

For the research purposes of the present study we adopted the most recent definition by Liao (2006) since it appears to be the most comprehensive one. Specifically, it refers to benefitting from a language “as a basis for understanding, remembering, or producing another language, both at the lexical level and the syntactic level, and also

in either direction from the target or the source language into the other language” (p. 19).

## **2.5 The Role of Translation in Language Teaching and Learning**

### **2.5.1 Traditional Language Instruction**

Traditional approaches to language learning, dependent on the use of translation and/or native language, fall into two major categories in the present study. The first group including the Grammar Translation method, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia favored the use of mother tongue or translation as the basis for language teaching and practice.

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM), dating back to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, was a foreign language teaching method derived from the traditional method of teaching Latin in Europe. In this method, students had to translate different texts and memorize as many grammatical rules and vocabulary items as possible. As Stern (1983) stated in this regard, “the first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language”. The aim was to enable students read and translate literary works and classics. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), in the Grammar Translation Method, the goal of foreign language learning was to read the target literature words in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development; grammar was taught deductively and was then practiced through translation exercises, and the student’s first language was the medium of instruction. This method dominated the foreign language pedagogy from the 1840s to the 1940s, and nowadays it still continues to be widely used in its modified form in some parts of the world.

However, the Grammar Translation Method was criticized for its limited scope of objectives. Since no attention was paid to production in a foreign language, students would often fail in speaking or writing in the target language. In this regard, Catford (1965) stated that the main drawback of the Grammar Translation Method was that it used bad grammar and bad translation such as obscured grammatical rules as well as translation of detached sentences. Hartman and Stork (1964) also maintained that the traditional translation approach was not efficient because “switching between strings of words in texts of different languages hampers the development of speech habits” (p. 75). Moreover, students lacked active participation in the classroom, often correcting their own work and strictly following their textbook.

In the mid and late nineteenth century, in some parts of Europe opposition to the Grammar Translation Method gradually developed. The emergence of the Reform Movement, raising controversies that have continued until the present time, paved the way for new ways of language teaching and learning. Consequently, during the 1970s, Community Language Learning (CLL) and Suggestopedia, also known as Desuggestopedia, became two popular teaching methods in which translation played a major role (Hussain, 1996). Within the framework of Community Language Learning method, developed by Charles A. and his associates, students work together to develop any aspects of a language they would like to learn. The teacher’s role is that of a counselor or knower giving advice, assistance and support to students, meanwhile the student acts as a client in the language classroom. Community Language Learning has roots in what Mackey called “language alternation”, in which, a message or lesson is presented first in the students’ native language and then again in the second language (as cited in Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 90). In

fact, learners' first language was used so that they feel secure in grasping the teacher's instruction. In the language classroom, the teacher permanently translated messages produced in L1 by learners and then had them repeat these messages in the second language. In subsequent stages, students would develop a holistic view of the language by speaking directly in the foreign language without translation. Thus, in CLL translation was used to facilitate language learning, and further to reduce their anxiety and negative feelings in the classroom.

However, the critics of Community Language learning, believed that this method put much burden on teachers since they must be highly proficient in both L1 and L2. Moreover, teachers as counselors need to receive special training in Community Language Training. Other concerns were expressed in terms of the lack of syllabus, making objectives obscure and evaluation difficult, and the focus on fluency rather than accuracy, leading to poor control of the target language grammar system (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Further, Suggestopedia method was first developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Its intended purpose was to promote learning by lowering learners' affective filter, especially through the use of music. Similar to Community Language Learning, the use of mother tongue and translation was crucial. One of the most frequent classroom activities was using dialogs with both the target language and the mother tongue translation of it. Hence, translation was used to clarify the meaning of the dialog and the teacher used students' first language in the classroom whenever deemed necessary. However, the critics of this method, Scovel (1979) and Lukesch (2000) questioned its rigorous scientific backing

since it was assumed to be based on pseudoscience, with little benefit for language teaching.

Generally, through the use of translation, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia, helped students overcome their psychological obstacles and take advantage of their mother tongue. As Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1991) pointed out, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia were explicitly developed to minimize learner anxiety. Accordingly, the use of translation was regarded as optimizing language learning by harnessing extra-linguistic factors such as anxiety and stress in the classroom.

The second group of traditional approaches, banning the use of translation, comprised the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Silent Way Method, Natural Approach, and Total Physical Response. These methods did not consider translation to be an important aspect of foreign language learning, and learners' L1 was rarely used. Further, language instructors were expected, implicitly or explicitly, to prevent students from translating, so that learners would believe that translating could have a negative impact on their learning.

The Direct Method of teaching foreign languages, sometimes called the Natural method, was introduced first in France and Germany around 1900 and became "widely known in the United States through its use by Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz in successful commercial language schools" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 12). The advocates of the Natural Method of teaching believed that a foreign language should be taught without translation and prohibited the use of the learner's

native language. According to Diller, the basic rule of this method was that no translation was allowed, and meaning was “to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students’ native language” (as cited in Larsen Freeman, 2000, p. 23). Thus, the Direct Method exclusively advocated direct association between form and meaning in the target language, active teaching of language in the classroom, and using everyday vocabulary, sentences and grammar through explanations in the target language.

One of the criticisms of this method was that teachers were required to avoid translation, and thus a great deal of time and energy was spent on explaining terms and grammar rules that could have been taught more effectively and efficiently in learners’ first language. Furthermore, it required near native teachers which is not always feasible in EFL environments due to lack of economic and pedagogic resources. Moreover, the Direct Method not only had a weak basis in applied linguistic theory, but also failed to take the practical aspects of the classroom into account due to their overemphasis on the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Another traditional, the Audiolingual Method, alternatively Army method or New Key, emerged during the World War II to supply the U.S. government with personnel who were fluent in certain foreign languages. It was rigorously based on the behaviorist theory and structural linguistics of its time. Like the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method held that foreign languages should be taught directly,



without using learners' native language or translation to explain new vocabulary and grammar in the target language (Richards & Rogers, 2001). In this method, learners could overcome interference of their first language, and form new habits required for full mastery of second language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). However, unlike the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method did not emphasize vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations. Rather, this method drilled students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), Charles Fries, the director of the English Language Institute at the University of Michigan, believed that the starting points for learners in the Direct Method were learning grammar or structure. Therefore, it was their responsibility to orally recite the basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. Although the Audiolingual Method reached its peak in the 1960s, it did not meet the expectations of language pedagogues. Moreover, the realization that learners were not able to communicate in real-life situations, gave rise to other language teaching methods.

Yet another traditional method, the Silent Way Method, was developed by Caleb Gattego in the 1950s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In a Silent Way classroom, the teacher would usually be silent, encouraging the student to explore the language as much as possible. Students are responsible for their learning and should interact with each other to practice language learning. The teacher plays the role of a mediator and gives clues but not a model of teaching. The Silent Way Method was succinctly represented by Bruner (1966) as a problem solving, creative, and discovery activity, in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench bound listener. However, it should be noted that "the actual practices of the Silent Way method were much less revolutionary than might be expected" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 88).

Regarding the Natural Approach teaching method, it was first introduced by Stephen Krashen and Tracy D. Terrell in their book *The Natural Approach*, published in 1983 (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This approach can be classified as part of the comprehension approach to the language teaching in which the emphasis was on comprehension and meaningful communication, as well as comprehensible input for second and foreign language learning. Krashen and Terrell (1983) identified the Natural Approach with traditional approaches to language teaching which were based on the use of language in communicative situations, without reference to learners' native language. In this regard, Krashen and Terrell (1983) stated that such "approaches have been called natural, psychological, phonetic, new, reform, direct, analytic, imitative and so forth" (p. 9). Despite its focus on comprehensible and meaningful practice activities, not much attention was paid to the production of grammatically accurate utterances and sentences.

As regards Total Physical Response (TPR), developed by James Asher, it gained popularity in the 1970s and 1980s, and attempted to teach language through physical or motor activities. In this method, language learning was seen as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. In TPR, the teacher would give learners commands in the target language and learners would act those commands out using body responses. This method, through game-like movements, was intended to reduce learners' stress and create a positive mood to facilitate learners' learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As Richards and Rodgers (2001) noted, "TPR practices ... do not necessarily demand commitment to the learning theories used to justify them" (p. 79).

Thus, in his evaluation of the Silent Way, the Natural Approach, and Total Physical Response methods Cohen (1998) noted that these methods were intuitively based on the assumption that learners can benefit maximally from thinking in the language they are learning, and that the use of learners' native language should be abandoned, especially during the early stages of teaching.

### **2.5.2 Innovative Language Instruction**

Over the past decades, in reaction to the perceived weaknesses of the traditional methods, some innovative instructional methods have been proposed and practiced in the language classroom. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), also known as the communicative approach, is a method of foreign and second language teaching that focuses on communicative competence as the fundamental aim of language learning. This method was developed by British applied linguists in the 1980s as a reaction against grammar-based approaches such as Situational Language Teaching and the Audiolingual Method. Further, CLT emphasizes meaningful communication and language use in all classroom practice activities (Richards & Schmidt, 2001). To achieve this aim, in addition to linguistic competence (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), students should have knowledge of the functions of language. The most basic characteristic of CLT is that almost everything is done through a communicative intent. Students are engaged in authentic language use through communicative activities such as games, role plays, and problem-solving tasks in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Hence, the learners' native language does not play a pivotal role and target language is merely used for communicative activities.

As innovative teaching approaches such as CLT gained popularity in the previous decades, the usefulness of translation seems to have been neglected. In this regard,

Swan (1985a, 1985b) criticized CLT for not taking learners' world knowledge and first language skills into consideration. Since learners have a limited capacity to process a foreign language, teaching activities tend to be time-consuming as well as ambiguous to them. Thus, when learners engage in communicative practice activities such as role plays and group discussion, they may feel frustrated to communicate in the target language.

Another innovative method, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), known either as Task-Based Language Learning (TBLL) or Task-Based Instruction (TBI), refers to an approach that uses authentic language and requires students to do meaningful tasks in the target language. Such tasks range from visiting a friend, posting a letter from post office to making telephone calls for getting information. In this regard, Larsen-Freeman (2000) noted that "a task-based approach aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use" (p. 144). In TBLT, the focus is primarily on the process of language learning rather than its product. Owing to its close linkage to Communicative Language Teaching, TBLT has received considerable attention within applied linguistics (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Thus, Task-Based Language Learning is beneficial to students since it is learner-centered, allows for more meaningful communication, and often promotes practical extra-linguistic skills. However, as Richards and Rogers (2001) stated,

Many aspects of TBLT have yet to be justified, such as proposed schemes for task types, task sequencing, and evaluation of task performance. And the basic assumption of Task-Based Language Teaching – that it provides for a more effective basis for teaching than other language teaching approaches – remains in the domain of ideology rather than fact. (p. 241)

Yet another innovative method, Content-Based Instruction (CBI), draws on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching, and is designed to teach second

language learners the basic skills they will need in language classrooms. In CBI, teaching is often organized around the academic content areas such as math, history, or biology. As Larsen-Freeman (2000) noted in this regard, “academic subjects provide natural content for language instruction” (p. 137). In a similar vein, Richards and Rodgers (2001) referred content “to the substance or subject matter that we learn or communicate through language rather than the language used to convey it” (p. 204). Importantly, the integration of language and content effectively enhances learners’ language proficiency and teaches them the necessary skills needed in various professions.

However, a major criticism against CBI has been that when students study academic subjects in a non-native language, teachers applying this method have to provide learners with a great deal of assistance in understanding subject matter materials. In this regard, familiarity of language teachers with the content areas can be a problematic issue. CBI is designed for second language contexts where learners have opportunities for communication outside the language classroom; whereas it is not suited for foreign language contexts in which students have a limited access to native-like speakers, and language learning rarely takes place without recourse to the native language. Consequently, CBI which does not take into account the use of learners’ first language or translation may not be appropriate for EFL environments.

More recently, a novel, Content and Language Integrated Learning method (CLIL), has been introduced. Specifically, it is a content learning approach through foreign or second language, for example, teaching both the subject and the language using a

language other than the students' mother tongue as a medium of instruction. In this regard, Dulton-Puffer (2007) contended that:

Using a language other than the L1 as a medium of instruction is certainly an innovation in the state-financed formal education systems of European countries, which have been strongly oriented towards the conceptually monolingual nation state in the 19th century. (p. 1)

Further, the major motivation for the use of CLIL is that outcomes of foreign language learning in schools in terms of the learner's active command of the oral registers have not been satisfactory. Dulton-Puffer (2007) noted that in CLIL classrooms, the most frequent strategy employed by both teachers and students to clarify the meaning of unknown terms is translation. However, she cautioned that due to "the scarcity in the present data of rich definitions of concepts presented in a coherent form leaves room for doubt that translation equivalents create understanding, and doubt too about the kind of understanding created in many L1 subject classrooms" (p.137).

Importantly, in the early 2000s the European Union identified Content Language Integrated Learning as a priority in its language policy since

It can provide effective opportunities for pupils to use their new language skills now, rather than learn them now for use later. It opens doors on languages for a broader range of learners, nurturing self-confidence in young learners and those who have not responded well to formal language instruction in general education. It provides exposure to the language without requiring extra time in the curriculum, which can be of particular interest in vocational settings. (Cenoz, 2009, p. 112)

Recently, the *CLIL Compendium* (Dulton-Puffer, 2007) stated five aspects as the language dimensions of CLIL as follows:

- Improve overall target language competence;
- Develop oral communication skills;

- Deepen awareness of both mother tongue and target language;
- Develop plurilingual interests and attitudes; and
- Introduce a target language. (p. 10)

In Europe, this perspective has led to the promotion of CLIL teacher training and an education project, called ECLIL, within the lifelong learning program. Importantly, these developments seem to indicate acknowledgement of the role of learners' first language for successful learning of the target language.

## **2.6 Language Socialization**

It is noteworthy that “Translation is a universal cross-linguistic and cross-cultural social practice at least two millennia old” (House, 2008, p. 135). Translation has been concerned with generation and conveyance of meanings within and across socio-cultural groups and settings (Baker, 1992, pp. 4–5). The present study, therefore, adopted the language socialization theory for its conceptual framework.

Over the centuries, translation has played and continues to play a significant role in personal lives, workplace settings as well as international affairs. Since interpreters and translators are always engaged in making challenging decisions and judgments in terms of ensuring linguistic, socio-cultural and contextual equivalence of their work they require an adequate knowledge and competence in the source and target languages to inform and guide their professional practice.

### **2.6.1 Language socialization theory**

Language socialization (LS) is an approach with the assumption that “linguistic and cultural knowledge are *constructed* through each other” (Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003, p. 157). LS theory was initially developed in the study of first language and

culture acquisition within the field of linguistic anthropology and is often discussed as a theoretical and methodological approach, or “paradigm” (Watson-Gegeo, 2004). LS is specifically important in the study of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) since it concentrates on the use of language in social interaction or the pragmatic aspects of linguistic behavior (Davis & Henze, 1998; Kasper & Rose, 2002). LS views the language learner more holistically (Watson-Gegeo, 1988; Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003) and emphasizes the human being as a social, emotional, mental, and spiritual being incorporated in a physical form (Watson-Gegeo, 2004) as well as the sociocultural, political, economic, and educational context in which they live (Watson-Gegeo, 1992). Thus, as LS posits, all the aforementioned factors should be taken into account in the pertinent studies.

Since language socialization has roots in the study of “children’s social, cultural, and first language (L1) development” through interaction, language socialization research not only takes into account “discrete linguistics items”, namely lexis and morphology, but also “interactional or sociolinguistic routines” that constitute part of “language learners’ and users’ communicative repertoire” (Duff & Talmy, 2011, p. 96). Moreover, contrary to cognitivist second language acquisition research, language socialization research attempts to explain learning in a much broader sense, studying both linguistic development and the other forms of knowledge including culture and social knowledge which are learned in and through language (Duff & Talmy, 2011). LS theory as an interactionist theory views social interaction integral to the acquisition of language. As LS posits, the relationship between language and socialization is binary: socialization to use language and socialization through the use of language (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986a, 1986b).



According to Dufon (2008), socialization to use language refers to what learners are taught to say in a given situation; and socialization through the use of language concerns the process through which language learners “acquire knowledge of the culture in question as well as of their status and role and their associated rights and obligations as they learn the language” (p. 27). Specifically, the process of socialization through the use of language deals with:

the ways in which discourse is structured, the linguistic forms that are chosen, the functions of these forms and the contexts in which they occur carry implicit messages regarding the values, beliefs, attitudes and world view of the speech community in question toward the situation and participants in any given interaction. (Dufon, 2008, p. 27)

Thus, LS theory can be viewed as “a process of assigning situational, i.e., indexical meanings ... to particular forms (Ochs, 1996, p. 410–411). Hence, LS theory not only draws upon Whorf’s (1941) ideas of the ways in which language use shapes our world view, but it also modifies it (Ochs, 1988).

### **2.6.2 Second/Foreign Language Socialization**

Second language socialization studies began to emerge in the 1990s and most of these studies investigated language acquisition in second language contexts at home (Schechter & Bayley, 1997), school (Duff, 2002; Poole, 1992; Willett, 1995) or both home and school (Crago, 1992; Findlay, 1995; Pease-Alvarez & Vasquez, 1994; Watson-Gegeo, 1992). However, as Dufon (2008) noted, socialization studies of foreign language learners in study abroad contexts (H. M. Cook, 2006; Dufon, 2006; Siegal, 1995, 1996; Yoshimi, 1999) and foreign language classroom at home (Duff, 1995, 1996; Ohta, 1994, 1999) have been limited. Importantly, the research to date indicated that LS theory is a suitable teaching framework. Nevertheless, the socialization process of second and foreign languages relies on a separate set of assumptions compared to first language socialization process (Duff, 2003). First,

with regard to first language socialization, children have access to proficient speakers of their language community who provide them with opportunities for interaction required to learn language forms and proper ways of speaking. Conversely, second language learners learn another language outside the target culture without native speakers of the target language accessible to them, even if they are surrounded by them (Isabelli-García, 2003, 2006; Kinginger & Whitworth, 2005).

Second, first language acquisition studies have concentrated on monolingual acquisition and membership in a single language community, however, such view cannot be taken for granted in foreign language environments (Duff, 2003) where learners might be interested in a specific culture without losing their own native language and cultural identities. Specifically, in the case of English as the current international lingua franca, foreign language learners may not necessarily integrate into inner circle (Kachru, 1985) countries. Their goal may be to become bilingually or multilingually competent so that they can learn the international discourse and be able to interact with individuals across a wide range of cultures for business, education or diplomacy purposes (Dufon, 2008). Importantly, as House (2003) noted, foreign language learners are interested in learning English as a language for communication but not as a language for identification. Further, House (2003) suggested that in EFL classroom settings in which language teachers prepare students to use English as a lingua franca in international discourse, norms of native speakers should not be standard; instead we should look for expert EFL users who have been successful communicators in international communication, an approach which is consistent with recent research in English for Specific Purposes with respect to pragmatics (Gibbs, 2005; Tarone, 2005). Consequently, instead of a general native

speaker model in terms of what is appropriate language usage, we have to look for expert speakers, being native or non-native, in specific contexts to be the language socializers (Dufon, 2008). However, foreign language teachers in classroom settings were cautioned that when a teacher might socialize students into a particular culture s/he should bear in mind that due to cultural, institutional, and legal restrictions, it won't be possible to copy the native classroom conditions in the target language classroom except in cases where cultural similarities exist (Dufon, 2008).

Of the pertinent socialization studies, in the late 1990s, Bell (1995) attempted to acquire literacy in Chinese as a college level student. Her teacher focused on form, observation, and imitation as important pedagogical tools. Bell, being an adult, resisted the approach and tried to gain L2 literacy in the same way she had acquired her L1 literacy. Bell and her Chinese teacher had various unconscious assumptions about the qualities self-displayed by skills of literacy, what makes a good language learner, the association between content and form, and differences in analytic against holistic approaches to literacy learning, causing a certain degree of tension in the learning context (as cited in Dufon, 2008). As a result, Bell did not progress as she would have desired. Although Bell's (1995) study was not carried out within the framework of LS theory, her conclusions are not at variance with LS theory:

... ESL literacy teachers have to recognize that they are teaching far more than the letters of the alphabet. I have suggested above that we need to think about the relationship between form and content and that between part and whole. We need to become conscious of our notions of how progress is measured and how it is rewarded. We need to consider the human qualities which are valued in our society and explore how these are made manifest in our preferred literacy practices. We need to explore our own assumptions and recognize that much of what we used to consider an inherent part of literacy is actually culturally imposed. (p.702)

Further, Duff's (1996) study in Hungary investigated the way classroom discourse socialization changed, in both L1 and L2, as a consequence of changes to the education system as well as the society during the year following the dissolution of the Soviet Union. Duff (1996) conducted an ethnographic study focusing on discourse practices in dual-language, namely Hungarian-English, schools that were transforming from traditional educational practices like *felelés*, which required fluent and accurate recitation by students and graded them on a five-point scale. However, the emergence of newer practices endangered more shared discourse, including small group work and discussion (Duff, 1996). Interestingly, as the newer practices were emerging in both Hungarian-medium and English-medium classrooms, the role of *felelés* was fading in the curriculum. However, although the direction of change was consistent, one model of discourse socialization did not replace another model. In this regard, Duff (1996) discovered a variation between the old and the new practices; even in classes where *felelés* had officially been abandoned, it appeared on other activity type such as lectures. Duff (1996) concluded that "different models of discourse socialization prevail and evolve in ways that may be in greater or lesser harmony with existing cultural and government-mandated assessment practices" (p. 431).

Furthermore, Yoshimi (1999) investigated the role of L1 (English) socialization in the pragmatic production of L2 learners of Japanese, specifically the interactional use of *ne*, conveying empathy and knowledge sharedness between the interlocutors. By using a quasi-experimental approach Yoshimi (1999) carried out a discourse analysis of talk in pairs. Thus, five L1 American English-speaking learners of Japanese were individually paired with an L1 Japanese-speaking person to have several

conversations. Specifically, the analysis focused on the learners' non-targetlike use of *ne* to examine whether it would show their L1-socialized suppositions about shared knowledge. The results indicated that the majority of the learners' use of *ne* seemed to be appropriate in the L2. Nevertheless, Yoshimi (1999) reported that the fact that one third of the learners who were considered to perform in a non-target like manner was indicative of L1 socialization to some extent. Yoshimi (1999) concluded that there was a need for investigating L2 practices with a focus on L1 socialization as a potential effect.

Subsequently, Matsumura (2001) investigated the socialization of L2 pragmatics by L1 Japanese learners of English, comparing a group of university students in Canada learning English as a second language and another group who studied English in Japan as a foreign language. Matsumura's (2001) study was quasi-experimental with quantitative analysis of language socialization influences. Specifically, the researcher sought to determine which group – either the L2 group in Canada or the foreign language group in Japan – showed more proof of L2 socialization. The study findings revealed that the Japanese language learners' behavior in Canada was closer to the target language both in knowing their social status and in transferring advice properly to all three relative statuses. Whereas, the group in Japan merely revealed appropriate advice-giving language in English while hypothetically interacting with higher status individuals. Therefore, Matsumura (2001) concluded that the Japanese learners' stay in Canada equipped them with more pragmatically target like use of English in terms of both perception of social status and giving advice.

Another study by Ohta (1999) investigated the socialization of a native English speaking learner in the course of one year in Japanese as a foreign language classroom at an American university. Ohta (1999) reported that the learner, through her participation in the routines with the teacher as well as with her peers, showed a gradual increase in her ability to give assessments and use other types of follow-up expressions that closely resembled the foreign language.

## **2.7 Translation Competence**

The critical question of what constitutes translation competence and how it is acquired has been a matter of continuous debate for the past decades. Language is a social phenomenon closely interrelated with culture. Therefore, linguistic meanings produced by individuals, from small to larger segments of text, can appropriately be understood with reference to the socio-cultural context of language use. Since in translation meaning is of great significance, it is evident that this meaning cannot be fully understood out of a frame of reference. Translation competence may be defined as the “automatic by-product of second language competence”, however, “there is more to translating than knowing two or more languages” (Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009, p. 174). Importantly, as in translation process both two languages and cultures converge, translation can be regarded as “a form of intercultural communication in the head of the translator” (House, 2008, p. 137).

Over the past decades, the dominance of monolingual practices in language teaching was mostly due to a “mistaken belief that using students’ mother tongue endangers their nascent competence in foreign language use”, the myth of the negative effect of transfer from L1 and crucial effect of “Anglophone teaching philosophies”, as well as their “profit-driven English-only teaching methodologies and textbook industry”

(House, 2008, p. 135). Consequently, language learners' mother tongue has not received adequate attention in foreign language learning and teaching, and the major focus has been on using the target language as the medium of instruction. In this sense, translation and/or foreign language learners' mother tongue can be used as a tool for language learning and teaching to improve their overall competence, as well as for mediation between different languages, communities, and cultures.

Specifically, translation can be used to explain grammatical rules; to help teachers ensure their learners' adequate comprehension, and ideally their gradual mastery of appropriate target language use; to provide teachers with a large-scale testing tool for assessing various knowledge and skills. In translation exercises, not only learners' attention has to be drawn to the formal properties of source and target texts, but also to the importance of situational and contextual meanings. Translation as an exercise can establish functional and pragmatic equivalence of various linguistic forms in diverse contexts. Consequently, translation plays a pivotal role in the development of learners' communicative competence. The use of translation in foreign language learning covers a wide range of translation activities, including, for instance, "the explicit comparison of cultural phenomena in the source and target language communities; the creative production of both source and target language texts; the changing of the register dimensions Field, Tenor and Mode in the original, the translation or both; and guided context sensitive evaluation of translations and versions" (House, 2008, p. 147).

It is also believed that translation activities should be used with higher level learners since they have already developed communicative competence and are more or less

familiar with the equivalence relations between the source and target language and culture. However, House (2008) differentiated between translation into and translation from the foreign language, the first being considered more difficult which requires an extensive knowledge of the foreign language, whereas the latter one is considered to be less challenging since it requires less foreign language expertise. Hence, translation can be used as an effective tool to promote learners' discourse competence as well as enhance their ability to distinguish and reflect upon pragmatic similarities and differences between first and second languages and cultures.

It is noteworthy that several sources of information can be required for the purposes of modeling translation competence as well as its acquisition: the findings of empirical studies which compare the process of translation of subjects with different levels of translation competence, for example translation students, language students, and professional translators; theoretical reflections on the components which constitute translation competence; and the findings of studies into the development of expertise in a wide range of domains, namely playing chess, conducted by cognitive psychologist (Ericsson & Smith, 1991).

The process studies comparing individuals with different levels of translation competence yielded some general trends. For example, as translation competence increases, the translation units that translators focus on become broader (Gerloff, 1988; Jääskeläinen, 1999; Krings, 1988). Thus, complicated problems, such as textual considerations instead of searching simply for equivalence, could be tackled by increasing experience (Jääskeläinen, 1999). In addition, translators with more experience often take into consideration more aspects related to production of a



product that serves its determined function for a specific audience. Hence, according to Hönig (as cited in Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009), they may develop a macro-strategy or, according to Jääskeläinen's (1993), global strategy.

Further, more advanced translators' product is less source-text-oriented, which shows more inference activities, and takes into consideration broader co-text and context (Krings, 1988; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1992). As translation competence increases, translators become more aware of translation problems, produce more tentative translation equivalents, reflect on their tentative solutions more carefully, and edit and revise more (Gerloff, 1988; Jääskeläinen, 1999). For example, Jääskeläinen (1999) found that novice students looked up more terms in dictionaries, whereas advanced students consulted dictionaries for problematic items. Thus, she reported that novice students preferred bilingual dictionaries, whereas advanced students employed monolingual dictionaries (Jääskeläinen, 1999). Regarding the degree of automation in the translation process, Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit (1991) reported that as translation competence increases, those problems which become the object of conscious decision processes change. Specifically, some processes become more automatic, the released processing capacity can be employed to tackle other aspects in the translation process, which then become the object of conscious decision making process (Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009).

Theoretical reflections on what constitutes translation competence have led to the development of different translation competence models. In these models translation competence is conceptualized as constituting several sub-competencies, namely communicative competence, domain competence, tools and research competence.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the PACTE group's acquisition of translation competence model has been illustrated.

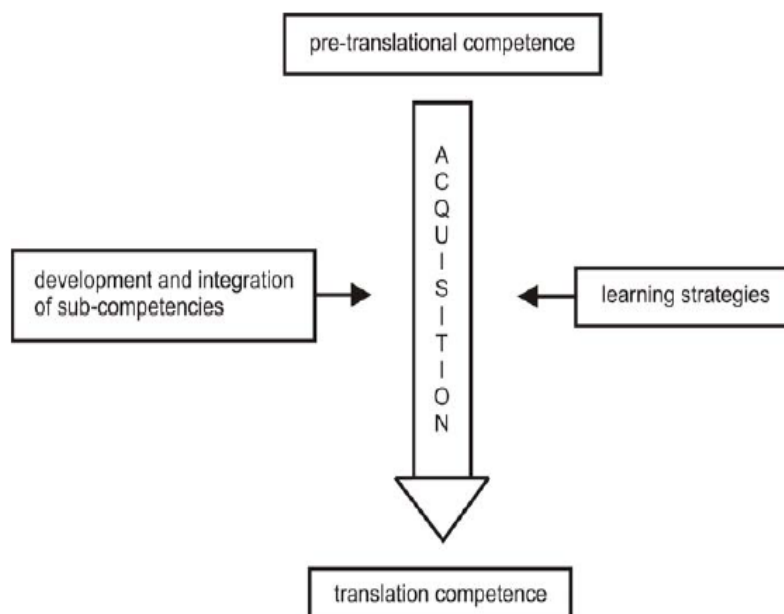


Figure 2.1. The PACTE Group's Translation Competence Acquisition Model (PACTE, 2000, p. 104)

According to the PACTE Group's model, the acquisition of translation competence entails the development of both the individual sub-competencies and the integrative competence. As Göpferich and Jääskeläinen (2009) noted, the “development of these competencies and their integration do not only involve the accumulation of declarative knowledge, but, above all, the restructuring of existing knowledge” (p. 176). This was elaborated on by the PACTE group (as cited in Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009) as follows:

Thus, the novice stage in the development of translation competence could be defined as the stage when the sub-competencies have been acquired, at least partially, but they do not interact with each other. Therefore, the development from novice to expert is not only a question of acquiring the missing sub-competencies, but also of re-structuring the existing sub-competencies to put them at the service of the transfer competence. (p. 176)

The PACTE group's model of the development of translation competence was supported by some other research studies (Anderson, 1990; Ericsson & Smith, 1991; Sternberg, 1997).

It should be noted that the work of the PACTE Group prompted subsequent research; hence "a whole sub-field of SLA concentrating on language learning strategies has developed" (Bergen, 2009, p. 235), one pertinent study being Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) work. In their handbook called Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), they tried to provide guidelines for American school teachers for integrating immigrant children into academic mainstream classes by taking into account meta-cognitive, cognitive, and social/affective language learning strategies.

Importantly, as noted by Bergen (2009), translation students can be language learners simultaneously; thus, CALLA strategies would be useful for beginning translation students who need to develop their language skills as they develop their translation skills.

## **2.8 Beliefs about Translation**

The research to date on learners' beliefs about translation use in foreign language learning dates back to the late 1980s. Horwitz (1988) conducted a study on learner beliefs and found that the majority of Spanish and German students believed that learning a foreign language is basically a matter of learning to translate from English (TL), but only a few of the French students shared this belief. In this regard, Kern (1994) reported that although foreign language teachers and learners took for granted the inevitability of mental translation in understanding L2 texts, both groups usually

considered translation as an inevitable confluence between the SL and TL. Subsequently, Prince (1996) compared the use of both translation and context in learning L2 vocabulary and found that learning vocabulary in context was perceived by teachers as a highly desirable strategy, however, students were against it and believed that learning vocabulary through translation was more effective.

Most students are often encouraged by their language teachers to think in the target language, so students may think that reliance on their native language does not work well while communicating in the target language. In this regard, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) explored students' views about L2 writing through using translation versus writing directly in the L2, and the scholars perceived that most of the high proficiency Japanese participants preferred direct composition, whereas a few of low proficiency students preferred it. Some students reported that they preferred direct writing because they were willing to think in English (TL).

In another research, Wen and Johnson (1997) selected ten Chinese English students to investigate, through interviews, the differences between high and low achievers in terms of strategy use while working on an English reading task. Their findings showed that, regarding the use of avoidance (L1) strategy, the low achievers thought the use of translation would not prevent their progress, but the high achievers expressed that employing the Chinese language would be detrimental to learning English. Scholars therefore concluded that it deemed necessary to encourage the Chinese students to give up the use of translation.

Subsequently, Hsieh administered a questionnaire on learner attitudes towards translation to Taiwanese college students (as cited in Liao, 2006). Most of the participants reported that translation helped them understand English reading texts, whereas few students stated that they learned the significance of their mother tongue, namely Chinese, through translation. Some of these students thought that they became more conscious of multiple meanings of an English word, and others felt that translation helped them broaden vocabulary knowledge and reading skills. Generally, all students believed that adopting translation had positive effects on their English reading and vocabulary learning. Thus, the research demonstrated that Taiwanese learners of English benefited from translation in their readings in order to promote their reading strategies, reading comprehension, vocabulary learning, and cultural background knowledge.

## **2.9 Translation Strategies**

Traditionally, translation has always been regarded as one of the frequently used cognitive learning strategies. In this regard, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) demonstrated that those Japanese college students who wrote English essays using Japanese translation were rated higher than those who wrote directly in English. By resorting to translating, students found that the ideas were easily developed, intentions and opinions were expressed more clearly, and words could be found more easily through the use of a dictionary.

However, researchers hold various opinions regarding the most beneficial stage for foreign language learners to use translation. In this regard, Husain (1995) reported that using translation had positive effects on the low and intermediate proficiency learners, but it was not beneficial for higher level students, which suggested that

translation strategy could promote English learning generally. It was also discovered that students who used translation made more progress in learning vocabulary and phrases, compared to a lower level progress in mastery of tenses. The study findings can be accounted for by the fact that semantic aspects rather than structural aspects of language are more generally shared in different languages. Another important finding was that the intermediate level students had more gains than the higher level students, and the lower level students made better progress than the intermediate level students (Husain, 1995).

Conversely, it is assumed that translation use would be more beneficial at the advanced level. Advanced learners have already developed to some extent a solid understanding of the target language, and can be more likely to distinguish the subtle differences of vocabulary meaning and grammar usage between their first language and second language. In this regard, Perkins (1985) held that through translation instruction, the higher level learners always obtain some insights into different aspects of first language-second language differences and this may finally improve their second language competence. In addition, translation has been regarded as an important tool to upgrade higher level students' learning. Translation is an appropriate resource for advanced learners and can be employed as a problem-solving exercise as well as a cognitive exercise in the classroom. Advanced learners are usually interested in knowing the underlying rule behind a particular foreign language, and mostly ask questions about how to translate an expression into a foreign language, and what rules are involved. Specifically, the use of translation at the advanced level can help learners broaden their knowledge of the foreign language

by resorting to their mother tongue, and then help them clarify the similarities and the differences between the SL and TL (Perkins, 1985).

A recent pertinent study by Liao (2006) revealed that the Taiwanese college students overall held favourable beliefs about the role of translation in English language learning; however, their beliefs varied in terms of its positive effects on their learning. Further, the study demonstrated that the students employed a range of translation strategies, somewhat frequently though. Finally, it indicated that the students' beliefs had an effect on their choice of translation strategies, and that majors in foreign languages and more proficient students reportedly used less translation to L1 and held less favourable beliefs, as compared with less proficient students majoring in other disciplines.

## **2.10 Translation Studies in the Iranian Context**

It is noteworthy that recently several pertinent studies, mostly surveys, were conducted in the Iranian EFL context. These studies mainly examined the role of translation in learning a foreign language, specifically English. Ashouri and Fotovatnia (2010) investigated the effect of individual differences, risk taking and ambiguity tolerance of Iranian EFL learners on their beliefs about translation in English learning. Their findings revealed that participants held positive beliefs about translation. Further, they reported that risk-averse learners held positive beliefs about translation, whereas risk-takers expressed negative views about translation. The study also demonstrated that ambiguity tolerance had no effect on the learners' beliefs about translation (Ashouri & Fotovatnia, 2010). Further Bagheri and Fazel (2011) examined Iranian learners' beliefs about translation and translation strategy use. Their survey revealed that the EFL learners had positive beliefs about

translation, and they reported that it had a facilitative role in the development of their English writing skills. The study findings also showed that more proficient participants reported negative beliefs about the use of translation and less translation use compared to their less proficient counterparts.

In an experimental study, Hosseini-Maasoum (2012) attempted to explore Iranian adult learners' beliefs about translation while teaching reading comprehension using translation in the classroom setting, and found that instruction was fruitful except in very few cases. Further, the participants believed that their mother tongue helped them understand L2 input, making it easier for them to comprehend English texts. In a recent study, Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) investigated Iranian university students' use of translation as a language learning strategy, as well as what strategies involve the use of translation in the process of English language learning. Their findings revealed that the majority of the language learners held positive beliefs about translation as a strategy use and found it helpful in learning English. In addition, the participants reported that their L1 helped them in mental translation while reading a text, in outlining their ideas in writing, in comprehending listening tasks, and in learning new English idioms and expressions. They also found that their participants endorsed the use of bilingual dictionaries both in and out of classroom, and compared the similarities and differences between English and Persian through their mother tongue (Karimian & Talebinejad, 2013). Moreover, the researchers reported that translation not only was useful in training translators, but also it assisted language learners to develop their language skills. Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) concluded that translation should be regarded as a means to an end but not as an end to be achieved.



Finally, Reiszadeh, Alibakhshi, Veisi, and Gorjian (2012) explored Iranian learners' beliefs about L1 use in L2 translation task in General English classrooms. The study found that the EFL learners, including both pre and upper-intermediate, held positive beliefs about the role of translation tasks in the acquisition of all language skills in English.

## **2.11 Summary**

This chapter presented a comprehensive review of the research to date on learner beliefs as well as language learning strategies. Further, it introduced the background on translation, its role in language pedagogy, and language socialization as the theoretical framework for the current study. The chapter also reviewed the pertinent literature on translation competence, the research to date on the use of translation language learning strategies and related beliefs. It concluded with the pertinent studies conducted in the Iranian EFL context and a summary.

## **Chapter 3**

### **METHOD**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter introduces the overall research design of the study, and describes the context and the participants. It presents the data collection instruments, as well as the research procedures for data collection and analysis. Subsequently, the chapter concludes with the limitations and the delimitations of the research.

#### **3.2 Overall Research Design**

Research methodology, according to Dörnyei (2007), falls under three major categories as follows: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. This dichotomy may arise from several things simultaneously: “the general ideological orientation underlying the study, the method of data collection applied, the nature of collected data, and the method of data analysis used to process the data and to obtain results” (p. 24). Quantitative research requires procedures for data collection that result primarily in numerical data to be analyzed statistically, whereas qualitative research involves related procedures that yield primarily open-ended, non-numerical data to be processed through non-statistical methods. Finally, mixed method integrates qualitative and quantitative research procedures for data collection as well as data analysis (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24).

One type of quantitative research studies is survey. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) stated that most surveys possess the following three characteristics:

1. Information is collected from a group of people in order to *describe* some aspects or characteristics (such as abilities, opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and/or knowledge) of the population of which that group is a part.
2. The main way in which the information is collected is through asking *questions*; the answers to these questions by the members of the group constitute the data of the study.
3. Information is collected from a *sample* rather than from every member of the population. (p. 397)

Based on the classification provided by Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) survey studies fall into two major types – cross-sectional surveys and longitudinal surveys. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) defined a cross-sectional survey as a type of research which “collects information from a sample that has been drawn from a predetermined population ... the information is collected at just one point in time, although the time ... may take anywhere from a day to a few weeks or more” (p. 398); while in a longitudinal survey, “information is collected at different points in time in order to study changes over time” (p. 398).

The present study employed a cross-sectional survey to explore the Iranian translation students’ use of translation strategies for learning English and their related beliefs. It involved administering questionnaires and conducting interviews in order to investigate individual characteristics of Iranian students majoring in English translation. The survey applied purposeful sampling in order to obtain rich and varied insights into the phenomena under investigation. It employed an individual background questionnaire (IBQ); an inventory for beliefs about translation (IBT); an

inventory for translation learning strategies (ITLS), and an interview guide developed by Liao (2006). All the survey instruments were adapted for their administration in the Iranian EFL context.

### **3.3 Research Questions**

This research sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do the Iranian translation students hold regarding translation use in English language learning?
2. What translation learning strategies do the translation majors reportedly use?
3. How do the Iranian students' beliefs about translation relate to their reported use of translation strategy?
4. Do learner factors have an effect on the respondents' beliefs about translation and translation strategy use?

### **3.4 Context**

At the tertiary level, Iran has public and private universities and institutions offering degrees in higher education. Non-medical universities in the country are under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology, and medical schools are supervised by the Ministry of Health and Medical Education. As shown in Table 3.19, the number of universities and higher education institutions in Iran reaches nearly up to 2,276 centers, 119 of the universities and public centers being under the supervision of the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology, and 44 universities and independent colleges being supervised by the Ministry of Health and Medical Education (Mehrnews, 2011).

Table 3.1. Universities and Higher Education Institutions in Iran

Name of the university or institution	Number
Universities and Educational Institutions Supervised by Ministry of Science, Research and Technology	119
Institutes of Higher Education Supervised by other Executive Agencies	274
Higher Education Centers Supervised by Ministry of Education	28
Payame Noor University Branches	550
University of Applied Science and Technology Branches	581
Non-governmental and Non-profitable Institutions	295
Islamic Azad University Branches	385
Universities and Independent Colleges Supervised by Ministry of Health and Medical Education	44
Total	2.276

In 2011, with 10% increase compared to the previous academic year, Iran had over four million students enrolled in both private and public universities and institutions (Mehrnews, 2011). Table 3.2 displays in detail the total student population at different tertiary levels in Iran (Mehrnews, 2011).

Table 3.2. Student Population at Different Tertiary Levels in Iran (2011)

Level of education	Number of students
Ph.D. degree	38.910
Master's degree	290.679
Bachelor's degree	2.680.817
Associate degree	1.053.086
Professional doctorate	53.101
Total	4.116.593

In Iran, Islamic Azad University, founded in 1982, is a non-profit and non-governmental institution which has 385 campuses across the country and 5 overseas campuses located in the United Kingdom, United Arab Emirates, Lebanon, Tanzania, and Armenia (Islamic Azad University, 2011). Based on the recent statistics released by Azad University (2011), with over 35.000 members of academic staff and approximately 1.5 million students, it is one of the largest universities in the world.

“Degrees are offered in different academic levels from associate to Ph.D., and a wide variety of subjects, covering almost every field from social sciences to medicine, and from basic sciences to theology, are being taught at this university” (Islamic Azad University, 2011, para. 3). Each branch of the Islamic Azad University is a comprehensive university solely with many academic faculties offering degrees up to Ph.D. (Islamic Azad University, 2011).

The medium of instruction for all fields of study at Islamic Azad University branches in Iran is Farsi except for English majors such as English language translation, English language teaching and English language and literature which are being taught in English. However, at all levels of higher education, students from different areas of study have to pass general English courses which are mainly delivered through their mother tongue. It should be noted that translation majors in Iran take English language development courses in the first two years of their studies in order to improve their overall English language proficiency.

### **3.5 Participants**

Initially, it was envisaged that this survey study would involve a total of 345 first year and second year undergraduate English translation students. These were translation majors of Azad University at Northern, Central and Southern Tehran branches, as well as three other branches of Azad University in Northern provinces of Iran, Guilan and Mazandaran. All of the participants gave their written consent to participate in the study (Appendices A, B, K, and L). However, since 25 students did not follow the related instructions, hence did not complete the survey, their responses were excluded from the analysis. Of 160 participants from Tehran Azad University branches, 80 were freshmen, the other 80 sophomore students. Of 160 participants

from the Northern Azad University branches, 80 were freshmen, the other 80 sophomore students. As shown in Table 3.3, overall 17.5% of the participants were male, and 82.5% were female, between the ages of 18 to 55. Specifically, Table 3.4 and Table 3.5 display the related data on the capital and the northern part of Iran respectively.

Table 3.3. Gender of Participants

Gender	<i>N</i>	Percent of total <i>N</i>
Male	56	17.5
Female	264	82.5
Total	320	100.0

Table 3.4. Gender of Participants at Azad University Branches in Tehran

University	Gender	<i>n</i>	Percent of total <i>n</i>
Tehran	Male	29	18.1
	Female	131	81.9
Total		160	100.0

Table 3.5. Gender of Participants at Azad University Branches in the North

University	Gender	<i>n</i>	Percent of total <i>n</i>
North	Male	27	16.9
	Female	133	83.1
Total		160	100.0

Further, as shown in Table 3.6, the majority of the participants in the survey, 60.9%, were between the ages of 20 to 25, and only 10.3% of them were above 30.

Table 3.6. Age of Participants

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 20	27	8.4
20 – 25	195	60.9
26 – 30	65	20.3

Table 3.6. (cont.)

Above 30	33	10.3
Total	320	100.0

Table 3.7 and Table 3.8 display the data on the participants' age at Azad universities in Tehran and the north of Iran. Across all branches of Azad Universities, the majority of the participants, 59.4% and 62.5% respectively, were between the ages of 20 to 25.

Table 3.7. Age of Participants at Azad University Branches in Tehran

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 20	18	11.3
20 – 25	95	59.4
26 – 30	34	21.3
Above 30	13	8.1
Total	160	100.0

Table 3.8. Age of Participants at Azad University Branches in the North

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 20	9	5.6
20 – 25	100	62.5
26 – 30	31	19.4
Above 30	20	12.5
Total	160	100.0

Furthermore, as displayed in Table 3.9, the minimum average achievement score of the participants was 12 out of 20 and the maximum was 19.69 out of 20. Specifically, Table 3.10 shows that 36.9% of the students had the average scores of 16 and above, and 44.1% translation majors obtained the average scores between 12 and 16. It is noteworthy that at Iranian universities students with the average score below 12 are



considered low achievers, and they are not allowed to take more than 14 credits in the next semester of their studies. As the statistics indicate, none of the participants in this survey had an average score below 12.

Table 3.9. Minimum and Maximum Average Scores of Participants

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Average score	320	12.00	19.69	16.1920	1.55690

Table 3.10. Frequency and Percent of Average Scores

Score (out of 20)	Frequency	Percent
12 – 16	202	63.1
17 – 20	118	36.9
Total	320	100.0

Table 3.11 and Table 3.12 show average scores of the translation students at Azad Universities in Tehran and the north of Iran respectively.

Table 3.11. Minimum and Maximum Average Scores at Azad University Branches in Tehran

University	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Tehran	160	12.50	19.20	16.3883	1.43886

Table 3.12. Minimum and Maximum Average Scores at Azad University Branches in the North

University	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
North	160	12.00	19.69	15.9956	1.64779

In addition, Table 3.13 and Table 3.14 display frequency and percent of the respondents' average score breakdown at Azad Universities in Tehran and the north of Iran respectively.

Table 3.13. Frequency and Percent of Average Score Breakdown at Azad University Branches in Tehran

University	Average score	Frequency	Percent
Tehran	12 – 16	97	60.6
	17 – 20	63	39.4
Total		160	100.0

Table 3.14. Frequency and Percent of Average Score Breakdown at Azad University Branches in the North

University	Average score	Frequency	Percent
North	12 – 16	105	65.6
	17 – 20	55	34.4
Total		160	100.0

Subsequently, the respondents were requested to rate their overall proficiency in English. As shown in Table 3.15, 5.6% of the students self-rated their proficiency as excellent, whereas a mere 0.6 % considered themselves as poor learners, and the majority of the respondents regarded their proficiency as fair, very good, and not good, respectively. The mean and standard deviation of the related descriptive statistics are presented in Table 3.16.

Table 3.15. Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants

Proficiency	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	18	5.6
Very good	108	33.8
Fair	175	54.7
Not good	17	5.3
Poor	2	0.6
Total	320	100.0

Table 3.16. Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-rated Proficiency of Participants

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Proficiency in English	2.6156	0.70315

Table 3.17 shows the frequency and percent of self-rated English proficiency of the respondents at Azad Universities in Tehran. The mean and standard deviation of the related responses are displayed in Table 3.18.

Table 3.17. Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University Branches

Proficiency	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	12	7.5
Very good	63	39.4
Fair	77	48.1
Not good	6	3.8
Poor	2	1.3
Total	160	100.0

Table 3.18. Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University Branches

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Proficiency in English	2.5188	0.74371

In a similar fashion, Table 3.19 presents the frequency and percent of the self-rated English proficiency of the students at Azad University branches in the north of Iran. The mean and standard deviation are also shown in Table 3.20.

Table 3.19. Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North

Proficiency	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	6	3.8
Very good	45	28.1
Fair	98	61.3

Table 3.19. (cont.)

Not good	11	6.9
Poor	0	0
Total	160	100.0

Table 3.20. Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-rated English Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Proficiency in English	2.7125	0.64805

Specifically, the participants self-rated their English proficiency across the language skills and components as follows: reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, vocabulary and idioms. Table 3.21 displays the related statistics on the participants' self-rated receptive skills, reading and listening; the majority of the translation majors, considered their reading comprehension skill as excellent, very good, and fair respectively, and only 0.3% as poor. Further, most of the students regarded their listening skills as excellent, very good, and fair respectively, while only 4.1% as not good.

Table 3.21. Self-rated Reading and Listening Proficiency of Participants

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Reading	Frequency	40	139	124	16	1	320
	Percent	12.5	43.4	38.8	5.0	0.3	100.0
Listening	Frequency	43	87	134	43	13	320
	Percent	13.4	27.2	41.9	13.4	4.1	100.0

Furthermore, Table 3.22 and Table 3.23 show the related statistics on the participants at Azad University branches in Tehran and the north of Iran respectively.

Table 3.22. Self-rated Reading and Listening Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Reading	Frequency	22	74	56	7	1	160
	Percent	13.8	46.3	35.0	4.4	0.6	100.0
Listening	Frequency	18	58	60	18	6	160
	Percent	11.3	36.3	37.5	11.3	3.8	100.0

Table 3.23. Self-rated Reading and Listening Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Reading	Frequency	18	65	68	9	0	160
	Percent	11.3	40.6	42.5	5.6	0.0	100.0
Listening	Frequency	25	29	74	25	7	160
	Percent	15.6	18.1	46.3	15.6	4.4	100.0

The participants' self-ratings of productive skills, writing and speaking, are shown in Table 3.24. Most of the respondents, 51.1%, rated their writing skill as excellent, very good, and fair respectively, and only 1.9% of them believed their writing was poor. In a similar vein, the majority of the students regarded their speaking proficiency as excellent, very good, and fair respectively, whereas 4.1% rated their speaking skill as poor.

Table 3.24. Self-rated Writing and Speaking Proficiency of Participants in the Study

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Writing	Frequency	27	93	166	28	6	320
	Percent	8.4	29.1	51.9	8.8	1.9	100.0
Speaking	Frequency	24	75	173	35	13	320
	Percent	7.5	23.4	54.1	10.9	4.1	100.0

Specifically, Table 3.25 and Table 3.26 display the related statistics for Azad University branches in Tehran and the north of Iran respectively.

Table 3.25. Self-rated Writing and Speaking Proficiency of Participants at Tehran Azad University

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Writing	Frequency	15	48	76	16	5	160
	Percent	9.4	30.0	47.5	10.0	3.1	100.0
Speaking	Frequency	13	48	78	18	3	160
	Percent	8.1	30.0	48.8	11.3	1.9	100.0

Table 3.26. Self-rated Writing and Speaking Proficiency of Participants at Azad University in the North

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Writing	Frequency	12	45	90	12	1	160
	Percent	7.5	28.1	56.3	7.5	0.6	100.0
Speaking	Frequency	11	27	95	17	10	160
	Percent	6.9	16.9	59.4	10.6	6.3	100.0

In addition, as shown in Table 3.27, the majority of the participants rated their grammar as excellent, very good, and fair respectively, while only 2.5% indicated their related proficiency as poor. In a somewhat similar vein, most of the respondents believed that their proficiency in terms of vocabulary and idioms was excellent, very good, and fair respectively, whereas 2.5% rated their related proficiency as poor.

Table 3.27. Self-rated Proficiency in Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms of Participants

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Grammar	Frequency	18	94	167	33	8	320
	Percent	5.6	29.4	52.2	10.3	2.5	100.0
Vocabulary and Idioms	Frequency	20	80	182	30	8	320
	Percent	6.3	25.0	56.9	9.4	2.5	100.0

Table 3.28 and Table 3.29 display the related statistics for the participants at Azad University branches in Tehran and the north of Iran.

Table 3.28. Self-rated Proficiency in Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms of Participants at Tehran Azad University

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Grammar	Frequency	11	58	72	14	5	160
	Percent	6.9	36.3	45.0	8.8	3.1	100.0
Vocabulary and Idioms	Frequency	9	44	87	15	5	160
	Percent	5.6	27.5	54.4	9.4	3.1	100.0

Table 3.29. Self-rated Proficiency in Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms of Participants at Azad University in the North

Proficiency		Excellent	Very good	Fair	Not good	Poor	Total
Grammar	Frequency	7	36	95	19	3	160
	Percent	4.4	22.5	59.4	11.9	1.9	100.0
Vocabulary and Idioms	Frequency	11	36	95	15	3	160
	Percent	6.9	22.5	59.4	9.4	1.9	100.0

In the background questionnaire, the Iranian translation students were also requested to rate such characteristics as the strength of their motivation to learn English, the importance of becoming proficient in English, the amount of effort they spend to learn English, and the degree of enjoyment in learning English. Table 3.30 displays descriptive statistics related to the aforementioned questions in the study. The majority of the participants, 27.2% and 39.4% were very much and much motivated to learn English, respectively. Further, 55.3% and 37.2% of the respondents indicated that learning English was important and somewhat important for them, respectively. Furthermore, 32.2% of the translation majors spent much effort, whereas 43.4% of them spent moderate effort on learning English. Finally, 45.0% and 38.4% of the participants enjoyed it very much and much respectively.

Table 3.30. Statistics on Other Characteristics of Participants

		Not at all	Not much	Moderate	Much	Very much	Total
Strength of motivation	Frequency	2	16	89	126	87	320
	Percent	0.6	5.0	27.8	39.4	27.2	100.0
Importance of English proficiency	Frequency	3	21	119	177	0	320
	Percent	0.9	6.6	37.2	55.3	0.0	100.0
Effort spent on English learning	Frequency	5	42	139	103	31	320
	Percent	1.6	13.1	43.4	32.2	9.7	100.0
Degree of enjoyment in learning English	Frequency	3	7	43	123	144	320
	Percent	0.9	2.2	13.4	38.4	45.0	100.0

Table 3.31 and Table 3.32 display the related descriptive statistics for the participants at Azad Universities in Tehran and the north of Iran respectively.

Table 3.31. Statistics on Other Characteristics of Participants at Tehran Azad University

		Not at all	Not much	Moderate	Much	Very much	Total
Strength of motivation	Frequency	1	4	37	65	53	160
	Percent	0.6	2.5	23.1	40.6	33.1	100.0
Importance of English proficiency	Frequency	0	2	12	52	94	160
	Percent	0.0	1.3	7.5	32.5	58.8	100.0
Effort spent on English learning	Frequency	3	20	66	55	16	160
	Percent	1.9	12.5	41.3	34.4	10.0	100.0
Degree of enjoyment in learning English	Frequency	2	3	21	58	76	160
	Percent	1.3	1.9	13.1	36.3	47.5	100.0



Table 3.32. Statistics on Other Characteristics of Participants at Azad University in the North

		Not at all	Not much	Moderate	Much	Very much	Total
Strength of motivation	Frequency	1	12	52	61	34	160
	Percent	0.6	7.5	32.5	38.1	21.3	100.0
Importance of English proficiency	Frequency	0	1	9	67	83	160
	Percent	0.0	0.6	5.6	41.9	51.9	100.0
Effort spent on English learning	Frequency	2	22	73	48	15	160
	Percent	1.3	13.8	45.6	30.0	9.4	100.0
Degree of enjoyment in learning English	Frequency	1	4	22	65	68	160
	Percent	0.6	2.5	13.8	40.6	42.5	100.0

### 3.6 Data Collection Instruments

#### 3.6.1 Questionnaires

The major data collection instruments in this study were four sets of questionnaires and an interview guide. The four questionnaires employed in data collection were individual background questionnaire (IBQ), Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (MSDS), inventory for beliefs about translation (IBT), and inventory for translation as a learning strategy (ITLS). The IBQ, IBT, ITLS and the guide were developed by Liao (2006). The researcher contacted the scholar and requested his permission to employ the data collection instruments, with adaptation, in the context of the present survey. After Liao's permission was granted, the instruments were used to "elicit information about the respondents in a *non-evaluative* manner, without gauging ... [the participants'] performance against a set of criteria" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 103). The validity and reliability of the two major data collection questionnaires were verified by Liao (2006), Cronbach's alpha being 0.76 for the IBT and 0.81 for the ITLS. In addition, in order to determine the social desirability of the participants'

responses, Reynolds's (1982) shortened version of Marlowe and Crowne (1960) social desirability scale was employed in the present survey.

According to Dörnyei (2007) questionnaires can provide three types of data about the respondents as follows:

*Factual questions* which are used to find out certain facts about the respondents, such as demographic characteristics (for example, age, gender, and race), residential location, marital and socio-economic status, level of education, occupation, language learning history, amount of time spent in an L2 environment, etc. *Behavioural questions* which are used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past, focusing on actions, life styles, habits, and personal history. *Attitudinal questions* which are used to find out what people think, covering attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values. (p. 102)

In this regard the IBQ, ITLS, and IBT instruments were employed in the current survey to collect comprehensive-factual, behavioral as well as attitudinal data for its research purposes.

To maximize the comprehensibility of the questionnaire and interview items, these were translated by the researchers into Persian, through back-translation, so that the participants at different language proficiency levels could comprehend items as accurately as possible. Thus the respondents in the present survey could choose to complete the questionnaires or address the interview items either in English or in their mother tongue.

### **3.6.2 Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)**

The individual background questionnaire was employed to gather demographic and contextual information from the participants in this study (see Appendices C and D). The IBQ was an adapted version of similar questionnaires employed in studies by Ku (1995), Liao (2006), Oxford (1990) and Ynag (1992). The IBQ comprised 15 factual

questions related to the respondents' age, gender, year of BA study, average score, proficiency in English, motivation and some other related issues.

### **3.6.3 Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS)**

Respondents' response bias to items on surveys, based on "some basis other than the specific item content" (Paulhus, 1991, p. 17), has always been a major concern in the research to date. This is mostly due to the fact that some individuals, while completing self-report instruments, tend to exaggerate their strength and achievements and misrepresent their deficiencies and failures. In this regard, "the tendency of some respondents to report an answer in a way they deem to be more socially acceptable than would be their 'true' answer" was defined as social desirability (Callegaro, 2008, p. 825). Social desirability bias may lead participants to depict themselves as close to the existing norms and standards. In this regard, Anderson-Knott (2008) observed that "Social desirability bias occurs when respondents answer questions to present themselves in a favorable light (providing answers they feel are most socially approved)" (p. 375). Importantly, Lee (2008) emphasized a potential threat of social desirability to validity in survey administration (p. 484). These concerns prompted "the development of items and/or instruments that can measure such responses to discount or statistically adjust scores on measures of primary interest" (Barger, 2002, p. 286), and subsequently, numerous scales (Edwards, 1957; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975; Maher, 1978). However, the most rigorous and popular of the scales has been the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale comprising 33 items in "true-false" format to identify the extent to which individuals exhibit response bias (Marlow & Crowne, 1960, 1964). As Reynolds (1982) put it "A major use of the Marlowe-Crowne scale in research has been as an adjunct measure to assess the impact of social desirability on self-report

measures specific to the primary purpose of the investigation” (p. 119). It is noteworthy that over the years, due to the scale’s length, investigators have developed different abbreviated versions of the MCSDS (Greenwald & Satow, 1970; Hays, Hayashi, & Stewart, 1989; Ramanaiah & Martin, 1980; Ramanaiah, Schill, & Leung, 1977; Reynolds, 1982; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). According to Zook and Sipps (1985), of the several reduced versions a 13-item version introduced by Reynolds “appears to be the most satisfactory”, as well as “without significant loss of reliability” (pp. 236-237). In a similar vein, Robinette (1991) concluded that Reynolds’s 13-item version “offers an easily administered, reliable, and valid measure to investigate the potential confounding of self-report measures with social desirability” (p. 399). Over the past decades, Reynolds’s abbreviated version of MCSDS was cited in over 100 studies (Barger, 2002, p. 288).

In light of the cited advantages, Reynolds’s (1982) version of the MCSDS scale with 13 items was employed for the research purposes of the current survey (see Appendices E and F). The 13 items on the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale were designed in a way which was either socially desirable but not true for nearly each individual such as the statement “I’m always willing to admit it when I make a mistake”, or socially undesirable but true for almost everyone like the statement “It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged”. The scores were calculated from the sum of responses given in a falsely positive way. This means that, the higher the participants scored on the MCSDS, the more the possibility of their manipulated answers in any other survey(s) in a socially desirable manner. Consequently, according to Bradburn and Sudman

(1979), through the use of MCSDS, items highly correlated with MCSDS scores could be considered as possible distorted items.

#### **3.6.4 Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT)**

Further, the present survey also employed the Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) to gather information regarding the participants' beliefs about translation in relation to English language learning (see Appendices G and H). The IBT consisted of 29 items centered around the participants' beliefs as follows: (1) translation both from English to Persian and/or from Persian to English, (2) translation from English to Persian solely, (3) translation from Persian to English only, and finally (4) avoiding the use of translation. The respondents in the present study were requested to respond to items like "Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases" on a 5-point Likert scale by selecting one of the following: (1) Strongly Disagree (SD), (2) Disagree (D), (3) Neither Agree Nor Disagree (N), (4) Agree (A), (5) Strongly Agree (SA).

It should be noted that five IBT items, 8, 16, 17, 23 and 26, were negatively worded to check consistency of the participants' responses on each item of the questionnaire. The aforementioned items for instance "The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well" reflected the absence or dislike of using translation in learning English. A major benefit of having negatively worded items is to "avoid acquiescence, affirmation, or agreement bias" (DeVellis, 1991, p. 59). Hence, a combination of both positive and negative items provided the ground to identify any possible response bias on the part of participants and, importantly, led to an adequate level of the survey reliability.

In order to collect additional information about the Iranian translation majors' beliefs, five open-ended questions such as "Is there anything else you want to add about translating from Persian to English?" were added at the end of each of the four sections of the IBT. Additionally, the IBT was intended to evaluate the participants' idiosyncratic views about translation rather than how they frequently used translation. Thus, each item of the IBT produced a description of the participants' notion of translation instead of a composite score.

### **3.6.5 Inventory for Translation as Learning Strategy (ITLS)**

Furthermore, this survey also administered the Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS) to investigate the Iranian translation students' translation strategy use in English language learning (see Appendices I and J). The respondents rated 29 items on the ITLS such as "When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English" on a 5-point Likert scale by choosing one of the following: (1) Never, (2) Seldom, (3) Sometimes, (4) Often, and (5) Always. Importantly, the negatively worded items, Item 27 "When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalent" and Item 28 "When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian", aimed at detecting the participants' possible response bias. In addition, in order to elicit additional information from the respondents on their strategy use, an open-ended question "What else do you think about using translation to learn English which is not included above?" was added as item 29 on the ITLS.

The participants' total scores on the ITLS were calculated from the sum of individual choices they made, each having a point value of one. Higher scores of the participants on the ITLS suggested more frequent use of translation strategy in

learning English on their part. Dividing the participants' total scores by the number of choice items on the ITLS, 29 items, yielded their overall average score of translation strategy use. The present survey adopted Oxford's (1990) classification of strategy use average on a Likert scale of 5 points; accordingly, the average within the range 1.0 – 2.4 referred to a low frequency level of strategy use; within the range 2.5 – 4.4, to a medium frequency level of strategy use; and finally within the range 3.5 – 5.0, to a high frequency level of translation strategy use in learning English.

### **3.7 Interview Guide**

In addition, the present survey also employed, for its research purposes, a semi-structured interview in order to collect more comprehensive data about the Iranian translation students' translation strategy use and related beliefs. A set of 10 questions for inclusion into the semi-structured interview guide (see Appendices M and N) were prepared in advance; and the interviewees were encouraged to elaborate on the interview guide questions so that more insights into the phenomena under investigation could be obtained.

In fact, in-depth interviewing has roots in “an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience” (Seidman, 1998, p. 3). The purpose of interviewing individuals is to figure out “what is on their mind – what they think or how they feel about something” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 455). Thus, “Interviewing (i.e. the careful asking of relevant questions) is an important way for a researcher to check the accuracy of – to verify or refute – the impressions s/he has gained through observation” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 455). As noted by Dörnyei (2007), interviewing “is regularly applied in a variety of applied linguistic contexts for diverse purposes” (p. 134).

It is noteworthy that the semi-structured interview has been the most popular interview type in applied linguistic research, in which the researcher prepares a set of open-ended questions as well as prompts for guidance, and respondents are expected to respond to the questions in an exploratory manner. In this type of interview, in addition to the interviewer's provision of "guidance and direction", the '-structured' part of the name, he/she is interested to follow developments and "to let the interviewee elaborate on certain issues", the 'semi-' part (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). Importantly, the semi-structured interview – requiring an 'interview guide' made and piloted in advance – is most appropriate for a research study where the researcher has a thorough overview of the "phenomenon or domain in question" and has the ability to "develop broad questions about the topic in advance but does not want to use ready-made response categories" which would restrict "the depth and breadth of the respondent's story" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). Dörnyei (2007) noted that in the semi-structured interview the researcher covers the same questions with all the participants, not necessarily in the similar order or wording, and would complete the major questions through different probes.

In a similar vein, Mackey and Gass (2005) observed that in less rigid semi-structured interviews, the interviewer employs a question list guide and has the freedom to inquire for more information. For interviewing, a researcher needs to go through a set of carefully designed steps. In addition to preparation before the first interview session and consideration of ethical issues such as consent forms, she/he needs a list of questions or topics – an interview guide – to be investigated during the interview. As Patton (2002) put it, "An interview guide is prepared to ensure that the same basic line of inquiry is pursued with each person interviewed". Thus, it "provides topic or



subject areas within which the interviewer is free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject” (p. 343). Patton (2002) also pointed out that the advantages of employing an interview guide were that it helps the researcher make the most of his/her time available in an interview session and promotes the systematicity and comprehensibility of the interview.

Thus, the present survey, in line with Patton (1990), employed the semi-structured interview for the following reasons:

We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe. The issue is not whether observational data is more desirable, valid or meaningful than self-report data. The fact of the matter is that we cannot observe everything. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions. We cannot observe behaviors that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about those things. (p. 278)

### **3.8 Data Collection**

Pertinent data for the present study were collected from six branches of Azad University in Iran, three from the Northern, Central and Southern Tehran branches, located in the capital city of Tehran, the other three from the Rasht, Chalus and Tonekabon branches located in the Northern provinces of Iran. All the first and second year English translation students who enrolled in summer courses at these branches of Azad University were selected as purposeful sample for the present survey.

#### **3.8.1 Initiating Contact**

Prior to the data collection procedures in the present survey, the researcher initiated contact with the administration of Azad University branches in Tehran as well as Northern Iran. During the meetings with the administrators, the researcher introduced

himself, briefly explained the purpose of the survey, and requested the consent of the tertiary institutions to participation as well as their co-operation. Having secured the consent, the researcher obtained the necessary information about the number of the respondents needed, their scheduled classes, and he assured the university administrators that a camcorder would not be used during the survey administration. Subsequently, the researcher also contacted and secured consent of those instructors whose classes were a potential source of data collection – first and second year English translation classes. All the instructors provided the researcher with their class schedule, and made recommendations for the day and time for questionnaire administration in their respective classes.

### **3.8.2 Pilot Study**

All the survey instruments in the current study were piloted with 30 volunteer Iranian translation students in Iran. Moreover, the Persian versions of the questionnaires and interview were prepared in order to provide participants, if need be, an opportunity to complete the survey in the native language.

Pilot studies are considered to be important in that they assess “the feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods” prior to “making any necessary revisions before they are used with the research participants” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 43). In this regard, Dörnyei (2007) remarked that “Just like theatre performances, a research study also needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (in terms of reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context” (p. 75). Since the validity and reliability of the two major data collection questionnaires were verified by Liao (2006), resulting in Cronbach’s alpha .76 for the inventory for beliefs about translation (IBT), and .81 for the inventory for translation as a learning strategy

(ITLS), the instruments in the context of the present study were piloted mainly for the following purposes: (1) to identify problems, if any, in clarity and comprehensibility of instructions; (2) to examine clarity and comprehensibility of either the English or the Persian version of the questionnaire; (3) to determine the time allocation for administering the instruments.

It is noteworthy that in pre-testing a questionnaire, if the participants are selected from a homogeneous group, the pretest sample does not need to be large, as few as 20 individuals would be often sufficient (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Consequently, in this survey, the primary set of the questionnaires, IBQ, IBT, ITLS as well as Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (MSDS), was pilot tested with a total of 30 first year and second year students majoring in English language translation at Azad University branches in Tehran and the north of Iran. These participants were in every way similar to the target population of the present survey study.

Initially, permission was obtained by the researcher from the administration of all the Azad University branches in Tehran as well as in the north of Iran. Subsequently, prior to the survey administration, the student participants provided their written consent to participation. The translation majors were given both the English and Farsi versions of the questionnaires, and they were free to choose any of them to complete. All the instructions were provided in Farsi and the respondents were invited to ask questions, if any, during the administration procedure. It took about 30 minutes for the participants to complete the questionnaires.

It is noteworthy that in the event of any ambiguous and/or confusing questions and instructions for the participants, the piloting would require making related modification in the survey. In this regard, the piloting procedure in this survey was advantageous in that it gave the respondents the opportunity to raise questions in terms of the content and format prior to the actual administration. Few students queried if there were any “right” or “wrong” answers, and the researcher emphasized that there were no correct or incorrect answers, rather the translation majors were requested to provide responses based on their beliefs and experiences related to translation. The pilot study helped to avoid any possible costly and time-consuming problems in the subsequent administration. Moreover, since the survey instruments were administered by Liao (2006) in a different-Taiwanese EFL instructional context, the procedure proved that the instruments for data collection worked out in the Iranian EFL context as well.

### **3.8.3 Administering Questionnaires**

As scheduled in advance, the questionnaires were administered in different translation classes. Prior to the procedure, the researcher introduced himself, explained the general purpose of the survey, and requested the Iranian translation students’ consent to participation in the study. In accordance with the consent form, the participants were assured that their identity and questionnaire data would remain confidential and be used for the research purpose only. The researcher also emphasized that their decision whether or not to participate would not prejudice their future relation with Islamic Azad University and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Further, the researcher explained the general purpose and instructions for completion of the IBQ, SDS, IBT, and ITLS questionnaires, respectively. Specifically, the respondents were informed that the purpose of the IBQ was to gather their personal information; the social desirability scale (SDS) aimed to elicit their first judgment on related statements, without spending too much time thinking over any one question; the purpose of the IBT – based on a Likert scale – was to collect data on their beliefs about translation in learning English; and finally, the purpose of the ITLS – based on a Likert scale – was to elicit their self-reports in relation to translation learning strategy use. Importantly, the researcher noted that translation in the IBT and the ITLS referred to using one language as a basis for understanding, remembering or producing another language.

Subsequently, the researcher informed the respondents that the procedure would not take longer than one hour; that they were free to choose either (English or Persian) version of the questionnaires, and that their choice would not affect the nature of the final data analysis. Importantly, the researcher briefly went through the questionnaire instructions and items to ensure their comprehensibility and clarity. The respondents were reminded not to consult with each other, rather to reflect their own beliefs and experiences related to translation and translation strategy use in their English language learning experiences.

#### **3.8.4 Conducting Interviews**

The interviews in the present survey were conducted about a week after the administration of the four sets of questionnaires. For the interview, eight Iranian translation students with the average achievement score of 17 and above, and another eight students with the average score below 16 were chosen from Azad university

branches in Tehran and North of Iran. All the selected students agreed to participate in the interview. Since the interviewees were enrolled in summer courses, the interview sessions were scheduled at everyone's convenience. The interviews with the translation majors were held on the Azad University campus, in available classrooms. Prior to the interview, the researcher briefly informed each interviewee about the general purpose of the procedure. In addition, they were informed that their interview reports would be recorded, however, they were also assured that these data would remain confidential and would be used for the research purposes only. The interview sessions with different participants lasted from 30 minutes to one hour depending on the interview flow. Importantly, the interviewees felt free to share their personal experiences and to provide additional insights in relation to translation and translation strategy use. The interviews were conducted in Farsi so that the interviewees could express their beliefs and experiences without any hesitation. Subsequently, all the interview data were collected, transcribed and translated into English for further processing, content analysis and interpretation.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

The analysis of the collected comprehensive questionnaire and interview data was conducted through different analytical procedures such as descriptive statistics, factor analysis, canonical correlation coefficient, MANOVA, as well as content analysis (Patton, 2002).

Analysis of the quantitative questionnaire data was conducted by using the SPSS (Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences, version 17). Initially, descriptive statistics comprising frequencies, means, and standard deviations were computed in order to identify the patterns, if any, in the Iranian translation students' use of the

translation strategies as well as related beliefs (see Appendices O and P). Further, factor analysis was carried out in order to reveal the factors that underlie, hence account for variation across the participants' responses on the IBT and the ITLS (see Appendices Q and R). Furthermore, principal component analysis was applied and factors were rotated in order to obtain meaningful results. The constructed sets of factors were employed as composite variables in canonical correlation analysis to indicate the association between the two sets of factors derived from the Beliefs and the Translation Strategy Inventories. Finally, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine whether the Iranian translation majors' other variables such as age, gender, academic achievement, and university had any effect on their translation strategy use and related beliefs. Finally, the qualitative data which were collected through the open-ended questionnaire items as well as the semi-structured interview were content analysed. The reliability of the IBT in the present study was Cronbach's alpha .78, of the ITLS .93.

### **3.9.1 Descriptive Statistics**

In order to address the first and the second research questions in the present survey, descriptive statistics were generated in relation to the IBT and ITLS data. Descriptive statistics is "a set of statistical concepts and procedures used to describe, organize, tabulate, depict, and summarize the important general characteristics of a set of data" representing certain characteristics of these data (Mousavi, 2009, p. 187). There are commonly three types of descriptive statistics: measures of frequency, measures of central tendency, and measures of dispersion. According to Mackey and Gass (2005) measures of frequency are used to show "how often a particular behavior or phenomenon" happens (p. 251). Whereas measures of central tendency, or "the most typical values" (Mousavi, 2009), provide "precise quantitative information about the

typical behavior of learners with respect to a particular phenomenon” and include mode, median, and mean (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 254). The third type of descriptive statistics is measures of dispersion or the “variability spread” of a set of data which includes “standard deviation, range and variance” (Mousavi, 2009, p. 187).

It is noteworthy that descriptive statistics can help the researcher to give a “simple summary or overview” of the collected data which would allow him/her to “gain a better understanding of the data set” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp. 250-251). Regarding the efficacy of descriptive statistics, Woods, Fletcher, and Hughes (as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005) stated the following:

When a linguistic study is carried out, the investigator will be faced with the prospect of understanding, and then explaining to others, the meaning of the data which have been collected. An essential first step in this process is to look for ways of summarizing the results which bring out their most obvious features. (p. 251)

In the present study, descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and frequency for the IBQ, the IBT, and the ITLS were measured in order to organize and describe the data in an informative manner. This well-rounded description of the data provided the ground to reveal the overall patterns of the Iranian translation students’ translation strategy use as well as related beliefs.

### **3.9.2 Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is “A commonly used procedure for interpreting a large number of correlations” (Bachman, 1990, p. 262). It comprises a set of “analytical and statistical techniques”, the objective being “to represent a set of [observed] variables in terms of a smaller number of hypothetical variables” (Kim & Mueller, as cited in Bachman, 1990, p. 262). Factor analysis can be used to discover the underlying structure hidden



in a large group of data and reduce the number of variables in data analysis to only a few values which are representative of the information existing in the original variables (Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, “factor analytical studies exploit the ‘pattern-finding’ capacity of the procedure by sampling a wide range of items and then examining their relationship with common underlying themes” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 233).

According to Alderson, Clapham, and Wall (1995), there are two main types of factor analysis, namely (a) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and (b) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In the EFA, the researcher tries to explore the data to make sense of the emerging factors by “looking at which tests relate most closely to which factors and labeling the factors accordingly”, meanwhile in the CFA he/she “predicts which tests or components will relate to which others and how, and then carries out tests of ‘goodness of fit’ of the predictions with the data” (Alderson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995, p. 186).

In the present study, exploratory factor analysis was used to determine what latent variables accounted for the correlations among the participants’ responses to both the IBT and the ITLS. Such correlations, as Dörnyei (2007) put it, are called “factor loadings” which indicate “the extent to which each of the original variables has contributed to the resultant factors” (p. 233). By conducting principal component analysis – invented by Karl Pearson in 1901 – which is “a multivariate data analysis procedure that involves a transformation of a number of possibly correlated variables into a smaller number of uncorrelated variables known as principal components” (Hardoon, Szedmak, & Shawe-Taylor, 2004, p. 2639) initial factors were extracted.

Subsequently, the obtained factors were rotated to become significantly meaningful. This final set of extracted factors constituted composite variables – as a preparatory step – to further make the canonical correlation analysis manageable.

### **3.9.3 Canonical Correlation**

A canonical correlation is the correlation between two sets of canonical (latent) variables, with one set representing independent variables and the other set dependent variables (Levine, 1977). In the present study, canonical correlation was used to show the direction and relationship between the two sets of independent and dependent variables obtained from the IBT and the ITLS through factor analysis. The overall relation of the two constructs of beliefs and strategy use was measured to provide the answer to the third research question: “How do Iranian students’ beliefs about translation relate to their reported use of translation strategies?”

### **3.9.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)**

The objective of analysis of variance (ANOVA) is to determine whether the differences between the means of two or more groups are statistically significant – also used when there are more than one independent variable. It is noteworthy that multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is different from ANOVA in that it incorporates several dependent variables in the same analysis and, hence, provides a stronger test of difference among the means of groups (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). As Stevens (2009) noted, MANOVA examines whether (a) changes in the independent variable(s) have any significant effects on the dependent variables; (b) the associations among the dependent variables, and (c) the associations among the independent variables. In short, multivariate analysis of variance estimates “the statistical significance of the effect of 1 or more independent variables on a set of 2

or more dependent variables” (Weinfurt, 1995, p. 245). In the present survey, multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to investigate whether the participants’ variables such as age, gender, university of study, academic achievement, and proficiency level had any significant impact on their beliefs and translation strategy use.

### **3.10 Summary**

To sum up, in the present chapter the major methodological issues were addressed. By adopting a cross-sectional survey research approach, this study collected both quantitative as well as qualitative data about the translation majors’ beliefs about translation and their translation strategy use through administering a set of questionnaires, namely IBT and ITLS, and conducting of interviews respectively. In addition, the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale was used to verify whether the participants answered the questionnaires’ items in a socially favorable manner or not.

## Chapter 4

### RESULTS

The following chapter describes the findings of the present study in accordance with the following four sections: (1) descriptive analysis of the Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) as well as the Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS), (2) factor analysis of the belief factors and strategy factors, (3) canonical correlation analysis among belief factors and strategy factors, and finally (4) the effect of learner variables on translation learning strategy use and related beliefs.

#### **4.1 Descriptive Data Analysis of Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT)**

Descriptive statistics comprising means, standard deviations, and frequencies of the IBT items were calculated to address the first research question: (1) What beliefs do the Iranian translation students hold regarding translation use in English language learning?

In the present study, the translation majors rated the IBT items on a Likert scale of one to five, representing the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with statements related to their beliefs about translation in English language learning. As shown in Table 4.1, the participants in this survey mostly held positive beliefs ( $M = 3.18$ ) about the role of translation in their English language learning experiences.

Table 4.1. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Beliefs about Translation

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Beliefs about translation	320	1.21	4.50	3.18	0.55

#### 4.1.1 Beliefs about Using Translation either from English to Persian or from Persian to English

IBT statements from 1 to 8 were related to using translation either from English to Persian or from Persian to English. As demonstrated in Table 4.2, the participants held their most positive beliefs about using translation in both directions in relation to items 7, 1, 5, 8 and 3 respectively. Nearly 79% of the respondents endorsed – agreed or strongly agreed – that translation helped them learn English idioms and phrases (item 7). About 78%, 77% and 74% of the students believed that they benefitted from translation in reading comprehension, vocabulary, and making progress in learning English respectively (items 1, 5 and 8). In addition, 66% of the participants stated that translating improved their listening skill (item 3). Further, approximately 58% of the respondents indicated that translation helped them understand English grammar rules (item 6); 51% and 50% believed that translating promoted their English writing and speaking skills (items 2 and 4 respectively).

Table 4.2. Overall Descriptive Statistics for IBT

No.	Item description	%	Total participants ( <i>N</i> = 320)	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	78	<b>3.83</b>	0.96
2	Translating helps me write English compositions.	51	3.34	1.07
3	Translating helps me understand spoken English.	66	<b>3.62</b>	1.16
4	Translating helps me speak English.	50	3.18	1.20

Table 4.2. (cont.)

5	Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	77	<b>3.82</b>	1.09
6	Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	58	3.44	1.21
7	Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	79	<b>3.91</b>	1.02
8*	Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	74	<b>3.80</b>	1.09
10	Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	62	3.45	1.15
11	Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	52	3.34	1.02
12	The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.	57	3.40	1.15
13	Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.	48	3.25	1.11
14	Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	68	<b>3.61</b>	1.11
15	I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	38	2.91	1.27
16*	The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	25	2.65	1.10
17*	Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	31	2.83	1.09
18	At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.	29	2.61	1.20
19	I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.	29	2.78	1.15
21	I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.	34	2.75	1.24
23*	I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	26	2.24	1.29
24	I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	43	2.93	1.28
25	I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	24	2.46	1.13
26*	When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	27	2.61	1.21
27	I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	62	<b>3.68</b>	1.13

\*.The score of items 8, 16, 17, 23, and 26 were reversed.

In Tehran, as shown in Table 4.3, the translation majors held less positive beliefs ( $M = 2.98$ ) about the role of translation in their English language learning experiences.

Table 4.3. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Beliefs about Translation at Tehran Azad University Branches

University	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Tehran	160	1.21	4.33	2.98	0.54

In a somewhat similar vein, the participants indicated their most positive beliefs in relation to items 7, 5, 8, and 1 (see Table 4.4). Specifically, 70%, 71% and 68% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that translating helped them learn English idioms and phrases, memorize English words and understand textbook readings (items 7, 5 and 1 respectively). Significantly, 68% of the students endorsed that translation helped them make progress in learning English (item 8). However, the translation majors were less positive in relation to items 3, 2, 6, and 4 in that only 54%, 46%, 50% and 41% of the participants stated that translating helped them in listening skill, writing skill, grammar and speaking skills respectively.

Table 4.4. Descriptive Statistics for IBT in Tehran

No.	Item description	Tehran participants ( <i>n</i> = 160)		
		%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	68	3.58	1.02
2	Translating helps me write English compositions.	46	3.22	1.09
3	Translating helps me understand spoken English.	54	3.36	1.20
4	Translating helps me speak English.	41	2.98	1.24
5	Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	71	3.70	1.19
6	Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	50	3.20	1.28
7	Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	70	3.71	1.14
8*	Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	68	3.66	1.09
10	Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	49	3.10	1.22
11	Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	41	3.08	1.05
12	The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.	49	3.19	1.19

Table 4.4. (cont.)

13	Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.	39	3.05	1.03
14	Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	52	3.26	1.15
15	I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	22	2.48	1.17
16*	The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	22	2.61	1.12
17*	Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	26	2.73	1.10
18	At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.	19	2.28	1.19
19	I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.	30	2.47	1.12
21	I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.	36	2.86	1.25
23*	I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	20	2.04	1.29
24	I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	36	2.71	1.31
25	I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	21	2.38	1.17
26*	When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	21	2.44	1.22
27	I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	56	3.48	1.12

\*.The score of items 8, 16, 17, 23, and 26 were reversed.

In the North, interestingly, the translation students expressed more positive beliefs ( $M = 3.39$ ), as compared to their counterparts in Tehran, about the role of translation in their English language learning experiences (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Beliefs about Translation at Azad University Branches in the North

University	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
North	160	1.67	4.50	3.39	0.49



These participants indicated their most positive beliefs in relation to items 7, 1, 5, 8, 3, and 6 (see Table 4.6). Specifically, 88% of the translation majors stated that translating helped them learn English idioms and phrases (item 7). Further, 89% of the respondents reported that translating helped them understand textbook readings (item 1), 78% believed that translating was helpful in understanding spoken English (item 3), and 66% found translating helpful in understanding English grammar rules (item 6). Furthermore, 83% of the students supported the use of translation in memorizing English vocabulary (item 5). Significantly, nearly 79% of the participants endorsed that translation helped them make progress in learning English (item 8).

Table 4.6. Descriptive Statistics for IBT in the North

No.	Item description	North participants ( <i>n</i> = 160)		
		%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	89	4.08	0.83
2	Translating helps me write English compositions.	56	3.46	1.05
3	Translating helps me understand spoken English.	59	3.89	1.05
4	Translating helps me speak English.	59	3.38	1.13
5	Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	83	3.95	0.98
6	Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	66	3.68	1.08
7	Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	88	4.11	.84
8*	Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	79	3.95	1.08
10	Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	76	3.80	0.96
11	Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	63	3.60	0.92
12	The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.	64	3.60	1.08
13	Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.	58	3.44	1.16
14	Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	83	3.97	0.96

Table 4.6. (cont.)

15	I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	54	3.34	1.22
16*	The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	28	2.68	1.08
17*	Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	36	2.93	1.08
18	At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.	39	2.95	1.11
19	I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.	38	3.08	1.10
21	I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.	32	2.64	1.22
23*	I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	31	2.45	1.25
24	I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	50	3.15	1.22
25	I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	27	2.55	1.09
26*	When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	34	2.78	1.17
27	I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	67	3.88	1.11

\*.The score of items 8, 16, 17, 23, and 26 were reversed.

#### 4.1.2 Beliefs about Using Translation from English to Persian only

IBT statements from 10 to 19 were related to using translation from English to Persian only. In this regard, as shown in Table 4.2, nearly 68% of the translation majors indicated that using Persian translation helped them better recall the content of a lesson (item 14). Further, 62% of the participants stated that Persian translation was useful to understand their teachers' instructions (item 10). Furthermore, almost 57% of the respondents reported that the more difficult the English assignments were, the more they depended on translation (item 12). Furthermore, 52% and 48% of the students indicated that the use of translation was helpful in interacting with classmates to complete assignments, as well as finishing assignments more quickly and saving time (item 11 and 13 respectively). In addition, 38% and 25% of the participants indicated that they liked to use translation to learn English and the use of

translation did not interfere with their ability to learn English well (items 15 and 16 respectively); 31% of the students held that Persian translation increased the amount of English input they received (item 17). Importantly, only 29% of the translation majors believed that they had to use Persian and couldn't learn English without Persian translation (items 18 and 19).

In Tehran, the translation students held somewhat positive beliefs in relation to items 14, 12, 10, 11, 13, 17, and 16 (see Table 4.4). Almost 52% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that using English-to-Persian translation while studying helped them better recall the content of their lesson (item 14). Also, 49% of the participants found Persian translation helpful in understanding their teachers' instructions (item 10). Further, 49% of the translation majors believed that the more difficult the English assignments were, the more they would depend on translation (item 12), 41% of them indicated that translation helped them interact with classmates in completing assignments (item 11), and finally 39% of them endorsed that translation was helpful to finish English assignments more quickly and save time (item 13). Furthermore, 26% and 22% of the respondents believed that Persian translation increased the amount of English input they received, and it might not interfere with their ability to learn English well (items 17 and 16 respectively). In addition, only 22% of the students reportedly liked to use translation in order to learn English (item 15). Significantly, only 30% of the participants believed that they had to use Persian translation, and 19% could not learn English without Persian translation (items 19 and 18 respectively).

In the North, as demonstrated in Table 4.6, the translation students expressed their positive beliefs in relation to items 14, 10, 11, and 12. Most of the participants, 83% and 76%, believed that using Persian translation while studying helped them better recall the content of a lesson (item 14), and that translating helped them understand their teacher's English instructions (item 10). Further, nearly 63% of the respondents indicated that translation helped them interact with their classmates to do assignments (item 11), 64% of the students endorsed that the more difficult the English assignments were, the more they depended on Persian translation (item 12), and 58% believed that using Persian translation while studying helped them finish their English assignments more quickly and save time (item 13). Furthermore, almost 54% of the participants reportedly liked to use Persian translation to learn English (item 15); only 38% stated that everyone had to use Persian translation (item 19), and 39% believed that they could not learn English without Persian translation (item 18). In addition, 36% of the translation majors indicated that translation increased the amount of English input they received (item 17), and 28% of them believed that the use of Persian translation might not interfere with their ability to learn English well (item 16).

#### **4.1.3 Beliefs about Using Translation from Persian to English only**

IBT statement 21 was related to using translation from Persian to English only. In this regard, overall only 34% of the Iranian translation majors held that they would produce Persian-style English if they translate from Persian to English (see Table 4.2). In Tehran, 36% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that they would produce Persian-style English if they translate from their mother tongue to the target language (see Table 4.4). Whereas in the North, 32% of the respondents indicated

that they would produce Persian-style English if they translate from their Persian to English (see Table 4.6).

#### **4.1.4 Beliefs about Avoiding the Use of Translation**

IBT statements from 23 to 27 were related to avoidance of translation use. As shown in Table 4.2, in this survey, overall 62% of the Iranian translation students were positive that one should be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before s/he starts to think in English (item 27). It warranted our attention that 43% of the participants reportedly felt pressure if they were asked to think directly in English (item 24), and 27% of the respondents indicated that it was best to keep Persian in their mind while using English (item 26). Further, almost 24% of the respondents reportedly tended to get frustrated when they tried to think in English and 26% preferred that their English teachers did not always use English to teach them (items 25 and 23 respectively).

In Tehran, as demonstrated in Table 4.4, 56% of the translation students believed that one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before s/he is able to think in English (item 27), only 36% reportedly felt pressure when they were asked to think directly in English (item 24). Further, 21% of these participants held that it was best to keep Persian in their mind when using English, and that they tended to get frustrated when they were asked to think directly in English (items 25 and 26 respectively). In addition, 20% of the respondents students stated that they preferred that their English teachers did not always use English to teach them (item 23%).

In the North, as shown in Table 4.6, the translation majors (67%) were more positive than their counterparts in Tehran, that one should be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before s/he is able to think in English (item 27). Further, almost 50% of these respondents indicated that they felt pressure when they were asked to think directly in English (item 24); and nearly 34% of the participants stated that they should keep Persian out of their mind while using English (item 26). Finally, only 27% of the translation majors reportedly tended to get frustrated when they tried to think in English (item 25), and 31% of them preferred that their English teachers did not always use English to teach them (item 23).

#### **4.1.5 Analysis of Open-ended IBT Questions**

Several open-ended IBT questions aimed at eliciting the Iranian translation students' qualitative insights into their beliefs about the role of translation in their English language learning experiences (items 9, 20, 22, 28, and 29, see Appendix V) which were content analyzed. Initially, the participants' responses to the questions were typed up, processed, and categorized in terms of the emerging themes. Subsequently, the qualitative data were further classified in terms of the subthemes. It is noteworthy that overall the translation majors in this survey chose to answer questions 9 and 29 on IBT.

In Tehran, the major themes emerging from the participants' responses to question 9 were related to their positive beliefs of the translation role in their comprehension of English, development of the English language skills and lexico-grammar, as well as gaining an awareness of the differences across the source and target languages. Some of the representative insights are presented below:

- Helps us understand English films.

- Improves our listening comprehension.
- Helps, specifically L2 to L1 translation, in reading comprehension.
- Translation helps in comprehending the content of my course books.
- Translation helps when the reading text is difficult.
- Helps us learn new vocabularies.
- Translation, specifically L1 – L2 translation, helps me in learning vocabularies and idioms.
- Helps in learning grammar.
- Makes us familiar with L2 – L1 differences.
- Translation helps in understanding L1 and L2 differences.
- Enables us, specifically L1 into L2 translation, translate valuable books and makes foreigners familiar with our culture.

In addition, the translation majors from Tehran held that translating from L1 into L2 was much more difficult than translating from L2 into L1, and that translation may not be helpful where there are few similarities between L1 and L2. Further, one of the respondents found oral translation effective, and another participant stated that s/he rarely used translation due to the existing differences between L1 and L2.

In relation to open-ended question 29, most of the participants indicated that their teachers prohibited the use of translation in order to improve their English. Some of their representative insights are given below:

- Learning English helps me improve my English.
- English definition is the best way to learn and remember vocabularies and synonymous words.

- Students' proficiency should be taken into account before entering into the English program so that teachers do not have to use both L1 and L2 while teaching.

Further, the majority of the students reiterated that their teachers were against the use of translation in English language learning. In a similar vein, one of the respondents stated that their teachers did not recommend word-for-word translation in order to convey their messages. However, one of the participants reported that, unlike others, their instructors suggested the use of translation to learn English. Some of the related insights are presented below:

- I avoid using translation in reading text-books except the cases where we have difficulty in comprehension.
- Translation, specifically translation from L2 into L1, would help in saving time and better comprehension.
- Unfamiliar key words need to be translated.
- We can never avoid using translation.

In the North, the majority of the translation majors also expressed their positive beliefs about the overall role of translation in their English language learning experiences. Some of their representative insights are given below:

- L1-mediated translation is helpful in learning grammar.
- L2-mediated translation is helpful in speaking.
- The context of learning is important for the use of translation.
- English instructors use Persian wherever students lack comprehensibility.
- I use translation when the content of a course is heavy.



- Translation helps us exchange our thoughts, beliefs and culture.
- Translating texts needs skills and familiarity with both TL and SL.

In response to open-ended question 29, these respondents generally reported that their teachers were negative about the use of translation because it was not acceptable, made their learning slow, and that they should be able to think directly in English. However, a few of them stated that some teachers were positive about the use of translation since it was part of learning, should be used in teaching grammar, and it should be exercised, if need be.

- I read a text in English several times and if don't understand I resort to translation.
- The instructors' use of translation depends on the course.
- The instructors should use Persian in early semesters – especially in the grammar courses.

Interestingly, some of the translation majors expressed that they should not depend on translation at all learning levels, after a certain level students should be exposed to a native context in order to attain a more native-like competence.

#### **4.1.6 Summary**

Thus, in this survey, most of the Iranian students held favourable beliefs about the role of translation in their English language learning. The respondents expressed somewhat less positive as well as conflicting beliefs about using translation from the English to the Persian language. Further, the majority of the Iranian students seemed to have developed adequate translation skills in that they believed that they would not produce Persian-style English if they translated from L1 to L2. However, only

some respondents would keep Persian out of mind when using the target language and reported a preference that their teachers always use English. Furthermore, most of the translation majors expressed their belief in the necessity of immersion in the target culture for thinking in English, which is not available in the Iranian instructional context nowadays. However, a group of Iranian students reportedly felt pressure or tended to get frustrated when trying to think in English. Finally, although the translation majors reported somewhat conflicting beliefs in relation to the open-ended IBT questions, these were mostly consistent with their quantitative reports on the IBT, especially in terms of their favourable beliefs about the role of translation in general, especially in the acquisition of language skills as well as lexico-grammar in English.

#### **4.2 Descriptive Data Analysis of Inventory for Translation Learning Strategies (ITLS)**

Descriptive statistics comprising means, standard deviations, and frequencies of the ITLS data were analyzed to answer the second research question: (2) What translation learning strategies do the translation majors reportedly use?

The Inventory for Translation Learning Strategies (ITLS) measured the reported frequency level of the Iranian translation students' employment of the translation strategies in learning English. The participants rated the ITLS items on a five-point Likert scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The means of their related reports were related to respective frequency levels as follows: the average range from 1.0 to 2.4 to a low level, from 2.5 to 3.4 to a medium level, between 3.5 – 5.0 to a high frequency level of translation learning strategy use (Oxford, 1990).

Accordingly, as shown in Table 4.7, in the present survey, the overall mean of the translation majors' strategy use ( $M = 2.75$ ) suggests that they employed translation learning strategies moderately.

Table 4.7. Means and Standard Deviations for the Overall Translation Strategy Use

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Translation strategy use	320	1.21	4.57	2.75	0.72

The students reported using somewhat frequently ( $3.00 \leq M \leq 3.21$ ) eight L1-based translation strategies (items 17, 4, 1, 21, 11, 9, 15, and 5) for compensation, cognitive and social purposes (see Table 4.8). Further, the participants' reported repertoire mostly consisted of 16 strategies, used less frequently ( $2.52 \leq M \leq 2.95$ ) though, for the acquisition of a range of language skills and lexico-grammar, as well as note-taking and practice (items 13, 12, 28, 26, 23, 20, 18, 14, 15, 7, 27, 25, 3, 22, 24, and 10). In this regard, the students reported employing, with a promising degree of frequency, these translation strategies also for hypothesis testing, exploration, and practice. The participants reportedly used only 4 translation learning strategies (items 2, 19, 6, and 8) least frequently ( $1 \leq M \leq 2.4$ ).

Table 4.8. Overall Descriptive Statistics for ITLS

No.	Item description	Total participants ( <i>N</i> = 320)		
		%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	36	<b>3.08</b>	1.21
2	I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.	21	2.38	1.22
3	After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	25	2.61	1.19
4	To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in	42	<b>3.13</b>	1.26

Table 4.8. (cont.)

Persian.				
5	When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	39	<b>3.00</b>	1.37
6	I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	42	2.23	1.37
7	When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	31	2.68	1.35
8	I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	11	1.79	1.11
9	When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	35	<b>3.03</b>	1.14
10	I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.	23	2.52	1.21
11	When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	34	<b>3.06</b>	1.27
12	If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	33	2.95	1.13
13	I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	34	2.95	1.19
14	I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	32	2.72	1.31
15	I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	29	2.72	1.26
16	I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	39	<b>3.02</b>	1.20
17	I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	43	<b>3.21</b>	1.20
18	I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	26	2.75	1.17
19	I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	20	2.25	1.28
20	If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	25	2.80	1.08
21	I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	35	<b>3.08</b>	1.07
22	When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	23	2.61	1.12
23	I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	27	2.88	1.05
24	I take notes in Persian in my English class.	26	2.60	1.24

Table 4.8. (cont.)

25	I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	23	2.62	1.17
26	I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.	31	2.90	1.08
27*	When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.	20	2.63	1.05
28*	When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	33	2.93	1.09

\*.The score of items 27 and 28 were reversed.

In Tehran, as demonstrated in Table 4.9, the translation majors used translation learning strategies ( $M = 2.45$ ) moderately.

Table 4.9. Means and Standard Deviations for ITLS at Tehran Azad University Branches

University	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Tehran	160	1.21	4.21	2.45	0.65

These participants reportedly employed somewhat frequently (see Table 4.10) 16 translation learning strategies (items 21, 4, 17, 28, 23, 26, 1, 11, 5, 16, 9, 12, 13, 20, 27, and 18), however less frequently 12 strategies (items 22, 15, 3, 10, 25, 19, 14, 7, 24, 2, 6, and 8).

Table 4.10. Descriptive Statistics for ITLS in Tehran

No.	Item description	Tehran participants ( <i>n</i> = 160)		
		%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	22	2.67	1.16
2	I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.	14	2.03	1.13
3	After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	18	2.35	1.23

Table 4.10. (cont.)

4	To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	32	2.80	1.21
5	When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	28	2.62	1.33
6	I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	11	1.75	1.13
7	When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	14	2.19	1.20
8	I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	9	1.65	1.07
9	When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	20	2.60	1.08
10	I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.	16	2.28	1.15
11	When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	27	2.65	1.24
12	If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	23	2.60	1.09
13	I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	21	2.59	1.13
14	I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	18	2.21	1.21
15	I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	17	2.36	1.14
16	I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	25	2.61	1.14
17	I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	27	2.77	1.17
18	I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	19	2.51	1.16
19	I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	20	2.26	1.33
20	If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	19	2.56	1.08
21	I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	30	2.95	1.05
22	When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	18	2.38	1.03
23	I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	20	2.72	1.01
24	I take notes in Persian in my English class.	14	2.19	1.10

Table 4.10. (cont.)

25	I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	13	2.27	1.03
26	I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.	24	2.71	1.11
27*	When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.	16	2.56	1.01
28*	When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	28	2.75	1.13

\*.The score of items 27 and 28 were reversed.

In the North, as demonstrated in Table 4.11, the translation students employed translation learning strategies more frequently ( $M = 3.06$ ) than their counterparts in Tehran.

Table 4.11. Means and Standard Deviations for ITLS at North Azad University Branches

University	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
North	160	1.57	4.57	3.06	0.65

These respondents reportedly used 2 strategies (items 17 and 1) frequently (see Table 4.12). However, their responses to most of the items (4, 9, 11, 16, 5, 13, 12, 14, 21, 7, 28, 15, 26, 20, 23, 24, 18, 25, 3, 22, 10, 2, 6, and 27) indicated their predominantly moderate employment of the translation learning strategies, whereas their reports in relation to items 19 and 8, low frequency of the strategy use.

Table 4.12. Descriptive Statistics for ITLS in the North

No.	Item description	North participants ( <i>n</i> = 160)		
		%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	50	3.50	1.11
2	I read Persian translations in the course reference book to	27	2.73	1.20

Table 4.12. (cont.)

	help me better understand English articles in the textbook.			
3	After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	30	2.87	1.10
4	To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	52	3.46	1.21
5	When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	51	3.38	1.30
6	I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	35	2.71	1.42
7	When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	48	3.18	1.31
8	I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	12	1.93	1.13
9	When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	50	3.46	1.05
10	I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.	30	2.77	1.22
11	When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	55	3.46	1.17
12	If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	45	3.30	1.05
13	I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	47	3.32	1.15
14	I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	45	3.24	1.21
15	I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	41	3.09	1.27
16	I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	51	3.42	1.12
17	I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	58	3.66	1.06
18	I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	32	2.99	1.14
19	I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	20	2.23	1.23
20	If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	31	3.03	1.03
21	I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	41	3.21	1.07
22	When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	28	2.85	1.15



Table 4.12. (cont.)

23	I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	33	3.03	1.07
24	I take notes in Persian in my English class.	38	3.01	1.23
25	I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	34	2.97	1.20
26	I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.	37	3.08	1.02
27*	When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.	24	2.70	1.08
28*	When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	37	3.11	1.02

\*.The score of items 27 and 28 were reversed.

#### 4.2.1 Analysis of Open-ended ITLS Question

One open-ended question on the ITLS elicited the Iranian translation students' qualitative insights about using translation in English language learning (see Appendix W). Although not all of the respondents addressed this question, some of the representative insights are given below.

In Tehran, the translation majors shared that they would first engage in guessing meaning of unknown words, then consult a monolingual dictionary, and only then, if need be, refer to an English-Persian dictionary. They also highlighted the importance of learning equivalent meanings across the source and target languages. These respondents reiterated that sometimes translation cannot be avoided for the sake of better comprehension of certain words or grammar structures. However, one translation major admitted that they would think in Farsi prior to speaking in English.

In the North, the translation students questioned some of their professors' recommendation not to use their native language, rather think directly in English. They felt that monolingual dictionaries could not be helpful in the event of unknown

vocabulary. Importantly, some of the participants expressed that familiarity with the target culture may not be helpful in finding equivalence, and emphasized the importance of perseverance in language learning.

#### **4.2.2 Iranian Translation Students' Interview Reports**

In addition, the Iranian translation students provided valuable insights into their translation strategy use and related beliefs and experiences through their interview reports (see Appendix X). Regarding their teachers' reasons for resorting to L1 in the classroom the interviewees shared that instructors might exploit Persian translation as a teaching technique in order to ensure comprehension of the subject matter, ensure provision of equivalent items in question, to decrease students' anxiety, and to avoid monotony. They also expressed that their teachers' reliance on L1 in the classroom might be due to lack of homogeneous student profile in terms of English proficiency levels.

Further, most interviewees reported that they received advice or recommendation on the part of others to avoid using Persian in their English language learning, rather to try and think directly in English. However, in this regard the translation majors expressed conflicting views in that some thought that they required Persian for better comprehension, that L1 was necessary in L2 learning, others shared that thinking in English was challenging first, but gradually possible, and that in order to use the target language, improve their language skills and attain native-like proficiency they needed to think in English and familiarize themselves with the target culture.

Furthermore, the translation students shared that they used Persian-based translation to assist them with difficult assignments, to find equivalent items or structures, and

that it was less time-consuming to resort to their native language. However, few interviewees stated that translation should not be used at advanced level and that translation students should resort to monolingual dictionaries only. As regards possible effects of using L1-based translation on learning English, the Iranian students felt that it was helpful in terms of discovering similarities and differences between their L1 and L2; however, they were also aware of possible L1 transfer as well as negative impact of Persian translation on progress in L2 learning.

Regarding translation use in their studies, the translation majors thought that it would aid them in learning and making progress in the target language, expansion of vocabulary and grammar items, comprehension of difficult texts, memorization and consolidation of content, exploration of similarities and differences between L1 and L2, writing essays in English, improving translation skills, and finding equivalents. Moreover, some interviewees shared that lower proficiency level students could benefit from L1-based translation since it could decrease their anxiety and give them self-confidence. Whereas others believed that translation would be beneficial for higher level students who could provide adequate translation; yet other interviewees expressed that Iranian students across all proficiency levels could benefit from translation. They felt that since Persian was their mother tongue, they needed translation into L1 for better comprehension, to help them learn English better. Importantly, the Iranian students expressed that using translation could strengthen all language skills, receptive and productive, especially reading and writing. However, one interviewee stated that L2 should be learned without reference to L1.

As regards the translation majors' beliefs about English learners' capacity to gradually abandon their habit of using translation as they progressed in English language learning they shared the following. With increasing proficiency, students would become more aware of lack of progress due to heavy reliance on L1; others expressed that they could comprehend L2 better through translation to L1. Some interviewees also shared that not using L1 based translation did not mean they would never need it, others that if they got used to it, it would be difficult to give up.

In addition, the interviewees expressed the following thoughts and experiences about translation use in English language learning, as well as their program of study. They felt that they could never learn English without translation into Persian, and that most of their peers resorted to L1. Further, they expressed preference for their instructors to translate some target culture-specific items and phrases, so that they could learn their equivalents in L2. Furthermore, the translation majors thought that translation students should be taught theory as well as practice, with more focus on practice though, by more experienced instructors. The interviewees also felt that more proficient learners who were familiar both with L1 and L2 cultures could be more successful. Others expressed their desire to spend time in the English-speaking context, and they thought that they should communicate with their peers in English.

Overall, the translation students' qualitative interview reports suggested that they required adequate learning and practice opportunities in their studies, especially in terms of developing effective translation language learning strategies. Moreover, although the translation majors reported somewhat conflicting beliefs in their interviews, these were consistent with their open-ended responses on the IBT and

ITLS, especially in terms of their favourable beliefs about translation in general, and use of translation strategies for the acquisition of language skills as well as lexico-grammar in English. The quotations below demonstrate the Iranian EFL learners' awareness of the requirements and challenges of their prospective profession of translation:

- Good translation is simple and smooth.
- Translation should be close, and faithful.
- Translation needs productive mind ...
- Attention should be paid to all skills ...

#### **4.2.3 Summary**

Thus, in this survey, the Iranian translation students reportedly exhibited a somewhat adequate repertoire and a medium frequency of strategy use. One major finding was that they frequently employed eight L1-based translation strategies for compensation, cognitive and social purposes. Another result was that their strategy repertoire mostly consisted of 16 strategies, used moderately though, for the acquisition of a range of language skills and lexico-grammar, as well as note-taking and practice. In this regard, another finding was that the translation majors reported employing with a promising degree of frequency, these translation strategies also for hypothesis testing, exploration, and practice.

### **4.3 Factor Analysis of Inventory for Beliefs about Translation and Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy**

Factor analysis is an established procedure for identification of the underlying structure disguised in multiple sets of data, as well as reduction of several variables in data analysis to only a few values which are representative of the information existing in the original variables (Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, "factor analytical studies

exploit the ‘pattern-finding’ capacity of the procedure by sampling a wide range of items and then examining their relationship with common underlying themes” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 233).

The present study applied exploratory factor analysis, specifically to explore the comprehensive questionnaire data in order to make sense of the emerging factors by “looking at which tests relate most closely to which factors and labeling the factors accordingly” (Alderson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995, p. 186). Therefore the exploratory factor analysis was used to determine what latent variables accounted for the correlations among the translation majors’ reports on both the IBT and the ITLS. Such correlations, as Dörnyei (2007) put it, are called “factor loadings” which indicate “the extent to which each of the original variables has contributed to the resultant factors” (p. 233). By conducting principal component analysis which is “a multivariate data analysis procedure that involves a transformation of a number of possibly correlated variables into a smaller number of uncorrelated variables known as principal components” (Hardoon, Szedmak, & Shawe-Taylor, 2004, p. 2639) initial factors were extracted. Subsequently, the obtained factors were rotated to become significantly meaningful. This final set of extracted factors constituted composite variables – as a preparatory step – to further make the canonical correlation analysis manageable.

Thus, in the present study exploratory factor analysis identified the underlying factors for the Inventory for Beliefs about Translation as well as Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy. In addition, the two sets of variables which were extracted from the IBT and the ITLS representing the comprehensive quantitative

data were employed as composite variables in subsequent canonical correlation analysis to provide the answer to the third research question: How do the Iranian students' beliefs about translation relate to their reported use of translation strategy?

Specifically, the factor analysis was conducted at two major stages, namely factor extraction and factor rotation. Regarding the first stage, Gorsuch (1974) noted that its primary characteristic is to “extract the maximum amount of variance that can be possibly extracted by a given number of factors” (p. 86). Thus, principal component analysis was used to extract variables or factors by taking the following three criteria into account: eigenvalues greater than one (Kaiser, 1960), the scree test (Catell, 1966) and the interpretability of the factor solution. Thompson (2004) noted that factors should have eigenvalues greater than one since:

Measured and composite variables are separate classes of variables. Factors, by definition, are latent constructs created aggregates of measured variables and so should consist of more than a single measured variable. If a factor consisted of a single measured variable, even if that measured variable had a pattern/structure coefficient of 1.0 (or  $-1.0$ ) and all other variables on that factor had pattern/structure coefficients of  $.0$ , the factor would have an eigenvalue of 1.0. Thus, it seems logical that noteworthy factors (i.e., constructs representing aggregates of measured variables) should have eigenvalues greater than 1.0. (p. 32)

Further, Catell (1966) suggested a scree test for specifying the number of factors; a scree plot indicates eigenvalue magnitudes on the vertical axis and eigenvalue numbers on the horizontal axis. Specifically, the “eigenvalues are plotted as asterisks” on the graph and consecutive values are linked through a line, and “factor extraction should be stopped at the point where there is an “elbow,” or leveling of the plot” (Thompson, 2004, p. 33). In addition, small coefficients with the criterion of absolute value below 0.3 were suppressed since

With large  $n$ 's, loadings so small as to be uninterpretable may still be statistically significant. No one could identify that part of the variance of the

variable which was causing a loading of, for example, .12. Therefore, another lower bound for defining the salient variable is that of meaningfulness. This may be the reason for the popularity of an absolute value of .3 as the minimum loading for interpretation. (Gorsuch, 1974, p. 186)

Finally, in the second stage factor rotation involved “moving the factor axes measuring the locations of the measured variables in the factor space so that the nature of the underlying constructs becomes more obvious to the researcher” (Thompson, 2004, p. 38); the most prevalent orthogonal method of rotation and the most popular rotation of any type being the varimax rotation method. Consequently, the varimax rotation method (Kaiser, 1958) was used for factor rotation.

#### **4.3.1 Factor Analysis of Inventory for Beliefs about Translation**

Factor analysis of the IBT and ITLS was carried out to summarize the underlying factors, representing most of the variation of the 24 items on the IBT as well as the 28 items on the ITLS, as an aid for conceptualization. For this aim, principal component analysis was run with the criterion of the eigenvalues greater than one (see Appendices Q and R).

As shown in Table 4.13, factor analysis yielded six factors which accounted for 57.85% of the total variance ingrained in the Inventory for Beliefs about Translation, which suggested an adequate construct validity. The first extracted factor with an eigenvalue of 6.46 and the sixth extracted factor with the eigenvalue of 1.02 accounted for the highest (26.91%) and lowest (4.28%) of the total variance respectively.



Table 4.13. Variance Accounted for by the Initial Seven Factors on IBT

Component	Initial eigenvalues		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.46	26.91	26.91
2	2.34	9.75	36.67
3	1.64	6.87	43.54
4	1.30	5.41	48.95
5	1.10	4.61	53.56
6	1.02	4.28	57.85

*Note.* Extraction method: principal component analysis

Subsequently, the second criterion which was used to determine the number of factors to be remained was the Cattels's (1966) scree test as indicated in Figure 4.1.

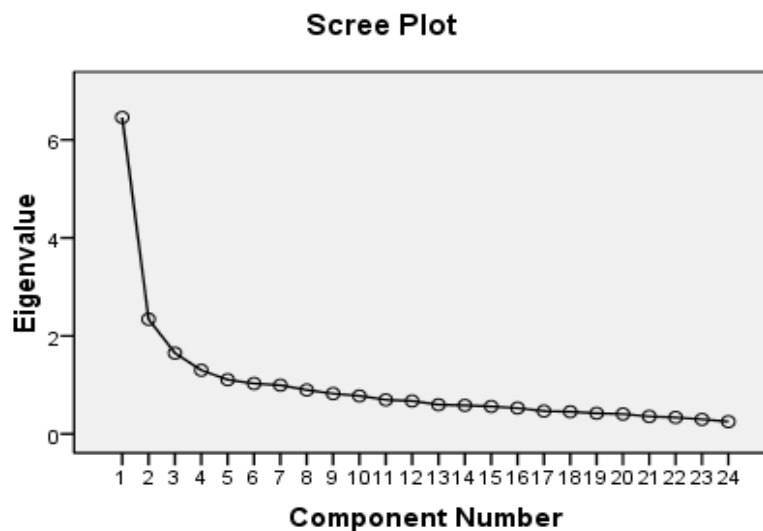


Figure 4.1. Scree Test of IBT Factors

The scree test plots the extracted factors on the X axis and their corresponding eigenvalues on the Y axis. The rationale for the scree test is

... that the battery of variables is measuring a limited number of factors well and a large number of trivial, specific, and error factors much less well. Therefore, the predominant factors account for most of the variance and are large, whereas the other factors are quite numerous but small. Since the principal factor solution extracts factors by size, the substantive factors will be extracted first and the smaller trivial factors will be removed later. (Gorsuch, 1974, p. 152)

According to Green, Salkind, and Akey (2000), the scree test criterion more frequently yields accurate results compared to the eigenvalue greater than one criterion. Since the eigenvalue greater than one criterion yielded too many factors, the scree test was used to identify the number of factors to be rotated. As shown in Figure 4.1, four factors fell before the sharp end on which the eigenvalues seemed to level off. In addition, the interpretation of the variables loading after rotation in the four-factor solution was easier compared to any other number of factors. Hence, four factors were selected for the later stage of analysis. As Thompson (2004) noted, “Any thoughtful analytic choices that yield clear factors are justified, including analyzing the data in a lots of different ways to ‘let the data speak’ ” (p. 48).

Since rotation of the factors usually facilitates interpretation (Stevens, 2009), in the second phase of factor analysis the four factors were rotated using varimax method (Kaiser, 1960). In his orthogonal rotation method “each factor tends to load high on a smaller number of variables and low or very low on the other variables” which makes the resulting factors easier to interpret (Stevens, 2009, p. 330). Appendix Q displays the factor loadings of the IBT items on the four-rotated factor solution, accounting for nearly 49% of the total variance. A factor loading is the correlation between each variable and the factor for a varimax rotation (Green et al., 2000). After components or factor loadings through the four-factor rotation solution were determined, then the number of components to retain for interpretation were to be decided. In this regard, Stevens (2009) proposed using only loadings that are about 0.40 or greater so that it can at least share 15% of its variance with a factor or construct. Thus, only the factor loadings above 0.40 were taken into account for interpretation.

Further, a standardized alpha to estimate the internal consistency of the items was conducted which resulted in a standardized item alpha ranging from 0.53 to 0.83 for the IBT factors and 0.37 to 0.91 for the ITLS factors. However, a low Cronbach's alpha based on standardized items may be due to a fewer number of items loaded on each of the factors.

For naming the extracted factors as one set, the researcher used "B" for the IBT and "S" for the ITLS. Since it is usually difficult to name the underlying traits of all factors accurately, alphabetical categories are often left for determining the meaning of the factor (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). Therefore, for the ease of interpretation and discussion, as well as clarity of conclusions B1, B2, B3, and B4 labels were used for the IBT factors; and similarly, S1, S2, S3, and S4 labels were used for the ITLS factors.

Accordingly, as shown in Table 4.14, factor one (B1) of the IBT data dealt with items about "positive beliefs about translation in English language learning". Translation reportedly helped the Iranian students learn English idioms and phrases (item 7). The translation majors believed that the use of translation was fruitful in understanding English grammar rules as well as spoken English (items 6 and 3). The participants also benefitted from translation in speaking English (item 4). They endorsed that translation helped them memorize English vocabulary (item 5). The use of translation was also reportedly beneficial to their understanding of textbook readings (item 1). In addition, the students benefitted from translation in writing English compositions (item 2). The negative loading of item 8 indicated that translating helped students make progress in learning English.

Table 4.14. Positive Beliefs about Translation in English Language Learning (B1)

Item description	Factor loading
7. Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	.74
6. Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	.70
3. Translating helps me understand spoken English.	.69
4. Translating helps me speak English.	.68
5. Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	.67
1. Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	.63
2. Translating helps me write English compositions.	.63
8. Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	-.61

Further, as displayed in Table 4.15, the second factor (B2) was concerned with “reliance on L1 in English language learning”. The translation majors reported that the more difficult the English assignments were, the more they depended on Persian translation (item 12). The participants also found translation helpful in finishing their English assignments more quickly and save time (item 13). Similarly, using Persian translation while studying helped them better recall the content of their lessons (item 14). Additionally, some participants expressed that everyone had to use Persian translation at the current stage of learning (item 19). The students supported that everyone had to use his/her mother tongue to learn English (item 15). They also benefitted from translation in understanding their teachers’ instructions (item 10) as well as interacting with their classmates in English class to complete assignments (item 11). Finally, some translation students held that they could not learn English without Persian translation at their current stage of learning (item 18).

Table 4.15. Reliance on L1 in English Language Learning (B2)

Item description	Factor loading
12. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.	.66
13. Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.	.58

Table 4.15. (cont.)

14. Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	.56
19. I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.	.54
15. I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	.53
10. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	.49
11. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	.48
18. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.	.47

Furthermore, Table 4.16 shows the third factor (B3) which was associated with beliefs regarding “constraints on direct use of L2”. Some translation students reported that they were under the pressure if they were asked to think directly in English (item 24). In a similar vein, some participants got frustrated when they tried to think in English (item 25). In addition, they believed that a learner should be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before s/he is able to think in English (item 27).

Table 4.16. Constraints on Direct Use of L2 (B3)

Item description	Factor loading
24. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	.78
25. I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	.76
27. I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	.43

Moreover, as displayed in Table 4.17, the fourth factor (B4) of the IBT data was related to “awareness of effects of L1 on English language learning”. The translation majors believed that the use of Persian diminished the amount of English input they received (item 17) and may interfere with their ability to learn English well (item

16). The participants also preferred that their English instructors always used English to teach them (item 23). In addition, they reported that it was best to keep English out of their mind while using English (item 26).

Table 4.17. Awareness of Effects of L1 on English Language Learning (B4)

Item description	Factor loading
17. Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	.73
16. The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	.71
23. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	.56
26. When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	.41

Thus, Table 4.18 demonstrates the Cronbach's alpha based on standardized items for the IBT ranging from 0.53 to 0.83. As mentioned earlier, a lower alpha is due to a small number of items loaded on each of the factors.

Table 4.18. Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items

No.	Factor	Alpha
1	Positive beliefs about translation in English language learning.	.73
2	Reliance on L1 in English language learning.	.83
3	Constraints on direct use of L2.	.58
4	Awareness of effects of L1 on English language learning.	.53

#### 4.3.2 Factor Analysis of Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy

Subsequently, Factor analysis of the ITLS data was conducted to discover factors that underlie a set of items that measure several variables. The afore-mentioned procedures for the IBT were applied to the ITLS as well. In a similar vein, principal component analysis was conducted with the criterion of the eigenvalues greater than one (see Appendix R). As shown in Table 4.19, factor analysis yielded five factors which accounted for 56.14% of the total variance inherent in the Inventory for

Translation as a Learning Strategy, which suggested a somewhat adequate construct validity. The first extracted factor with an eigenvalue of 10.64 accounted for the highest (38.02%), and the fifth extracted factor with the eigenvalue of 1.05 for the lowest (3.74%) of the total variance.

Table 4.19. Variance Accounted for by the Initial Seven Factors on ITLS

Component	Initial eigenvalues		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	10.64	38.02	38.02
2	1.69	6.04	44.07
3	1.20	4.31	48.38
4	1.12	4.00	52.39
5	1.05	3.74	56.14

Further, also Cattels's (1966) scree test criterion was used to determine the number of factors to be retained. As shown in Figure 4.2, two factors can be retained for subsequent analysis. However, taking sensible interpretation criterion into account, a four-factor solution, accounting for 52.39% of the total variance, was set for the varimax rotation in the second phase of factor analysis (see Table 4.18).

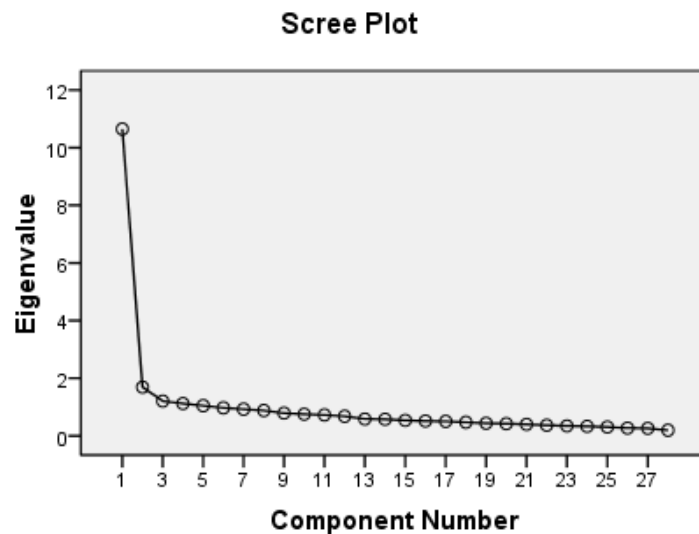


Figure 4.2. Scree Test of ITLS Factors

As illustrated in Table 4.20, the first factor (S1) referred to the “use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English”. Such strategies were reportedly applied by the translation majors in their acquisition of the receptive and productive English skills, namely reading (item 1), writing (items 4, 5, 6, and 25), listening (items 7, 9, and 24), and speaking (items 11, 28, and 12).

Table 4.20. Use of Translation Strategies for Acquisition of Language Skills in English (S1)

Item description	Factor loading
4. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	.80
5. When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	.77
11. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	.71
7. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	.65
1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	.64
6. I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	.64
28. When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	.64
12. If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	.54
25. I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	.52
9. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	.49
24. I take notes in Persian in my English class.	.48

The second factor (S2) was associated with the “use of translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English” as displayed in Table 4.21. There were six items (13, 16, 14, 15, 17, and 18) which referred to this factor.



Table 4.21. Use of Translation Strategies for Acquisition of Lexico-grammar in English (S2)

Item description	Factor loading
13. I memorize new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	.73
16. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	.67
14. I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	.64
15. I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech (e.g. noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, etc.), tenses (simple present, simple past, present continuous, etc.), and agreements (e.g. third person singular 's' used in singular subject-verb agreement) to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	.64
17. I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	.61
18. I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	.55

The third factor (S3), as illustrated in Table 4.22, involved “use of resource-related and social translation strategies”. This factor comprised translation strategies related to resources such as electronic translation machine (item 19), tapes or CDs (item 8), available translated articles (item 3), course book (item 2), radio/TV (item 10), and getting help from other individuals (items 20 and 22).

Table 4.22. Use of Resource-related and Social Translation Strategies (S3)

Item description	Factor loading
19. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	.76
8. I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	.48
20. If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	.41
3. After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	.38
22. When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	.35
2. I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.	.33
10. I listen to or read Persian news in order to understand English radio/TV news better.	.30

Finally, as displayed in Table 4.23, the fourth factor (S4) was associated with “use of translation strategies for exploration and practice”. These strategies involved asking questions about translation of Persian expressions into English (item 21), practice of mental translation of thought from L1 to L2 in various situations (item 23), trying to clarify the differences and similarities between L1 and L2 through translation (item 26), and trying to grasp the meaning of English readings without thinking of Persian equivalents (item 27).

Table 4.23. Use of Translation Strategies for Exploration and Practice (S4)

Item description	Factor loading
21. I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	.69
23. I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	.46
26. I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.	.62
27. When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.	-.47

Table 4.24 demonstrates the Cronbach’s alpha based on standardized items for the ITLS, ranging from 0.37 to 0.91.

Table 4.24. ITLS Cronbach’s Alpha Based on Standardized Items

No.	Factor	Alpha
1	Use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English.	.91
2	Use of translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English.	.84
3	Use of resource-related and social translation strategies.	.76
4	Use of translation strategies for exploration and practice.	.37

### **4.3.3 Factor Score**

According to Thompson (2004), factor scores are “the weights applied to the measured variables to obtain scores on the factor analysis latent variables” (p. 16). Therefore, factor scores can be used in further statistical analyses instead of the measured variables. Hence, four sets of factor scores for each of the Inventories for Beliefs about Translation as well as Translation as a Language Learning Strategy were extracted. A complete list of the factor scores for each of the IBT and ITLS items is displayed in Appendices S and T.

### **4.4 Canonical Correlation Analysis of IBT and ITLS Factors**

Canonical correlation is a statistical technique to parsimoniously explain the existing number and nature of mutually independent relationships between the two sets of variables (Stevens, 2009). This type of multivariate linear statistical analysis was first described by Hotelling (1935). Clark (1975) differentiated between canonical correlation analysis and factor/principal component analysis as the former investigates the “intercorrelation between two sets of variables”, whereas the latter “identifies the patterns of relationship within one set of data” (p. 3). Canonical correlation analysis has some advantages as follows: (a) it reduces the likelihood of occurring Type I error, related to the possibility of yielding a statistically nonexistent significant result; (b) it reflects the reality of research studies better; and (c) if there are two or more unique relationships, canonical correlation analysis identifies them (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Therefore, canonical correlation analysis is able to both technically analyze the data including multiple sets of variables and is theoretically consistent with that aim (Thompson, 1991).

In the present survey, the factor scores of both the composite IBT and ITLS variables were employed in canonical correlation analysis in order to determine the relationship between the Iranian translation students' beliefs about translation and their reported translation strategy use.

#### 4.4.1 Correlations between Composite Belief Variables and Composite Strategy Variable

According to Thompson (1984), in a canonical correlation analysis the first step deals with calculating the intervariable correlation matrix. Results of the Pearson correlation among the four composite IBT variables as well as the four composite ITLS variables are displayed in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25. Pearson Correlations for the Composite IBT Variables and Composite ITLS Variables

Composite variables	B1	B2	B3	B4
S1	.59**	.41**	.05	-.02
S2	.02	-.20**	.02	-.05
S3	-.09	.14*	-.05	.10
S4	-.03	-.01	.12*	-.05

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

The most significant correlations were established between B1 and S1, which was .59,  $p < .01$ , and between B2 with both S1, .41,  $p < .01$ , as well as with S2, -.20,  $p < .01$ , which was a negative correlation. Thus, B1 was significantly correlated with S1,  $p < .01$ ; B2 had significant correlations with S1 and S2,  $p < .01$ , as well as with S3, .14,  $p < .05$ . Also, B3 was correlated with S4, .12,  $p < .05$ . However, B4 did not seem to have any significant correlation with other variables (see Appendix U).

#### 4.4.2 Canonical Correlation Analysis Results

As displayed in Table 4.26, multivariate tests of significance involved Wilks's lambda, Pillai's trace, Hotelling's trace, and Roy's largest root. Wilks's lambda, Pillai's trace, and Hotelling's trace showed that the two sets of composite IBT and ITLS variables were significantly related to the canonical correlation,  $p < .01$ .

Table 4.26. Multivariate Tests of Significance

Test Name	Value	Approx. <i>F</i>	Hypoth. <i>df</i>	Error <i>df</i>	Sig. of <i>F</i>
Wilks's	.41064	20.16176	16.00	953.81	.000
Pillai's	.64401	15.11198	16.00	1260.00	.000
Hotelling's	1.30417	25.30902	16.00	1242.00	.000
Roy's	0.54502				

According to Thompson (1984), "the maximum number of canonical correlation coefficients that can be derived for a data set equals the number of variables in the smaller of the two variable sets" (p. 11). However, since in the present study the number of both canonical correlation variables were equal, which made two sets of four variables, four canonical correlation coefficients were identified. In canonical correlation, successive pairs of canonical variates are based on residual variance; their respective canonical correlations, representing the interrelationships between the variates, become smaller as each individual function is extracted. In other words, the first pair of canonical variates, which is usually denoted by R1, reveals the highest intercorrelation, the next pair (R2) the second highest correlation, and so forth (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009).

In addition, as shown in Table 4.27, the square of the canonical correlation coefficient revealed the proportion of variance of one of the composite belief (IBT) variables that was associated with the variance of the composite strategy (ITLS)

variables. The outcomes showed that the first canonical correlation (R1) accounted for 0.54% of the total variance, whereas the second canonical correlation (R2) accounted for nearly 0.08% of the total variance.

Table 4.27. Eigenvalues and Canonical Correlations

Root No.	Eigenvalue	Pct.	Cum. Pct.	Canon Cor.	Sq. Cor
1	1.19790	91.85131	91.85131	.73825	.54502
2	0.08682	6.65711	98.50842	.28264	.07988
3	0.01881	1.442334	99.95076	.13588	.01846
4	0.00064	0.04924	10.00000	.02533	.00064

Importantly, as demonstrated in Table 4.28, as each canonical correlation was tested by the dimension reduction analysis, the F test showed that among the four canonical correlations only the first two canonical correlations were statistically significant.

Table 4.28. Dimension Reduction Analysis

Root	Wilks's lambda	<i>F</i>	Hypothesis <i>df</i>	Error <i>df</i>	Sig. of <i>F</i>
1 To 4	.41064	20.16176	16.00	953.81	.000
2 To 4	.90255	3.64279	9.00	761.91	.000
3 To 4	.98091	1.52062	4.00	628.00	.195
4 To 4	.99936	0.20228	1.00	315.00	.653

#### 4.4.3 Interpretation of Canonical Variates

Once statistically significant canonical correlations were determined, the canonical correlations had to be interpreted in order to identify the extent to which factors or variables contributed to the determined relationship. One common method in use for interpreting the canonical correlations is to examine the canonical variate-variable correlations which is the largest coefficients or correlations employed for analysis. The canonical variate-variable correlations are presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29. Canonical Variate – Variables for IBT and ITLS Variables

Correlations between IBT variables and their canonical variates (BCV)				
Variable	BCV1	BCV2	BCV3	BCV4
B1	-.79832	-.48845	.32088	-.14542
B2	-.59883	.69329	-.33385	.22202
B3	-.06269	-.31343	-.83558	-.44682
B4	.01305	.42723	.29562	-.85435
Correlations between ITLS variables and their canonical variates (SCV)				
Variable	SCV1	SCV2	SCV3	SCV4
S1	-.98931	-.10723	.00049	-.09887
S2	.13919	-.64602	.29383	-.69062
S3	-.01056	.72874	-.00209	-.68470
S4	.04231	-.20023	-.95586	-.21085

#### 4.4.4 Canonical Correlation One (R1)

In the first canonical correlation B1 had the highest correlation ( $r = -.79$ ), a negative one, with the first belief canonical variate (BCV1), followed by B2 ( $r = -.59$ ). As shown in Table 4.29, the other two belief variables B3 and B4 had relatively low correlations, being  $r = -.06$  for the former one and  $r = .01$  for the latter one. Further, S1 was highly negatively correlated ( $r = -.98$ ) with the first strategy canonical variate (SCV1), whereas the other three strategy variables S2, S3, and S4 had rather low correlations,  $r = .13$ ,  $r = -.01$ , and  $r = .04$  respectively. Thus, the first significant canonical correlation IBT and ITLS established the link between both “positive beliefs about translation” (B1) and “reliance on L1 in the classroom” (B2) with “use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English” (S1).

#### 4.4.5 Canonical Correlation Two (R2)

Further, in the second canonical correlation the second IBT canonical variate (BCV2) was strongly associated with B1 ( $r = .50$ ) as well as with B2 ( $r = .69$ ), while the remaining two variables B3, and B4 had lower correlations with  $r = -.31$  and  $r = .42$  respectively. Regarding the ITLS variables, S3 had the highest correlation ( $r =$

.72) with the second strategy canonical variate (SCV2), followed by S2 as the second highest negative correlation ( $r = -.64$ ). The other two variables, namely S1 and S4 had considerably lower correlations. Therefore, the second significant correlation between was established between “reliance on L1 in English language learning” (B2) with both “use of translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English” (S2) and “use of resource-related and social translation strategies” (S3).

It should be noted that the third and fourth canonical correlation (R3 and R4) were not significant and thus seemed to be redundant for further canonical correlation analysis. The relationship among four composite IBT variables (B1, B2, B3 and B4), four composite ITLS variables (S1, S2, S3, and S4), four IBT canonical variates (BCV1, BCV2, BCV3, and BCV4), and finally four ITLS canonical variates (SCV1, SCV2, SCV3, and SCV4) are illustrated in Figure 4.3. Dimension reduction analysis revealed that there were two significant canonical correlations, namely R1 and R2. The first significant canonical correlation, named R1, related both “positive beliefs about translation in English language learning” (B1) and “reliance on L1 in English language learning” (B2) with “use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English” (S1), with all variables, B1, B2 and S1, having positive correlations.

Also, the second canonical correlation, labeled R2, demonstrated a positive association of “positive beliefs about translation in English language learning” (B1) with “use of translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English” (S2), as well as another positive association of beliefs about “reliance on L1 in English



language learning” (B2) with “use of resource-related and social translation strategies” (S3) (see Figure 4.3).

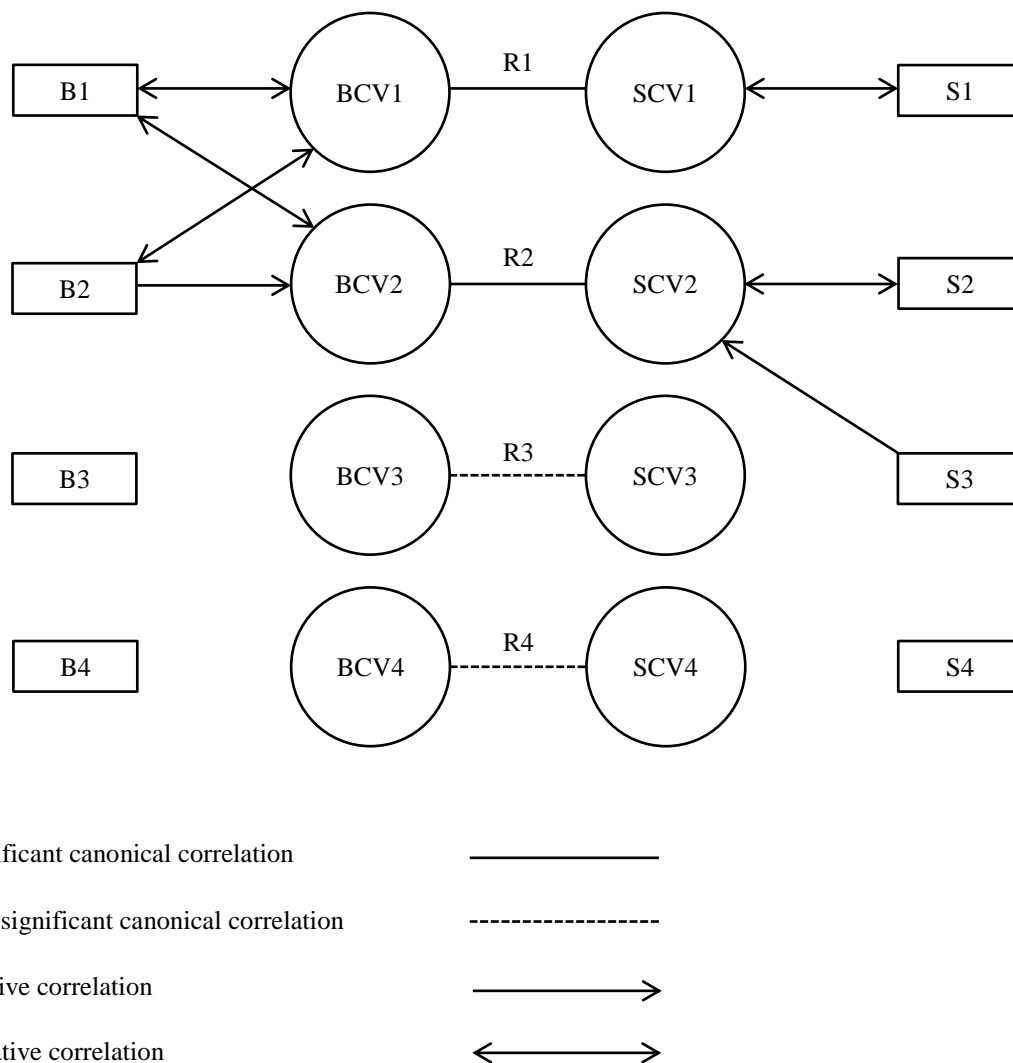


Figure 4.3. Relationships among IBT and ITLS Variables and Their Respective Canonical Variates

Thus, our findings seemed to indicate that the translation students with strong positive beliefs about the role of translation in general and translation into their L1 specifically tended to apply translation strategies for acquisition of English language skills with higher frequency. Furthermore, the Iranian students with very favorable beliefs about the role of translation tended to report using translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English frequently, and those with positive beliefs

about reliance on their native language would frequently make use of resource-related and social translation strategies.

Moreover, Multivariate analysis of variance or MANOVA is a statistical analysis of variance which “evaluates whether the population means on a set of dependent variables vary across levels of a factor or factors” (Green et al., 2000, p. 218). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) MANOVA has certain advantages as (1) it measures several dependent variables so that the researcher may have a better chance of determining what it is that changes as a result of the independent variables; and (2) it protects against inflated type I error due to multiple tests of likely correlated dependent variables.

In the present survey, MANOVA was run to find the potential impacts of the Iranian translation students’ variables such as age, gender, university of study, and academic achievement score on their beliefs about translation and translation strategy use. Hence, MANOVA results were used to address the fourth research question: “Do learner factors have an effect on the respondents’ beliefs about translation and translation strategy use?”

In the present study, since there were a considerable number of items on the IBT as well as ITLS, their composite variables represented the two questionnaire sets. In other words, the factor scores of the four composite belief variables, namely B1, B2, B3, and B4, as well as the four composite strategy variables, including S1, S2, S3, and S4, served as the dependent variables, whereas the translation majors’ variables

such as age, gender, university of study, and academic achievement, and English proficiency were treated as the independent variables in the analysis.

The results of MANOVA are shown in Table 4.30. The multivariate analyses of variance indicated a significant main effect for academic achievement average score, Wilks's  $\Lambda = .77$ ,  $F(8, 31) = 11.86$ ,  $p < .01$ , as well as university, Wilks's  $\Lambda = .77$ ,  $F(8, 31) = 11.86$ ,  $p < .01$  on the Iranian translation students' variables of beliefs and translation strategy use. However, no significant main effect was found for the other learner variables of age, gender and self-rated English proficiency.

Table 4.30. Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Effect		Value	$F$	Hypothesis $df$	Error $df$	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
Academic achievement average score	Wilks's lambda	.766	11.859	8.000	311.000	.000	.234
Age	Wilks's lambda	.432	1.089	232.000	2204.914	.183	.100
Gender	Wilks's lambda	.986	0.545	8.000	311.000	.823	.014
Self-rated proficiency	Wilks's lambda	.897	1.059	32.000	1137.443	.380	.027
University	Wilks's lambda	.766	11.859	8.000	311.000	.000	.234

Further, in order to determine which dependent variables contributed to the MANOVA significance of the students' academic achievement averages score, a Pearson correlation was performed. In addition, an ANOVA was conducted to find which dependent variable contributed to the multivariate significance of the university variable.

Regarding the variable of translation majors' academic achievement average scores, since related sources were on a scale from 0 to 20, a Pearson correlation was run to explore which dependent variables accounted for the significance of the multivariate analysis. As displayed in Table 4.31, four dependent variables (B1, B2, B4, and S1) were correlated with the students' academic achievement average scores. Three of four correlated dependent variables, namely B1 "positive beliefs about translation in English language learning", B2 "reliance on L1 in English language learning", and S1 "use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English", were negatively correlated with the translation majors' academic achievement average scores,  $p < .01$ , whereas B4 "awareness of effects of L1 on English language learning" had a positive correlation at the  $p < .01$  level with the respondents' academic achievement average scores.

Table 4.31. Pearson Correlation between Students' Academic Achievement Average Scores and Dependent Variables

Dependent variables	<i>r</i>
B1: Positive beliefs about translation in English language learning.	-.224**
B2: Reliance on L1 in English language learning.	-.182**
B3: Constraints on direct use of L2.	.048
B4: Awareness of effects of L1 on English language learning.	.174**
S1: Use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English.	-.300**
S2: Use of translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English.	
S3: Use of resource-related and social translation strategies.	.051
S4: Use of translation strategies for exploration and practice.	.031

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

As regards the variable of the participants' university (in Tehran or the north of Iran), in order to find out which dependent variables contributed to the MANOVA significance an ANOVA was performed. As Green et al. (2000) noted, a researcher may conduct an overall analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine whether means

on a dependent variable differ among groups. Since eight ANOVA tests had to be conducted individually, the alpha values did not take into account multiple ANOVAs. Thus, Bonferroni method was employed to control type I error (Green et al., 2000; Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) across the eight tests. Bonferroni procedure involved dividing alpha by the number of comparisons for the ANOVA (Green et al., 2000). Consequently, in the present study, each ANOVA was tested at the significance level of 0.00625, obtained by dividing 0.05 by the number of dependent (also here composite) variables.

As illustrated in Table 4.32, ANOVA demonstrated that the translation majors' university had an effect on their belief variable B1, as well as their strategy variable S1. However, other dependent variables were not found to be significant at the alpha level of .00625. As Azad University branches in two regions, Tehran and North, were compared, the use of a post hoc test was regarded as redundant.

Table 4.32. ANOVA for Dependent Variables

Source	Dependent variable	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial $\eta^2$
University	B1	1	44.222	51.178	.000	.139
	B2	1	3.077	3.097	.079	.010
	B3	1	0.048	0.048	.827	.000
	B4	1	0.651	0.650	.421	.002
	S1	1	58.875	71.974	.000	.185
	S2	1	0.012	0.012	.912	.000
	S3	1	6.448	6.561	.011	.020
	S4	1	2.524	2.536	.112	.008

\* $p < .00625$ .

According to Green et al. (2000), if the overall analysis of variance is significant and a factor has more than two levels, follow-up tests, involving comparisons between pairs of group means, are usually performed. Consequently, the means of the

translation majors in both Tehran and North Azad university branches for B1 and S1 variables were computed. The final results are presented in Table 4.33.

Regarding the first significant dependent variable (B1), the results demonstrated a higher mean ( $M = .37$ ) for the translation majors in the North as compared to their counterparts in Tehran ( $M = -.37$ ). In a similar vein, for the second dependent variable (S1), it revealed a higher mean ( $M = .42$ ) for the students in the North as compared to their counterparts in Tehran ( $M = -.42$ ).

Accordingly, these results suggested that the translation majors in the North held more “positive beliefs about translation in English language learning” (B1) and, consequently, benefitted more from the “use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English” (S1) than the translation majors in Tehran.

Table 4.33. Means of Significant Dependent Variables Based on University

Dependent variable	University	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% C.I Lower Bound	95% C.I Upper Bound
B1	Tehran	-.37	.078	-0.526	-0.217
	North	.37	.068	0.236	0.506
S1	Tehran	-.42	.071	-0.569	-0.288
	North	.42	.071	0.287	0.570

Note. CI = confidence interval.

#### **4.5 Correlation of Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale with IBT and ITLS**

In the present survey, the 13-item Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale was employed to verify whether or not the translation majors responded to the IBT and ITLS items in a socially favorable way. Hence, the Pearson correlation was carried out between the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale with both the IBT and

the ITLS. The results showed that only a few items, four items on the IBT and seven items on the ITLS, were significantly correlated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, with relatively low correlation coefficients (see Table 4.34 and Table 4.35). Thus, these results confirmed that the translation majors did not tend to complete either the IBT or the ITLS in a socially favorable way. The results of the Pearson correlation with the IBT and the ITLS items are displayed in Table 4.34 and Table 4.35 respectively.

Table 4.34. Pearson Correlations between MCSDS and IBT

No.	Item description	Total participants ( <i>N</i> = 320)
		Pearson correlation
1	Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	.01
2	Translating helps me write English compositions.	.04
3	Translating helps me understand spoken English.	-.02
4	Translating helps me speak English.	.02
5	Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	.09
6	Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	.07
7	Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	.03
8	Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	.06
10	Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	.02
11	Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	.10
12	The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.	.01
13	Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.	-.02
14	Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	-.10
15	I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	-.16**
16	The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	.03
17	Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	.05
18	At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.	.02

Table 4.34. (cont.)

19	I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.	.01
21	I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.	-.03
23	I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	.13*
24	I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	-.13*
25	I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	-.15**
26	When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	-.03
27	I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	.00

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Table 4.35. Pearson Correlations between MCSDS and ITLS

No.	Item description	Participants ( $N = 320$ ) Pearson correlation
1	When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	-.12*
2	I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.	-.06
3	After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	-.03
4	To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	-.13*
5	When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	-.16**
6	I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	-.07
7	When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	-.06
8	I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	-.04
9	When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	-.12*
10	I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand	-.02



Table 4.35. (cont.)

	English radio/TV news better.	
11	When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	-.13*
12	If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	-.07
13	I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	-.12*
14	I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	-.05
15	I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	-.03
16	I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	-.08
17	I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	-.14**
18	I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	-.06
19	I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	.00
20	If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	-.06
21	I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	-.03
22	When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	.00
23	I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	-.06
24	I take notes in Persian in my English class.	.00
25	I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	-.04
26	I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.	.01
27	When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.	.00
28	When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	-.08

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

## **4.6 Summary**

This chapter presented the results of the survey in accordance with the research questions. First, it described the descriptive statistics of both the IBT and the ITLS. This section was followed by a qualitative analysis of the IBT and ITLS open-ended questions as well as the interview data which complemented the descriptive analysis. Second, the chapter presented factor analysis of the translation students' IBT and ITLS responses. Third, canonical correlation analysis among belief factors and strategy factors was conducted which identified several related associations. Subsequently, the chapter investigated the effect of translation majors' variables on their translation learning strategy and related beliefs. Finally, the Pearson correlation between the MCSDS with both IBT and ITLS was performed to verify whether the respondents in this survey completed it in a socially desirable manner.

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the research design of the present study. Further, it describes the major findings of this survey, to be followed by a discussion in light of the pertinent research to date. Next, the chapter offers pedagogical implications and concludes with suggestions for further research.

#### 5.2 The Study

It is noteworthy that acquisition of translation competence requires strategic sub-competence which is “procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process and solve problems encountered” (Beeby et al., 2009, p. 208). More recently a series of recent Intercultural Studies and Foreign language Learning (ISFLL) volumes by Peter Lang publisher exploring a range of issues such as ‘Translation in Second Language Learning and Teaching’ (Witte, Harden, & Ramos de Oliveira Harden, 2009), ‘Teaching and Testing Interpreting and Translating’ (Pellatt, Griffiths, & Wu, 2010), and ‘Translation, Technology and Autonomy in Language Teaching and Learning’ (Alderete-Díez, Incalcaterra McLoughlin, NíDhonnchadha, & NíUigín, 2012) has been a promising development in this regard. However, translation strategies, unlike other language learning strategies, especially in relation to translation students, have not yet received adequate attention in the research to date. In addition, studies on learners’ socialization into target languages and related cultures in foreign language classrooms have been limited (Dufon, 2008). Therefore, in order to address this research gap, the present cross-sectional survey

attempted to explore Iranian translation students' translation strategy use, related beliefs, and an effect of other learner factors on their strategies and beliefs in a formal, university setting. Importantly, the research envisaged to collect comprehensive "factual, behavioural and attitudinal data about the respondents in a *non-evaluative* manner, without gauging ... [the participants'] performance against a set of criteria" (Dörnyei 2007, pp. 102–103). The study addressed the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do the Iranian translation students hold regarding translation use in English language learning?
2. What translation learning strategies do the translation majors reportedly use?
3. How do the Iranian students' beliefs about translation relate to their reported use of translation strategy?
4. Do learner factors have an effect on the respondents' beliefs about translation and translation strategy use?

This survey involved over 300 undergraduate students majoring in English translation from six branches of Islamic Azad University in Iran. Upon graduation, these students will obtain BA diplomas in English (both oral and written) translation. Of 320 students in the study, 160 participants were from Azad University branches in the capital, another 160 participants from the Azad University branches in the North. Further, 264 students were female, 56 male; most of them (61%) were within the 20–25 years age range; the academic achievement score of the majority of the participants was within the 12–16 average of a maximum of 20.

The study involved a questionnaire administration and the conducting of an

interview. It applied purposeful sampling in order to obtain rich and varied insights into the phenomena under investigation. The study employed an individual background questionnaire (IBQ); an inventory for beliefs about translation (IBT), based on a Likert scale of five: 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'neither agree nor disagree', 'agree', and 'strongly agree'; an inventory for translation learning strategies (ITLS), also based on a Likert scale of five: 'never', 'seldom', 'sometimes', 'often', and 'always', and an interview guided developed by Liao (2006).

The questionnaires were adapted for their administration in the Iranian EFL context. All the survey instruments were piloted with 30 volunteer Iranian translation students in Iran. Moreover, the Persian versions of the questionnaires and interview were prepared in order to provide participants, if need be, an opportunity to complete the survey in the native language. After securing permission to conduct the survey, the data in the present study were collected through an interview and administration of the IBQ, IBT, ITLS, and MCSDS. The participants were requested to provide their written consent and they did so by signing a consent form prior to the survey. All 340 respondents were given two versions, English and Persian, of the questionnaires, and they were free to choose either of them to complete. All the instructions during the piloting and survey administration were given in Farsi and the students were encouraged to ask any questions they had concerning the content or instructions of the survey. It took the respondents about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaires. It should be noted that the overwhelming majority of the translation majors chose to complete the survey in English. Subsequently, since 20 respondents did not return completed questionnaires, these students were eliminated from the data analysis.

The interview data were collected nearly a week after the questionnaire administration. The participants for the interview were selected following examination of the IBQ information on their academic status, and eight students with the average achievement score of 17 out of 20 and above, and another eight students with the average score of 16 and below were invited to participate, and they all gave their written consent. The semi-structured interview guide comprised nine items, the length of the interview varied from 30 minutes to one hour for the participants. Each interview was conducted in Farsi so that the interviewees could feel free to express in their native language their beliefs and share experiences related to translation. The questionnaire administration and interview sessions took place on the university campus premises.

Analysis of the quantitative questionnaire data was conducted by using the SPSS (Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences, version 17). Initially, descriptive statistics comprising frequencies, means, and standard deviations were computed in order to identify the patterns, if any, in the Iranian translation students' use of the translation strategies as well as related beliefs. Further, factor analysis was carried out in order to reveal the factors that underlie, hence account for variation across the participants' responses on the IBT and the ITLS. Furthermore, principal component analysis was applied and factors were rotated in order to obtain meaningful results. The constructed sets of factors were employed as composite variables in canonical correlation analysis to indicate the association between the two sets of factors derived from the Beliefs and the Translation Strategy Inventories. Subsequently, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine whether the Iranian translation majors' age, gender, university of study, academic achievement,

and self-rated English proficiency had any effect on their translation strategy use and related beliefs. Finally, the qualitative data which were collected through the open-ended questionnaire items as well as the semi-structured interview were content analysed. The reliability of the IBT in the present study was Cronbach's alpha .78, of the ITLS .93.

## **5.3 Major Findings**

### **5.3.1 Iranian Translation Students' Beliefs about Translation**

The majority of the Iranian translation students in this cross-sectional survey held favourable beliefs about the role of translation in their English language learning. Further, the translation majors expressed somewhat less positive as well as conflicting beliefs about using translation from the English to the Persian language. Furthermore, most of the participants seemed to have developed adequate translation skills in that they believed that they would not produce Persian-style English if they translated from L1 to L2. However, only some respondents would keep Persian out of mind when using the target language and they reported a preference that their teachers always use English. In addition, most of the translation majors expressed their belief in the necessity of immersion in the target culture for thinking in English, which is not available in the Iranian instructional context nowadays. However, a group of Iranian students reportedly felt pressure or tended to get frustrated when trying to think in English.

### **5.3.2 Iranian Translation Students' Use of Translation Strategies**

As regards employment of translation strategies in English language learning, the Iranian translation students reportedly exhibited a somewhat adequate repertoire and a medium frequency of strategy use. One major finding was that they frequently used eight L1-based translation strategies for compensation, cognitive and social purposes.

Another result was that their strategy repertoire mostly consisted of 16 strategies, used moderately though, for the acquisition of a range of language skills and lexico-grammar in English, as well as note-taking and practice. In this regard, an important finding was the translation majors also used these translation strategies with a promising degree of frequency for hypothesis testing, exploration, and practice.

### **5.3.3 Relationship between Translation Majors' Beliefs and Translation Language Learning Strategy Use**

The results of the factor analysis revealed four IBT factors, dealing with 'positive beliefs about translation in English language learning', 'reliance on L1 in English language learning', 'constraints on direct use of L2', and 'awareness of effects of L1 on English language learning'. In a similar vein, the analysis identified four ITLS factors, associated with 'use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English', 'use of translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English', 'use of resource-related and social translation strategies', and 'use of translation strategies for exploration and practice'. Multivariate tests of significance showed that the two sets of composite IBT and ITLS variables were significantly correlated ; the *F* test demonstrated that of four only two canonical correlations were statistically significant.

The first significant canonical correlation between IBT and ITLS established a positive association of both 'positive beliefs about translation in English language learning' (B1) and beliefs about 'reliance on L1 in English language learning' (B2) with 'use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English' (S1). The second significant correlation revealed a positive association of 'positive beliefs about translation in English language learning' (B1) with 'use of translation



strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English' (S2), and another positive association of beliefs about 'reliance on L1 in English language learning' (B2) with 'use of resource-related and social translation strategies' (S3).

Thus, our findings seemed to indicate that the translation students with strong positive beliefs about the role of translation in general and translation into their L1 specifically tended to apply translation strategies for acquisition of English language skills with higher frequency. Furthermore, the Iranian students with favourable beliefs about the role of translation tended to report using translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English frequently, and those with positive beliefs about reliance on their native language would frequently make use of resource-related and social translation strategies.

#### **5.3.4 Effect of Learner Factors on Iranian Translation Students' Use of Translation Strategies and Related Beliefs**

The multivariate analyses of variance found no significant main effect for the factors of age, gender, and self-rated English proficiency on the Iranian translation students' translation strategy use and related beliefs. Whereas it indicated a significant main effect for the university as well as academic achievement on the translation majors' beliefs and translation strategy use. These related results suggested that the translation students in the North held more positive beliefs about translation in English language learning and, consequently, benefitted more from the use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English than the translation majors in Tehran. Further, the analysis of findings seemed to indicate that the more successful Iranian students held less positive beliefs about translation in general and Persian translation specifically, and that they resorted to the Persian-based translation

strategies infrequently. Moreover, translation majors with higher achievement scores were more aware of L1 effects on their target language learning.

Importantly, the Iranian translation students' qualitative interview reports suggested that they did not have adequate learning and practice opportunities in their previous language studies, especially in terms of developing effective translation language learning strategies. Moreover, although the translation majors reported somewhat conflicting beliefs in their interviews, these were consistent with their open-ended responses on the IBT and ITLS, especially in terms of their favourable beliefs about translation in general, and use of translation strategies for the acquisition of language skills as well as lexico-grammar in English. Overall, the Iranian EFL learners were reportedly aware of the requirements and challenges of their prospective profession. Finally, the Pearson correlation carried out between the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale and both the IBT and the ITLS did not suggest evidence that the translation majors completed the cross-sectional survey in a socially favourable way.

#### **5.4 Discussion of Major Findings**

In this study, one of the major findings was the Iranian students' favourable beliefs about the role of translation in their English language learning, which was in line with the results of Liao's survey (2006) as well as the recent studies conducted in the Iranian context (Ashouri & Fotovatnia, 2010; Bagheri & Fazel, 2008; Raeiszadeh et al., 2012). Our result can be accounted for by the fact that the participants chose to major in translation, and were still developing their English, hence needed to resort to translation to L1. Further, the less positive and conflicting beliefs of the Iranian students about using translation from English to Persian in their target language learning suggested that the translation majors had different English proficiency levels

and relied on Persian to a varying degree. Furthermore, the less favourable beliefs might also be accounted for by the Iranian English teachers' preference for L2 use only in the language classroom. Whereas the more positive beliefs might be due to some EFL students' previous favourable experiences with translation into Persian and their reliance on the mother tongue which can serve as a significant resource to make up for their deficiencies as well as to facilitate their communication in the target language (Akbari, 2008; Corder, 1981).

In addition, this survey showed that a group of Iranian students reportedly felt pressure or tended to get frustrated when trying to think in English which seemed to indicate that they still experienced a cognitive load and some language barrier in this regard. Therefore, translation teachers and students should bear in mind that "it is through translations that linguistic and cultural barriers can be overcome" (House, 2008, p. 136). The overall result of medium frequency of strategy use on the part of translation majors in this survey warranted our attention since translation strategies play an indispensable role in the development of translation competence (Beeby et al., 2009). This result was at variance with the findings of Liao (2006) since the Taiwanese EFL college students in his study applied translation strategies more frequently than the Iranian EFL students in this survey. On the one hand, this can be surprising in that one would expect that translation majors should and do frequently employ translation strategies in their language learning and training. On the other hand, this result can be accounted for by some Iranian students' avoidance of using L1-based translation strategies due to their beliefs in the negative effects of L1 on L2 learning and use.

However, the finding of the effect of academic achievement on beliefs and translation strategies in this survey supported the results of Liao's survey (2006). The more successful Iranian students with less positive beliefs about translation in general and Persian translation specifically resorted to the Persian-based translation strategies infrequently. Moreover, translation majors with higher achievement scores were more aware of L1 effects on their target language learning. In a somewhat similar vein, in Liao's survey (2006) the Taiwanese college students majoring in foreign languages exhibited a tendency to believe that translation had negative effects on target language learning; hence they would avoid using L1-based strategies.

Our findings are in line with Oxford (2001) who emphasized the significant role of learning strategies in successful target language learning, however, at variance with Green and Oxford (1995) who reported greater strategy use by more proficient language learners. Further, our findings confirm Wharton's (2000) observation that the language learner profile and the nature of the instructional context influence learners' strategy repertoire and frequency of use. Importantly, since establishing the cause and effect in correlational studies is problematic (Ellis, 2008), we believe that the identified correlations between academic achievement, the university branch, beliefs about translation, and translation language learning strategy use were reciprocal, and that there were a host of variables at work in the instructional context. Also, we agree with Ellis (2008) who cautioned not to take the reported beliefs at face value since these may conflict with other factors and, importantly, learners may not always act upon them. Moreover, the more successful Iranian students might have been using translation strategies "in qualitatively different ways" as compared

to the less successful students (Ellis, 2008, p.703). In addition, as regards advanced students, the innovative instructional teaching trends advocate exploiting translation activities aimed at contrastive analysis in order to explore similarities and differences between the source and target languages (Edmondson & House, 2006, p. 146).

However, the Iranian translation students across all English proficiency levels may benefit from interactive classroom practices as well as home assignments involving lower-novice and higher-expert learners who can learn from each other in order to co-construct their translation competence from the novice to the expert stage (Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009, p. 176).

Importantly, the qualitative results of the present study suggested that the Iranian translation students were going through the socialization experiences (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986a, 1986b) to use the target language in that they were taught by their language and translation instructors-socializers what and how to express in English, as well as socialization through the use of language in that, in the absence of the exposure to the authentic target language use and native speakers in Iran, they were still engaged, inside and outside the classroom, in the acquisition of the target culture (Duff & Talmy, 2011; Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003), and aware of their roles of English language learners and prospective English translators and interpreters.

However, the Iranian translation students might not necessarily be engaged in learning the target culture at the expense of their mother tongue and cultural identity (Duff, 2003; House, 2003). Also, they might not be prone to integration to the inner

circle (Kachru, 1985) culture, rather interested in the acquisition of overall communicative competence, becoming expert users of the target language, gradually of the international discourse for inter- as well as cross- cultural prospective practices for a wide range – business, education or diplomacy – purposes (Dufon, 2008).

Within the framework of the socio-cultural paradigm that views second language acquisition as a mediated process (Lantolf, 2002), the findings of the present study also suggested the mediating role of the L1-source language in the Iranian translation students' professional learning, and their attempts to construct and maintain their "professional world". In addition, since translation students can be language learners simultaneously (Bergen, 2009) the participants' L1 also seemed to play a meta-cognitive role in their comprehension, generation, discussion and interpretation of various professional materials. The overall findings of the present survey therefore suggested that translation training, being part of professional practice, involving source and target languages and their respective contexts and complexities, was contributing to the Iranian translation trainees' understanding about and preparation for prospective practice; it also constituted a valuable individual, academic, professional, as well as socio-cultural experience.

## **5.5 Summary**

Translation language learning strategies, especially in relation to translation students, have not received adequate attention in the research to date. Therefore, the present study attempted to explore Iranian translation students' use of translation strategies, related beliefs and the effect of the factors of age, gender, university, academic achievement, and self-rated proficiency on their beliefs and strategy use. It was a cross-sectional survey involving questionnaires and an interview. The survey was

conducted with 320 undergraduate students majoring in English translation from six branches of Azad University in Iran. The results of the survey showed that the translation majors held mostly positive, somewhat conflicting beliefs though, about the role of translation in English language learning, that their repertoire and frequency of translation strategy use were not adequate yet, and, importantly that their university and academic achievement had an effect on their beliefs and strategy use.

The study findings revealed that the translation students with strong positive beliefs about the role of translation in general and translation into their native language specifically tended to apply translation strategies for acquisition of English language skills with higher frequency. Moreover, the translation majors with favourable beliefs about the role of translation tended to report using translation strategies for acquisition of lexico-grammar in English frequently, and those with positive beliefs about reliance on their mother tongue would frequently make use of resource-related and social translation strategies. Further, the translation students from the North branches of Azad University held more positive beliefs about translation in English language learning and benefitted more from the use of translation strategies for acquisition of language skills in English than the translation majors in Tehran. Importantly, the translation students with higher achievement scores were more aware of L1 effects on their target language learning. In light of its findings, the present study offers pedagogical implications and makes suggestions for further research.

## **5.6 Pedagogical Implications**

In light of the findings of the present study some implications for EFL instructional contexts as well as translation training practices are suggested, especially for those concerned with their learners' acquisition of inter-cultural competence. Language teachers and translation instructors can consider introducing a curriculum targeting inter-cultural competence, with special emphasis on learners' development of required target language knowledge, positive attitudes, as well as skills of interaction, exploration, comparison and interpretation (Byram, 1997). Further, since translation possesses an important pragmatic potential, language teachers and translation instructors can consider focusing not only on the formal features of the source and target languages, but also emphasize situational and contextual meanings of items in question. They are recommended to introduce a range of innovative translation activities encompassing comparison, creative production, and evaluation of translation versions and products across the source and target languages (House, 2008). Importantly, as the current socio-cultural view of language as well as critical pedagogy advocate, language educators and translation specialists should also take into account that learners' native language can play a monitoring role in their learning (Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001).

## **5.7 Suggestions for Further Research**

Prospective research can incorporate observation of English classes, as well as exploration of translation major students' actual application of translation language learning strategies. It can also consider involving English teachers' and subsequently translation trainers' perspectives in order to obtain deeper insights into their respective practices. Moreover, future research can undertake investigation of translation students' written/oral performance in English, as well as subsequently



their versions and products across the source and target languages which would provide evidence of translation majors' development of L2 competence and translation competence.

### **5.8 Final Remarks**

The overall findings of this cross-sectional survey seemed to indicate a complex inter-relation as well as mediation of various learner variables. We believe that the identified correlations between the Iranian translation students' academic achievement, university branches, beliefs about translation, and translation language learning strategy use were reciprocal, and that there were a host of variables at work in the instructional context under examination. Finally, we contend that translation has been and still remains a controversial issue in the field, and that translation language learning strategies require extensive research across various instructional settings.

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CO;2-H

## **APPENDICES**

## **Appendix A: Questionnaire Consent Form (English)**

### **CONSENT FORM**

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You are requested to participate in a survey conducted by Amir Asgarian, a Ph.D. candidate in ELT (English Language Teaching Department, Education Faculty), Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus. You have been selected as a prospective participant since this study aims to explore your beliefs about translation and use of translation strategy in the Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context.

If you agree to participate, the researcher will administer a set of questionnaires which will take you maximum one hour to complete. I assure you that your identity will remain confidential and your questionnaire data will be used for research purposes only.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relation with your institution. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Should you have any further questions please do not hesitate to contact the researcher,

Amir Asgarian (asgarianamir@yahoo.com; 0911-392-0340).

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**Date**

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**Name, Surname, and Signature of Participant**

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**Signature of Researcher**

## Appendix B: Questionnaire Consent Form (Persian)

### رضایت نامه

از شما تقاضا می شود در تحقیقی شرکت کنید که توسط امیر عسگریان دانشجوی دکتری آموزش زبان انگلیسی (واحد آموزش زبان انگلیسی، دانشکده ی آموزش) از دانشگاه مدیترانه شرقی واقع در قبرس شمال انجام می شود. از آنجایی که هدف از این تحقیق بررسی عقاید شما درباره ی ترجمه و استفاده از استراتژی ترجمه در محیط ایران (زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی) می باشد، شما به عنوان شرکت کننده ی احتمالی انتخاب شده اید.

در صورت تمایل شما برای شرکت در این تحقیق، محقق پرسش نامه ای را توزیع خواهد کرد که حد اکثر نیاز به یک ساعت زمان برای تکمیل دارد. به شما اطمینان می دهم که هویتتان محرمانه باقی خواهد ماند و آمار پرسش نامه صرفاً جهت اهداف تحقیقاتی استفاده خواهد شد.

تصمیم شما برای شرکت کردن یا نکردن در این تحقیق ارتباط آتی شما با دانشگاه محل تحصیلتان را تحت تاثیر قرار نخواهد داد. شما می توانید هر زمان از شرکت در این تحقیق انصراف دهید.

لطفاً اگر سوالات دیگری دارید بلافاصله با محقق تماس بگیرید،

امیر عسگریان (asgarianamir@yahoo.com; ۰۳۴۰-۰۳۹۲-۰۹۱۱).

اسم، فامیل و امضای شرکت کننده

تاریخ

امضای محقق

## Appendix C: Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) (English)

### Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)

This questionnaire is for research purpose only. Your answers will not be made available to anyone else but the researcher. Please fill in the following questions or check the proper answers.

1. Year of BA Studies: \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Student ID: \_\_\_\_\_

3. E-mail Address: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Recent Total Average Score: \_\_\_\_\_

5. Sex: \_\_\_ Male \_\_\_ Female 6. Age: \_\_\_\_\_

7. How long have you been learning English? \_\_\_\_\_

8. Have you ever traveled or lived in an English-speaking country?

\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_ No

If your answer is “Yes”, please answer the following questions:

(a) Which country/countries have you been to:

\_\_\_\_\_

(b) For how long:

\_\_\_\_\_

(c) Did the experience help you in learning English?

\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_ No

9. How do you rate your overall proficiency in English as compared with the proficiency of other students in your class?

\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_ Poor

10. How do you rate yourself in the language skills components listed below as compared with those of other students in your class?

(a) Reading:

\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_ Poor

(b) Writing:

\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_ Poor

(c) Listening:

\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_ Poor

(d) Speaking:

\_\_\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_\_\_ Poor

(e) Grammar:

\_\_\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_\_\_ Poor

(f) Vocabulary and idioms:

\_\_\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_\_\_ Poor

11. How do you rate your strength of motivation to learn English?

\_\_\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_\_\_ Poor

12. How important is it for you to become proficient in English?

\_\_\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_\_\_ Poor

13. How much effort do you spend on learning English?

\_\_\_\_\_ Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very good \_\_\_\_\_ Fair \_\_\_\_\_ Not good \_\_\_\_\_ Poor

14. On the average, how many hours do you spend every week studying English, outside of the English class?

\_\_\_\_\_ Less than 2 hours \_\_\_\_\_ 2 to 4 hours \_\_\_\_\_ 4 to 6 hours \_\_\_\_\_ 6 to 8 hours

\_\_\_\_\_ More than 8 hours

15. How much do you enjoy learning English?

\_\_\_\_\_ Not at all \_\_\_\_\_ Not much \_\_\_\_\_ Moderate \_\_\_\_\_ Much \_\_\_\_\_ Very much

## Appendix D: Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) (Persian)

### پرسش نامه اطلاعات فردی

این پرسش نامه صرفاً برای تحقیق می باشد. پاسخ های شما تنها در اختیار محقق و نه دیگران قرار خواهد گرفت. لطفاً جای خالی را کامل و یا با جواب مناسب مشخص کنید.

۱. دانشجوی سال: \_\_\_\_\_
۲. شماره دانشجویی: \_\_\_\_\_
۳. آدرس ایمیل: \_\_\_\_\_
۴. معدل کل: \_\_\_\_\_
۵. جنسیت: مرد \_\_\_\_\_ زن \_\_\_\_\_ سن: \_\_\_\_\_
۷. چه مدت است که مشغول فراگیری زبان انگلیسی هستید؟ \_\_\_\_\_
۸. آیا تا به حال به کشور انگلیسی زبان سفر و یا در آن زندگی کرده اید؟  
بلی \_\_\_\_\_ خیر \_\_\_\_\_  
چنانچه پاسخ شما مثبت است به سوالات زیر جواب دهید.  
الف. به کدام کشور و یا کشورها رفته اید؟ \_\_\_\_\_  
ب. چه مدت در آنجا بوده اید؟ \_\_\_\_\_  
ج. آیا تجربه ی این سفر در یادگیری زبان به شما کمک کرده است؟  
بلی \_\_\_\_\_ خیر \_\_\_\_\_
۹. مهارت کلی خود را در مقایسه با دیگر همکلاسی هایتان چطور می بینید؟  
عالی \_\_\_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_\_\_
۱۰. چگونه مهارتهای زبانی خود را بر طبق فهرستی که در زیر می بینید با همکلاسی هایتان مقایسه می کنید؟  
الف. خواندن  
عالی \_\_\_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_\_\_  
ب. نوشتن  
عالی \_\_\_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_\_\_  
ج. گوش دادن  
عالی \_\_\_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_\_\_  
د. صحبت کردن  
عالی \_\_\_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_\_\_  
ه. قواعد  
عالی \_\_\_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_\_\_

ی. کلمات و اصطلاحات

عالی \_\_\_ خیلی خوب \_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_ نه زیاد خوب \_\_\_ ضعیف \_\_\_

۱۱. میزان انگیزه خود را در یادگیری چگونه ارزیابی می کنید؟

اصلاً \_\_\_ نه زیاد \_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_ زیاد \_\_\_ خیلی زیاد \_\_\_

۱۲. چقدر داشتن مهارت در زبان انگلیسی برایتان مهم است؟

اصلاً \_\_\_ نه زیاد \_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_ زیاد \_\_\_ خیلی زیاد \_\_\_

۱۳. چقدر برای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی تلاش می کنید؟

اصلاً \_\_\_ نه زیاد \_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_ زیاد \_\_\_ خیلی زیاد \_\_\_

۱۴. به طور متوسط چند ساعت در هفته را خارج از کلاس زبان انگلیسی تان صرف یادگیری زبان می کنید؟

کمتر از ۲ ساعت \_\_\_ ۲ الی ۴ ساعت \_\_\_ ۴ الی ۶ ساعت \_\_\_ ۶ الی ۸ ساعت \_\_\_ بیش از ۸ ساعت \_\_\_

۱۵. چقدر از یادگیری زبان انگلیسی لذت می برید؟

اصلاً \_\_\_ نه زیاد \_\_\_ متوسط \_\_\_ زیاد \_\_\_ خیلی زیاد \_\_\_



## Appendix E: Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS)

(English)

### Social Desirability Scale

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally. It is best to answer the following items with your first judgment without spending too much time thinking over any one question.

Please encircle  “True” if the statement is true, and circle “False” if the statement is false to you personally.

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.  
**True**      **False**
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.  
**True**      **False**
3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.  
**True**      **False**
4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.  
**True**      **False**
5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.  
**True**      **False**
6. There have been occasions I took advantage of someone.  
**True**      **False**
7. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.  
**True**      **False**
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.  
**True**      **False**
9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.  
**True**      **False**

10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from mine.

**True      False**

11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.

**True      False**

12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.

**True      False**

13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

**True      False**

## Appendix F: Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS)

(Persian)

### مقیاس گرایش اجتماعی

در فهرست زیر سوالاتی در مورد دیدگاه و عقاید فردی شما پرسیده شده است. هر عبارت را بخوانید و سپس با توجه به نظر شخصی تان گزینه ی صحیح یا غلط را انتخاب کنید. بهتر است هر یک از گزینه‌ها را با توجه به اولین نظرتان و بدون صرف وقت زیاد برای فکر کردن بر روی هر یک از سؤالها جواب دهید. لطفاً با توجه به نظر شخصی تان، در صورت درست بودن عبارت دور گزینه ی صحیح و در صورت نادرست بودن عبارت دور گزینه ی غلط را دایره بکشید.

۱. اگر گاهی اوقات تشویق نشوم ادامه ی انجام کار برابم سخت است.

صحیح                      غلط

۲. گاهی اوقات از پیدا نکردن راهم احساس آزرده‌گی می‌کنم.

صحیح                      غلط

۳. در مواردی معدودی به علت دست کم گرفتن توانایی‌هایم از انجام کاری منصرف شده‌ام.

صحیح                      غلط

۴. در مواقعی در برابر افراد صاحب مسئولیتی ایستادگی کرده‌ام اگرچه می‌دانستم که حق با آنهاست.

صحیح                      غلط

۵. من همیشه شنونده ی خوبی هستم، حتی بدون توجه به اینکه با چه فردی صحبت می‌کنم.

صحیح                      غلط

۶. مواردی وجود داشته که از فردی سوء استفاده کرده‌ام.

صحیح                      غلط

۷. من همیشه حاضر به قبول اشتباهاتم هستم.

صحیح                      غلط

۸. بعضی مواقع سعی می‌کنم به جای فراموش کردن و بخشیدن، تلافی کنم.

صحیح                      غلط

۹. من همیشه مودب هستم، حتی با افراد ناسازگار.

صحیح                      غلط

۱۰. هیچوقت از افرادی که نظر خیلی متفاوت با نظر من ابراز می‌کنند رنجیده نشده‌ام.

صحیح                      غلط

۱۱. در مواقعی کاملاً به خوش شاسی دیگران حسودی کرد‌ام.

صحیح                      غلط

۱۲. گاهی اوقات از تقاضاهای دیگران برای انجام کاری دلخور شده ام.

صحیح غلط

۱۳. هیچوقت عمداً چیزی را نگفته ام که به احساسات دیگران لطمه بزند.

صحیح غلط

## **Appendix G: Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) (English)**

### **Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT)**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to understand what you think of, or your beliefs about, using translation for learning English. Translation here refers to using one language as a basis for understanding, remembering or producing another language. For example, using Persian to help you understand, remember, or produce English. For this questionnaire, assume that you are the person who does the translating, rather than you are using a translation done by someone else. Read each of the statements carefully and answer in terms of how well each statement describes what you believe about your English learning right now. (Decide whether you (1) SD=strongly disagree, (2) D=disagree, (3) N=neither agree nor disagree, (4) A=agree, or (5) SA=strongly agree by selecting the number that matches your choice among others.) Do not answer what you think you should do, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Please respond to each statement (encircle ) quickly, without too much thought.

#### **Item description**

#### **I. The following items concern translation in either from English to Persian or from Persian to English.**

1. Translating helps me understand textbook readings.  
**1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA**
2. Translating helps me write English compositions.  
**1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA**
3. Translating helps me understand spoken English.  
**1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA**
4. Translating helps me speak English.  
**1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA**
5. Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.  
**1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA**
6. Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.  
**1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA**

7. Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

8. Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

9. Is there anything else you want to add about translating either from English to Persian or from Persian to English? Please write it down in the space provided below.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**II. The following items concern translation from English to Persian**

10. Translation helps me understand my teacher’s English instructions.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

11. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

12. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

13. Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

14. Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

15. I like to use Persian translation to learn English.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

16. The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

17. Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

18. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

19. I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

20. Is there anything else you want to add about translating from English to Persian? Please write it down in the space provided below.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**III. The following item concerns translation from Persian to English**

21. I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

22. Is there anything else you want to add about translating from Persian to English? Please write it down in the space provided below.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**IV. The following items concern avoiding the use of translation**

23. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

24. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

25. I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

26. When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

27. I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.

1. SD 2. D 3. N 4. A 5. SA

28. Is there anything else you want to add about avoiding the use of translation?

Please write it down in the space provided below.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

29. What have your teachers or other people told you about using translation in learning English? Please write it down in the space provided below.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....



## Appendix H: Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) (Persian)

### عوامل تاثیر گذار بر عقاید مربوط به ترجمه

هدف از این پرسش نامه این است که نظرات و عقاید شما راجع به استفاده از ترجمه برای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی را بیابیم. منظور از ترجمه در این پرسش نامه، استفاده از یک زبان به عنوان پایه و اساس فهمیدن، به یاد آوردن و یا تولید زبانی دیگر است. برای مثال، استفاده از زبان فارسی برای کمک در یادگیری، به یاد آوردن و تولید زبان انگلیسی. در این پرسش نامه فرض کنید که شما فردی هستید که ترجمه می کنید، نه اینکه از ترجمه ای استفاده می کنید که توسط فردی دیگری انجام شده است. هر کدام از عبارات ها را با دقت مطالعه کنید و به هر عبارت با توجه اینکه چگونه نظرات شما را در مورد یادگیری زبان انگلیسی در حال حاضر توصیف می کند، پاسخ دهید. (شماره ی مناسب با نظرتان را از بین گزینه ها ی (۱) کاملاً مخالف، (۲) مخالف، (۳) نظری ندارم، (۴) موافق یا (۵) کاملاً موافق انتخاب کنید.) سوالات را بر اساس اینکه فکر کنید چه جوابی را باید بدهید و یا چه جوابی را می بایستی دیگران بدهند، پاسخ ندهید. هیچ پاسخ صحیح و یا غلطی برای این سوالات وجود ندارد. لطفاً به هر سوال سریع و بدون زیاد فکر کردن پاسخ دهید (دور جوابتان دایره بکشید).

### توضیح گزینه

الف: موارد زیر مربوط به ترجمه از انگلیسی به فارسی و یا از فارسی به انگلیسی است.

۱. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا متن ها ی کتاب را بفهمم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۲. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا انشای انگلیسی بنویسم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۳. ترجمه به من کمک می کند که وقتی فردی انگلیسی صحبت می کند آن را متوجه شوم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۴. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا انگلیسی صحبت کنم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۵. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا کلمات انگلیسی را به خاطر بسپارم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۶. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا قواعد انگلیسی را بفهمم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۷. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا عبارات و اصطلاحات انگلیسی را یاد بگیرم.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق
۸. ترجمه کمکی به روند یادگیری زبان انگلیسی ام نمی کند.
۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۹. آیا مطلب دیگری در مورد ترجمه از انگلیسی به فارسی یا از فارسی به انگلیسی وجود دارد که تمایل به اضافه کردن آن داشته باشید؟ لطفاً آن را در قسمت پایین یادداشت کنید.

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ب: موارد زیر مربوط به ترجمه از انگلیسی به فارسی است.

۱۰. ترجمه به من کمک می کند که درس دادن معلم به انگلیسی را متوجه شوم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۱. ترجمه به من کمک می کند تا بتوانم با همکلاسی های کلاس انگلیسی ام برای تکمیل تکالیف ارتباط برقرار کنم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۲. هرچه تکالیف انگلیسی مشکل تر باشند، بیشتر به ترجمه انگلیسی متوسل می شوم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۳. استفاده از ترجمه فارسی به من کمک می کند تا تکالیف انگلیسی ام را زودتر تمام کرده و در وقتم صرفه جویی کنم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۴. استفاده از ترجمه فارسی هنگام درس خواندن به من کمک می کند تا بهتر محتوای درس را به یاد بیاورم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۵. مایلیم از ترجمه فارسی برای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی استفاده کنم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۶. ممکن است استفاده از ترجمه فارسی در روند خوب یادگیری زبان انگلیسی من اختلال ایجاد کند.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۷. ترجمه فارسی میزان یادگیری زبان انگلیسی ام را کاهش می دهد.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۸. در این مرحله از یادگیری، نمی توانم زبان انگلیسی را بدون ترجمه فارسی یاد بگیرم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۱۹. فکر می کنم همه ناگزیر به استفاده از ترجمه فارسی در این مرحله از یادگیری باشند.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۰. آیا مطلب دیگری در مورد ترجمه از انگلیسی به فارسی وجود دارد که تمایل به اضافه کردن آن داشته باشید؟ لطفاً آن را در قسمت پایین یادداشت کنید.

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ج: موارد زیر مربوط به ترجمه از فارسی به انگلیسی است.

۲۱. چنانچه بخواهم از زبان فارسی به زبان انگلیسی ترجمه کنم، انگلیسی مانند فارسی تولید خواهم کرد.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۲. آیا مطلب دیگری وجود دارد که بخواهید در مورد ترجمه از زبان فارسی به زبان انگلیسی اضافه کنید. لطفاً آن را در قسمت پایین یادداشت کنید.

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د: موارد زیر مربوط به اجتناب از استفاده از ترجمه است.

۲۳. ترجیح می‌دهم معلم‌های زبان انگلیسی ام همیشه از زبان انگلیسی برای تدریس به من استفاده کنند.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۴. زمانی که از من خواسته شود تا مستقیماً به زبان انگلیسی فکر کنم، احساس می‌کنم تحت فشار هستم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۵. زمانی که سعی می‌کنم به انگلیسی فکر کنم، احساس خستگی می‌کنم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۶. بهتر است زمانی که از زبان انگلیسی استفاده می‌کنم، زبان فارسی را از ذهن خود دور نگه دارم.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۷. معتقدم قبل از اینکه کسی بتواند به زبان انگلیسی فکر کند، باید مدتی در محیط انگلیسی زبان قرار گیرد.

۱. کاملاً مخالف ۲. مخالف ۳. نظری ندارم ۴. موافق ۵. کاملاً موافق

۲۸. آیا مطلب دیگری وجود دارد که بخواهید در مورد اجتناب از ترجمه اضافه کنید؟ لطفاً آن را در قسمت پایین یادداشت کنید.

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۲۹. نظر معلم‌هایتان و دیگر افراد در مورد استفاده از ترجمه انگلیسی چیست؟ لطفاً آن را در قسمت پایین یادداشت کنید.

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## Appendix I: Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS) (English)

### Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify ways that you use translation as a learning strategy to learn English. Translation here refers to using one language as a basis for understanding, remembering or producing another language. For example, using Persian to help you understand, remember, or produce English. (Read the following statements carefully and answer in terms of how well the statement describes you currently by selecting one of the numbers whether you: (1) never, (2) seldom, (3) sometimes, (4) often, or (5) always use the following strategies.) Remember, the questions refer to what you naturally tend to do, not what teachers assign you to do. Do not answer what you think you should do, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Please respond to each statement (encircle  ) quickly, without too much thought.

#### **Item description**

1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
2. I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
3. After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
4. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
5. When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**

6. I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
7. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
8. I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
9. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
10. I listen to or read Persian news in order to understand English radio/TV news better.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
11. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
12. If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
13. I memorize new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
14. I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
15. I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech (e.g. noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, etc.), tenses (simple present, simple past, present continuous, etc.), and agreements (e.g. third person singular 's' used in singular subject-verb agreement) to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
16. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**

17. I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
18. I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
19. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
20. If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
21. I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
22. When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
23. I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
24. I take notes in Persian in my English class.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
25. I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
26. I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
27. When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**
28. When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.  
**1. Never 2. Seldom 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always**

29. What else do you think about using translation to learn English which is not included above? Please write it down in the space provided below.

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## Appendix J: Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy

### (ITLS) (Persian)

#### عوامل تاثیر گذار بر ترجمه به عنوان استراتژی یادگیری

هدف از این پرسش نامه این است که نظرات و عقاید شما راجع به استفاده از ترجمه برای یادگیری زبان را بیابیم. منظور از ترجمه در این پرسش نامه، استفاده از یک زبان به عنوان پایه و اساس فهمیدن، به یاد آوردن و یا تولید زبانی دیگر است. برای مثال، استفاده از زبان فارسی برای کمک در یادگیری، به یاد آوردن و تولید زبان انگلیسی. در این پرسش نامه فرض کنید که شما فردی هستید که ترجمه می کنید، نه اینکه از ترجمه ای استفاده می کنید که توسط فردی دیگری انجام شده است. (عبارت های زیر را با دقت مطالعه کنید و با توجه به اینکه هر کدام چقدر مشابه نظرات فعلی شما را در مورد یادگیری زبان انگلیسی توصیف می کند، یکی از شماره ها را از بین گزینه های (۱) هرگز، (۲) به ندرت، (۳) گاهی اوقات، (۴) اغلب یا (۵) همیشه از این استراتژی ها استفاده می کنم، انتخاب کنید.) به یاد داشته باشید که سوالات مربوط می شوند به آنچه که شما به طور معمول مایل به انجام آن هستید، نه به آنچه که معلم ها برای تکلیف شما تعیین می کنند. سوالات را بر اساس اینکه فکر کنید چه جوابی را باید بدهید و یا چه جوابی را می بایستی دیگران بدهند، پاسخ ندهید. هیچ پاسخ صحیح و یا غلطی برای این سوالات وجود ندارد. لطفاً به هر سوال سریع و بدون زیاد فکر کردن پاسخ دهید (دور جوابتان دایره بکشید).

#### توضیح گزینه

۱. زمانی که یک متن انگلیسی را می خوانم، ابتدا آنرا در ذهنم به فارسی ترجمه می کنم تا معانی را بهتر بفهمم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲. من ترجمه ی فارسی کتاب درسی معرفی شده را می خوانم تا بهتر متوجه مقالات انگلیسی در آن کتاب شوم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۳. بعد از مطالعه مقالات انگلیسی، از ترجمه فارسی موجود برای امتحان درستی فهمم از مقاله استفاده می کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۴. برای نوشتن به انگلیسی، ابتدا موضوع را در ذهنم به فارسی بررسی می کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۵. زمانی که به انگلیسی می نویسم، ابتدا به فارسی فکر کرده و سپس افکارم را به انگلیسی ترجمه می کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه



۶. برای انشاهای انگلیسی ام، خلاصه فارسی می نویسم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۷. زمانی که به انگلیسی گوش می دهم، ابتدا آن را به فارسی معنی می کنم تا کمک کند بهتر متوجه معانی آن شوم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۸. قبل از اینکه به نوارها یا سی دی های آموزش انگلیسی گوش کنم، متن ترجمه فارسی آن را می خوانم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۹. زمانی که فیلم یا تلویزیون به زبان انگلیسی تماشا می کنم، از زیرنویس فارسی برای امتحان فهم از آن استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۰. برای بهتر فهمیدن اخبار انگلیسی رادیو و تلویزیون، اخبار فارسی را هم گوش می دهم یا می خوانم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۱. زمانی که می خواهم به انگلیسی صحبت کنم، ابتدا فکر می کنم که به فارسی چه می خواهم بگویم و سپس به انگلیسی ترجمه می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۲. چنانچه معنی انگلیسی کلمه یا اصطلاحی را درحین صحبت کردن فراموش کنم، آنرا از فارسی به انگلیسی ترجمه می کنم تا به من کمک کند که به صحبت کردن ادامه دهم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۳. کلمات جدید انگلیسی را از طریق به یاد آوردن ترجمه فارسی شان حفظ می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۴. قواعد انگلیسی را از طریق توضیحات فارسی آن یاد می گیرم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۵. من از ترجمه فارسی عبارت های گرامری مانند اقسام کلمه (مثال: اسم، فعل، صفت، قید، ضمیر و غیره)، زمانها (حال ساده، گذشته ساده، حال استمراری و غیره) و مطابقت (مثال: 's' سوم شخص مفرد) برای یافتن نقش گرامری جملات انگلیسی استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۶. اصطلاحات و عبارات انگلیسی را از طریق ترجمه فارسی آنها یاد می گیرم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۷. برای کمک به یادگیری زبان انگلیسی ام از فرهنگ لغات انگلیسی - فارسی استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۸. برای کمک به یادگیری زبان انگلیسی ام از فرهنگ لغات فارسی - انگلیسی استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه
۱۹. برای کمک به یادگیری زبان انگلیسی ام از ترجمه ماشینی استفاده می کنم.
۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۰. چنانچه چیزی را به زبان انگلیسی متوجه نشوم، از شخص دیگری می‌خواهم تا آن را برایم به فارسی ترجمه کند.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۱. درمورد اینکه چگونه یک اصطلاح فارسی می‌تواند به انگلیسی ترجمه شود، سوالاتی می‌پرسم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۲. زمانی که معلم مقاله‌ای را به عنوان تکلیف خواندن تعیین می‌کند، با دیگران همگروه می‌شوم تا آنرا ترجمه کنیم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۳. در موقعیت‌های مختلف، افکارم را برای تمرین به صورت ذهنی از فارسی به انگلیسی ترجمه می‌کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۴. در کلاس انگلیسی‌ام، به زبان فارسی یادداشت‌هایی بر می‌دارم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۵. در کتاب‌های انگلیسی‌ام ترجمه فارسی می‌نویسم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۶. سعی می‌کنم تا درحین ترجمه تفاوتها و شباهتهای بین زبان فارسی و انگلیسی را مشخص کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۷. زمانی که انگلیسی می‌خوانم، سعی می‌کنم تا معنی آنچه را که می‌خوانم بدون فکر کردن به معادل فارسی آن بفهمم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۸. در هنگام صحبت به زبان انگلیسی، درمورد آنچه می‌خواهم بگویم به انگلیسی فکر می‌کنم بدون اینکه ابتدا به فارسی فکر کنم.

۱. هرگز ۲. به ندرت ۳. گاهی اوقات ۴. اغلب ۵. همیشه

۲۹. آیا به نظر شما مطلب دیگری درمورد استفاده از ترجمه برای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی وجود دارد که در سوالات بالا در نظر نگرفته شده باشد؟ لطفاً آن را در قسمت پایین یادداشت کنید.

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## **Appendix K: Interview Consent Form (English)**

### **CONSENT FORM**

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You are requested to participate in an interview conducted by Amir Asgarian, a Ph.D. candidate in ELT (English Language Teaching Department, Education Faculty), Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus. You have been selected as a prospective participant since this study aims to explore your beliefs about translation and use of translation strategy in the Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context.

If you agree to participate, the researcher will conduct an interview with you which will last maximum one hour. I assure you that your identity will remain confidential and your interview data will be used for research purposes only.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relation with your institution. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Should you have any further questions please do not hesitate to contact the researcher,

Amir Asgarian (asgarianamir@yahoo.com; 0911-392-0340).

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**Date**

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**Name, Surname, and Signature of Participant**

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**Signature of Researcher**

## Appendix L: Interview Consent Form (Persian)

### رضایت نامه

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از شما تقاضا می شود در مصاحبه ای شرکت کنید که توسط امیر عسگریان دانشجوی دکترای آموزش زبان انگلیسی (واحد آموزش زبان انگلیسی، دانشکده ی آموزش) از دانشگاه مدیترانه شرقی واقع در قبرس شمال انجام می شود. از آنجایی که هدف از این تحقیق بررسی عقاید شما درباره ی ترجمه و استفاده از استراتژی ترجمه در محیط ایران (زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی) می باشد، شما به عنوان شرکت کننده ی احتمالی انتخاب شده اید.

در صورت تمایل شما برای شرکت در این تحقیق، محقق پرسش نامه ای را توزیع خواهد کرد که حد اکثر نیاز به یک ساعت زمان برای تکمیل دارد. به شما اطمینان می دهم که هویتتان محرمانه باقی خواهد ماند و آمار پرسش نامه صرفاً جهت اهداف تحقیقاتی استفاده خواهد شد.

تصمیم شما برای شرکت کردن یا نکردن در این تحقیق ارتباط آتی شما با دانشگاه محل تحصیلتان را تحت تاثیر قرار نخواهد داد. شما می توانید هر زمان از شرکت در این تحقیق انصراف دهید.

لطفاً اگر سوالات دیگری دارید بلافاصله با محقق تماس بگیرید،

امیر عسگریان (asgarianamir@yahoo.com; ۰۳۴۰-۳۹۲-۰۹۱۱).

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اسم، فامیل و امضای شرکت کننده

تاریخ

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امضای محقق

## **Appendix M: Interview Guide (English)**

### **INTERVIEW GUIDE**

1. I understand that English teachers in Iran sometimes have to use both Persian and English in the classroom. What do you think teachers' reasons are in this respect?
2. In the past, your language teachers, parents, or peers may have given you some advice about learning English. Have you ever been asked not to use translation to learn English, rather to think directly in English for learning or using the target language? If so, what do you think of this advice?
3. Iranian learners often use Persian or translation to help them learn English (for instance, the use of Persian-English dictionaries). Do you also do and how do you feel about that?
4. What do you think about possible effects of using Persian or translation on learning English?
5. Do you benefit from using translation in your studies? How?
6. What proficiency level can benefit most from using translation? Why?
7. What language skills do you feel can be strengthened the most from using translation? Why?
8. Do you think that English learners can eliminate their habit of using translation gradually as they progress in English language learning? If yes, how?
9. Is there anything else you would like to say about your experience or your thoughts about using translation in English language learning?
10. What do you think about your translation program? Do you have any suggestion(s) in this regard?

## Appendix N: Interview Guide (Persian)

### سوالات مصاحبه

۱. گاهی اوقات معلم‌ها در ایران از هر دو زبان انگلیسی و فارسی در کلاس زبان استفاده می‌کنند. به نظر شما دلایل معلم‌ها برای انجام این کار چیست؟
۲. ممکن است در گذشته معلم‌های زبان، پدر و مادر، و یا همکلاسی‌هایتان پیشنهادهایی در مورد یادگیری زبان انگلیسی به شما داده باشند. آیا تا کنون به شما پیشنهاد شده که از ترجمه در یادگیری زبان استفاده نکنید و به جای آن برای یادگیری به طور مستقیم به زبان انگلیسی فکر کنید و یا از آن استفاده کنید؟ اگر اینگونه بوده نظرتان در مورد این پیشنهاد چیست؟
۳. زبان آموزان ایرانی معمولاً از زبان فارسی یا ترجمه برای کمک به یادگیری زبان انگلیسی استفاده میکنند (برای مثال از فرهنگ لغات فارسی به انگلیسی استفاده می‌کنند). آیا در مورد شما هم اینگونه است و در مورد آن چه نظری دارید؟
۴. در مورد تاثیرات احتمالی استفاده از زبان فارسی یا ترجمه در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی چه فکر می‌کنید؟
۵. آیا استفاده از ترجمه در مطالعات شما مفید بوده؟ چگونه؟
۶. زبان آموزان در چه سطح یا مقطعی می‌توانند بیشتر از ترجمه بهره مند شوند؟ چرا؟
۷. به نظر شما کدام یک از مهارت‌های زبانی (گوش کردن، خواندن، نوشتن، صحبت کردن) بیشتر می‌توانند در اثر استفاده از ترجمه قوی‌تر شوند؟
۸. آیا به نظر شما زبان آموزان می‌توانند عادت استفاده از ترجمه را همانگونه که در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی پیشرفت می‌کنند از بین ببرند؟
۹. آیا چیز دیگری با توجه به تجربه‌ی فردی یا عقایدتان در مورد استفاده از ترجمه در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی وجود دارد که مایل به گفتن آن باشید؟
۱۰. در مورد رشته‌ی مترجمی در ایران چه نظری دارید؟ آیا پیشنهادی در مورد این رشته دارید؟

## Appendix O: Frequencies of Responses on IBT

### 1. Translating helps me understand textbook readings.

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	15	4.7	4.7	4.7
Disagree	18	5.6	5.6	10.3
Neither agree nor disagree	36	11.3	11.3	21.6
Agree	188	58.8	58.8	80.3
Strongly agree	63	19.7	19.7	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

### 2. Translating helps me write English compositions.

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	21	6.6	6.6	6.6
Disagree	48	15.0	15.0	21.6
Neither agree nor disagree	88	27.5	27.5	49.1
Agree	125	39.1	39.1	88.1
Strongly agree	38	11.9	11.9	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

### 3. Translating helps me understand spoken English.

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	20	6.3	6.3	6.3
Disagree	44	13.8	13.8	20.0
Neither agree nor disagree	45	14.1	14.1	34.1
Agree	137	42.8	42.8	76.9
Strongly agree	74	23.1	23.1	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**4. Translating helps me speak English.**

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	34	10.6	10.6	10.6
Disagree	69	21.6	21.6	32.2
Neither agree nor disagree	57	17.8	17.8	50.0
Agree	124	38.8	38.8	88.8
Strongly agree	36	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**5. Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.**

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	19	5.9	5.9	5.9
Disagree	28	8.8	8.8	14.7
Neither agree nor disagree	27	8.4	8.4	23.1
Agree	161	50.3	50.3	73.4
Strongly agree	85	26.6	26.6	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**6. Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.**

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	27	8.4	8.4	8.4
Disagree	52	16.3	16.3	24.7
Neither agree nor disagree	55	17.2	17.2	41.9
Agree	124	38.8	38.8	80.6
Strongly agree	62	19.4	19.4	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	



**7. Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	15	4.7	4.7	4.7
Disagree	20	6.3	6.3	10.9
Neither agree nor disagree	32	10.0	10.0	20.9
Agree	162	50.6	50.6	71.6
Strongly agree	91	28.4	28.4	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**8. Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	12	3.8	3.8	3.8
Disagree	42	13.1	13.1	16.9
Neither agree nor disagree	30	9.4	9.4	26.3
Agree	147	45.9	45.9	72.2
Strongly agree	89	27.8	27.8	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.

**10. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	28	8.8	8.8	8.8
Disagree	44	13.8	13.8	22.5
Neither agree nor disagree	49	15.3	15.3	37.8
Agree	154	48.1	48.1	85.9
Strongly disagree	45	14.1	14.1	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**11. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	17	5.3	5.3	5.3
Disagree	51	15.9	15.9	21.3
Neither agree nor disagree	86	26.9	26.9	48.1
Agree	137	42.8	42.8	90.9
Strongly agree	29	9.1	9.1	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**12. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	24	7.5	7.5	7.5
Disagree	54	16.9	16.9	24.4
Neither agree nor disagree	61	19.1	19.1	43.4
Agree	132	41.3	41.3	84.7
Strongly agree	49	15.3	15.3	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**13. Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	18	5.6	5.6	5.6
Disagree	77	24.1	24.1	29.7
Neither agree nor disagree	71	22.2	22.2	51.9
Agree	115	35.9	35.9	87.8
Strongly agree	39	12.2	12.2	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**14. Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	19	5.9	5.9	5.9
Disagree	43	13.4	13.4	19.4
Neither agree nor disagree	41	12.8	12.8	32.2
Agree	155	48.4	48.4	80.6
Strongly agree	62	19.4	19.4	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**15. I like to use Persian translation to learn English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	52	16.3	16.3	16.3
Disagree	83	25.9	25.9	42.2
Neither agree nor disagree	62	19.4	19.4	61.6
Agree	87	27.2	27.2	88.8
Strongly agree	36	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**16. The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	44	13.8	13.8	13.8
Disagree	120	37.5	37.5	51.3
Neither agree nor disagree	75	23.4	23.4	74.7
Agree	65	20.3	20.3	95.0
Strongly agree	16	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.

**17. Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.**

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	37	11.6	11.6	11.6
Disagree	96	30.0	30.0	41.6
Neither agree nor disagree	88	27.5	27.5	69.1
Agree	82	25.6	25.6	94.7
Strongly agree	17	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.

**18. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.**

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	59	18.4	18.4	18.4
Disagree	118	36.9	36.9	55.3
Neither agree nor disagree	51	15.9	15.9	71.3
Agree	71	22.2	22.2	93.4
Strongly agree	21	6.6	6.6	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**19. I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.**

	Frequency Percent		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	47	14.7	14.7	14.7
Disagree	91	28.4	28.4	43.1
Neither agree nor disagree	90	28.1	28.1	71.3
Agree	69	21.6	21.6	92.8
Strongly agree	23	7.2	7.2	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**21. I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	53	16.6	16.6	16.6
Disagree	109	34.1	34.1	50.6
Neither agree nor disagree	50	15.6	15.6	66.3
Agree	80	25.0	25.0	91.3
Strongly agree	28	8.8	8.8	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**23. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	120	37.5	37.5	37.5
Disagree	100	31.3	31.3	68.8
Neither agree nor disagree	18	5.6	5.6	74.4
Agree	65	20.3	20.3	94.7
Strongly agree	17	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.

**24. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	46	14.4	14.4	14.4
Disagree	102	31.9	31.9	46.3
Neither agree nor disagree	35	10.9	10.9	57.2
Agree	101	31.6	31.6	88.8
Strongly agree	36	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**25. I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	64	20.0	20.0	20.0
Disagree	132	41.3	41.3	61.3
Neither agree nor disagree	48	15.0	15.0	76.3
Agree	63	19.7	19.7	95.9
Strongly agree	13	4.1	4.1	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**26. When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	61	19.1	19.1	19.1
Disagree	113	35.3	35.3	54.4
Neither agree nor disagree	58	18.1	18.1	72.5
Agree	64	20.0	20.0	92.5
Strongly agree	24	7.5	7.5	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.

**27. I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	12	3.8	3.8	3.8
Disagree	44	13.8	13.8	17.5
Neither agree nor disagree	67	20.9	20.9	38.4
Agree	106	33.1	33.1	71.6
Strongly agree	91	28.4	28.4	100.0
Total	320	100.0	100.0	

## Appendix P: Frequencies of Responses on ITLS

### 1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	34	10.6	10.6	10.6
	Seldom	70	21.9	21.9	32.5
	Sometimes	99	30.9	30.9	63.4
	Often	68	21.3	21.3	84.7
	Always	49	15.3	15.3	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

### 2. I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	93	29.1	29.1	29.1
	Seldom	97	30.3	30.3	59.4
	Sometimes	65	20.3	20.3	79.7
	Often	44	13.8	13.8	93.4
	Always	21	6.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

### 3. After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	72	22.5	22.5	22.5
	Seldom	78	24.4	24.4	46.9
	Sometimes	93	29.1	29.1	75.9
	Often	56	17.5	17.5	93.4
	Always	21	6.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**4. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	44	13.8	13.8	13.8
	Seldom	54	16.9	16.9	30.6
	Sometimes	87	27.2	27.2	57.8
	Often	86	26.9	26.9	84.7
	Always	49	15.3	15.3	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**5. When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	60	18.8	18.8	18.8
	Seldom	62	19.4	19.4	38.1
	Sometimes	72	22.5	22.5	60.6
	Often	68	21.3	21.3	81.9
	Always	58	18.1	18.1	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**6. I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	141	44.1	44.1	44.1
	Seldom	65	20.3	20.3	64.4
	Sometimes	40	12.5	12.5	76.9
	Often	46	14.4	14.4	91.3
	Always	28	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	



**7. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	80	25.0	25.0	25.0
	Seldom	78	24.4	24.4	49.4
	Sometimes	63	19.7	19.7	69.1
	Often	60	18.8	18.8	87.8
	Always	39	12.2	12.2	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**8. I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	184	57.5	57.5	57.5
	Seldom	63	19.7	19.7	77.2
	Sometimes	39	12.2	12.2	89.4
	Often	24	7.5	7.5	96.9
	Always	10	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**9. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	32	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Seldom	73	22.8	22.8	32.8
	Sometimes	102	31.9	31.9	64.7
	Often	77	24.1	24.1	88.8
	Always	36	11.3	11.3	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**10. I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	84	26.3	26.3	26.3
	Seldom	75	23.4	23.4	49.7
	Sometimes	88	27.5	27.5	77.2
	Often	54	16.9	16.9	94.1
	Always	19	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**11. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	47	14.7	14.7	14.7
	Seldom	62	19.4	19.4	34.1
	Sometimes	81	25.3	25.3	59.4
	Often	84	26.3	26.3	85.6
	Always	46	14.4	14.4	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**12. If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	37	11.6	11.6	11.6
	Seldom	74	23.1	23.1	34.7
	Sometimes	102	31.9	31.9	66.6
	Often	80	25.0	25.0	91.6
	Always	27	8.4	8.4	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**13. I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	44	13.8	13.8	13.8
	Seldom	69	21.6	21.6	35.3
	Sometimes	98	30.6	30.6	65.9
	Often	74	23.1	23.1	89.1
	Always	35	10.9	10.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**14. I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	69	21.6	21.6	21.6
	Seldom	88	27.5	27.5	49.1
	Sometimes	62	19.4	19.4	68.4
	Often	63	19.7	19.7	88.1
	Always	38	11.9	11.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**15. I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	65	20.3	20.3	20.3
	Seldom	82	25.6	25.6	45.9
	Sometimes	80	25.0	25.0	70.9
	Often	61	19.1	19.1	90.0
	Always	32	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**16. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	39	12.2	12.2	12.2
	Seldom	73	22.8	22.8	35.0
	Sometimes	87	27.2	27.2	62.2
	Often	84	26.3	26.3	88.4
	Always	37	11.6	11.6	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**17. I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	30	9.4	9.4	9.4
	Seldom	61	19.1	19.1	28.4
	Sometimes	92	28.8	28.8	57.2
	Often	83	25.9	25.9	83.1
	Always	54	16.9	16.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**18. I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	50	15.6	15.6	15.6
	Seldom	90	28.1	28.1	43.8
	Sometimes	98	30.6	30.6	74.4
	Often	53	16.6	16.6	90.9
	Always	29	9.1	9.1	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**19. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	127	39.7	39.7	39.7
	Seldom	70	21.9	21.9	61.6
	Sometimes	60	18.8	18.8	80.3
	Often	41	12.8	12.8	93.1
	Always	22	6.9	6.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**20. If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	44	13.8	13.8	13.8
	Seldom	74	23.1	23.1	36.9
	Sometimes	123	38.4	38.4	75.3
	Often	60	18.8	18.8	94.1
	Always	19	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**21. I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	26	8.1	8.1	8.1
	Seldom	64	20.0	20.0	28.1
	Sometimes	117	36.6	36.6	64.7
	Often	84	26.3	26.3	90.9
	Always	29	9.1	9.1	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**22. When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	58	18.1	18.1	18.1
	Seldom	96	30.0	30.0	48.1
	Sometimes	93	29.1	29.1	77.2
	Often	57	17.8	17.8	95.0
	Always	16	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**item23. I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	30	9.4	9.4	9.4
	Seldom	87	27.2	27.2	36.6
	Sometimes	116	36.3	36.3	72.8
	Often	65	20.3	20.3	93.1
	Always	22	6.9	6.9	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**24. I take notes in Persian in my English class.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	73	22.8	22.8	22.8
	Seldom	89	27.8	27.8	50.6
	Sometimes	75	23.4	23.4	74.1
	Often	57	17.8	17.8	91.9
	Always	26	8.1	8.1	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**25. I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	61	19.1	19.1	19.1
	Seldom	96	30.0	30.0	49.1
	Sometimes	88	27.5	27.5	76.6
	Often	52	16.3	16.3	92.8
	Always	23	7.2	7.2	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**26. I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	34	10.6	10.6	10.6
	Seldom	83	25.9	25.9	36.6
	Some times	105	32.8	32.8	69.4
	Often	77	24.1	24.1	93.4
	Always	21	6.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

**27. When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	46	14.4	14.4	14.4
	Seldom	103	32.2	32.2	46.6
	Sometimes	107	33.4	33.4	80.0
	Often	49	15.3	15.3	95.3
	Always	15	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.

**28. When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	31	9.7	9.7	9.7
	Seldom	86	26.9	26.9	36.6
	Sometimes	98	30.6	30.6	67.2
	Often	82	25.6	25.6	92.8
	Always	23	7.2	7.2	100.0
	Total	320	100.0	100.0	

*Note:* This item was scored reversely.



## Appendix Q: Factor Analysis Results for IBT

### Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.460	26.916	26.916	6.460	26.916	26.916
2	2.341	9.756	36.672	2.341	9.756	36.672
3	1.649	6.871	43.543	1.649	6.871	43.543
4	1.300	5.415	48.958	1.300	5.415	48.958
5	1.106	4.610	53.568	1.106	4.610	53.568
6	1.029	4.287	57.855	1.029	4.287	57.855
7	.994	4.142	61.997			
8	.896	3.735	65.732			
9	.823	3.429	69.162			
10	.777	3.236	72.398			
11	.696	2.901	75.299			
12	.672	2.800	78.099			
13	.596	2.484	80.582			
14	.584	2.433	83.016			
15	.560	2.335	85.351			
16	.528	2.199	87.550			
17	.465	1.939	89.489			
18	.452	1.883	91.372			
19	.421	1.756	93.128			
20	.407	1.694	94.822			
21	.357	1.488	96.309			
22	.337	1.403	97.713			
23	.298	1.240	98.953			
24	.251	1.047	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
1. Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	.636			
2. Translating helps me write English compositions.	.630			
3. Translating helps me understand spoken English.	.699			
4. Translating helps me speak English.	.683			
5. Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	.677			
6. Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	.708			
7. Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	.744			
8. Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	-.616			
10. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	.573	.491		
11. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	.506	.481		
12. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.		.667		
13. Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.		.584		
14. Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	.376	.567		
15. I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	.344	.537	.307	
16. The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.				.712
17. Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.				.735
18. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.		.470	.447	
19. I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.		.547	.327	
21. I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.				
23. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.			-.472	.565
24. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.			.784	

Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup> (cont.)

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25. I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	.769
26. When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	.419
27. I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	.439

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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

## Appendix R: Factor Analysis Results for ITLS

### Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.648	38.029	38.029	10.648	38.029	38.029
2	1.692	6.042	44.071	1.692	6.042	44.071
3	1.208	4.313	48.383	1.208	4.313	48.383
4	1.123	4.009	52.392	1.123	4.009	52.392
5	1.050	3.749	56.141	1.050	3.749	56.141
6	.973	3.476	59.618			
7	.926	3.307	62.925			
8	.881	3.145	66.070			
9	.790	2.821	68.891			
10	.753	2.690	71.581			
11	.727	2.597	74.178			
12	.680	2.428	76.606			
13	.587	2.097	78.703			
14	.575	2.055	80.757			
15	.539	1.926	82.683			
16	.517	1.847	84.530			
17	.504	1.801	86.331			
18	.474	1.691	88.022			
19	.441	1.574	89.596			
20	.422	1.508	91.103			
21	.403	1.438	92.542			
22	.369	1.317	93.858			
23	.348	1.242	95.100			
24	.331	1.183	96.283			
25	.310	1.107	97.390			
26	.272	.972	98.362			
27	.263	.939	99.301			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	.649	.428		
2. I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.	.433	.491	.339	
3. After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.		.508	.386	
4. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	.802			
5. When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	.778	.331		
6. I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	.647			
7. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	.657	.366		
8. I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	.453		.484	
9. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	.490	.444		
10. I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.			.305	
11. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	.716	.387		
12. If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	.543	.412		
13. I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.		.736		
14. I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	.367	.648		
15. I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.		.648		

Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup> (cont.)

16. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	.316	.674	
17. I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.		.619	
18. I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.		.550	
19. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.		.767	
20. If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	.413	.416	.339
21. I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.			.695
22. When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	.358	.352	.379
23. I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	.437	.462	
24. I take notes in Persian in my English class.	.482		
25. I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	.527		
26. I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.			.620
27. When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.			- .477
28. When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	.648		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

## Appendix S: Factor Score Coefficient Matrix for IBT

Component Score Coefficient Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
1. Translating helps me understand textbook readings.	.132	.027	-.028	-.044
2. Translating helps me write English compositions.	.176	-.112	.066	-.056
3. Translating helps me understand spoken English.	.159	-.011	-.022	-.029
4. Translating helps me speak English.	.162	-.033	-.026	-.006
5. Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary.	.182	-.103	.029	-.002
6. Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.	.173	-.055	-.001	-.009
7. Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	.206	-.119	-.020	.040
8. Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.	.227	-.282	.052	.129
10. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	.072	.148	-.045	-.063
11. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	.057	.196	-.120	-.142
12. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Persian translation.	-.084	.338	-.119	-.052
13. Using Persian translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.	-.043	.236	-.036	.038
14. Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson.	-.006	.180	.005	.091
15. I like to use Persian translation to learn English.	-.010	.155	.057	.088
16. The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	-.027	-.049	-.040	.406
17. Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	-.003	-.028	-.068	.411
18. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Persian translation.	-.037	.136	.153	-.008
19. I think everyone has to use Persian translation at this stage of learning.	-.072	.206	.072	.034

Component Score Coefficient Matrix (cont.)

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21. I will produce Persian-style English if I translate from Persian to English.	-.105	.192	-.008	-.081
23. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	-.014	-.110	.216	.293
24. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	.003	-.091	.403	-.063
25. I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.	-.042	-.066	.391	-.019
26. When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	-.031	.145	-.219	.229
27. I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.	.019	.004	.212	-.129

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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Component Scores.



## Appendix T: Factor Score Coefficient Matrix for ITLS

Component Score Coefficient Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	.138	.030	-.143	-.017
2. I read Persian translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.	-.012	.089	.128	-.083
3. After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	-.082	.118	.164	-.004
4. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	.279	-.144	-.141	-.008
5. When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	.226	-.065	-.153	-.011
6. I write Persian outlines for my English compositions.	.165	-.078	-.020	.018
7. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	.147	-.037	-.049	.020
8. I read the Persian translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.	.050	-.072	.266	-.042
9. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	.055	.069	-.065	.004
10. I listen to or read Persian news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.	-.015	-.007	.136	.100
11. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	.172	-.026	-.089	-.025
12. If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Persian into English to help me keep the conversation going.	.073	.020	.037	-.035
13. I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	-.134	.321	-.082	-.076
14. I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	-.071	.218	-.030	-.034

Component Score Coefficient Matrix (cont.)

15. I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	-.089	.282	-.083	-.142
16. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	-.092	.258	-.099	-.003
17. I use English-Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	-.097	.221	-.019	.000
18. I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	-.106	.172	.084	.012
19. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	-.143	-.036	.574	-.112
20. If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Persian for me.	.066	-.133	.207	.151
21. I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	-.005	-.147	.116	.416
22. When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.	.079	-.164	.175	.194
23. I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Persian to English in various situations.	-.124	.161	-.069	.229
24. I take notes in Persian in my English class.	.104	-.078	.047	.081
25. I write Persian translations in my English textbooks.	.100	-.069	.076	.063
26. I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Persian and English through translation.	-.048	.058	-.158	.363
27. When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Persian equivalents.	-.016	.068	.220	-.357
28. When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Persian.	.230	-.171	.083	-.145

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Component Scores.

## Appendix U: Pearson Correlation among IBT and ITLS Items

Pearson Correlation among IBT and ITLS Items

Items	s1	s2	s3	s4	s5	s6	s7	s8	s9
b1	.34**	.21**	.20**	.27**	.25**	.22**	.24**	.08	.19**
b2	.11*	.13*	.19**	.18**	.16**	.19**	.19**	.12*	.12*
b3	.24**	.17**	.20**	.25**	.25**	.21**	.33**	.16*	.20**
b4	.18**	.16**	.18**	.17**	.21**	.27**	.27**	.17*	.12*
b5	.22**	.12*	.15**	.10	.14*	.15**	.15**	.04	.20**
b6	.21**	.18**	.18**	.16**	.22**	.18**	.20**	.06	.17**
b7	.20**	.18**	.19**	.17**	.20**	.16**	.20**	.07	.18**
b8	-.12*	-.05	-.06	-.06	-.06	-.06	-.00	.02	-.09
b10	.33**	.25**	.25**	.34**	.32**	.29**	.32**	.17**	.21**
b11	.20**	.14**	.18**	.19**	.17**	.17**	.21**	.10	.04
b12	.24**	.20**	.16**	.26**	.17**	.18**	.18**	.22**	.12*
b13	.32**	.29**	.29**	.33**	.32**	.18**	.31**	.21**	.22**
b14	.44**	.42**	.34**	.35**	.41**	.33**	.42**	.29**	.38**
b15	.41**	.44**	.37**	.33**	.42**	.38**	.37**	.34**	.37**
b16	-.06	-.13*	-.08	-.04	-.14**	-.08	-.11*	-.09	-.09
b17	-.12*	-.11*	-.04	-.08	-.11*	-.06	-.11*	-.04	-.12*
b18	.41**	.40**	.27**	.37**	.40**	.40**	.35**	.41**	.39**
b19	.33**	.36**	.22**	.34**	.37**	.31**	.32**	.29**	.38**
b21	.01	.11*	.11*	.06	.05	.07	.09	.11*	-.04
b23	-.26**	-.28**	-.20**	-.22**	-.32**	-.21**	-.22**	-.27**	-.35**
b24	.33**	.31**	.34**	.34**	.38**	.36**	.31**	.27**	.28**
b25	.29**	.32**	.27**	.28**	.34**	.30**	.26**	.27**	.28**
b26	-.014**	-.16**	-.08	-.04	-.10	-.05	-.06	-.06	-.12*
b27	.18**	.23**	.23**	.15**	.23**	.23**	.23**	.16**	.18**

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Pearson Correlation among IBT and ITLS Items (cont.)

Items	s10	s11	s12	s13	s14	s15	s16	s17	s18
b1	.11*	.22**	.21**	.15**	.25**	.16**	.23**	.28**	.17**
b2	.10	.09	.12*	.11*	.14**	.20**	.07	.11*	.17**
b3	.14**	.21**	.24**	.23**	.27**	.21**	.23**	.28**	.12*
b4	.17**	.25**	.19**	.19**	.25**	.20**	.19**	.19**	.17**
b5	.13*	.20**	.12*	.25**	.18**	.14*	.22**	.18**	.11*
b6	.19**	.14**	.17**	.12*	.23**	.23*	.15**	.13*	.16**
b7	.15**	.21**	.23**	.28**	.21**	.13*	.29**	.22**	.13*
b8	-.05	-.09	-.04	-.08	-.11*	-.01	-.11*	-.17**	-.06
b10	.13*	.27**	.31**	.20**	.32**	.36**	.20**	.21**	.26**
b11	.07	.16**	.16**	.17**	.28**	.29**	.19**	.11*	.10
b12	.10	.16**	.24**	.22**	.17**	.17**	.22**	.22**	.19**
b13	.13*	.31**	.28**	.32**	.28**	.28**	.33**	.29**	.21**
b14	.19**	.42**	.42**	.45**	.42**	.37**	.43**	.45**	.35**
b15	.15**	.40**	.40**	.43**	.44**	.32**	.37**	.45**	.38**
b16	-.03	-.11*	-.12*	-.09	-.12*	-.12*	-.12*	-.10	-.12*
b17	-.04	-.11*	-.15**	-.20**	-.16**	-.11*	-.17**	-.23**	-.10
b18	.23**	.39**	.37**	.35**	.38**	.41**	.32**	.34**	.39**
b19	.25**	.28**	.38**	.27**	.33**	.38**	.30**	.34**	.33**
b21	-.01	.09	.17**	.06	.06	.14**	.07	.02	.11*
b23	-.21**	-.29**	-.24**	-.16**	-.26**	-.20**	-.20**	-.31**	-.28**
b24	.10	.35**	.26**	.27**	.26**	.19**	.26**	.25**	.34**
b25	.13*	.28**	.24**	.22**	.23**	.20**	.18**	.19**	.27**
b26	-.07	-.13*	-.14*	-.06	-.08	-.06	-.10	-.15**	-.09
b27	.12*	.25**	.31**	.24**	.24**	.19**	.18**	.24**	.16**

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Pearson Correlation among IBT and ITLS Items (cont.)

Items	s19	s20	s21	s22	s23	s24	s25	s26	s27	s28
b1	-.03	.14**	.10	.22**	-.00	.17**	.14**	.15**	-.04	.10
b2	.05	.09	.19**	.15**	.08	.08	.11*	.22**	-.14*	.09
b3	.11*	.16**	.16**	.20**	.06	.20**	.20**	.16**	-.03	.08
b4	.04	.15**	.14*	.17**	.11*	.23**	.14*	.17**	-.02	.10
b5	.03	.08	.16**	.15**	.07	.01	.12*	.24**	.01	.08
b6	.04	.08	.15**	.21**	-.00	.09	.19**	.22**	-.07	.09
b7	.02	0.12*	.21**	.10	.07	.12*	.12*	.17**	-.04	.07
b8	.02	-.02	-.15**	-.10	-.02	-.00	-.07	-.15**	.05	-.07
b10	.11*	.18**	.10	.30**	.13*	.24**	.25**	.19**	-.01	.12*
b11	.07	.08	.04	.30**	.11*	.17**	.15**	.07	.03	.03
b12	.06	.08	.05	.19**	.01	.19**	.16**	.04	.00	.14**
b13	.10	.25**	.10	.20**	.11*	.26**	.28**	.14*	.00	.21**
b14	.08	.32**	.08	.28**	.10	.38**	.35**	.15**	.12*	.22**
b15	.11*	.30**	.10	.28**	.16**	.30**	.39**	.16**	.07	.21**
b16	-.11*	-.10	.00	-.00	.00	-.07	-.07	.08	-.12*	-.08
b17	.02	-.04	.04	-.04	-.01	-.04	-.10	.02	-.07	-.16**
b18	.10	.32**	.08	.27**	.10	.32**	.38**	.20**	.10	.32**
b19	.09	.29**	.09	.23**	.11*	.22**	.37**	.15**	.03	.25**
b21	.08	.00	-.03	.12**	-.01	.10	.06	-.01	.05	-.00
b23	-.03	-.28**	-.08	-.08	-.11*	-.25**	-.26**	-.11*	-.19**	-.26**
b24	.02	.25**	.03	.24**	.16**	.29**	.38**	.11*	.12*	.30**
b25	.05	.19**	-.02	.15**	.11*	.17**	.36**	.09	.11*	.28**
b26	-.10	-.06	-.02	-.09	-.03	-.11*	-.08	-.04	-.03	-.02
b27	.07	.18**	.09	.23**	.16**	.19**	.28**	.11*	.06	0.11*

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

## **Appendix V: Participants' Responses to IBT Open-ended Questions**

### **Tehran, Year I, Question 9**

R9. I don't believe that translation from Farsi is effective for learning, especially for comprehension and grammar because there are little similarities between grammars of the two languages.

R10. In my opinion sometimes translating, either from Persia to English or English to Persian, it cannot help and it's not efficient.

R19. Translating help me to speak English better and also understand the films and music better. It improves my listening.

R20. Translating Persian to English is more difficult than translating English to Persian.

R22. Translation can have big role in learning English.

R24. Generally, I don't agree with Persian translating and I try to use it a few.

R33. Translating can be very helpful to learn grammar better, but I don't know why in English classes we are not permitted to explain grammar in Farsi???

R37. I think that if I translate a statement I can't understand it very well.

R41. I'm a fresh man and I don't know much about translation but as far as I know, translating may help us in memorizing vocabulary and differences between the structure of sentences in English and Persian but it does not help us improve our speaking ability in English.

R44. In my opinion, translating Persian to English is a necessary matter because we have some valuable books that we can make them available foreigners in order to make them familiar with our culture and when they know Persian books, etc. it motivate them to study the books which one in Persian.

R50. I want to be a translator because most people don't know English well.

R51. You never learn English when you match it to Persian.

R62. In my opinion translating can help for better understanding we cannot rely on that in all occasions sometimes there would be not equivalent in our mother tongue to be translated.

R64. It's just good to translate a novel for selling.

R72. I'd rather translate for English to English.

R76. In my opinion English to English translation helps me much more than other kinds of translation.

R80. Translating from Farsi into English helps more in making sentences in English and translating from English into Farsi is used more for reading comprehension of texts that both of them are necessary for learning a language.

### **Tehran, Year II, Question 9**

R1. Translating from English into Farsi helps me get familiar with native speakers of English.

R6. Translation is considered as a basis in learning a second language.

R7. In most of the above cases oral translation is more effective for learning (it has been like this in my case).

R16. Since the meaning of idiom and grammar are not the same in both languages, I rarely use translation and try to memorize them.

R18. I usually try to comprehend a text in English and if I need I translate it into Farsi.

R21. Translation helps me in grammar but is not helpful for learning vocabs and listening.

R40. Translation is the very basic step to learn English language and no one will ever ignore its role.

R41. I think comprehension is more important than translation because sometimes we translate but don't have a good understanding of the text.

R43. In some parts that my lesson is difficult we should use translation to comprehend.

R45. When dialogs and texts are difficult we can use translation.

R54. I can use those sentences that know their translation better in sentences.

R55. Sometimes translation in learning stabilizes subject matter of a lesson.

R65. I prefer translation from Farsi into English because it helps me learn some vocabularies and idioms a lot.

R73. I have always had problems in descriptive translation because the number of adjectives used in English language is more than adjectives which could be used in Farsi.

R80. Translation at higher levels helps us distinguish the differences between structures of two languages and see that a certain structure exists in the target language or not.

### **North, Year I, QUESTION 9**

R5. Translation sometimes helps me to get familiar with word order and writing in English.

R6. I like teachers teach grammar courses in Farsi but conversation courses in English.

R10. Translation helps me learn better and work easier with internet. We like to learn English language but there are a lot of problems.

R13. Translation from English into Farsi adds a little bit to my knowledge and I'm not satisfied with it because it does not meet my expectations.

R19. Translation needs productive mind and literature. First, someone should be familiar with his/her literature to be able to use words appropriately. Since each term in different contexts has various meanings, translation needs a vast repertoire of vocabulary.

R20. In my opinion translation can broaden our knowledge in all subjects and fields.

R21. Translation helps me in comprehending a subject matter, gives me self-confidence and encourages me to learn.

R22. I think learning English does not need any translating. In my opinion English must be learnt by English.

R26. Translation leads to higher motivation for learning English language. One who can translate has a higher social status in the society.

R31. I believe that an example in translation from English into Farsi or vice versa could be much more effective and beneficial.

R42. Translation helps a lot in learning a language. If meaning is not understood, learning, in my opinion, won't be possible. But if translation here means using translated course books, I totally disagree with it. In passages, I try to understand the whole meaning and am not persistent to translate terms.

R48. Translation can help us communicate with others. It does not always help us learn everything because sometimes we face with English idioms, literary texts, poems, and songs which cannot be translated into another language. Translation is appropriate for better comprehension but some texts should not be translated but should be used as they are.



R52. I think ‘if you want to learn English, think in English’ is the best way for learning, teaching and translation. Learners should think in the target language and not in their mother language.

R56. Translation is a skill. Even knowing all the terms and idioms could not guarantee good translation. Just having a set of skills makes translation perfect.

R60. In my opinion translation helps us become familiar with both grammar and culture of the target language.

R73. Translation helps me improve my language learning.

### **North, Year II, QUESTION 9**

R9. Translation helps us in learning a language. It also helps us to make maximum use of target language because in addition to the structure and grammar of the source language we can study its idioms and vocabulary as well

R34. Translation is not very effective in speaking and listening. It is effective but not very much.

R36. Translation helps me to learn some specific names in the target language.

R39. I can get better grades and can better understand if I have the Persian translated version of my textbooks and articles.

R77. Good translation is simple and smooth.

### **Tehran, Year I, Question 20**

R19. I think translating English to Persian is not good. It’s better to translate the words in English because we understand better. It’s better to translate a sentence word by word in English rather to Persian.

R20. Persian translating and learning English by knowing synonyms in English both of them are essential.

R50. Using Persian translation depends on people whether they know English well or not.

R64. I don’t agree with translation it’s just good for (konkor) entrance exam for universities.

R76. I think using English to Persian translation decreases the ability of learning.

R80. This type of translation is effective in sentence making and speaking.

R80. I agree with word for word translation of key phrases and translating improves comprehension and remembering.

### **Tehran, Year II, Question 20**

R6. It will be a habit if we get used to it.

R38. Translation helps me become familiar with the structure of Farsi language.

R39. In some cases translation helps in comprehending a language.

R42. Persian translation helps me in understanding content of my lesson.

R52. We should translate communicatively except for official texts.

R55. Translation from English into Farsi helps more than translation from Farsi into English.

R80. By translating from English into Farsi the translator perceives that how Farsi language is weak in vocabulary and structure and how English language is rich.

### **North, Year I, Question 20**

R17. In most cases I need translation from English into Farsi.

R26. Learning English grammar is effective in translation.

R36. When I read a text try to understand it but in some cases that I don't get the meaning of some parts try to translate that part only.

R41. For better comprehension of a passage we can look up words but not translate the whole passage into Farsi because it affects our learning and makes us lazy.

R42. In doing some assignments I really need translation and feel that it's because of my weakness in English language.

R20. Translation depends on profession and meaning unity and could be used anywhere.

R56. Practicing translation promotes comprehension. Knowledge of vocabulary and skill in using equivalent expressions.

### **North, Year II, Question 20**

R9. In my case, I use translation for vague and key cases and when I have to analyze something.

R12. Translating from English into Farsi would slow the process of learning vocabulary.

R41. Having the Persian translation of a English text prevents wasting time in finding new words.

R45. Translating from English into Farsi decrease the number of English words that we are going to learn.

R69. Because Farsi is our mother tongue and for knowing the right equivalent we should know our language for translation.

R71. In my opinion, guessing word meaning from a text is more useful for students rather than looking up words' first meaning in a dictionary.

### **Tehran, Year I, Question 22**

R19. We cannot translate a Persian text word by word to English because the grammar of English is different from Persian.

R59. Sometimes direct translation can absolutely destructive for structure of language, of our target language + same time by this may we will make nonexistent phrases & sentences too.

R76. Sometimes using this kind of translation gives me more idea.

### **Tehran, Year II, Question 22**

R1. The structure of an English sentence is different from the structure of a sentence in Farsi. Thus, translation could not be done from English into Farsi (word by word). For example, in English language the subject of a sentence should be written but in Persian language the subject of a sentence comes at the end and there's no need to write it in English-Persian translation.

R6. After reading, what we have written, it will be obvious to us that we have thought in Persian but written in English.

R7. Generally, I don't like translating from Farsi into English.

R14. In translating from Farsi into English we can never be sure what we intend can be transferred into English. Because the meaning of selected words in Farsi is clear for us as native speakers. This is to some extent cultural. So, depending on the culture of the target language we should conclude and judge the produced language.

R16. We cannot merely use translation due to cultural differences.

R30. Grammars of both languages are different and we should know grammar of both of the languages.

R39. We can use a dictionary for finding equivalent in doing translation from English into Farsi. But for making sentences we should be familiar with English grammar.

R40. Translating texts from Persian to English although very little, helps learning English if the sources for translation are appropriate.

R41. For translation, in addition to knowledge we need cultural and social familiarity.

R45. We should use translation in cases that we are not able to convey our message in the form of English translation of our Farsi idea.

R52. We should pay attention to the structure of the source and target languages.

### **North, Year I, Question 22**

R9. Translation from Farsi into English needs high amount of knowledge.

R20. In translation from Farsi into English we should think in English and try to use equivalent idioms and expressions in the target language.

R26. Learning and employing daily idioms in Farsi and English is effective in translation.

R41. Our writing style is totally different from English language. If we translate, we should use translation structure (target language structure) and know its rules to produce good translation.

R42. Generally, I'm not interested in it. I don't know why, but I don't like it.

R44. When I think of a topic in Farsi cannot transfer it into English and get my message across.

R56. By translating we learn how to use the exact equivalence in the target language as well as the fact that all the words and expressions do not have equivalence in the target language.

R60. I try to use monolingual English-to-English dictionary in translating from Farsi into English, and if I first use a Persian-to-English dictionary for finding some words and idioms, I'll definitely check them in an English-to-English dictionary to learn how to use prepositions and usage in the English language.

R62. We should not think in Farsi for translating from Farsi into English but we should think in English.

R63. Translation from Farsi into English is much more difficult than translation from English into Farsi because English is not our mother tongue and we do not know it well. I think translation needs skill.

### **North, Year II, Question 22**

R2. Sometimes a Persian word cannot be translated.

R9. I pay attention to the structure of the target language in order to translate from Farsi into English.

R12. Since there are so many grammatical differences in translating from Farsi into English, one should have thorough knowledge in language.

R20. I am one of the students that have problems in translating from Farsi into English but have found no solution yet. The, I never will be able to translate from Farsi into English properly.

R21. Since I don't pay attention how much my produced English is near native language, do not have any idea in this part.

R34. In translating from Farsi into English I try to use English structures and do not use Farsi Structures.

R39. I operate slowly and rarely can produce correct sentences.

R41. Translation from Farsi into English is more difficult.

### **Tehran, Year I, Question 28**

R10. I think if one dedicates most of his/her time to English, his/her English will be improved.

R19. It's so important that we translate the words to for ourselves in English. We should understand the word or sentence. It's very good that we think in English, speak English with our partners.

R44. Sometimes using translation causes some misunderstanding esp. about grammar.

R59. I've thought about another method that I think works for me is isolation just by cutting down all (about %95) your communication with native speakers (L1) and exposure yourself as much as possible to your target language (L2) after a while. Automatically your mind response to this condition and automatically you even think in English.

R28. In my opinion in the current system translation not only does not help learning but also it causes that all students depend on translation and do not try to learn English language.

R28. If it is learned natively is effective but in our case we need Farsi translation.

### **Tehran, Year II, Question 28**

R14. Translation makes a learner's mind tired and lazy. I personally disagree with the use of translation in learning a subject matter but some time there are texts that have to first learn its meaning and this has to be done by translation.

R28. I have not the experience of living in a native context so have no idea in this regard.

R31. Nobody has helped me in learning except myself. I have found way for language learning by myself so far.

R51. Professors believe that we should think and learn in English and should not use translation.

R55. Translation should not be used in the learning process but after passing a certain level it can help stabilize what we learn.

### **North, Year I, Question 28**

R6. In my opinion learners should start learning English language since childhood not in adulthood.

R10. Financial problems make education difficult.

R17. I think the educational system in Iran does not teach thinking in English and students do not have any vision in this regard.

R19. The context of learning affects learning any language and human should be forced to learn otherwise that kind of learning would be parrot like.

R21. If I don't understand a subject matter, I'll get frustrated. If my teacher always speaks in English, especially in grammar courses and I leave my classroom without understanding, my motivation for language learning decreases.

R26. Attention should be paid to all skills (grammar, listening, vocabulary, reading) in teaching and we should not focus on just one of them.

R44. I get bored if I think in Farsi and write or produce English words. Thinking simultaneously in two languages is difficult. Avoiding translation is beneficial for us. Sometimes by translation I lose motivation for language learning.

R48. I believe that a native context should be provided for the students and in learning our thoughts should be shaped like a native speaker.

R49. They generally believe that there should be less Farsi translation and we should learn the meaning of each new word by using English.

R59. I haven't understood what instructors mean by thinking in English and this bothers me.

R61. The context of learning, in my opinion, has a great influence on learning a second language.

### **North, Year II, Question, 28**

R1. Do not use translation a lot, listen a lot, do not rely on translation.

R9. Learning English is an appropriate choice for improving weak points and improving personal skills.

R21. I personally experienced that the context of learning is %100 effective.

R34. Thinking in English helps a lot in speaking English, specifically in the flow of conversation and rate of speech.

R35. English translation is a wrong way to learn a language.

R37. Regarding question, I'd like that professors use English language while teaching and use Farsi in those parts that supplementary explanation is needed. Regarding question 27, in my opinion motivation, childhood learning and learning in a native context are very effective.

R45. I believe that the context of learning is very effective. The first thing in learning another language is having a high motivation.

### **Tehran, Year I, Question 29**

R3. Well, thank GOD all of them have told that you can't learn English by translating the text or vocabs.

R8. The majority of them disagree.

R19. My teachers have told me never translate an English word to Persian. When you're watching a film don't pay attention to the translated subtitle or even English subtitle. Just listen to what they say to improve your ears with their accent. And to improve your listening.

R14. They told me it's good for payment a good job .unfortunately they didn't say anything about learning and it's our problem.

R18. Most of the time they say using English translation is more better than the other translation for me.

R20. It is not good for learning English.

R22. Learning new vocabulary and practicing them let us to improve our speaking and this happens by translation.

R23. Learning English with using translation in English is good, not in Persian.

R28. I think the best way for learning new vocabularies in English is using English word to explain new vocabularies.

R33. They believe that we should or have to learn everything in English, and translation causes you to lose the track of using English.

R35. Translating is equal with understanding writing and speaking and includes all of them.

R44. Most of my teachers avoid using translation in learning expect using it for time we don't have any imagination in our mind of a word that we are going to learn.

R49. They said it's a wrong to translate and understanding by translating.

R74. Think in English.

R76. Most of my teachers told not to use translation in my learning.

R78. Most of the professors are not positive about the use of translation and always emphasize that do not use translation for comprehension of the lessons.

R79. Other students because of ease of translated texts prefer that all textbooks be translated into Farsi. Also, I believe that if there be more attention in selecting students and their level of knowledge should be taken into account there would be no need that instructors translate or explain lessons in Farsi.

R29. English translation helps in remembering synonymous words and their explanation, more structures and as a result would have more positive results.



## **Tehran, Year II, Question 29**

R1. It's better to avoid English into Persian translation for comprehending university English course books. Except in cases that students do not understand it in English. Translation into Farsi can save time and helps in better comprehension of a student.

R6. Never think in Persian while learning English.

R10. Most teachers and experts in the field force learners to use translation very little and use English more.

R14. Translation professors have a positive belief but other professors do not agree with using translation in language learning.

R17. Unfamiliar and key words need to be translated there should not be a lot translation in reading story books, etc.

R30. The majorities of them do not recommend translation and in some cases named it as the reason of crime.

R34. Most of them are agree about using original texts in English language. Absolutely it helps us in process of learning.

R36. They believe that we can learn English very good and try to be a good translator.

R40. A non-native speaker can never avoid translation in knowing a language, no matter how much he/she tries.

R41. Their opinions were that we should just learn in English.

R29. Helps us better speak and write and become familiar with words and grammar.

R43. We shouldn't translate word by word and convey message in translation. We should be familiar with the target language culture.

R45. They believe that translation makes conversation slow and we cannot manage class discussion.

R47. Most teachers and students prefer to use translation.

R53. They have recommended English -English dictionary.

R.64. English translation is much more difficult than Persian translation.

R67. Most of them believe that students should think and speak in English and do not translate Farsi into English.

R75. Nearly all professors believe that English translation is more effective in learning.

### **North, Year I, Question 29**

R3. All believe that students can benefit from translation.

R6. Professors recommend us try to understand the meaning of a passage by reading it several times otherwise use a dictionary.

R8. My teachers' beliefs are the same as mine. For reading and learning, we should avoid using translation and get the meaning by guessing. However, when translation is really needed, we should employ comprehensible translation and avoid word by word translation.

R15. Better learning, increases vocabulary and idioms and more familiarity with grammar use in different texts.

R16. Professors believe that translation decreases the language learning process and makes it slow.

R19. It depends on the course of study.

R20. I think all the teachers believe that translation is part of learning and should be used.

R21. Most teachers believe that translation should not be used because they think that we copy translation and do not learn anything. But I believe that if someone is interested in learning should employ any method which s/he thinks is helpful so that does not lose his or her motivation.

R22. My teachers and I always say that it shouldn't be used.

R23. Others told me don't use translating because can't learning more and confuse with mother language and it's not help to learning English language.

R25. Translation helps us answer multiple choice and open ended questions. If we have or learn the translation of a lesson, we can easily answer all the questions of that lesson.

R26. Employment of correct sentence structure in translation.

R29. Most teachers believe that using English translation is more appropriate because they say that we should learn an English word in the sentence.

R33. Usually all professors believe that English translation should be used because they think it's more appropriate for students.

R34. Professors prefer not to use Persian translation and recommend us not to do so. They tell us try to guess the meaning and do not look up a particular word in an English-Persian dictionary immediately.

R37. Teachers usually disagree with using translation for language learning.

R39. Although using translation enhances language learning process, avoiding translation in certain cases, helps some individuals, especially those at advanced levels. Sometimes using translation a lot makes language learners lazy.

R42. Generally, professors try to teach directly in English. I think they don't regard translation acceptable.

R43. We should be familiar with different fields like history, philosophy, medicine, etc. because such information helps us know most words and thus translate correctly.

R44. Nearly all of our teachers believe that we should avoid translation, learn language by synonymous words and think directly in English. Translation is not a good strategy and makes the learner bored.

R47. Since the beginning of the semester all professors have been speaking in English and this led to the fact that we couldn't understand some courses like grammar; as a result, so many students failed. In my opinion for first semesters it would be more appropriate that teachers use Farsi in some courses like grammar.

R51. All professors disagree with the use of translation except one of them.

R55. They keep telling us that do not translate words into Farsi. Learn vocabularies with their propositions. Translate vocabularies in context because each term has different meanings in various contexts.

R57. Most teachers in language schools suggest that we use dictionaries in learning English language and if we don't understand something, translate it and then learn it. At universities, language instructors suggest that we get the meaning of the English texts without translation.

R59. Teachers at language schools try to use English for learning words and idioms; however, as the last resort I used the Persian translation. In most cases English translation helped me in guessing the meaning of a word and my guess was correct but for finding the exact equivalence I also used the Persian meaning of words and expressions.

R62. Teachers believe that for translation we should read the whole text or sentence carefully and then translate it. They also believe that we should use appropriate words and be creative.

R63. Teachers at Kanoon language school emphasized that students learn English language through context of English texts and avoid looking up Farsi meaning.

### **North, Year II, Question 29**

R2. They think that learners can learn words, idioms and grammar easier through the use of translation.

R3. They think that learners can learn words, idioms and grammar easier through the use of translations.

R12. Professors have recommended that we should completely be familiar with the text that is going to be translated.

R14. They often suggest the use of monolingual dictionaries. They usually agree with studying Farsi books and comparing the original book with its translation.

R15. Use a dictionary for translation

R20. Usually they have no specific idea about translation and other people just say that it's a good field of study and have a bright future but they don't know that we don't know how to translate because we have not learned to translate.

R26. They agree with this.

R28. According to the professors and also others using English translation is one of the effective ways to improve learning English language. Because using Farsi translation weakens language learning and is more appropriate for learning meanings.

R32. They say that in learning grammar we need translation. But in most cases it's not needed and make students weaker.

R34. They believe that in some cases translation is needed but in some cases like grammar using translation in their opinion is time consuming. Even sometimes in reading texts they suggest that if we don't know certain words meaning we shouldn't look up each word's meaning in a dictionary and try to comprehend the overall meaning of the sentence.

R41. Professors emphasize not using translation but when the content of our textbook is heavy there's no other way except finding its translation.

R42. Since translation helps us exchange thought, beliefs and culture, it is appropriate to translate. But if we do not depend on translation in all stages of learning it would be more effective.

R44. I believe that after learning some language, it's better for a learner to be exposed to a native context to make his/her language more native like.

R45. The pay attention to speaking English in the classroom and emphasize its positive effect.

R53. Using first language interferes with the second language and makes learning difficult.

R56. Translation should be close, and faithful.

R60. In my friends opinion and mine, translation helps a lot in learning but in my opinion we should read and translate the text beforehand.

R67. They believe that in translation we should not rely so much on a dictionary. Familiarity with the text, knowing how to translate and make correct sentences are more important.

R68. One of them said when you have free time, go through the life and translate anything you see like what was written on your refrigerator or hitler.

R69. Using others' translation helps to translate better or having a better comparison for the two translated texts.

R72. Most of our professors have suggested that we shouldn't use translation as much as possible and that in the acquisition process there's no translation.

R76. Using a monolingual dictionary is appropriate for translation, familiarity with vocabulary and idioms and appropriate usage of them in translation.

R77. Nearly all teachers disagree with using translation or translated textbooks for learning.

R78. Always think in English. Never use translation. Instead of Farsi models use English models for comprehension that were time consuming in my opinion.

R79. In my idea, using Persian translation in most cases slows down the process of learning.

## **Appendix W: Participants' Responses to ITLS Open-ended Questions**

### **North, Year I, Question 29**

R19. Professors always recommend us not to use Farsi and insist that we should think in English but in my opinion this is not logical because in cases that I don't know the meaning of some words in a sentence how I can use a monolingual dictionary.

R60. How much does familiarity with the target language culture help us in finding equivalence?

R79. In an English language context, language should be learned by perseverance which will lead to more learning.

### **North, Year II, Question 29**

R45. In translation or speaking if I forget a word I think of another word.

### **Tehran, Year I, Question 29**

R18. I think at first we should guess the meaning and then check it in English to English dictionary and if we can't understand the meaning we can check it in English to Persian dictionary.

R20. Knowing translation in Persian and knowing the meaning in English, both of them is necessary for learning English.

R34. Pictures. Film. Role. Lecture.

R29. Sometime for better comprehension it is unavoidable for example some words (about %10 of words). Sometimes in learning & comparing tenses they used Farsi.

R29. For speaking and sentence making first we translate it from Farsi into English, it means that first we think in Farsi.

### **Tehran, Year II, Question 29**

R43. I think grammar should be taught in Farsi because its translation is difficult. And professors should use translation in the difficult parts of a lesson.

R55. I started using translation at advanced level.

## Appendix X: Participants' Interview Reports

Tehran, Year I, Academic Achievement Score above 17

No.	Common views	Other views
1	*students may not be proficient/clarification/make sure comprehensibility/better comprehension of the students/all the students are not at the same English level (8) *some instructors are not proficient enough (2)	-
2	*using Persian while learning English is helpful for comprehension (4) *I think using English improves language skills (4)	-
3	*if I have difficulty in comprehending my English textbooks, or there's time constraint to study, I use Persian(translation) (6) * I disagree with using Persian/a bilingual dictionary because I won't be able to find Persian equivalents of English terms since some of them do not have an equivalent in Farsi (2)	-
4	**helpful (6) *causes L1 transfer(3)	**students should not get used to translation and use English at the same time (1).
5	* yes, in expanding my English vocabulary knowledge (3)/in comparing and contrasting the TL & SL to find similarities and differences (3)/in learning Grammar (1) *sometimes, in comprehending English textbooks (1)/in translating professional English texts (1)	-
6	*early stages (basic levels) because learners have a very limited knowledge of English language (5) *at higher levels (intermediate/advanced) because advanced learners are proficient enough to translate correctly (3)	-
7	*reading & writing(1) *reading(4) *reading, writing & speaking (1) *listening & speaking (1) *all the four skills (1) *all the four skills (1)	-because translation is a process of reading or listening and then writing and/or speaking what is already being read or listened into another language.

Tehran, Year I, Academic Achievement Score above 17 (cont.)

		So it depends on how ones use translation.
8	*yes, as they become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation (5) *no (3), if students get used to translation, it would be difficult to stop using it.	-it depends on the students to continue using L1 or not
9	*no (5) *I think translation helps comprehension to a great extent. *in my opinion, both English and Persian should be used to learn English. * it would be a good idea not to use L1 because it slows down the learning process.	-
10	*no (3) * in this field more experienced instructors in translation should teach translation courses (3) * I think in the field of translation those proficient students who are familiar with both SL & TL and their culture could be more successful (2)	-

Tehran, Year I, Academic Achievement Score Below 17

No.	Common views	Other views
1	* students may not be proficient/clarification/make sure comprehensibility/better comprehension of the students or transference of teaching subject matter/all the students are not at the same English level (8) * some instructors are not proficient enough(1)	-using both L1 & L2 by the teacher gives me motivation to learn
2	*suggested(7yes, 1no) *translation should be used at lower levels *to speak in English we should learn to think in English and get familiar with its culture. * thinking in English is difficult at first but is possible *I prefer to use Persian to learn English *learning without translation is effective *although using L1 takes time, both English and Persian are needed for language learning.	-
3	*yes, for better comprehension of textbooks, to save time (4) *no, using a monolingual dictionary helps me get familiar with usage, sentence making, and new terms(4)	-



- |   |  |  |
|---|--|--|
| 4 | <p>*helpful, similarities between Persian and English help language learning, in learning grammar, for better comprehension (4)<br/>                 *if students get used to translation it would be difficult to stop using it even at advanced levels, students won't look up new terms in a monolingual dictionary to learn English, not helpful for speaking(3)</p>   | -  |
| 5 | <p>*yes, translation is effective both in language learning and making progress, in comprehending professional and difficult texts(textbooks), for keeping my textbook content in mind/to memorize new terms, when I have comprehension difficulty, I can compare the TL &amp; SL to learn how to produce language(6)<br/>                 *seldom, use Persian when my textbook content is heavy to understand.</p> | -  |
| 6 | <p>* early stages (basic levels) because learners have a very limited knowledge of English language, are not proficient enough, cannot comprehend English very well, translation decreases anxiety and gives self-confidence (7)<br/>                 *at higher levels because advanced learners are proficient enough to translate correctly (1)</p>   | -  |
| 7 | <p>*reading &amp; writing(3)<br/>                 *writing(1)<br/>                 *writing &amp; speaking (1)<br/>                 *listening &amp; writing (1)<br/>                 *all the four skills (1)<br/>                 *none of them(1)</p>   | <p>-because translation is a process of reading or listening and then writing and/or speaking what is already being read or listened into another language. Consequently, it would depend on how one uses translation.</p> |
| 8 | <p>*yes, as language learners become more proficient, they use less translation, because they will understand that by using L1 they won't progress(7)<br/>                 *no, because in some cases we have to understand the TL through translation to learn it(1)</p>  |  |
| 9 | <p>*I could never learn English without using L1, the majority of the students use Persian to learn English(2)<br/>                 *no(6)</p>   |  |
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Tehran, Year I, Academic Achievement Score Below 17 (cont.)

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- 10 I think translation should be taught both theoretically and practically. Unfortunately, not so much attention has been paid to the practical part which is equally important as the theoretical part. In addition, experienced instructors with practical translation background should teach translation courses.
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North, Year I, Academic Achievement Score Above 17

No.	Common views	Other views
1	*students may not be proficient and teachers have to compensate this deficiency through Persian/clarification/make sure comprehensibility/for better comprehension /all the students are not at the same English level (8) *some instructors are not proficient enough (1)	-
2	*yes(8) *agree (3)I think using by English students get involved in English learning and learn better, I believe that a foreign language should be learned without reference to the SL, *disagree (5) I think using translation helps students a lot especially in grammar, I think not using our mother tongue to learn another language seems impossible and it's not fair to say that it doesn't help us, it would be difficult for us to quit using translation since it is our first language, this suggestion should be made at early stages of language learning so that students do not get used to it.	-
3	* yes(4)if I have difficulty in comprehending my English textbooks, or I need to look up new terms in a bilingual dictionary, I use Persian(translation) *yes (1), I think both Persian and English are equally needed to learn English. *no(3) I disagree with using Persian/a bilingual dictionary and prefer to get involved in English to learn it, English language should be used so that students make progress in language learning/ a monolingual dictionary should be used as the last resort.	
4	*helpful (3), is effective in learning grammar, helps us tackle language problems, we may not be able to comprehend our courses content *causes L1 transfer(e.g. using wrong prepositions)/ we may get used to it, may delay our listening/speaking skills, prevents us to think in English(5)	
5	* yes, to save time (2) in learning Grammar (2), in comprehending English textbooks (4), to learn translational skills and learn new English idioms and phrases(1)	-

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North, Year I, Academic Achievement Score Above 17 (cont.)

6	<p>*early stages (basic levels) (4) because learners have a very limited knowledge of English language/as students get more proficient they would depend less on translation</p> <p>*translation/Persian should be used whenever it's needed and it has nothing to do with the students' level.</p> <p>*at higher levels (intermediate/advanced) (3) because advanced learners are proficient enough to comprehend/in good command of the TL</p>	-
7	<p>*reading &amp; writing (2) because translation is a process of reading or and writing what is already being read into another language.</p> <p>*reading(1), the English language should mostly be used in listening and speaking but translation helps comprehension and learning new English terms</p> <p>*writing(1)</p> <p>*writing &amp; speaking (1)</p> <p>*all the four skills (2)</p> <p>*none, a second language should be learned without reference to L1(1)</p>	-
8	<p>*yes, as students become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation/ the more they practice the less they depend on translation (6)</p> <p>*no (2), if students get used to translation, it would be difficult to stop using it.</p>	-
9	<p>*yes(4)no (4)</p> <p>*translation helps a lot in learning another language, especially when we need to comprehend English texts, learn grammar and find equivalents(3)</p> <p>* learners should develop the ability to think in English language while learning English(1)</p>	-
10	<p>*yes(3)no(5)</p> <p>*through translation we would be able to get others familiar with our culture and thoughts. This is the major responsibility of a translator which would not be possible without gaining expertise. Thus, I think more practical translation activities should be added to the translation program so that the students gain substantial knowledge of both English &amp; translation(3)</p>	-

North, Year I, Academic Achievement Score Below 17

No.	Common views	Other views
1	<p>*students may not be proficient and teachers have to compensate this deficiency through Persian/clarification/make sure comprehensibility/for better comprehension (7)</p> <p>*to save time/all the students are not at the same English level</p>	-
2	<p>*yes(8), *agree (4) it might be difficult at early stages of learning but as learners</p>	-

- progress, they would be able to think in English/thinking in English helps us develop language skills in better ways/ we cannot feel the beauty of literary texts by translation and should read such texts in English.
- 3 \*disagree (4) I think translation can help us if we face difficulty in language learning/I think using translation helps students a lot especially in grammar/it would be difficult for us to quit using translation since it is our first language/translation is helpful in learning new English terms.
- \* yes(6), I benefit from Persian in English writing a lot, especially through using a bilingual dictionary in finding English terms/if I have difficulty in understanding English, I'll use Persian.
- \*no(2) using English helps me better in getting familiar with the TL/Using Persian makes me dependent on using my mother tongue which won't help me in learning.
- 4 \* helpful(5), makes the learning process faster, in comprehending English textbooks,
- \*not helpful(3), students get used to translation and may not be able to develop English language skills properly
- 5 \*yes(6), helps me remember what I already read in English, in comprehending my course books content, in writing English essays, finding equivalents, keep my lesson content in my mind -
- \*no(2)
- 6 \*early stages (basic levels) (4) because learners at this level are not proficient enough. -
- \*translation/Persian should be used whenever it's needed and it has nothing to do with the students' level/ since Persian is my mother tongue, we need it to learn a second language (1)
- \*translation is beneficial for ESP(1)
- \*at higher levels (intermediate/advanced) (2) because advanced learners are proficient enough to comprehend/in good command of the TL
- 7 \*all the skills could be improved by translation equally. It depends on how a student benefit from it. If we read a text and translate it, it would help our reading. If we listen to a recording and translate it, it would help our listening. The same thing applies to other skills. -
- 8 \*yes, as students become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation/ the more they practice the less they depend on translation and can even guess the meaning of certain words in an English text (8) -
- 9 \*yes(2)no (6)
- \*in my opinion grammar courses should be taught in Persian. In addition, instructors should translate English idioms and expressions for their students so that they know the right equivalents. Using translation is helpful at all levels, however, it might be more beneficial at lower levels for both making language learners interested in English and they become motivated.
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North, Year I, Academic Achievement Score Below 17 (cont.)

10	*yes(1)no(7) *students should be to some extent proficient before entering university	-
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Tehran, Year II, Academic Achievement Score Above 17

No.	Common views	Other views
1	*students may not be proficient/clarification/make sure comprehensibility/better comprehension of the students/to transfer the content of a lesson better, due to non-existent equivalent, to decrease students' anxiety, not to make the classroom boring (7) *some instructors are not proficient enough (3)	-
2	*yes(8)no(0) *using Persian while learning English is helpful for comprehending English texts/to look up new terms in a dictionary/to find equivalents(4) *by using Persian non-native like language could be produced/ try to think in English to improve speaking(4)	
3	**if I have difficulty in comprehending my English textbooks/Persian should be used at advanced levels/ to find equivalents (7) *disagree because some of the TL terms have no equivalent in Persian(1)	<i>**Note: these are the reasons that the students use Persian although they may not use it frequently.</i>
4	*helpful(4), because we learn a second language through our mother tongue/speeds up the learning process/we can expand our vocabulary knowledge/& we can learn how to make English sentences *somewhat positive, may delay proficiency in speaking & listening *not helpful(3), we may get used to L1/may transfer Persian structures into the TL/	
5	* yes(5), in expanding my English vocabulary knowledge, in comprehending English texts/lesson content, in improving my language learning, through translation I can learn new terms, idioms & expressions *sometimes(3), in comprehending English textbooks/lesson content, in the mastery of my lesson content to be able to produce it in my own language	

- 6 \*early stages (basic levels)(4), because learners have a limited knowledge of English and translation/L1 helps them to learn/to comprehend English texts or their lesson content  
\*at higher levels (intermediate/advanced)(1), because first learners have to become proficient to be able to produce a good translation  
\*at both levels (2), because Persian is our mother tongue and we need it if we do not understand/comprehend English texts/grammar/course content.
- 7 \*reading(3)  
\*writing(1)  
\*reading & writing(3)  
none(1)
- 8 \*yes(4), as they become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation  
\*no(4), if students get used to translation, it would be difficult to give it up, (one said: however in some cases we have to use translation to learn English)
- 9 \*no(5)  
\* in my opinion, when language learners look up a word in a dictionary, s/he should learn all the related terms/idioms/phrasal verbs, etc. to that word  
\* to be able produce native-like language we should be in good command of both TL & SL  
\* I do not agree with the use of translation in language learning
- 10 \*in my opinion in order to be a good translator, students should be proficient to some extent before entering the university, in addition, they should also be familiar with the target language culture.
- 

Because translation mostly deals with reading and writing. It means it's a process of reading an English text and then translation in the form of writing. Thus, it improves reading & writing skills

No.	Common views	Other views
1	*all the students may not be at the same level of proficiency/to deliver their lesson content as much as possible/make sure comprehensibility/better comprehension of the students/the instructors are not familiar with the students' background/ they may find translation as an appropriate method of teaching (8) *some instructors are not proficient enough (3)	-
2	*yes(5),agree(5)using Persian while learning English is helpful for comprehension/adult learning should be like L1 learning/ I think using English would be better in language learning *yes(1)using translation is helpful for higher levels but may not work for students of lower levels (1) *no(2)	-
3	* I mostly use translation for a writing task(1)/I use translation to find equivalents and to reach equivalent effect(4)/ in comprehending English textbooks(2) *at the beginners' level translation/Persian is necessary but at the advanced levels it should not be used and a monolingual dictionary should be replaced(1) *I use translation to speed up my studying	-
4	**helpful (4), in reading and writing/to make sure of learning/to discover similarities & differences between L1&L2 *not helpful (2), causes L1 transfer and non-native like language/we may not be able to think in English *it can be both helpful in finding the similarities and differences between L1 & L2, but may not be helpful in the case of language transfer or unnatural language(1)	-
5	* yes (8),if I have difficulty in comprehending my course books or an English text/ to speed up the learning process/in comparing and contrasting the TL & SL to find similarities and differences	-
6	*early stages (basic levels) because learners have a very limited knowledge of English language and need translation to learn English (3) *at higher levels (intermediate/advanced) because advanced learners are proficient enough and use	-

Tehran, Year II, Academic Achievement Score Below 17 (cont.)

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	less translation for learning (1) *at all levels (4), since Persian is our mother tongue, we always need it for learning a second language.	
7	**reading & writing(6) *reading(1) *writing & speaking (1)	**because translation is a process of reading and writing into both L1 & L2. Thus it helps reading and writing/ if it is done in the form of interpretation, it would improve speaking as well.
8	*yes, as learners become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation. However, this does not mean that they never need translation? Persian (7) *no (1), if students get used to translation, it would be difficult to stop using it.	-
9	*no (6) * I think our mother tongue has been internalized in us, so we need translation for better comprehension of the English language(1) * Translation helps speaking a lot provided that one knows grammar very well (1)	-
10	*no (5) * in this field more experienced instructors in translation should teach translation courses (1) *in my opinion, translation students should pass more practical translation courses to gain more expertise in it. In addition, there should be more English/Persian grammar and writing courses since the majority of the students comprehend English texts but have difficulty in writing(1) * I believe that more oral translation courses should be offered in this field(1)	-

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North, Year II, Academic Achievement Score Above 17

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No.	Common views	Other views
1	*students may not be proficient and teachers have to compensate this deficiency through Persian/clarification/make sure comprehensibility/for better comprehension /all the students are not at the same English level (8)	-

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North, Year II, Academic Achievement Score Above 17 (cont.)

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2	<p>*yes(8) -</p> <p>*agree (6)I think by using English students get involved in English learning and learn better, I believe that a foreign language should be learned without reference to the SL</p> <p>*disagree (2), since Persian is our mother tongue, it definitely helps me in learning English. I believe that both L1 &amp; L2 should be used in learning English</p>
3	<p>* yes(5)if I have difficulty in comprehending my English textbooks, or I need to find equivalents, I use Persian(translation)</p> <p>*sometimes (2), for translating and for essay writing</p> <p>*no(1) English language should be used so that students make progress in language learning</p>
4	<p>*helpful (4), translation helps me to learn better and quicker, helps us tackle language problems, we may not be able to comprehend our courses content</p> <p>*(4) sometimes it is helpful, in improving our reading comprehension or writing.</p>
5	<p>*yes (8), in comprehending English textbooks and other English texts, to look up words and find equivalents, to write essays. -</p>
6	<p>*early stages (basic levels) (2)because learners have a very limited knowledge of English language -</p> <p>*at all levels (5) Persian should be used whenever it's needed and it has nothing to do with the students' level. It should be used whenever it helps language learning.</p> <p>*at higher levels (intermediate/advanced) (1) because advanced learners are proficient enough to comprehend/in good command of the TL</p>
7	<p>*reading &amp; writing (3) because translation is a process of reading or and writing what is already being read into another language. -</p> <p>*reading(1), the English language should mostly be used in listening and speaking but translation helps comprehension and learning new English terms</p> <p>*writing(1), translation deals with reading and writing, so it helps writing a lot.</p> <p>*writing &amp; speaking (2), what we read and listen and then translate it into another language in the form of writing and speaking helps writing and speaking skills.</p> <p>*listening and reading(1), if we listen to English recordings and then translate it into Persian helps our listening, it is the same for reading.</p>
8	<p>*yes, as students become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation/ the more they practice the less they depend on translation (7) -</p> <p>* I have no idea</p>
9	<p>*no(8)</p>
10	<p>*no(6) -</p>

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North, Year II, Academic Achievement Score Below 17

No.	Common views	Other views
1	<p>*students may not be proficient /students need to develop skills in both L1 &amp; L2/make sure comprehensibility/for better comprehension /all the students are not at the same proficiency level (8)</p> <p>*some instructors find it easier to teach in L1 (high school teachers)(1)</p>	-
2	<p>*yes(4)</p> <p>*agree (3)I think using by English students get involved in English learning and learn better, I believe that a foreign language should be learned without reference to the SL(2)</p> <p>*disagree (2) I think using translation helps students a lot, I think we need to develop skills in both languages to learn English.</p> <p>*no (4)</p>	-
3	<p>* yes(6)if I have difficulty in comprehending my English textbooks, or I need to look up new terms in a bilingual dictionary, I use Persian(translation)</p> <p>*yes (1), I think both Persian and English are equally needed to learn English.</p> <p>*no(1) I disagree with using Persian/a bilingual dictionary and prefer to get involved in English to learn it.</p>	-
4	<p>*helpful (7), is effective in learning grammar, better comprehension, students, in finding similarities &amp; differences between L1 &amp; L2</p> <p>*makes language learners lazy(1)</p>	-
5	<p>* yes, to save time (2) in learning Grammar (2), in comprehending English textbooks (4),</p> <p>*no(1)</p>	-
6	<p>*at lower levels (basic levels) (5)because learners have a very limited knowledge of English language and cannot comprehend well</p> <p>*at higher levels (intermediate/advanced) (3) because English should be used at lower levels so that students have a strong English background</p>	-
7	<p>*reading, writing &amp; listening (8) because translation is a process of writing what is already being read or listened into another language.</p>	-
8	<p>*yes(7), as students become more proficient in English, they would depend less on translation/ the more they practice the less they depend on translation (6)</p> <p>*no idea (1)</p>	-
9	<p>*no(7)</p> <p>*yes (1) motivation plays a key role in learning another language.</p>	-
10	<p>*yes(4)no(4)</p> <p>*it would be so effective if students spend some time in an English context(1)</p> <p>*if students communicate in English, they can improve their English(1)</p> <p>*students should be proficient to some extent before entering university. otherwise they'd have difficulty to cope with their courses(1)</p> <p>* more practical translation activities should be added to the translation program so that the students gain substantial knowledge of both English &amp; translation(1)</p>	-