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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FORM VS. MEANING FOCUSED
TRANSLATION INSTRUCTION (FROM ENGLISH INTO TURKISH) TO THE
SECOND YEAR ELT STUDENTS

PHD DISSERTATION

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Serhan KÖSE'nin "A Comparative Study of Form vs. Meaning Focused Translation Instruction (From English into Turkish) to the Second Year ELT Students" başlıklı tezi .... tarihinde, jürimiz tarafından Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ ANABİLİM DALI İKİNCİ SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNE YÖNELİK YAPI VE ANLAM ODAKLI ÇEVİRİ ÖĞRETİMİ (İNGİLİZCEDEN TÜRKÇEYE) ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışma yapı ve anlam odaklı çeviri öğretiminin öğrencilerin çeviri, okuma ve dil becerileri üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Ayrıca okuma becerisi iyi, orta ve kötü olan öğrencilerin çeviri becerileri de araştırılmaktadır.

Çalışmada, denekler, Gazi Üniversitesi, Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı ikinci sınıf öğrencileri, 2009-2010 akademik yılı Güz döneminde 10 hafta boyunca çeviri dersinde yapı ve anlam odaklı çeviri öğretimi görmüşlerdir. Nicel ve Nitel veri toplama araçları okuma becerisi testi, çeviri testi, dil becerileri öz değerlendirme ölçeği ve öğrencilerin çeviriye bakış açıları ve strateji kullanma anketidir. Uygulama öncesi ve sonrası yapılan testlerden elde edilen verilere dayanarak anlam odaklı çeviri öğretiminin gerçekleştirildiği gruptaki öğrencilerin yapı odaklı çeviri öğretiminin gerçekleştirildiği gruptaki öğrencilerden çeviri becerileri açısından daha başarılı oldukları görülmüştür. Yine okuma becerisi iyi olan öğrencilerin okuma becerisi orta ve kötü olan öğrencilerden daha iyi çeviri yaptıkları ortaya çıkmıştır.

Beş bölümden oluşan çalışmanın birinci bölümü çalışmanın kuramsal çerçevesini sunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda çalışmanın amacını, kapsamını ve çalışmada kullanılan veri toplama ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini sunmaktadır. Çalışmanın ikinci bölümü, konuyla ilgili kaynak ve veri taramasını kapsamaktadır. Ayrıca, yabancı dil öğreniminin tarihi gelişimi, çeviri ve okuma ile ilgili bilgi içermektedir. Üçüncü bölüm araştırmanın yöntemini, dördüncü bölüm veri analizini ve tartışmasını kapsamaktadır.

Beşinci bölüm ise sonuç bölümü olup, çalışmanın kısa bir özeti yapılmakta ve öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yapı odaklı çeviri öğretim, anlam odaklı çeviri öğretim, çeviri, okuma

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FORM VS. MEANING FOCUSED TRANSLATION
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This study explores the contributions of form and meaning focused translation instruction on the progress of translations, reading and language skills of the students in the Department of English Language Teaching. Also the study investigates the translation skills of good, average and poor readers.

The participants were enrolled in form and meaning focused translation instruction in the translation course for ten weeks in the Fall Semester of 2009-2010 academic year at the Department of English Language Teaching, Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University. The quantitative and qualitative data collection tools were the reading comprehension test, the translation test, the language skills self-assessment scale and the English Language Teaching Department students' beliefs and their strategy use in translation questionnaire. Using data from the tests administered before and after the treatment, it is revealed that students who have been treated with meaning focused translation instruction had performed better than the students who have been treated with form focused translation instruction. Furthermore, it has also revealed that good readers performed better translating skills than the average and poor readers.

This study comprises of five chapters, and the first chapter offers a background to the study. Also in this chapter the aim and scope of the study, and the methods are given. In the second chapter the literature review is presented. The history of foreign language teaching, translation and reading is given in detail. Chapter three deals with the research methodology and the fourth chapter gives the data analysis, and presents a

discussion of the results. Chapter five is the conclusion section and a brief summary of the study is presented.

Key Words: form focused translation instruction, meaning focused translation instruction, translation, reading

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

SL: Second Language

FonF: Focus on Form

FonFS: Focus on Forms

L1: Mother Tongue

L2: Second/Foreign Language

SLT: Source Language Text

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TLT: Target Language Text

ST: Source Text

TT: Target Text

e.g.: for example

i.e.: namely

M: mean (average score)

N: number of students

Sd: standard deviation

Sig.: "p" value

T: "t" value

CHAPTER 1

1.0 Introduction

This section of the study introduces the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, assumptions and research questions, limitations and definition of terms.

1.1 Background of the Study

One of the most debated topics in Second Language Learning has been how language should be presented to the language learner in the classroom. Some language learning researchers as Schmidt (1993a, p. 32) claim that focus on the grammatical form of the second language is best. In contrast, Krashen (1982) claims that "there is no place for grammar in the classroom and it is the meaning that should be emphasised" (p. 48). This issue has recently been discussed in terms of focus-on-form vs. focus-on-meaning. Focus on form consists of drawing the learner's attention on the linguistic features of the language. On the other hand, focus on meaning is concerned with getting the learner to concentrate only on understanding the message being conveyed.

The question is which type of focus is most beneficial for language learners. Is form or meaning focused instruction the best or perhaps a combination? "Over twenty years of research in language learning, this issue is a question of debate and divides both theory and research. Baker (2001) states that the assumptions underlying current SLA theory and attempts to apply them to language teaching are all highly questionable, especially in their denial of the inevitable wish of teachers and learners to attempt a conscious and systematic relation of LI to L2 via translation. It is clear that, before translation can be reinstated as an aid to language acquisition, there needs to be explicit recognition that adult SLA need not necessarily attempt to repeat the stages of child FLA, but can be essentially different in kind (p. 119). Although research has been done in the classroom and the laboratory, in search of a resolution, the question remains unanswered" (Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman & Doughty, 1995, p. 217).

From almost 20 years of instruction studies (Norris & Ortega, 2000), it has become apparent that explicit grammar instruction has a positive effect on second language learning and performance. Instruction treatments of as little as one or two classroom hours have been shown to produce a significant advantage compared to non-focused exposure to specific structures or lack of exposure (control). The question is whether such instruction can have a direct effect on the quality of translations into English, especially for those structures that cause particular difficulty. Although it is quite easy to incorporate explicit instruction of specific features of English grammar into regular translation classes, the questions remain as to whether one should bother with something this basic at the university level, whether it has a positive effect on students' productions, and whether a more implicit approach is sufficient (e.g. exposure to problematic cases in L1 and L2 texts).

It is important for students and teachers to decide on whether to focus on form or meaning. The answer will help to formulate an approach to the question of how language should be taught. In the history of language learning, different theories have been in favour depending on the theory in effect. Teaching methods have changed according to its popularity. As teaching methods in translation have been effected by the methods in language teaching there is not a clear clarification of method and instruction in translation. A formulated theory would solve the problem and help students and teachers avoid from the confusion of form or meaning instruction in language teaching and translation. Without a clear idea of what to focus on, language teachers cannot be confident that they are using the best approach. Translation courses can be used to find out which instruction is more profitable. It is easy to focus only on the meaning or only on the form of a text in translation courses. The aim is to adapt focus on formS (explicit grammar instruction) approach and focus on meaning (communicative) instruction to the translation course.

Translation plays an important role in providing the necessary communication between people. For this reason, translation plays an important role in transmitting the culture and the truth as accurate as possible. Wrong translation can be catastrophic and the mistake irreparable. The students should be aware of the fact that meaning is not only conveyed by the structure and words and they must learn how translation is done and how it must be taught.

Duff (1994) states that "...professional translation is a specialized skill that requires specialized training. The goal of translation is more likely to provide learning opportunities in the process of creating translations as final products in order to develop language awareness. Translation activities should be used in the English classroom, and they should be supported by communicative, natural learning methods" (p. 50). Duff adds that "as a language learning activity, translation has a lot of merits:

- It invites speculation and discussion. In translation there is hardly any 'right' answer, but there are a lot of wrong ones. Doing all the work individually and in writing is not necessary. Students can work in pairs or groups for oral discussion. You may choose short texts for reading and discussion to save the time.

- Translation develops three essential qualities to all language learning: accuracy, clarity and flexibility. "It trains the reader to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)".

- Depending on the students' needs, and on the syllabus, the teacher can select material to illustrate particular aspects of language and structures the students have difficulty with. By working through these difficulties in the mother tongue, the students can see the link between the language (grammar) and usage (p. 48).

Wilss (2004) also puts forth that "one of the characteristic features of translation teaching is the combination of knowledge and skills. The proposition that translation is based on a genuine body of knowledge and skills and that the appropriate discipline for its study is translation teaching seems to be coupled and to move together" (p. 13). Schäffner (2004) states that "for all the exercises we always use authentic texts and make sure that a translation assignment is provided. Since the students are at the same time improving their language skills, we often use source texts and authentic translations on the basis of which we comment on the translation strategies applied and their effectiveness in view of the purpose" (p. 121). El-Sheikh (1987) adds that a communicative approach to the teaching of translation might help the students to develop their skills systematically. One of the skill that is important in translation is reading. Reading is a complex information processing skill in which the reader interacts

with text in order to (re)create meaningful discourse. From this perspective, reading is understood to be a complex cognitive process in which reader and text interact to (re)create meaningful discourse. (Klein, 1988, p. 12). In the investigation of the cognitive process in translating, reading involves nearly the same cognitive process. Clarke and Silberstein (1977) state that reading is only incidentally visual. "More information is contributed by the reader than by the print on the page. That is, readers understand what they read because they are able to take the stimulus beyond its graphic representation and assign it membership to an appropriate group of concepts already stored in their memories. … Skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world" (pp. 136-137).

Since meaning is not directly given by signs but has to be derived from signs, translation cognitive effort aimed at comprehending the meaning encoded in a foreign language text involves complex mental operations that are set off by reading and the ensuing processing of linguistic forms and information they carry. It is agreed among translation scholars interested in comprehension processes that reading for the purpose of translation aims at total comprehension which is more intense and deeper than in that of reading for information. Steiner (1975) puts forth that "comprehensive reading [is] in the heart of the interpretative process" (p. 5) and itself involves an act of manifold interpretation. Halliday and Ruqaiya (1976) states that the translator approaches the text with the aim of transferring its meaning and therefore has to account for every sign and determine its meaning with respect to the linguistic and extra-linguistic context it is found in and in view of the way it contributes to the text as a whole.

Sinclair and Widdowson (1980) also state that although the reader/translator is not able to negotiate meanings by direct confrontation, the reader enters into an imaginary interaction between the author and himself/herself. House (1986) includes that "from the re-creation of such an interaction, the reader derives meanings, which are of course, always mere approximations as there can never be a one-to-one correspondence between any writer's intention and any reader's (or potential translator's) interpretations" (p. 181). According to Boguslawa (2003), to achieve this aim the reader has to carry out an analysis on two levels:

- *a macro-level* constituting its broad context where the translator considers information like general idea/message of the text, topic or subject matter, the attitude and purpose of its author, potential addressees, time and place of writing, its implications and any other relevant facts; and

- *a micro-level* which will take into account the immediate neighbourhood of a text item being it a collocation, a phrase, a word group, a sentence or a paragraph.

As a result, Rose (cited in Boguslawa, 2003) states that some SL text items are immediately spotted as likely to cause transfer problems, some attract quick solutions and some are overlooked even if they later turn out to cause comprehension problems. After the first reading, which is believed to be a standard approach among translators, the process of comprehension has not been completed but in fact has just started.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Throughout the history of language teaching methodologies, researchers have continuously been in search of innovative ideas in order to make language teaching and learning process most effective and efficient for learners. Some of these ideas have been derived from second language acquisition (SLA) research and referred to language classroom applications and concerns. In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), grammar has been a debate in language teaching instruction. The pedagogical approaches to grammar have been less effective for describing complex and multiple language phenomena and exceptions occurring when language was authentically used (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Therefore, the instructional methods of grammar have been theoretically and pedagogically changed in the language teaching settings. With the development of these instructional approaches to L2 grammar in the ELT context, grammar has been continuously considered one of the crucial instructional components for SLA in the ELT context. One of the most frequently debated concerns so far has been whether to instruct the linguistic features of the language or to set the learners free to pick up these features of the language on their own (Pica, 2000).

An important factor is that in the past few decades, there has existed an important and troubling issue about two types of instruction, form focused versus meaning focused,

among researchers and educators (Abraham, 1985; Cadierno-Lopez, 1992; Decoo, 1996; Erlam, 2003; Seliger, 1975; Shaffer, 1989; Williams, 1998). Some researchers (Herron & Tomasello, 1992; Shaffer, 1989) detected an overall advantage for meaning focused instruction, and others (Erlam, 2003; Seliger, 1975) found an advantage for form focused instruction. Besides, some other studies (Abraham, 1985; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999) revealed no significant difference between the form and meaning focused instruction to grammar (Erlam, 2003). All of these studies compared the effects of form and meaning focused instructional methods, and proclaimed conflicting.

Translation education having been effected by SLA has treated grammar in accordance with language teaching. In translation courses teachers have been using different types of instruction according to their own interest and aim. When grammar translation method was in popularity the translation teachers used this method and when new approaches and methods came into sight they adapted them to their translation teaching environment.

Adapting focus-on-formS (explicit grammar instruction) to translation instruction is a way to increase the translation skills of the students. Ehrensberger-Dow and Jekat (2005) state that the issue of language contact may be accentuated with translation into a second language since presumably L1 language structures compete as tempting but sometimes inappropriate alternatives to L2 structures. Herdina and Jessner (2002) refer to 'cross-linguistic interaction' to explain the dynamic aspect of a multilingual system but make no claims as to its effects on translation performance. Campbell (2000) argues that it may be difficult for translators to avoid L2 grammatical forms and lexis that they are not completely confident about because in translation tasks the propositional content is already given, thus possibly restricting syntactic and lexical choices. On the other hand, Nord (1988) states that in translation classes, instruction should allow for the incomplete nature of the translation student's foreign language competence. House (1980) proposed a student centred approach based on communicative translation for use in the teaching of translation skills to foreign language student teachers. House justifies a communicative translation method in foreign language teaching because in most of the German Lander the primary teaching objective is the development of communicative competence. According to House,

"students should be made to forget pedagogical context and to stimulate a real act of communication in which s/he is personally implicated" (p. 10).

The question is which type of focus is most beneficial for foreign language learners in translation classes. Many of the numerous models of translation are intuitively appealing and apparently well grounded in theories of comparative linguistics (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958), sociolinguistics (Nida, 1964, 1977, 1978; Pergnier, 1981), hermeneutics (Steiner, 1975), or special theories of translation (Seleskovitch, 1976). Kiraly (1990a) puts forth that these models focus on particular aspects of the complex act of translation and, while they may appear to contradict each other, it is probable that each tells part of the story and that empirical evidence can help to put the cultural, interactional, and grammatical pieces of the translation puzzle together (p. 14).

To summarize, due to these problems caused by the conflict between form and meaning focused instruction, it is essential to examine whether a form focused translation instructional approach might be more effective than the meaning focused translation instructional approach in Turkish ELT University level classroom contexts. These two treatments can be applied in the Translation course. The aim is to compare explicit grammar instruction and a communicative translation instruction in the translation classes.

Translation is part of the curriculum in ELT departments, although it has not received importance due to various problems. These problems are the ambiguity in the definition of translation prepared by Higher Education Council (YÖK), the problems of students with the course, teachers, and students' attitudes towards translation, lack of concrete methodologies and techniques in the courses, objectives and content of translation courses at Education Faculties. The objective of the translation courses at education faculties as indicated in the new academic program prepared by Higher Education Council (YÖK) is described as "activities of translating original daily and academic source texts into the target language and as assessment techniques". As seen in this description, it does not make a distinction in the use of translation as a tool to teach or as an objective to develop translation skills.

Researchers (Aslan, 1997; Coşkun, 1996) draw attention to the failure of the translation courses in the Education Faculties by stating that such courses lack methodological and theoretical basis as to the content, objectives, approaches, methods, techniques and strategies, and assessment. The general belief that any person with knowledge of a foreign language can translate has a negative effect on both the teachers and students towards translation. Researchers in this field further state that translation courses must be systematic and easily followed by students. If translation courses are carried out systematically, students can make connections with other lessons. Moreover, continuity can be achieved by setting and identifying the objectives, subjects, strategies, techniques, methods, tools, and assessment techniques. Students must be taught how to apply the methods to the assigned texts so that they could follow the courses with success. Otherwise, the translation courses will result in failure (Kurultay, 1995; Coşkun, 1996).

Another point is "the lack of the specification of the situation and the purpose of the translation for the students." It is important to identify the situation for the students because "when the prospective communicative situation is clearly defined, linguistic errors are committed less frequently" (Nord, 1994, p. 65). When translating a text, students come into contact with all the main ideas and specific details of a reading passage. Translation necessitates the close reading of the entire passage, which provides valuable information for the instructor. Translation can improve comprehension since it encourages the students to read a passage carefully and precisely at the word, sentence, and text levels (Van Els et al. 1984).

As this view puts forth, the use of translation can be a tool to improve the language skills, mostly the reading skill. Students use different reading strategies as scanning a text for specific details and skimming for main ideas. Yet, research in this field is not sufficient enough to come to a certain decision.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to find out an answer to whether form or meaning focused translation instruction approach are more influential in translating texts. And

whether they have any effect in improving the translating skills of the trainees? Consequently, the study is aimed at revealing and analyzing 2nd year trainees' tendencies in using form and meaning based strategies in translation. The reason for concentrating on explicit grammar instruction in translation is that the aim of using translation exercises for enhancing L2 learning in this study was to make learners apply their explicit knowledge of a grammatical rule repeatedly in exercises so that they develop an ability to generalise from the rule and translate correctly and with increasing automaticity. It would involve raising learners' awareness of their L2 grammatical system as well. Focused on the target structure only the learners' explicit knowledge was tapped in that tests and exercises focused exclusively on form in one group and communicative translation instruction in the other group was applied.

Ehrensberger-Dow and Jekat (2005) put forth that although even our first year translation students are highly competent in English and may be aware of L2 grammatical rules at the sentence level, they may simply lack the experience to judge which form is appropriate since much of natural usage is pragmatically and contextually driven. Although even the second year translation students may be aware of L2 grammatical rules at the sentence level, much of natural usage is actually pragmatically and contextually driven. Transfer from L2, grammar language instruction may be quite limited in translation tasks, where L1 language structures sometimes compete as tempting but inappropriate alternatives to English structures. Students must become aware of the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information content of proper choices in various textual contexts. To this end, the study employs an investigation on the comparison of the possible effects of form and meaning focused translation treatment of ELT trainees. Some structures in English similar to Turkish may be grammatically possible, but unusual or of questionable acceptability to native speakers. Therefore, a quantitative experimental design is conducted with two groups, in which the experimental group receives meaning focused translation treatment and the control group which receives form focused translation treatment.

As translation needs the usage of most of the language skills, the students can also improve their language skills with the study of translation. Reading as a dominant skill in translating has an important effect in translating as well. Do good readers translate better than the poor and average readers? This study will investigate if the

reading comprehension level of the trainees influence translating and which of the instruction, form or meaning focused translation instruction, is more effective in improving the translating skills of ELT students. This study will also investigate the affect of translation in improving the reading comprehension levels of the students.

1.4 The Significance of the Study

The significance of the study is twofold; theoretical and pedagogical. On the theoretical level, the research is designed to examine how form and meaning focused translation treatment can be best conducted and which type of instruction has the greatest effects on the translating skills. Ehrensberger-Dow and Jekat (2005) state that it can be assumed that frequently-occurring structures in one language might represent possible but unusual patterns in the other. Although it is quite easy to incorporate explicit instruction of specific features of English grammar into regular translation classes, the questions remain as to whether one should bother with something this basic at the university level, whether it has a positive effect on students' productions, and whether a more implicit approach is sufficient (e.g. exposure to problematic cases in L1 and L2 texts).

On the pedagogical level, the existing Translation courses are designed to improve the students' academic translating skills and the course content differs according to the lecturer. Consequently, the study specifically aims to explore and offer ways of incorporating focus-on-form and focus-on-meaning treatment into Translation classes in order to eliminate the students' inaccuracies in their products. Also, this research is designed to find out if the level of reading comprehension has a positive effect on translation skills. It is to find out if the higher the reading comprehension level is the better translation will be.

1.5 Assumptions and Research Questions

In this study, there are 75 students in total. The experimental group consists of 40 students and the control group consists of 35 students. The assumptions are;

1. Different school experiences of the subjects involved in this study were not considered because of the fact that the University Entrance Examination they had taken required the students to be considerably proficient. The students also passed the preparatory and first year in the ELT Department. It was assumed that their level of language was more or less the same and had similar cognitive skills and abilities.

2. Advanced learners may be more able to focus-on-formS and meaning simultaneously because they have a more developed grammatical and lexical system in the target language. As a result, any attempt to direct the advanced learner to focus on the formal features of the target text while processing for meaning may not have a negative effect on their ability to translate the target text.

3. That translation is (a) is linguistic behavior, (b) involves cognitive information processing, (c) can be seen as communicative interaction in a social and cultural context, and that (d) translation skill learning is related to other types of second-language learning, these can be achieved by form (explicit grammar instruction) or meaning (communicative) focused translation instruction.

Regarding the assumptions of this study, the research was conducted in order to answer the following questions:

1. Do the usages of form or meaning focused translation instruction improve the ELT students translating skills?

2. Will there be a difference in the translation and reading scores of the students in the experimental and control group?

3. Will there be a difference in the language skills self-assessment scores of the students in the experimental and control group?

4. Do students who are good in reading translate better than the poor or average readers?

5. Does translation improve the reading skill of the students?

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The study has the following limitations:

a) One of the main limitations of this study is that it investigated only the students who take the Translation course. The sample of this study is limited to 2nd year students in ELT Department, Gazi University, Ankara. This study is also limited to the course of translating from English into Turkish.

b) The subjects of the study had been exposed to some kind of language instruction during their preparatory and first year. However, what kind of instruction (i.e., form or meaning focused) they had received is not known, and this variable may have effects on their subsequent language learning at university. This issue is not considered in the discussion of the findings.

c) Form or meaning focused translation instruction treatment may have different effects on the trainees due to learning styles and strategies. However, this point is not taken into account while discussing the findings of the study.

d) The teacher, who delivered the form focused translation instruction treatment to the control group and the teacher who delivered the meaning focused translation instruction treatment to the experimental group are two different teachers than the researcher. However, this issue is not considered in the discussion of the findings.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Form Focused Instruction: Requires the student to focus on the grammatical correctness or incorrectness.

Meaning Focused Instruction: Requires the student to focus on the message being conveyed by the L2.

Translation: Transferring the meaning of the source language text into the receptor language text

Source Language: The language that supplies information (in this case English)

Target Language: Receptor language (in this case Turkish)

Text: Source language document

1.8 Conclusion

In this chapter the rationale, research questions, significance of the study, and definitions of terms have been described. In the next chapter, the literature related to this study will be reviewed. In the third chapter, methodology, detailed information about the research design, participants, instruments and the data collection procedure will be described. In the fourth chapter the results will be presented and, the fifth chapter will conclude the study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Perspectives on Translation

This section aims to inform about the process of translation from past to present. How translation was taught and its relation with English Language Teaching is the main concern of the study. This part will alsovdeal with the definition of translation, history of translation, theories of translation, teaching methods of translation, history of translation in ELT, problems in translation, place of translation in ELT, the relation between reading and translation and form and meaning focused translation instruction.

2.1.1 Definition of Translation

Etymologically, "translation is a 'carrying across' or 'bringing across': the Latin translatio derives from transferre (trans, 'across' + ferre, 'to carry' or 'to bring')" (Translation, 2005, p. 1). Shiyab S. and Abdullateef M. (2001) defines translation as "… transferring the meaning of a text from one language to another, and such transference has to account for the textual, grammatical and pragmatic meanings of the text to be translated, taking into account that meaning necessitates reference to linguistic and non-linguistic factors embedded within the text" (pp. 1-5). They also state that although the word-for-word translation and the grammar-translation methods are the earliest types of translation, one should note that interlinear translation is used in the grammar-translation method, whereas word for word and literal translation are used in contrastive analysis.

Hatim and Mason (1997) consider translation as "an act of communication which attempts to relay, across cultural and linguistic boundaries, another act of communication" (p. 1). In most cases, according to Houbert (1998), "translation is to be understood as the process whereby a message expressed in a specific source language is

linguistically transformed in order to be understood by readers of the target language" (p. 1).

Nida (1984) points out: "Translation consists of 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" (p. 83). Likewise, translation, as Bell (1991, p. 8) asserts, involves the transfer of meaning from a text in one language into a text in another language. Translation can also be taken into consideration as "the process of establishing equivalence between the source language texts and target language texts" (Sa'edi, 2004, p. 242), which aims at passing on "an understanding to people in their own language and create the same impact as the original text" (Galibert, 2004, p. 1).

Spivak (1992), considering translation as "the most intimate act of reading" (p.398), writes that, "unless the translator has earned the right to become an intimate reader, she cannot surrender to the text, cannot respond to the special call of the text" (p.400). In general, what seems to be understood as translation, as Bassnett (1994) writes, includes rendering an SL text to a TL text "so as to ensure that 1) the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar, and 2) the structure of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted" (p.2).

The term 'translation' can be used in different ways in various contexts. In a rather broad sense, Jakobson (1959) defined three types of translation: (1) intralingual translation, or rewording, refers to an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs in the same language; (2) interlingual translation, or translation proper, is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language; and (3) intersemiotic translation, or transmutation, involves an interpretation by means of a nonverbal sign system. Among the three types of translation, interlingual translation can be considered as the use of one's first language to understand and interpret another language, and is often used in the field of foreign language teaching and learning.

2.1.2 History of Translation

When we talk about the history of translation, we should think of the theories and names that emerged at different periods. In fact, each era is characterized by specific changes in translation history, but these changes differ from one place to another. Baker (2001) emphasizes that the history of translation can focus on practice or theory, or both. The history of the practice of translation deals with such questions as what has been translated, by whom, under what circumstances, and in what social or political context. History of theory, or discourse on translation, deals with the following kinds of questions: what translators have had to say about their art/craft/science; how translations have been evaluated at different periods; what kinds of recommendations translators have made, or how translation has been taught; and how this discourse is related to other discourses of the same period (p. 101). Robinson (1997b) states that large parts of translation history - theory and practice - are marked by a lack of appreciation of the significance of the task of comprehension. The ignorance, the non-sensical approaches, and some of the theoretical and practical mishaps throughout the last two thousand years of translation history have laid the ideal groundwork for the theoretical insufficiencies that reign in much of the discipline and most scholarly literature today (p. 14).

Researchers mention that writings on translation go back to the Romans. Eric Jacobson claims that translating is a Roman invention (McGuire, 1980, p. 2). Cicero and Horace (first century BC) were the first theorists who distinguished between word-for-word translation and sense-for-sense translation. Their comments on translation practice influenced the following generations of translation up to the twentieth century. In a similar vein, it is said that the first reliable theoretical discourses on translation stem from the Romans, and Cicero in particular can be credited with linguistic, literary, and philosophical insights that can be considered foundational for the theory of translation. Robinson (1997b) states that unfortunately, despite his abilities as a translator, Cicero neither truly respected the task nor did he attempt to hide his intellectual belittlement of it - characterizing the practice of translation merely as "daily exercises of youth" and "graceful recreation" (pp. 7-11). In addition, Cicero's philosophy of translation - if one can call it that – interestingly enough mirrors the political tactics of his culture: he conquers the texts he translates, very much in the way that Steiner describes the process

almost two thousand years later: "The translator invades, extracts, and brings home". It is supposed that the first translation in Western civilization is in the third century BC, the Septuagin. The first known description of the project in the Epistles of Aristeas from approximately 130 BC interestingly enough makes no mention of such super-natural influences: "And so they [the translators] proceeded to carry it [the translation] out, making all details harmonize by mutual comparisons. The appropriate result of the harmonization was reduced to writing under the direction of Demetrius" (p. 5).

Another period that knew a changing step in translation development was marked by St Jerome (fourth century CE). "His approach to translating the Greek Septuagint Bible into Latin would affect later translations of the scriptures" (Munday, 2001, p. 4). Lefevere (1990) states that "translations were produced and read as exercises, first pedagogical exercises, and, later on, as exercises in cultural appropriation - in the conscious and unconscious usurpation of authority" (p. 16). Augustine was extremely insightful in his linguistic theories and his philosophy of language – but his view of translation is marked by an oppression that recalls the Roman translation tradition. The same holds true for St. Jerome and Cicero's (p. 17).

The invention of printing techniques in the fifteenth century developed the field of translation and helped in the appearance of early theorists. Lefevere (1990) states that the Roman translation tradition is further supported by the fact that translation - practice and theory - during the Middle Ages has in large parts established its own literature, such as the works by Hans Vermeer and Jeanette Beer, and is for the most part separated from studies of translation of antiquity and modern times. Another example of historical contribution to the problematic state of translation theory today is the French translation approach from the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. After the replacement of Latin as Europe's reining international language, French quickly extended its dominance into the realm of translation as well. The translation theories and practices that developed out of this power shift produced remarkable works of art but not particularly commendable translations (pp. 17-18). Lefevere (1990) adds that the problems with such an approach, which was simultaneously praised and criticized but which certainly represented the established mode of translation at the time, are not the actual changes themselves that resulted out of such an approach but the motivations behind them, the refusal to commit to the 'reasoning of the author'. French translators

of that time in many cases did not respect artistic autonomy of the original work but appended, modified, and stripped texts at their discretion, essentially subordinating translative strategies to literary ideas (p. 18).

McGuire (1980) states that the seventeenth century knew the birth of many influential theorists such as Sir John Denhom (1615-69), Abraham Cowley (1618-67), John Dryden (1631-1700), who was famous for his distinction between three types of translation; metaphrase, paraphrase and imitation, and Alexander Pope (1688-1744). In the eighteenth century, the translator was compared to an artist with a moral duty both to the work of the original author and to the receiver. Moreover, with the enhancement of new theories and volumes on translation process, the study of translation started to be systematic; Alexander Frayer Tayler's (1791) volume Principles of Translation is a case in point.

The nineteenth century was characterized by two conflicting tendencies; the first considered translation as a category of thought and saw the translator as a creative genius, who enriches the literature and language into which he is translating, while the second saw him through the mechanical function of making a text or an author known (p. 46). The period of the nineteenth century led to the birth of many theories and translations in the domain of literature, especially poetic translation. An example of these translations is the one used by Edward Fitzgerald (1809-1863) for Rubaiyat Omar Al-Khayyam (1858). In the same sense, Lefevere (1992) puts forth that further deleterious impact on the theoretical understanding of translation came in the twentieth century through the introduction and establishment of linguistics as independent discipline. Despite a growing need for an organized and structured study of language, particularly after Wittgenstein's work, its contributions to the field of translation were as innovative as harmful. Scholars like Chomsky, Jakobson, and Nida contributed to a shift away from literary and philological translation philosophies and emphasized translation theories grounded in technical, more static concepts (pp.19-20). However, the increasing predominance of linguistics in translation still did not provide satisfactory answers to the questions regarding its contributions or jurisdiction, since in many cases, as Lefevere (1992) notes, "early 'textbooks' on translation read like a rewriting of the dominant linguistic theories of the time, including some that lacked direct relevance for translation. (...) Theories of linguistics deal with language as an abstract system, the

Saussurean 'langue', whereas translators and translation scholars are interested in language in concrete use, the Saussurean parole" (p. 7).

As Lefevere (1992) mentions, one significant problem with the incorporation of linguistics into Translation Studies - or more appropriately stated, the other way around - is the static quality of the evaluative system established and employed by many linguists. Letters, words, sentences, and other lexical units are in many cases subjected to the same sets of examination and analysis methods, regardless of original culture and linguistic source. The comprehensive aspect of translation is neither properly customized to the source language nor are the ambiguities and cultural elements of this language treated adequately in most cases. The results are a number of theories with a framework too static to withstand the fluidity and flexibility required for the task of translation. Nida (1964), for example, describes translation as "reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, secondly in terms of style" (p. 12). In this case, Nida unequivocally assigns priority of the content over that of form and fails to take many of the non-scientific factors of translation into account in his 'science' of translation. Nida's failure to define his concept of 'natural equivalents' more concretely has been much criticized (p. 21). Lefevere (1992) also adds that Martin Luther is as important for the field of translation. With his translation, Luther not only grounded the religious text but the practice of translation as well. He opened up a different field of argument - particularly regarding the translation of spiritual and sacred texts - and was, in his own somewhat self-centred demeanour, keenly aware of the fact that his translation would not simply stand on its own but have consequences and create actual change in the approaches to language and, even more so, translation itself (pp. 24-25). The other significantly positive contribution to the landscape of translation in Germany and Europe came from Friedrich Daniel Schleiermacher and some of his contemporaries in the early nineteenth century.

Mehrach (1977) puts forth that in the second half of the twentieth century, studies on translation became an important course in language teaching and learning at schools. What adds to its value is the creation of a variety of methods and models of translation. For instance, the grammar-translation method studies the grammatical rules and structures of foreign languages. The cultural model is also a witness for the

development of translation studies in the period. It required in translation not only a word-for-word substitution, but also a cultural understanding of the way people in different societies think (p. 6). With this model, we can distinguish between the ethnographical-semantic method and the dynamic equivalent method. Another model that appears in the period is text-based translation model, which focuses on texts rather than words or sentences in translation process. This model includes a variety of sub-models: the interpretative model, the text linguistic model and models of translation quality assessments that in turn provide us with many models such as those of Riess, Wilss, Koller, House, North and Hulst (p. 4-5). Zakhir (2009) adds that this period is also characterized by pragmatic and systematic approach to the study of translation. The most famous writings and figures that characterize the twenties are those of Jean-Paul Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Alfred Malblanc (1963), George Mounin (1963), John C. Catford. (1969), Eugene Nida (1964), who is affected by the Chomskyan generative grammar in his theories of translation, De Beaugrand, and many others who worked and still work for the development of the domain (p. 5).

Wilss (1982) elaborates: "On the whole, the history of translation theory reflects very speculative and impressionistic attitudes. The relative stagnation of the discussion of translation problems can be regarded as being indicative of the fact that translation theory, in its historical dimensions, failed to develop an adequate concept of its subject-matter. It was unable to distinguish between factual, descriptive statements and normative, evaluative statements" (p. 31).

Translation, born as an oral activity, started to be a written activity, in France, only during the Renaissance. Since that period on, there has been an increasing of interventions, arguments, debates accompanied by an increasing demand of texts to translate, although the real development is registered at the beginning of the 20th century. Until the first half of the 20th century, only translators were interested into issues related to translation. In fact there was not a real translation theory, but just comments on one or another issue related to translation. It was for the second post-war period to have theoretical contributions helpful for the formulation of a real theory. That period saw authors who faced, in a global way, the translation field, leading to the birth of a real linguistic science. It is these practices and strategies and their contributions to

translation practice and theory that are in large parts responsible for the problematic situation in Translation Studies with which we are faced today.

Zakhir (2009) adds that nowadays, translation research started to take another path, which is more automatic. The invention of the internet, together with the new technological developments in communication and digital materials, has increased cultural exchanges between nations. This leads translators to look for ways to cope with these changes and to look for more practical techniques that enable them to translate more and waste less. They also felt the need to enter the world of cinematographic translation, hence the birth of audiovisual translation. The latter technique, also called screen translation, is concerned with the translation of all kinds of TV programs, including films, series, and documentaries. This field is based on computers and translation software programs, and it is composed of two methods: dubbing and subtitling. In fact, audiovisual translation marks a changing era in the domain of translation (p. 5). Morgan (2009) also adds that theorists and scholars from various fields have been employing kinds of practice for decades and now, feminists, deconstructionists, or post-colonialists. Familiar literary works are approached with a new and purpose-driven theory under which the aspects deemed relevant for the specific field, for this type of understanding, become magnified - whether they be gender relations or the representation of womanhood in feminism, the "specificity of a text's critical difference from itself" in deconstruction, or traces of imperialist philosophy and slave-master relations in postcolonial studies. In each case, a process of decisions is required in order to determine relevant parameters and their appropriate elements, a process not too dissimilar from the act of translation itself. This process can be facilitated by specific parameters that constitute the desired framework of comprehension (p. 33).

2.1.3 Theories of Translation

Translation is a 'multidimensional task' that benefits from linguistics, stylistics, semiotics, literary history, and aesthetics (Beaugrande, 1994). Thus, translation theory is an 'interdisciplinary' field of study (Newmark, 1988a). "Translation theory is a misnomer, a blanket term, a possible translation, and therefore, a translation label for

'Übersetzungwissenchaft'. In fact, translation theory is neither a theory nor a science, but the body of knowledge that we have and have still to have about the process of translating" (Newmark, 1988b, p.19).

Catford (1969) states that "the theory of translation is concerned with a certain type of relations between languages and is consequently a branch of Comparative Linguistics" (p. 20). According to Catford (1969) one notable difference between the simple use of two languages and translation from one language to another is the "relation between languages can generally be regarded as two directional... translation, as a process, is always uni-directional" (p. 20). In a similar vein, Biçer (2002) states that "translation theory's main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods for a wide range of texts. Further, it provides a framework of principles, restricted rules and hints for translating texts and criticising translations, a background for problem solving. Thus, an institutional term, or a metaphor or synonyms in collocation or metalingual terms may each be translated in many ways, if it is out of context" (p. 67). He (2002) also adds that the translation theory is concerned with choices and decisions, not with the mechanics of either the source language (SL) or the target language (TL). It helps clarify the relation between thought, meaning and language as well as the universal, cultural, and individual aspects of language and behaviour. Further, it helps us understand cultures (p. 67). Historically, the systematic theoretical study of translation did not exist (Venuti, 2004) and translation activity was developed for very specific purposes such as the training of orators (Cicero 46 B.C), the translation of religious texts and the literary texts and philosophical texts. The nature of linguistic meaning and the process of communication by language is a central position in the practice and theory of translation and general linguistic theory.

"The measure of adequacy in translation is the degree of equivalence between the meaning of the original message and the translated (or interpreted) one" whereas in contrastive linguistics it is between "pairs of words or phrases" (Pergnier, 1977, p. 200). A distinction is made between language meaning and message meaning. Language meaning pertains to the words of the language whereas the latter pertains to the words in a given message (Pergnier, 1977; Seleskovitch, 1977). Pergnier (1977) writes:

"Post-Saussurean linguists have demonstrated that languages are autonomous structures at every level, and that neither lexical nor grammatical units of a language can be directly converted into another language and why that is so. This does not mean that translation is impossible or only partly and imperfectly possible. It only means that the equivalences that translation creates are established on the level of message-meaning, not on the level of language-meaning, and that if linguistics wants to promote explanatory models of translation, it must explore in the first place the relationship between the message and each of the two languages involved rather than the degree of equivalence between structures of the two languages" (p. 202).

Grace (1988) talks about the theory of translation in terms of an idealised model in one's thinking. In this model, translation (1) begins with a source-language linguistic expression (a 'text') and seeks to find (or design) (2) a corresponding target-language linguistic expression (text) such that (3) the correspondence between the two is sameness (or at any rate equivalence) of meaning. It is noted that this idealised model does not accurately represent all forms of translation, but that it represents a kind of prototypical form or translation reduced to its essentials. The assumption that the prototypical correspondence between translation equivalents is one of meaning seemed clearly to be wrong. Literary translation, translations of poetry and especially of 'meaningless' poetry, is provided as evidence that the basis of the correspondence may not be meaning.

Bell (1993) puts forth that given the ambiguity of the word 'translation', we can envisage three possible theories depending on the focus of the investigation; the process or the product. These would be:

1. A theory of translation as *process* (i.e. a theory of translating). This would require a study of information processing and, within that, such topics as (a)

perception, (b) memory and (c) the encoding and decoding of messages, and would draw heavily on psychology and on psycholinguistics.

2. A theory of translation as *product* (i.e. a theory of translated texts). This would require a study of texts not merely by means of the traditional levels of linguistic analysis (syntax and semantics) but also making use of stylistics and recent advances in text-linguistics and discourse analysis.

3. A theory of translation as both process *and* product (i.e. a theory of translating-translation). This would require the integrated study of both and such a general theory is, presumably, the long-term goal for translation studies (p. 26).

Bell adds that ideally, a theory must reflect four particular characteristics:

(1) *empiricism;* it must be testable

(2) *determinism;* it must be able to predict

(3) *parsimony;* it must be simple

(4) *generality;* it must be comprehensive (p. 27).

According to Steiner (1975), a theory of translation did not exist in the Middle-Ages and the early Renaissance periods. The main purpose of translation was didactic, and moralistic overtones were considered more important than style. Although translation theory was first formulated by the French humanist Etienne Dolet (1509-46); in his paper La Maniere de bien tradvire (1540), and Steiner thinks that "Jacques Peletier included some sophisticated remarks in his Art Poetique (1555), no theory in any true sense was developed. It was not until George Chapman (1559-1634), the great translator of Homer, who first mentioned his concern for translation theory in his introduction to the Seven Books of the Iliad (1589) that translation theory began to be developed. In the complete Iliad (1611) he developed his theory to a much greater extent than in 1589 and his theory became the foundation for future theorists" (p. 8).

Translation theory revolved around the "faithful vs. free" axis for 2000 years. It has now come to seem increasingly relevant in philosophy, cultural studies, women's studies, psycholinguistics, ethnography, political science, and international communication. Different and apparently conflicting theories are emerging from many parts of the world (Pym, 2002).

Early translation theory had centred around the 'word-for-word' or 'sense-for-sense' debate which continued, intermittently, until the second half of the twentieth century, a conversation focused on what Steiner (1992) delineates as "the sterile triadic model which has dominated the history and theory of the subject" (p. 319). Steiner was alluding to the 'literal,' 'free,' and 'faithful' approaches to translation. In fact, as demonstrated by Munday (2001) and Venuti (2004), the peculiarity of the 'word-for-word' and the 'sense-for-sense' opposition constitutes the core of the writings on translation for centuries. Schleiermacher proposes the word-for-word approach in translation that "departs from the quotidian "to reveal the effect of foreignness in a translated text "for the more precisely the translation adheres to the turns and figures of the original, the more foreign it will seem to its reader" (p. 53). In other word, the word-for-word is a strategy that allows the translator to show the readers that either the text that they are reading is a translation of a foreign text or to reaffirm their powerlessness for not been able to find the adequate structure of their mother tongue to render the foreign passage. Cicero summarizes his theory of translation in the first line if his text, declaring in the first line that he did not translate as an 'interpreter', whose concern is on correspondence of words between languages, but as an 'orator', whose emphasis is on the content and form in order to move the listeners. One indirect factor influencing this stance might have been the bilingual nature of Roman education where the teaching of Greek and Latin prevailed. Translation exercises were used to foster language learning and literary study and readers were expected to detect any shift in meaning since they were all bilinguals. Because grammar, the rival discipline of rhetoric, dominated translation activities, grammarians promoted the strategy of rendering the foreign text word-for-word for stylistic and purity of language purposes.

Hjaltadottir (2005) states that the Romans practiced many forms of translating and it was an important part of their educational system, taught along with grammar and rhetoric. Both Cicero and Horace discuss the difference between word for word and sense for sense translations. Cicero stresses the importance of creating balance between imitation and reason. Cicero and Horace emphasize that the artistic measure of the Target Language (TL) creation is more important than being faithful to the Source Language (SL) text. The art of translating was important to the Romans and the translator's duty was to the TL readers. Thus, the Roman translators took great liberties

with the SL text since they felt being accurate was not as important as keeping the poetic sense intact (pp. 1-2).

Venuti (2004, p. 14) rejected the word-for-word for the effect of culture. It was observed by Schleiermacher that translations were valued according to the degree to which a translation contributes to construct the German language and literature during the Napoleonic wars (p. 5). The cultural role of Roman translation emphasizes "the relative autonomy of the translated text, (TT)" and overrides the sway of correspondence, explaining it as being a "semantic and stylistic correspondence" (cited in Munday, 2001). The depreciation of the literal method is replicated in St Jerome. St Jerome expounds his approach stating that "in the case of the Holy Scriptures, where even the syntax contains a mystery-I render not word-for-word, but sense-for-sense" (St Jerome, 395 CE, 1997, p. 2). Although St Jerome distances himself from the literal strategy, he is cautious in marking a territory where it works well. He believed that in the case of Holy Scriptures, it would be sacrilege to alter even the syntax of the original because these are the words of God. St Jerome's declaration is assumed to be the perfect differentiation and articulation of the word-for-word and sense-for-sense theories, theories that permeate other cultures around the world.

Hjaltadottir (2005) puts forth that in the early seventeen century there existed, side by side, two important theories: The interpretative tradition of Cicero, Horace; as well as the orthodox education in rhetoric, where theorists argued that there should be an absolute equivalence between the SL text and the TL text. "The other strain demanded - apparently under pressure from the developing ideas of the sublime - artistic attitude and spoke in cloudy metaphor about it (p. 4). The seventeenth century saw a great increase and interest in translation theory by both English and French scholars. Translators had begun to take notice of their audience and to please that same audience and theories were being developed, discussed and disputed by various scholars (p. 5). Perrot d'Ablancourt was a French translator who was considered influential in the development of translation theory. His translations were 'free' and he was very concerned about the reader. In fact, pleasing the reader was one of the primary factors of his translation. "The original when translated 'existed' only in that reading, and therefore it becomes to some degree subject to the linguistic and literary field of the culture receiving it" (p. 5). Perrot d'Ablancourt's translation theory made its way into

England in the 1640's and other French ideas concerning translation continued to do so from then on. Sir John Denham, Abraham Cowley, Sir Richard Fanshawe, Sir Edward Sherburne, and Thomas Stanley were at the core of a group of English translators who were very active. Their greatest tribute to translation theory was between 1647 and 1656 (p. 6).

Bassnett-McGuire (1994) talks about Dryden's three basic types of translation which are:

1. *metaphrase,* or turning an author word by word, and line by line, from one language to another;
2. *paraphrase,* or translation with latitude, the Ciceronian 'sense for sense' view of translation;
3. *imitation,* where the translator can abandon the text of the original as he sees fit (p. 60).

Hjaltadottir (2005) adds that Alexander Pope (1688-1744) followed Dryden's ideas of translation theory quite closely. He chooses the middle way, keeping as close to the style of the original as possible while maintaining the feel of the emerging poem. The eighteenth-century translator was concerned with the moral duty to his contemporary reader as well as the freedom to paint or imitate the original. Many major changes were made as translators looked for ways to set standards and record the methods of literary creation (p. 9). Bassnett-McGuire (1994) puts forth that Goethe's (1749-1832) three phases of translation are example of this change. Bassnett-McGuire argues that all literature passes through each phase and that all can happen at the same time within the same language system. The first phase introduces us to "foreign countries on our own terms" (p. 62) and Goethe describes this by using Luther's translation of the Bible in German. In the second phase the translator assimilates the original and writes it in his own style, as the French translators did. The third phase, which he holds in highest regard, is the phase where there is 'perfect identity between' the original language text and the target language text. To achieve this model of translation one must create a new 'manner', which fuses the uniqueness of the original with a new form and structure. Voss, says Goethe, has achieved this in his translation of

Homer. Bassnett-McGuire (1994) continues by saying in his essay, The Principles of Translation (1791), Alexander Fraser Tytler puts forth three basic principles:

1. The translation should give a complete transcript of the idea of the original work.
2. The style and manner of writing should be of the same character as that of the original.
3. The translation should have all the ease of the original composition (p. 64).

Hjaltadottir (2005) puts forth that all through the eighteen-century translation theory stressed the concept of the translator as a painter or imitator, but by the end of the century, translation theory had moved away from idea of the artist as a moralist, towards a discussion of theories of originality. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the question of how to define translation became a topic for discussion: Was translation a creative or a mechanical enterprise? Those who followed the creative theory of translation saw it as a category of thought and the translator as a creative genius in his own right who is able to bring forth the genius of the original, and therefore enriches the literature and language into which he is translating. The latter conceives translation as a more mechanical function of 'making known' a text or an author (p. 10).

The five categories of translation which were developed in the nineteenth century are stated by Bassnett-McGuire (1994) as:

1. Translation as a scholar's activity, where the pre-eminence of the SL text is assumed de facto over any TL version.
2. Translation as a means of encouraging the intelligent reader to return to the SL origin.
3. Translation as a means of helping the TL reader become the equal of what Schleiermacher called the better reader of the original, through a deliberately contrived foreignness in the TL text.
4. Translation as a means whereby the individual translator who sees himself like Aladdin in the enchanted vaults (Rossetti's imaginative image) offers his own pragmatic choice to the TL reader.

5.   Translation as a means through which the translator seeks to upgrade the status of the ST text because it is perceived as being on a lower cultural level (p. 71).

Nida (1964) adds that in the first half of the twentieth century, there were not many changes in translation studies; it more or less adopted the theories of Victorian translation, which focused on word for word translation into ancient English. This style catered to the preferences of few well-to-do educated men. Still, according to Nida, translations underwent a fundamental change during the twentieth century. As a result of the rapid speed of structural linguistics during the 30s, 40s, and 50s (p. 21).

Hjaltadottir (2005) emphasises that in the 1930s Eugene A. Nida developed the technique of componential analysis to gauge the degree of equivalence between words and to ensure their satisfactory translation. He split words up into their components. In fact, it is one of a few linguistic-based concepts that have proved to be of immediate relevance for both the production and the study of translations. Nida also brought forth the concept of dynamic equivalence, which has proven to be very controversial. He adheres to structural linguistics where faithfulness to the original is all-important. The hermeneutic approach to translations also surfaced in the 1930s. George Steiner is the best known of the scholars who advocated this approach. The scholars of the hermeneutic approach believe that "translation means interpretation, and the translator is the mediator between two texts, no longer the finder of equivalences". Hermeneutic scholars conclude that there is no such thing as a perfect translation. This approach to translation study is rather vague. It gets stuck in the psychological process of translation and is caught up in its theological origins, and therefore does not necessarily adhere to common sense (p. 18). Another important figure in the field of translation is Ezra Pound who translated many works and who was not only a skilled translator but also a great critic and a theorist. For him linguistic closeness between the SL and TL was not a primary concern, but stating his case for translation making sense he advocated that evaluating the text in a practical, rather than grammatical way (p. 19).

Catford (1969) in his study 'A Linguistic Theory of Translation' follows with his discussion of the problems of non-translatability, of which there are two categories, linguistic and cultural. Catford proposes that: In translation, there is substitution of TL meanings for SL meanings: not transference of TL meaning into the SL. In transference

there is an implantation of SL meanings into the TL text. These two processes must be clearly differentiated in any theory of translation (p. 48).

Translation studies showed a tendency to move towards a new territory, connecting the large areas of stylistics, literary history, linguistics, semiotics and aesthetics. In the 1970s functional theorists came to the forefront. Munday (2001) puts forth the four main principles Reiss suggests which are:

1   The TT of an informative text should transmit the full referential of conceptual content of the ST. The translation should be in 'plain prose' without redundancy and with the use of explicitation when required.
2   The TT of an expressive text should transmit the aesthetic and artistic form of the ST. The translation should use the 'identifying' method, with the translator adopting the standpoint of the ST author.
3   The TT of an operative text should produce the desired response in the TT receiver. The translation should employ the 'adaptive' method, creating an equivalent effect among TT readers.
4   Audio-medial texts require the 'supplementary' method, supplementing written words with visual images and music (p. 71).

The Skopos theory makes use of philosophy, linguistics, and even medical studies to explain translation. Skopos, a Greek term meaning 'purpose' is a theory based on the purpose of translation (Vermeer, 1989). Translation is seen as an action. Like any action, translation has a purpose defined by the translator. The function of the translation in the TL culture is defined by the purpose of the translation. The Skopos theory makes use of philosophy, linguistics, and even medical studies to explain translation. Skopos, a Greek term meaning 'purpose', is a theory based on the purpose of translation (Vermeer, 1989). Translation is seen as an action. The function of the translation in the TL culture is defined by the purpose of the translation. For example, the function of an advertisement might easily be defined. A commissioner might also identify the purpose of a translation. If there is disagreement on the purpose of a translation, the translator should try to convince the commissioner to change his/her purpose. Concerning the translator's social responsibility and the social task involved in

translating that refers to the public, the commissioner, and the recipients of translation, Vermeer (1992) writes:

> "The commissioner must be made aware that the translator (1) is the expert in transcultural communication on whom the success of the communicative act depends, (2) is a human and not a machine and therefore to be treated as a human and respected as an expert in his field, and (3) is the commissioner's partner who works for him and collaborates with him in order to achieve an optimum result of their joint efforts and therefore needs the commissioner's confidence and goodwill and collaboration" (p.14).

The concept of culture plays an important role in the Skopos theory. The translator has to consider all aspects of cultural differences while translating. Translation takes place between two cultures out of a need for communication. Therefore, translation is not only a transfer of decoding (Vermeer, 1992, p. 3). According to Vermeer, a translator has to do more than to merely transcode a text. A translator has to bring about the 'skopos' of a communicative act. Vermeer writes:

> "In order to carry out his task of transmitting a 'skopos' he is, for example, expected to do research in order to make himself acquainted with all the necessary details of his commission and texts involved – so that he fully understands what the purpose of the communication is and takes into consideration the cultural circumstances into which the target text is supposed to fit; he may have to dig deep into source culture conditions in order to be able to fully appreciate the impact of a source text in its own cultural surroundings etc." (p. 14).

Vermeer (1992) points out that we come across the same problems while perusing publications on translation theory. He makes the following observation:

> "The same problems and the same affirmations about the same problems are repeated again and again: whether it is better to translate literally or freely according to the meaning (or sense) or words or sentences or texts, whether form or meaning (content) of a source text are more important, whether rhyme and rhythm are to be preserved or substituted and so on" (p, 3).

The translation theorist is concerned with meaning, not with the theoretical problems and solutions of semantics, linguistics, and logic or philosophy. The translator has to assess whether the whole or part of a text is 'straight', ironical, or nonsensical. S/he has to decide which varieties of meaning to consider: linguistic, referential, subjective, force or intention of the utterance, performative, inferential, cultural, code meaning, connotative, pragmatic, and semiotic (Newmark, 1988b). In the same vein, Dauzal (2008) states that Translation Theory—or more specifically, translation theories, since there is no single theory applied to translation, but a host of theories that serve differing translational purposes and processes, among others they allow translators to articulate their knowledge of specific translation problems, play key roles in understanding translating processes, create an optimum context for doing translation, and offer translators the flexibility that they need to adapt themselves to diverse translating circumstances (p. 43).

In this day and age, when migrations between countries is on the increase and multicultural societies are being established, many educated people and refugees or disposed people are moving to other countries for some reason or another and as a result are looking for work. The need to be aware and to understand other people's cultures becomes paramount in increasing multicultural societies. The translator's role is even more important than ever before.

2.1.4 Problems in Translation

According to Nida (1975b) "the 'perfect translation' simply does not exist. All translation involves 1) loss of information, 2) addition of information, and/or 3) skewing of information" (p. 27).

A translation problem can arise from the difference in certain kinds of definitions. This problem is defined by Bull (1960), who suggests two separate categories of definition: systemic and compatibility-based. He gives the following example: A systemic definition of *minute*, used as a label for a unit of clock time, must include the observation that clock time is involved and some reference to other units of clock time (60 seconds, $1/60^{th}$ of an hour). It is not difficult to demonstrate that this systemic definition of *minute* cannot be duplicated or seen as compatible with the *minute* of personal time. In personal time, a minute has no fixed length. "I'll be ready in a minute" (p. 2).

Also Nida (1975a) has observed the following as important aspects in any semantic componential analysis of the translation procedure which can cause problems in translation:

(1) Features of single lexical units overlap (common or shared components) Love Like.

(2) Componential features distinguish the meaning of individual lexical units or lexical units with more than one meaning (diagnostic/contrastive).

(3) There are semantically optional features that often have a connotative character and can cause some metaphorical extensions (p. 73).

Youssef (1986) stated that "many of the psycholinguistic and semantic complexities that surface in the process of translation are unpredictable. The reason for this unpredictability is due to the fact that no psychological theory has been able to fully explain the conscious factor that accompanies the process of translation, probably because of individual psychological differences" (pp. 96-97). In defining the collective, partly collective, and individual translation problems Wilss (cited in Youssef, 1986) illustrates them as follows:

Figure 2.1: Collective, Partly Collective and Individual Translation Problems
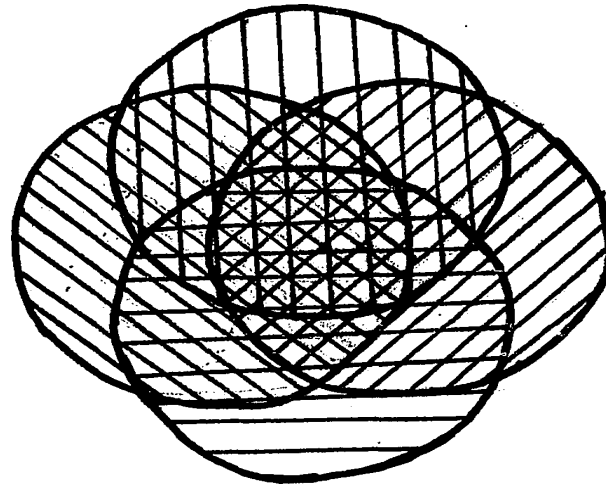
(p. 43)

As it can be seen in Figure 2.1 translation differs according to the person who is translating. The translation generally differs because of the difference in culture, educational background, expectation, strategy use, knowledge of the jargon and word choice. This is one of the main problems in translation.

Levy (1965) shows that due to differences in human perception and translation capabilities, translators tend to alter the SLT in two different ways. He states:

> "When choosing from among several equivalents or quasi-equivalents for a foreign terminology, a translator inevitably tends to choose a general term whose meaning is broader than that of the original one. In consequence, the chosen term is devoid of some of its specific traits. The second most striking phenomena has been the fact that in constructing his sentences, a translator tends to explain the logical relations between ideas even when they are not expressed in the original text. He does that to explain any breaks in thought or changes in perspectives for the purpose of normalizing the expression" (p. 78).

In his study, Youssef (1986) has discussed the translation problems based on perspectives such as: "(a) linguistic (b) philosophical (c) communicative and practical

considerations, and (d) logical orientation" (p. 48). This discussion entailed an explanation of the source of translation difficulties and the effect of the translator's individual differences. Youssef stated them as follows:

1)   Translators, first, analyze the SLT then reconstruct their analysis of the SLT in a TLT linguistic framework.

2)   Translators do not transfer the linguistic features of the SLT into TLT.

3)   Translators do not ignore the first meaningful impact they get from the SLT.

4)   In the process of transference, translators must think of the TLT reader's reaction.

5)   Translators translate the semantic properties of the SLT, not their inferences of the SLT meaning.

6)   Translators anticipate translation difficulties while analyzing the SLT semantic properties.

7)   Translators depend on their linguistic knowledge, contextual analysis, and intuition in the process of moving to TLT.

8)   Translators adjust the TLT linguistic structure to fit the linguistic structure of the TLT and vice-versa.

9)   Translators concern themselves with the impact of their translation product on the TLT reader.

10)   Translators pay special attention to the connotation of the SLT, not to its linguistic specification.

11)   In the process of synthesizing the message in the TLT, translators lose some of the SLT meaning.

12)   Translators realize that a complete transference of meaning into the TLT is impossible.

13)   Translators view translation as intellectual procedure deals mainly with the form and content of the SLT.

14)   Translators are better qualified for L2/L1 translation than vice-versa.

15)   Different text types require not only different transfer methods but also different translation equivalence criteria.

16)   Translators should concentrate on the semantic dimension of the SLT.

17)   The numerous linguistic forms that indicate one single meaning create difficult cognitive choices for the translator. (pp. 120-121).

Lörscher (1991, pp. 39-41) collected 52 translations performed orally on tape by 48 subjects in the first and the second years. They were told to verbalize everything that came into their minds while performing the task. After the translations and reproductions had been recorded on cassette, they were transcribed in order to make them accessible for the subsequent analysis. The study reported some results such as: "three types of translational problems were found and analyzed: lexical, syntactic and lexico-syntactic problems" (p. 202), "one and the same problem can be successfully addressed by different strategies", and "one and the same strategy can be used to solve different problems" (p. 280).

Nord's (1998) puts the translation problems under four categories; culture-specific, language pair-specific, text-specific and pragmatic. Problems in translation can also arise from incorrect equivalence, receptor of the message, textual pragmatics and equivalence, text types, text register, genre and discourse shifts, agents of power, cultural equivalence, and ideology.

2.1.5 History of Translation with Relation to Language Teaching Methods

The relation between translation and language learning actually is based on the usage of the mother tongue in the classroom. The Grammar-Translation method used in foreign language instruction was in use until the 1950s which focused on explaining the meanings of words, translating grammatical forms, memorizing vocabulary, learning rules and studying conjugations. It emphasized accuracy, not fluency; form, not content, lots of writing and very little aural/oral work. The text is treated as exercises for grammatical analysis. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001) one of the principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method is "a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the tasks of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language" (p. 3). Therefore, in this teaching method, the learner's native language remained as a reference system in the acquisition of the target language.

At the end of the 19th century the oral/aural Direct Method became popular as a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method. It attempted to integrate more use of the target language. Material is first presented orally with visual aids. It totally avoided the use of mother tongue and the emphasis was on oral communication and on stressing accurate pronunciation. There is no translation. The approach selected for practical and academic reasons is the Reading Approach, for people who require reading as the only necessary skill in the target language. Vocabulary is expanded as quickly as possible, very little attention is given to grammatical skills or pronunciation. Translation reappears in this approach, as a classroom activity for comprehension purposes of the written text. Hartmann and Stork (1964) also claimed 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). Language teachers were required to avoid using translation, so they wasted a great deal of time and energy on explaining terms and grammar rules that could have been taught more effectively and efficiently using the native language.

Another reaction to Grammar-Translation was the Structural/Audio-Lingual approach. It was also a reaction to compensate the lack of speaking skills in the Reading Approach. Learning of language is systematic and learners are given plenty of controlled practice. Skills are sequenced into: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Its emphasis is on drills, pronunciation and intonation, through abundant use of laboratories, tapes and visual aids. Importance is given to precise native-like pronunciation. Use of the mother tongue by the instructor is permitted, for contrastive analysis between L1 and L2. Students are discouraged to use the mother tongue. As a result of this approach learners were not able to communicate well in real life situations outside of the classroom, so other teaching methods came into use.

Humanistic approaches such as the 'Silent Way' and 'Suggestopaedia' appeared in the early 1970s. The Silent Way suggests that the teacher should be as silent as possible in the classroom, allowing learners to produce as much language as possible. Language was taught through sentences in a sequence based on grammatical complexity. It was criticized for lack of real communication. Suggestopaedia was based on the power of suggestion in learning. In other words, it was believed that positive suggestion would make the learner more receptive to learning. The learners' native

language was used so that they would feel secure in understanding the meaning of the teacher's instructions. In the classroom, the teacher continually translated what the learners wanted to say back to them in the target language, and the learners repeated. In later stages, more and more of the foreign language could be used. Then, the learners were able to speak directly in the foreign language without translation. In this method, translation was used to alleviate the learners' negative feelings in the classroom and to further their learning. Thus, in a sense, using translation was seen as contributing to making learners feel more relaxed and confident in the language classroom.

For the Natural Approach, Krashen and Terrell (1983) suggested that the first principle of this approach was that "comprehension precedes production," and with a strong implication that "the instructor always uses the target language" (p. 20). In Total Physical Response, language was taught through physical activity. Students had to listen attentively to the teacher's commands and respond physically. Their native language was rarely used. In the above-mentioned methods, the role of learners' native language, and hence translation, was ruled out. Teachers were expected implicitly or explicitly to stop students from translating, so that the learners themselves might feel that translating could be detrimental to their learning process.

The 1980s and early 1990s the Communicative Approach gained popularity, which discarded the Grammar-Translation method. Translation was seen as an academic exercise to learn about the target language but not to learn how to use the language. However, Communicative Language teaching might not work as well in EFL contexts as it does in ESL contexts considering English is not used in communication situations on a daily basis, outside the classroom.

As the popularity of approaches such as CLT has increased in the last decades, the usefulness of translation seems to have been overlooked. However, banning translation in the CLT classroom has caused some problems too. As Swan's (1985a, 1985b) critical review of CLT argued, the communicative approach fails to take account of the world knowledge and mother tongue skills that language learners bring with them, with the result that the importance of the mother tongue in language learning is totally ignored. Because of the learners' limited capacity to process a foreign language, teaching activities tend to be time-consuming and often potentially ambiguous to the

learner. When confronted with communicative activities such as group discussion or role-play, many students feel frustrated most of the time in attempting to communicate in the foreign language.

Because students have often been encouraged by their teachers to think in the target language as much as possible, students may have come to believe that it is detrimental for them to depend on their native language while learning and using the target language.

2.1.6 The Importance of Translation in Language Teaching

Translation from the target language to the native language, and vice versa, has been used by foreign language teachers and learners to facilitate language learning for centuries, but it has played different roles under various language teaching methods. While some foreign language educators may consider translation as a critical means to ensure students' comprehension as well as an important writing exercise, other teachers totally ban or discourage the use of the native language and translation in the classroom. As Malmkjær (1998) stated, "the issue of the use of translation in language teaching is one on which most language teachers have a view" (p.1), but fairly often, teachers' views are not strongly in favour of it. Particularly from the turn of the twentieth century onwards, many theoretical works and practical methods in language teaching have assumed that a second language (L2) should be taught without reference to the learners' first language (L1).

From the 1960s onwards, researchers have realized that translation activities have indeed merits which would contribute to language teaching. However, as Newmark (cited in Erer, 2006, p. 12) points out, the literature on teaching translation is rather scarce, although translation has been in the heart of language teaching for centuries. He also mentions that its place in language teaching is closely linked with how the use of students' native language is viewed in the language classroom.

However, according to recent studies carried out on the use of translation as a means for teaching and learning foreign languages, it is shown that translation can be a

valuable tool if used appropriately (Erer, 2006, p. 12). Concerning translation teaching, Hönig (1992, p. 60) claims that one cannot learn translation only by translating. Practical translation can be learned by the application of methodological knowledge. For this reason, education institutions are responsible for developing practical methods of teaching and of assessing translation according to the type of text. Wills (1996) continues: "Nevertheless, translation creativity as a manifestation of translator behaviour does exist, and it is, as any type of creativity, a dynamic notion. The dynamic aspect of translation creativity reveals itself not in original text production, but in the skill to develop, in simultaneous confrontation with a source text and a target code, decoding and encoding strategies" (p. 166).

Translation from the target language to the native language, and vice versa, has been used by foreign language teachers and learners to facilitate language learning for centuries, but it has played different roles under various language teaching methods. While some foreign language educators considered translation as a critical means to ensure students' comprehension as well as an important writing exercise, other teachers totally banned or discouraged the use of the native language and translation in the classroom. As Malmkjær (1998) stated, "the issue of the use of translation in language teaching is one on which most language teachers have a view" (p. 1), but fairly often, teachers' views are not strongly in favour of it. Particularly from the turn of the twentieth century onwards, many theoretical works and practical methods in language teaching have assumed that a second language (L2) should be taught without reference to the learners' first language (L1).

Skerritt (1980) has pointed out what could be considered self-evident when it comes to the development of essentially creative adaptive and analytical skills: The most inadequate teaching method one can imagine in translation studies, especially with respect to creativity, is the lecture or traditional seminar in which a paper is read aloud by a student. ...It has further been proven that while lectures are an appropriate and efficient teaching method when the teaching and learning objectives are the transmission of knowledge and information, small-group work is the most effective when it comes to working with knowledge, and when comprehension and the development of analytic, critical, and creative abilities are involved (p. 36). In addition to its use in transferring meanings and conveying messages, translation can also be used as a strategy for

learning foreign languages. Oxford (1990) defined 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). Similarly, Chamot (1987) described the translation strategy as "using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language" (p. 77).

Newmark (1988a) also states that "translation is a means of transmitting culture and the truth. It is a technique in learning language. Learners become aware of their knowledge of foreign language because of which they become more competent. Translation gives learners the pleasure of searching for the right word and the semantic gap between two languages. The relief of finding the right word is a reward for the learners" (p. 8). The aim of translation is to provide learning opportunities in the process of creating translations and examination of them as final products in order to develop language awareness. Translation activities should be used in the English classroom, and they should be supported by communicative, natural learning methods.

"Translation requires a disciplined study, research on literature and culture, comprehending the theme and style of the text to be translated, getting to know the author, and defining the scope of the translation. Besides, students should have to define the similarities and differences between the languages and cultures. They should have to comprehend what they read, pay attention to the style and essence of the text being as faithful as possible to the text but making it comprehensible. They should first make a comparison of their translations and then read them a few times. Every sentence, paragraph, and section of the text being translated should have to be checked with utmost care. Students will benefit a lot if they read their translations to somebody who does not know of the original" (Bozkurt et al, 1982, p. 19).

In EFL situations in which learners and the teacher share a common native language, translation can serve as a valuable teaching and learning resource, if the teacher can properly administer its use. Zohrevandi (1992) also maintained that in EFL countries, if the students and teachers share the same mother tongue, "translation can be a useful way to accommodate the learners, the course objectives, and the class atmosphere and needs, irrespective of the specific method, or approach" (p. 183). A

significant test of many linguistic and even non-linguistic skills, translation provides students with a linguistically demanding, mind stretching, and creative exercise although this fact seems to have been ignored. In translation courses, students have to learn to make choices, analyse, criticise, and formulate (Webb, 1994, p. 10).

In his book "Translation", Alan Duff (1994) highlights at least 5 reasons for using translation in the classroom:

1. *Influence of the mother tongue:*
   We all have mother tongue, or the 1st language, or the language of habitual use- in the interpretation by Peter Newmark. It shapes our way of thinking and our use of the foreign language to some extent. Translation helps us to understand better the influence of one language on the other. And, because translation involves contrast, it enables us to explore the potential of both languages- their strengths and weaknesses.

2. *Naturalness of the activity:*
   Translation is a natural and necessary activity. Outside the classroom- in airports, offices, banks, etc.- translation is going on all the time .Why not inside the classroom?

3. *The skill aspect:*
   Language competence is a two-way system. We need to be able to communicate both ways: into and from the foreign language. Translation is a perfect means for practicing this vital skill.

4. *The reality of language*:
   The proper material for translation is authentic and wide-ranging: the learner is being brought into touch with the whole language, and not just the parts isolated by the textbooks.

5. *Usefulness:*
As a language learning activity, translation has a lot of merits:

- It invites speculation and discussion. In translation there is hardly any 'right' answer, but there are a lot of wrong ones. Doing all the work individually and in writing is not necessary. Students can work in pairs or groups for oral discussion. You may choose short texts for reading and discussion to save the time.

- Translation develops three essential qualities to all language learning: accuracy, clarity and flexibility. "It trains the reader to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)".

- Depending on the students' needs, and on the syllabus, the teacher can select material to illustrate particular aspects of language and structures the students have difficulty with. By working through these difficulties in the mother tongue, the students can see the link between the language (grammar) and usage.

- Translators will always be needed. Without them, there would be no summit talks, no Olympic Games, no international festivals and so on. And who is to do this work? – Either the professionals, or the students of language (pp. 6-7).

By contrast, some researchers have advocated the use of translation at the advanced level. Levenston (1985) simply claimed that "the older and more intelligent the learner, the more likely he is to benefit from the cautious and judicious use of translation" (p. 38). His statement makes sense in that advanced learners may have already developed a fairly solid foundation in the target language, and thus can more likely discern the subtle differences of vocabulary meaning and grammar usage between their L1 and L2. Perkins (1985) also indicated that through translation instruction, "the advanced learner will always gain some insight into points of L1-L2 difference and conflict on a syntactic, semantic and stylistic level and this may ultimately improve his L2 competence" (p. 53).

From a different point of view, Newmark (cited in Erer, 2006, p. 12) states that translation can contribute to language teaching regardless of the proficiency level of the students. In the early stages, it can be useful in terms of using class time economically, and of making explanations about grammar and vocabulary. In intermediate stages, it enables teachers to remediate student errors through translation activities. He stresses that at this stage translation might prove useful in terms of increasing students' vocabulary in the target language. Finally, in advanced levels, translation into and from the target language can be introduced as a 'fifth skill', in which students make use of the four skills in the final and the most challenging skill since it requires an understanding of two different linguistic systems.

In their study, Laufer and Girsai (2008) investigated whether incorporating contrastive analysis and translation activities into a text-based communicative lesson would make a significant difference in acquiring new vocabulary by comparison with a reading comprehension task alone, and by comparison with other form focused activities following the reading task. The results revealed that the CAT (Contrastive Analysis Translation) group scored significantly higher than the two other groups on all eight tests: four immediate tests-passive recall of single words and of collocations, active recall of single words and of collocations, and four identical delayed tests. The group that did not receive any form-focused instruction learnt almost no vocabulary (p. 709). The evidence from the present research, together with evidence from grammar studies, suggests that there is indeed a place for contrastive analysis and translation activities in L2 teaching (p. 712).

2.2 Language Skills and Translation

Translation is a unique mode of language use (Neubert, 1997, p. 23). Even superficial observations of the translation process show translators mobilizing very diverse, interdisciplinary skills and knowledge to accomplish their tasks: knowledge of languages, subject and real-world knowledge, research skills and qualities such as creativity and problem-solving strategies (Presas, 2000, p. 28). Titford and Hieke (1985) put forth that translation is an activity "usefully engaged in after the basic L2 communicative skills have been taught", and "consolidatory and facilitative" (p. 74). In the same vein, Bernardini (2004) adds that "the implication is that once language skills have been mastered (this is to be achieved at BA level), the translation-specific value added can be acquired in one or two years at most. As we have seen, this is unlikely to be the case. Furthermore, I would object to the view that language skills and translation skills can be treated as two independent variables: first learn the language, then learn to translate" (p. 26). So, in order for a student to do good translation s/he has to gain full improvement of language skills.

Newson (1999) claims that translation can be a useful pedagogical tool provided there is a sound understanding of the many factors affecting the translation process. He

goes as far as to say that translation should be included in a teaching program as a '*fifth skill*' together with the four other skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Wilss (2004) also puts forth that "one of the characteristic features of translation teaching is the combination of knowledge and skills. The proposition that translation is based on a genuine body of knowledge and skills and that the appropriate discipline for its study is translation teaching seems to be coupled and to move together" (p. 13).

Writing plays a very important role in any translation. Since a translation happens in a context and implies the transposition of a source text into a target text, this must fulfil the same constraints of an original text written in the target language. (Aksoy, 2001). Méndez and Vallejo (2009) state that in fact, writing is important for translating, just as important as reading is. Since the former one helps the translator to express the ideas of the source language and the latter one to comprehend the whole message (p. 113).

Bell (1993) asks the question of what does the translator's knowledge-base contain? And the answer has been suggested in the following terms:

> "... the professional, (technical) translator has access to five distinct kinds of knowledge; target language (TL) knowledge; text-type knowledge; source language (SL) knowledge; subject area,('real-world') knowledge; and contrastive knowledge. Add to this the decoding skills of reading and encoding skills of writing and we have a plausible initial listing of (at least some of) the areas which need to be included in any specification of the translator's competence" (p. 36).

Zohrevandi (1992) argued that translation does not need to be the ultimate goal of language teaching, but it can be a resourceful tool for students to explore grammar, build and activate vocabulary, comprehend reading, and perform listening and speaking activities. Also, Brehm (1997) focuses on reading for translators and incorporates useful

insights from studies in reading acquisition in first and second languages. Séguinot (1994) points out the usefulness of teaching technical writing to trainee translators and Koltay (1998) defends including technical and academic writing in translation curricula.

Perkins (1985) also indicated that through translation instruction, "the advanced learner will always gain some insight into points of L1-L2 difference and conflict on a syntactic, semantic and stylistic level and this may ultimately improve his L2 competence" (p.53). Cognitive models recently used to define (PACTE, 2000; Neubert, 1997, 2000) and evaluate (Orozco, 2000; Adab, 2000) translation competence postulate that it is made up of a number of continuously evolving sub-competences feeding into and off one another, each with a cluster of sub-components. PACTE for instance, identifies six such sub-competences. The first four are largely self-explanatory: communicative competence, comprising the knowledge system and skills needed for linguistic communication; extra-linguistic competence, covering general world knowledge, specific subject knowledge and cultural knowledge in the source and target cultures; psychophysiological competence, "the ability to use all kinds of psychomotor, cognitive and attitudinal resources" (PACTE, 2000, p. 102); and instrumental-professional competence, composed of knowledge and skills related to using the tools of the translator's trade and to the translation profession as a whole. The remaining two occupy central positions in the actual accomplishment of translational objectives. Transfer competence, recognized by both PACTE (2000, p. 102) and Neubert (2000, p. 6) as the one which integrates all the others and as the key distinguishing provenance of the translator, embodies the ability to bring about an adequate transfer from the source to the target text, establishing bridges or linking mechanisms between the translator's working languages (Presas, 2000, p. 27). Finally, strategic competence encompasses all procedures used to solve problems during the translation process, and can thus be seen as the ability to control the interaction between all the other sub-competences to effect transfer. Dynamic and open-ended, these models present translation competence as a process of building and rebuilding knowledge and skills.

While university level translator training programs comprise various types of courses, including seminars in linguistics, literature, and area studies, as well as remedial classes in foreign language skills, the instructional sessions of primary interest in this study are those in which learners are supposed to acquire translation skills (Enns-

Conolly, 1986; Rohl, 1983; Wilss, 1977). El-Sheikh (1987) suggested a communicative approach to the teaching of translation that might help the students to develop their language skills systematically.

Studies have been conducted in relation to language skills. Beeby (2004) stated that "Berenguer's (1996) pioneer proposal is based on the skills she considered to be important for a translator in the context of German as a C language. She proposed exercises to develop five main skills: (1) Reading comprehension exercises based on 'deverbalisation' (Delisle 1980) and translation-oriented discourse analysis (Nord 1991; Elena 1990). (2) Exercises to separate the two languages in contact that focus on differences in: writing conventions, vocabulary, grammar and text types. (3) Exercises to develop documentation techniques. (4) Exercises to develop cultural expertise in the foreign culture. (5) Exercises to develop translation awareness" (p. 40).

Schäffner (2004) states that "for all the exercises we always use authentic texts and make sure that a translation assignment is provided. Since the students are at the same time improving their language skills, we often use source texts and authentic translations on the basis of which we comment on the translation strategies applied and their effectiveness in view of the (assumed) purpose" (p. 121).

Teachers who can form their own prescriptions according to the needs of their students might be successful using any given method. The key to addressing learners' needs is being eclectic rather than being monolithic, translation can play a role in an integrated way, where all the five skills, namely, reading, writing, listening, speaking, and translation, are dealt with. Translation can be especially beneficial in establishing a balance between accuracy and fluency in classroom activities (Erer, 2006, p. 11).

The use of translation could be a valuable resource or tool that can contribute to the development of various language skills. For example, in a group discussion task, students' language shifts between their mother tongue and the target language might function as an effective strategy to enhance communication among group members. Also, the strategic use of L1 or translation would be helpful in developing learners' reading efficiency and maintaining the flow of their conversation and writing tasks.

2.2.1 The Importance of Reading in Translation

Dealing with unfamiliar words in a text or a reading passage Grellet (1987, p. 14) contends the following statement that inferring means making use of syntactic, logical and cultural clues to discover the meaning of unknown elements. If these are words, then word-formation and derivation will also play an important part. When dealing with a new text, it is better not to explain the difficult words to the learners beforehand. They would only get used to being given 'pre-processed' texts and would never make the effort to cope with a difficult passage on their own. On the contrary, students should be encouraged to make a guess at the meaning of the words they do not know rather than look them up in a dictionary. If they need to look at the dictionary to get a precise meaning – which is an important and necessary activity – they should only do so after having tried to work out a solution on their own.

The reader's task is to activate background and linguistic knowledge to recreate the writer's intended meaning (Chastain, 1988b, p. 222). But, all scholars do not agree with the statement that translation will improve reading or vice versa and include that such a procedure as translation will have no contribution in terms of developing reading comprehension skills. Knapp (1980) agrees with this argument and states that:

> "…the two activities that we spend most time on in a reading lesson are introduction, particularly the introduction of new words and phrases, and later the comprehension checking questions deal primarily with the understanding of that passage and the remembering of its content in detail as if these were the main purpose of our reading lesson. They do not directly deal with skill development, with helping the student develop more effective reading practises, with the skills that would help the student deal well with any other reading selections. Instead, they are focused on helping the reader learn and retain the information in that particular selection" (p. 350).

On the other hand, Basnett (1998) points out that "translation offers a crucial lesson in how to read since it is a critical way into the text" (p. 111). Coady (1980) adds that "the benefit of such reading will be twofold: confidence in oneself and exposure to the very syntactic patterns which must be learned" (p. 12). Also, in Clarke and Silberstein's (1977) words:

> "Research has shown that reading is only incidentally visual. More information is contributed by the reader than by the print on the page. That is, readers understand what they read because they are able to take the stimulus beyond its graphic representation and assign it membership to an appropriate group of concepts already stored in their memories. … Skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world" (pp. 136-137).

Macizo and Bajo (2004) in their study, done two experiments, they examined reading comprehension processes when professional translators were instructed to read for understanding or to read for translation. Their findings have put forth interesting results. In their research Macizo and Bajo (2004) have came to a result that reading and translation has the same comprehension process and have included that:

> "Language comprehension includes a set of processes going from speech processing (segmentation and classification of the incoming input), lexical access (recognition of isolated words and access to information associated with them), and sentential processing (extraction and combination of syntactic information to obtain a sentence interpretation), to discourse processing (integration and interpretation of successive sentences to arrive at a global mental representation). All of these comprehension processes are involved during both normal reading and translation" (p. 181).

Macizo and Bajo (2004) also put forth that "hence, according to the horizontal view of translation, although normal reading and reading for translation would involve similar comprehension processes, parallel code-switching processes would increase WM (working memory) requirements when reading for translation" (p. 186). Macizo and Bajo (2004), in the same research, have come up to a point that translating needed more of the working memory and stated their findings as follows:

> "When translators knew that they had to read and translate the sentences, their reading times slowed down compared to the condition where they had to read and repeat them. This pattern of results supports a horizontal view of translation. In addition to the cognitive demands imposed by normal reading, when reading was oriented to translation there was an increase in WM requirements. These additional demands had the effect of slowing on-line comprehension suggesting that processes other than understanding were being performed in parallel. Probably, when participants were reading for translation they engaged in additional processes needed for translation. In translation, beside the capacity required for comprehension of the input, WM capacity is needed for activating and switching the two languages involved" (p. 193).

Macizo and Bajo (2004) also emphasise that "thus, although translation seems to increase the time required for sentence processing, the meaning of the sentences is extracted as completely in translation as in normal reading" (p. 198). Macizo and Bajo (2004) come to a result that "differences between normal reading and reading for translation are particularly large in the critical area where larger WM demands are imposed, the end of the relative clause. But, why do instructions to translate slow down on-line sentence processing compared to normal reading? What additional processes are taking place when reading for translation? We think that when reading for translation, participants engaged in code-switching processes" (p. 199).

Mahmoud (2006) puts forth that "a particular way to use translation is as a post-reading procedure to evaluate students' comprehension of a text. By its very nature, translation offers many opportunities to emphasize the specific details and main ideas of a translated text, especially those that may not have been correctly understood by students" (p. 31). In the sme vein, Van Els et al. (cited in Mahmoud, 2006, p. 31) also states that when translating a text, students come into contact with all the main ideas and specific details of a reading passage. Translation necessitates the close reading of the entire passage, which provides valuable information for the instructor. Translation can improve comprehension since it encourages the students to read a passage carefully and precisely at the word, sentence, and text levels.

The translator given the text reads it with the aim of thorough detailed comprehension which, however, is subordinate to the general purpose of meaning transfer. Doyle (1991) calls the task of reading comprehension 'an act of applied, inevitably idiosyncratic critical reading'. "It is inter-idiomatic reading of and between two languages, a decoding of a given discourse, with the goal of active and felicitous recoding in a target or second language, the desired cross-idiomatic result. Thus one arrives at the strabismus so characteristic of the translator at work: one eye focused on the text-that-is, the other on the text-to-be" (p. 13).

In terms of using translation in L2 reading, a study by Kern (1994) with native English-speaking readers of French found that there may be positive consequences of mental translation into the native language while reading a foreign language. College students who were learning French as a foreign language participated in think-aloud interviews while reading French texts at the beginning and the end of a semester. The positive findings included: (1) translation facilitates semantic processing; (2) translation helps to keep the train of thought when chunks are long or syntactically complex; (3) the readers' network of associations is richer in the native language; (4) the foreign language is converted into more familiar terms through translation; and (5) translation may help in clarifying syntactic roles, verifying a verb tense, or checking for comprehension. He therefore suggested, "translation is not always an undesirable habit to be discouraged at all costs but, rather, an important developmental aspect of L2 comprehension processes" (p.442). Nevertheless, Kern (1994) also saw disadvantages of mental translation as: (1) it may be incorrect and lead to misunderstanding, (2)

learners may search for word-for-word equivalents of L2 forms, rather than determining the general coherence of the text, and (3) learners may focus only on L1 translation, and attend to L2 forms just briefly. Kern further hypothesized that as L2 learners become more proficient at reading L2 texts, they will rely less on translation in their efforts to comprehend.

2.2.1.1 Reading Comprehension

In the past, reading was assumed to be a passive, happening largely as a result of decoding and learning the meaning of individual words. According to Pearson (cited in Jones, Palincsar, Ogle & Carr, 1987, p. 5) the goal of reading therefore was to 'approximate' the text.

Now, it is accepted as private and active skill. Davies (1995) states that "it is a mental or cognitive process which involves a reader in trying to follow and respond to a message from a writer who is distant in space and time. Because of this privacy, the process of reading and responding to a writer is not directly observable" (p. 1). Riley (1977, pp. 1-6) also agrees that reading is a receptive skill. The reader is expected to decode the visual form of the text into comprehension messages in the brain. The reader, then, has to integrate his reading abilities in order to decode the message correctly. So good readers read, ask themselves questions and make predictions about what will happen next. Riley also points out that selecting main idea from the passage, selecting relevant details to support the main idea, recognizing irrelevancies, contradictions, using logical connections and sequence signals, drawing conclusions, making generalizations and applying principles to other instances are some of the skills that an intelligent reader has to be able to use for comprehension. Also, Chastain (1988a) describes reading as follows "reading is a receptive skill in that the reader is receiving a message from a writer. In the past various writers have also referred to reading as a decoding skill. This terminology derives from the idea of language as a code, one which must be deciphered to arrive at the meaning of the message. Although this term points out the active role the reader must play in reading, it does not tell the whole story. Recent researchers in reading describe the reading process in a way that

implies an active reader intent upon using background knowledge and skills to recreate the writer's intended meaning" (p. 216).

Since reading is an active process, students work intensively, interacting with the text in order to create meaningful discourse. Although reading has sometimes been characterized as 'passive' or 'receptive', as early as 1917, Thorndike (cited in Silberstein, 1994, p. 6) established the notion that reading is an active process related to problem solving. More recently, scholars developed a psycholinguistic perspective of reading, focusing on its active, cognitive process. According to this point of view, efficient readers develop predictions about the content of a passage. Along with textual clues, knowledge and experience help readers develop expectations about what they will read. The efficient reader then reads rapidly to confirm or refute these predictions. If hypotheses are confirmed, the reader continues with an increasing store of information on the topic. If they are not confirmed, the reader returns and rereads more carefully.

Before the 60's and 70's, reading was known as being a bottom-up process. The reader was a passive decodifier of graphemes. His task was to build up the meaning, which was crystallized in the text, putting together letter by letter, word by word, sentence by sentence. Therefore, a reading problem was necessarily a de-codification problem. A good reader was the one who domained the structure of the language which was of central importance. In the mid-60's and early 70's, the concept a top-down process immerged. Reading was seen as a 'guessing game'. Reading comprehension is a 'top down' process, that is, the reader is an active information processor who predicts and samples only parts of the actual text, in which the reader makes predictions, processes information and utilizes all his relevant past experiences and background knowledge (Carrell, 1987, pp. 21-36).

Nuttall (1982, p. 16) explains the top-down process as follows: In top-down processing, we draw on our own intelligence and experience – the predictions we can make, based on the schemata we have acquired – to understand the text. As we saw, this kind of processing is used when we interpret assumptions and draw inferences. We make conscious use of it when we try to see the overall purpose of the text, or get a rough idea of the pattern of the writer's argument, in order to make a reasoned guess at

the next step (on the grounds that having an idea of what something might mean can be a great help in interpreting it. We might compare this approach to an eagle's eye view of the landscape. From a great height, the eagle can see a wide area spread out below; it understands the nature of the whole terrain, its general pattern and the relationships between various parts of it, far better than an observer on the ground. He also continues on describing the top-down process as this enables him to predict the writer's purpose, the likely trend of the argument and so on, and then use this framework to interpret difficult parts of the text. The top-down approach gives a sense of perspective and makes use of all that the reader brings to the text: prior knowledge, common sense, etc, which have sometimes been undervalued in the reading class.

Klein (1988) also adds that "reading is a complex information processing skill in which the reader interacts with text in order to (re)create meaningful discourse. From this perspective, reading is understood to be a complex cognitive process in which reader and text interact to (re)create meaningful discourse. Contemporary reading theory puts text and the reader at its centre" (p. 12). Reading comprehension is viewed as the process of using the cues provided by the author and one's prior knowledge to infer the author's intended meaning. This involves a considerable amount of inferencing at all levels as one builds a model of the meaning of the text. If prior knowledge is strong, then a detailed model may be rapidly constructed which reduces the reading to slot-filling and verifying, and inferences to mere default values in the model (Johnston, 1983, p. 9).

In addition, Irwin (1991) defines comprehension as "an active process to which readers bring their own attitudes, interests, expectations, skills and prior knowledge" (p. 7). In other words, the message in the text is encoded and is not explicit. It is the duty of the reader to decode and comprehend it by actively getting involved and interpreting the ideas on the text. In order to do so, readers must bring their entire life experience to what they read.

Carroll (cited in Johnston, 1983) states that comprehension is a process which occurs immediately on reception of information and that only short-term memory is involved. He goes on by saying "as soon as longer time intervals are involved in the testing of comprehension, there is the possibility that we are studying processes along

with, or in place of, comprehension processes" (p. 6). In the same sense, Pearson and Johnson (cited in Johnston, 1983) contend that "comprehension is building bridges between the new and the known… Comprehension is active not passive; that is; the reader cannot help but interpret and alter what he reads in accordance with prior knowledge about the topic under discussion. Comprehension is not simply a matter of recording and reporting verbatim what has been read. Comprehension involves a great deal of inference making" (p. 24).

Rumelhart (1980) studying the role of schema in comprehension points out that:

"The fundamental processes of comprehension are taken to be analogous to hypothesis testing, evaluation of goodness to fit, and parameter estimation. Thus, a reader of a text is presumably constantly evaluating hypothesis about the most plausible interpretation of the text. Readers are said to have understood the text when they are able to find a configuration of hypotheses (schemata) that offers a coherent account of the various aspects of the text. To the degree to which a particular reader fails to find such a configuration, the text will appear disjointed and incomprehensible" (p. 38).

Anderson (1984, p. 186) summarizes the contrast between the two principal approaches to comprehension in the following comparison:

Skills Model	Psycholinguistic Model
1. Reading is made up of separate skills.	1. Reading is an integrated process.
2. Reading has no one sequence of skill	2. Reading has a hierarchical skills sequence.
3. Applying reading skills leads to meaning.	3. Reading is meaning centred.
4. Reading is a passive process.	4. Reading is an active process.
5. Reading is a precise process.	5. Reading is an inexact process.
6. Form precedes function in reading.	6. Function precedes form in reading.

Royer and Cunningham (cited in Johnston, 1983) take issue with both the process and product approaches and contend that "… comprehension processes and memory processes are inextricably intertwined.... We assume that a comprehended message will be retained in memory better than an uncomprehended message" (p. 2).

In addition, text characteristics can influence what readers try to comprehend. Johnston (1981) points out the importance of word familiarity, sentence length, additionally the passage coherence, and the organisation in comprehension. In other words, Johnston (1981) emphasises that both text structure and readers' background knowledge are involved in comprehension of a text; and readers take active role in making inference about what they read. Thus, Johnston (1981) suggests that "reading comprehension is viewed as the process of using one's own prior knowledge and the writer's cues to infer the author's intended meaning" (p. 16).

2.2.1.2 Good Readers and Poor Readers

Fluent readers "read rapidly, recognize words rapidly and automatically, draw on a very large vocabulary store, integrate text information with their own knowledge, recognize the purpose(s) for reading, comprehend the text as necessary, shift purpose to read strategically, use strategies to monitor comprehension, recognize and repair miscomprehension, and read critically and evaluate information" (Grabe & Stoller, 2001, p. 188). Thus, the processes involved in fluent reading are "rapid, efficient, interactive, strategic, flexible, evaluating, purposeful, comprehending, learning, and linguistic" (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 17). Depending on the processes involved in fluent reading, it can be argued that reading is an active skill.

According to Singer (1994), experienced readers differ remarkably from inexperienced readers in that they have attained automaticity in word recognition and usually focus their attention on higher-level processing, while inexperienced readers usually have to embark on an upsetting decoding phase, focusing their attention on the lower-level processing, i.e. on the constituents of discrete words. Pressley (2002) suggests the following qualities of good readers: Before reading, a good reader:

1) makes sure about her or his goal in reading the text,

2) often skims the text in advance of reading, and,

3) often activates prior knowledge. During reading, good readers:

1) skip information that is not relevant to their current reading goals,

2) reread information that seems especially important or is difficult to understand,

3) take notes,

4) pause to reflect on an idea presented in the text,

5) make predictions about what is coming up in the text,

6) identify important information in the text,

7) not only look for important information, but also process that important information differentially (e.g., rereading it, underlining it, paraphrasing it),

8) are especially attuned to topic sentences and topic paragraphs.

9) make conscious inferences as they read,

10) integrate the ideas in text to get the main ideas out of the text

11) are highly interpretive as they read,

12) come to conclusions about ideas in the text,

13) are also highly evaluative of the text, deciding whether a text is interesting or the arguments made in it are credible,

14) make evaluations of the style of the text, as well as its content,

15) have affective reactions, from positive ones (e.g., satisfaction with the content of the text) to negative ones (e.g., boredom, frustration),

16) monitor as they read, which leads to awareness that a text is not being understood. Such awareness can lead to shifts in reading strategies.

In a similar vein, Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003) state the following:

> "Good readers employ different strategies before, during and after the reading of a text. They first determine their reading objective, use the title or some other information to identify the topic of the text and activate their own knowledge of the topic. They then read a few sentences, determine the type of text and adjust their tempo and manner of reading accordingly. During the reading process itself, good readers draw connections

between words and sentences; make use of clues to the structure and organization of the text; infer information from the sentences and paragraphs in the text; steer, monitor and correct their own reading behaviour; and identify the main ideas in the text. In the end, good readers also judge the value of the text" (p. 391).

Grellet (1981) adds that proficient readers do not concentrate on sentences and words. Instead, they start with global understanding and then work toward comprehension of detailed aspects of the reading. She maintains that "reading is an active skill… it constantly involves guessing, predicting, checking and asking one-self questions" (p. 8).

Anderson and Pearson, (cited in Bensoussan, 1998), have identified three reading problems experienced by poor readers in the native language:

1) Poor readers are likely to have gaps in knowledge. Since what a person already knows is a principal determiner of what s/he can comprehend, the less s/he knows, the less s/he can comprehend.

2) Poor readers are likely to have an impoverished understanding of the relationships among the facts they know about a topic. Arbitrary information is a source of confusion, slow learning, slow processing and unsatisfactory reasoning.

3) Poor readers are unlikely to make the inferences required to weave the information given in a text into a coherent overall representation.

Bensoussan (1998) claims that these problems are related to reading in the native language (L1). The learner of a foreign language (L2) usually has two additional handicaps: lower language proficiency and different cultural backgrounds. Comparing proficient and less proficient ESL readers in the United States, Fitzgerald (1995) concludes that: "On the whole, more proficient ESL readers

(a) made better use of vocabulary knowledge,

(b) used a greater variety of metacognitive strategies and used selected strategies more frequently,

(c) took more action to solve miscomprehension and checked solutions to problems more often,

(d) used psycholinguistic strategies that were more meaning-oriented, (e) used more schema knowledge, and

(f) made better and/or more inferences" (p. 180).

Academic reading is a very deliberate, demanding and complex process. Lin (2002) lists the technical steps leading to L2 reading comprehension, briefly, as follows:

1) knowledge of form;

    a-word recognition: being able to recognize L2 words,

    b-interpretation of words' meanings: automate the link between word recognition and word meaning,

    c-syntactic knowledge: combination of words into larger units, and,

    d-textual structure: organization of the text

2) knowledge of content

As a result, briefly we can say that good readers: reread the text selectively, attempt to recite the text, constructing a summary of it, reflect on what they have just read, evaluating the credibility of the material, think about how they are going to use the information in the text, and evaluate their comprehension.

2.2.1.3 The Place of Reading in Language Learning and Teaching

From the 80's to the current moment, reading is seen to be an interactive process where both bottom-up and top-down processes are of central importance. Today reading is regarded as one of the most important skills in language learning.

Rivers (1981) indicates that "the reading skill, once developed, is the one which can be most easily maintained at a high level by the students themselves without further help from a teacher" (p. 260). Language students need to be able to read a variety of materials for various purposes just as native speakers do. In fact, due to their lack of familiarity with the newspaper and magazines in the language, they may spend even

more time than a native speaker scanning and skimming prior to making choices. This will make the reading task easier and will improve their comprehension (Chastain, 1988b, p. 220).

Of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), reading can be regarded as the most important for many students who are learning a second or foreign language. At schools, reading is considered as one of the most important skills. There are various definitions of reading. According to Johnston (1983) reading is considered as any reader interaction with the text. "… reading comprehension is a product of a reader's interaction with a text. This product is stored in the reader's memory and may be examined by convincing the reader to express relevant segments of the stored materials. Such an approach is less of a relevant theoretical than a pragmatic attempt to find out how the interaction has changed the reader's knowledge. The process(es) involved in getting there are given less emphasis than the final product) i.e., the content memory). This product position implies that long-term memory plays a large part in comprehension, determining how 'successful' the reader is at comprehension; this position is typified by standardized tests and free recall measures" (p. 2).

Reading is the most important activity in any language class, not only as a source of information, but also as a means of supporting and extending one's knowledge of the language. Today's teachers of languages try to understand the processes involved in a written text which is a non-native one. Then they plan using their experiences to help their students develop their habits of reading. In this way, they will be able to lead them to direct comprehension text without consulting to a translation into the native language.

2.3 Teaching Methods of Translation

Translation pedagogy, prompted by advances in foreign-language pedagogy, is moving more and more away from the traditional teacher-centred approach to a more communicative one. Just from the very beginning of language teaching where grammar translation method was in popular, teaching methods of translation has adapted these methods to the present. A research survey provided by Lightbown and Spada (1993)

describes research efforts to specifically investigate the relationships between teaching and learning. They examine five proposals for classroom teaching and research associated with each. They are:

1. methods based on the behaviourist theory of language learning emphasizing accuracy and form and not allowing errors;

2. methods based on the interactionist theory giving learners the opportunity for conversation where they receive meaningful input from teachers and students, which will in turn lead to acquisition of the grammar and words of the second language;

3. methods based on the 'comprehensible input' theory most closely associated with Stephen Krashen, where the emphasis is not on the interaction, but on providing input through listening and/or reading;

4. methods based on teaching what the learner is ready to learn, most closely associated with Manfred Pienemann; and

5. methods that "recognize a role for instruction, but also assume that not everything has to be taught" (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 97). Lightbown and Spada (1993) conclude that the last two proposals appear to have the most promise in terms of guiding teaching decisions.

Pedagogical change was elaborated in Baer and Koby (2003) as a paradigm shift from behaviorist models (Skinner, 1957) to cognitive models (Bloom, 1956; Vygotsky, 1962; Piaget, 1965) of language acquisition (p. XIII). As a result of the breakthrough in foreign language pedagogy that derived from this paradigm shift, translator educators found in the new teaching approaches input that revitalizes translation teaching (p. XIII). These new approaches have not only helped to disrupt traditional ways of teaching translation, but also have come with new features, emphasizing Bloom's higher-level cognitive processing that entails the "interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning, both in and out of the classroom" (Lee & Van Patten, 1995, p. 14, as cited in Baer & Koby, 2003) and that seeks to "bring the real world into the classroom" (Krahnke, 1987, p. 57, cited in Baer & Koby, 2003).

Concerning teaching translation, Hönig (1992, p.60) claims that one cannot learn translation only by translating. Practical translation can be learned by the application of

methodological knowledge. For this reason, education institutions are responsible for developing practical methods of teaching and of assessing translation according to the type of text. On the other hand, Kiraly (1995) states that there are no departmental course curricula to guide instructors of translation practice classes and no instructional materials are provided. Instead, instructors individually choose texts on an ad hoc basis and have their students translate them. There tends to be no coordination among instructors concerning text topics, evaluation procedures, course outcomes or any of the other pedagogical factors related to these courses. The only common outcome can be summarized in the statement: "at the end of this course, students should be able to translate better than they could before the course began" (pp. 11-12). The main problem was that the text as a whole and as a purposeful instrument of communication never came into focus. Kiraly (1997) describes this situation as follows:

> ". . . the traditional learning environment created for the teaching of translation skills . . . essentially involves a didactic performance by the teacher, who believes that she has access to the 'correct' translation, and who goes about filling in gaps in the students' knowledge so that they can also come up with the 'correct' translation. In such a classroom, it is clearly the teacher's job to 'teach' – i.e. to pass on knowledge, and the students' job to 'learn', i.e. to absorb the teacher's knowledge" (p. 152).

Historical teaching of translation has exposed students to only one way of viewing translation problems, analyzing them from language and linguistic viewpoints, and offering little opportunity for alternative views and critical thinking skills. This pedagogical shortcoming has been described by Kiraly (1995) as the 'pedagogical gap' in translation teaching that has resulted in "the lack of clear objectives, curricular materials, and teaching methods" (p. 5). House (1981), have depicted the typical translation learning setting in bleak terms:

> "The teacher of the course … passes out a text (the reason for the selection of this text is usually not explained

…). This text is full of traps, which means that the teachers do not set out to train students in the complex and difficult art of translation, but to snare at them and lead them into error. The text is then prepared … for the following sessions and the whole group goes through the text sentence by sentence, with each sentence being read by a different student. The instructor asks for alternative translation solutions, corrects the suggested version and finally presents the sentence in its final 'correct' form … This procedure is naturally very frustrating for the students" (p. 7-8).

Wilss (1982) stated that the lack of direction in the field of Applied Translation Studies has meant the stagnation of teaching practice and its reduction to one basic principle: students should produce translations that are, "as literal as possible and as free as necessary" (p. 178). Kiraly (1990b) also adds that considerations of learning environment; student-teacher roles; varied and appropriate teaching techniques; coordinated, goal-oriented curricula; and curriculum and instructor evaluation have been all but utterly neglected (p. 12).

Biçer (2002) states that researchers (Aslan, 1997; Coşkun, 1996) draw our attention to the failure of the translation courses in the Education Faculties by stating that such courses lack methodological and theoretical basis as to the content, objectives, approaches, methods, techniques and strategies, and assessment (p.23). The traditional approach presumes that a transfer of translation knowledge takes place from the teacher to the students, that is, the teacher, being privy to the 'ideal' translation, (i.e., the sum total of 'equivalent' elements) points out students' deviations from it, with the expectation that the students will avoid making those same errors in the future. The task at hand tends to be presented as a search for source text (ST) element equivalents. As Toury (1974) put it, in this approach, the translator is seen as 'parasitic' to the translation (p. 187). As Kiraly (1995) says: "There has been little or no consideration of learning environment, student-teacher roles, scope and appropriateness of teaching techniques, co-ordination or goal-oriented curricula, or evaluation of curriculum and instructor" (p. 11) Traditional translation classes seem to lack both pedagogical guidelines and a

motivating component. On the contrary, in an interactive context, the teacher will take the part of informer, guide, counsellor and evaluator instead of acting as the sole problem solver or, as Kiraly puts it "the guardian of translatory truth – keeper of the correct translation" (p. 99). Kiraly (2003) also adds that "likewise, the active involvement of students in authentic, experiential learning situations is a basic tenet of constructivist educational theories, according to which learning is essentially an interactive, collaborative, "socio-personal process" (p.29) whereby learners construct their own knowledge. The fairly widespread practice of having students complete collaborative, often genuine, project-based assignments as part of their courses, with instructors acting as coaches, represents an uncontroversial form of constructivism in translation courses.

In designing translation courses three approaches or three organising principles can be followed: (1) the inductive approach, (2) the deductive approach, or (3) the functional approach.

(1) *The inductive approach* – In this case, the process of teaching is organised by text-selection. The teacher chooses the 10 to15 texts to be translated during the half-year semester, the students translate these texts at home or in class, the teacher corrects the translations at home or in class, they discuss the mistakes in class, on the basis of these mistakes the teacher makes recommendations concerning the solution of translation problems, and makes certain generalisations. Since in a text-based class only problems occurring in the given text appear, it might happen that important translation problems remain untackled. An evident advantage of this approach is that the translator meets translation problems the way they are found in life too, i.e. embedded in texts. Its disadvantage is that the success of the program depends on the selection of texts. In choosing the texts, several principles can be followed:

- selection according to topics,
- selection according to genres,
- selection according to difficulty level.

(2) *The deductive approach* – In this case, teaching is based on certain topics related to translation techniques. The teacher goes through the various translation problems (e.g., translation of place names, institutions, measurements, quotations, references, etc.), maps the translation problems characterising the given language

pair or translation direction (e.g., transfer from passive to active in translations from English into Hungarian), and finds illustrative examples for these in texts. In such cases it is teachers who determine what happens in class, which increases the chance of covering everything in the given semester that they find important. In this approach, teaching does not begin with a text but with a translation problem (e.g., the translation of realia or of impersonal sentences from English into Hungarian) and the teacher must find texts, which will illustrate the problem under study satisfactorily. One of the difficulties related to this approach is to find real-life texts (not sentences or adaptations!) properly illustrating the particular translation problem that the teacher would like to discuss.

(3) *The functional approach* – In this case, teaching is organised around particular skills to be developed. Teachers decide what skills are necessary for translation and aim to develop these skills without necessarily using translation tasks. For instance, the skill of distancing oneself from the linguistic form may be developed with the help of intralingual transformations, that is, paraphrasing sentences within the same language – be it SL or TL – and the skill of grasping the essence of a particular text by searching for key words and writing summaries, etc.

Beeby (2004) has designed a genre and task-based syllabus integrating the translation and discourse elements defined in the pre-syllabuses:

1. Learning language for translation: interacting with texts, translation oriented reading and writing for a purpose (procedural knowledge).
2. Learning through language about translation, culture and civilisation (declarative knowledge).
3. Learning about language for translation: conscious reflection and understanding about the way language works for translation through contrasting cultures, rhetoric, genres and language systems (declarative knowledge) (p. 56). She also adds that in the past, we have worked with large, content-based language modules, using a process-based communicative methodology (p. 56).

Enns-Conolly (1986) identified the theoretical underpinnings of the translation practice classes she attended:

"Looking back on that translation training now. I believe that instruction was based on a view of language as scientific and law-governed. There was a sense of the existence of a body of language rules and translation rules that could be learned, and the student's task was to strive towards mastery of the governing principles" (pp. 2-3).

Van den Broeck (1980) and Toury (1980) independently proposed text-type oriented theories of translation where translational norms and text pragmatic considerations play an important role. In this approach , the student moves into the forefront of the learning situation and must be presented with tools, not for producing the ideal translation, but for dealing with text-specific and situation specific variables and producing an 'optimum' translation under the given circumstances.

Davies (2005) proposes the following for the translation classroom:

1. Adapt classroom organisation by transforming the classroom into a discussion forum and hands-on workshop.

2. Establish contact with the outside world by means of projects which involve professional translators, bilinguals with an aptitude for translation and professionals from the different fields of specialisation (corresponding to the texts to be translated).

3. Design syllabuses with specific aims that have been thought about beforehand and sequence the material accordingly.

4. Favour an adequate learning environment which will enhance students' potential and respect different learning styles as much as possible.

5. Include as many real life situations as possible so that the students have the chance 'to live', however slightly, in the professional world (p. 71).

She adds that this pedagogical approach works even more efficiently if it includes the following approaches to translator training:

– *Function-based*: awareness of why, where, and when the translation assignment is carried out. The students have this information before doing their translations (Nord, 1997).

– *Process-based*: how the students acquire the skills to become competent translators. Here procedures are the most important component. An awareness of the translation strategies and solutions used by professional translators is reinforced by students' reflection on those they use themselves in their assignments. This approach increases their self-confidence as translators and contributes to greater coherence, quality, and speed in their translations. Theorists do not agree on a definition of 'strategy' (Newmark, 1988; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Nord, 1991; Baker, 1992). For pedagogical purposes, it can be presented to students as a procedure which has been chosen consciously to solve a translation problem which does not allow an automatic transference (Lörscher, 1991, p. 76) and which can be present either in a text segment (micro level) or in the text as a whole (macro level) (Scott-Tennent & González Davies, 2000, p. 108).

– *Product-based*: what the students achieve. Here the emphasis lies on the final translation produced by the student. This is the approach adopted almost exclusively in so-called traditional translation classes (p. 74).

Bell (1993) states that we can envisage three possible approaches depending on the focus of the investigation; the process or the product. These would be:

1. A theory of translation as *process* (i.e. a theory of translating). This would require a study of information processing and, within that, such topics as (a) perception, (b) memory and (c) the encoding and decoding of messages, and would draw heavily on psychology and on psycholinguistics.

2. A theory of translation as *product* (i.e. a theory of translated texts). This would require a study of texts not merely by means of the traditional levels of linguistic analysis (syntax and semantics) but also making use of stylistics and recent advances in text-linguistics and discourse analysis.

3. A theory of translation as both process *and* product (i.e. a theory of translating-translation). This would require the integrated study of both and such a general theory is, presumably, the long-term goal for translation studies (p. 26).

Product-based approaches focus on description and comparison of linguistic structures (Fraser, 1996). There is also focus on linguistic structures at lexical level.

"All you have in a SL text is words to translate, and that these words are conditioned by linguistic, referential, cultural and personal context" (Newmark, 1988b). "Resorting to linguistic translation" can prevent the translator from getting the message across (Henry, cited in Fraser, 1996). In the same vein, product-related strategies, as Jaaskelainen (2005) writes, involves the basic tasks of choosing the SL text and developing a method to translate it. However, Jaaskelainen maintains that process-related strategies "are a set of (loosely formulated) rules or principles which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translating situation" (p.16). Moreover, Jaaskelainen divides this into two types, namely global strategies and local strategies: "global strategies refer to general principles and modes of action and local strategies refer to specific activities in relation to the translator's problem-solving and decision-making" (p. 16).

Gile (1994) summarises the basic philosophy of the process-oriented translation teaching approach as follows:

1- During the process-oriented part of the course, trainees are considered as students of translation methods rather than as producers of finished products. Throughout this period, their target language texts essentially serve as a looking glass revealing their methods, insofar as their problems are generally symptoms of methodological weaknesses. Problems that can be attributed to linguistic deficiencies are not dealt with during the process-oriented phase of the course.

2- Teachers take a normative attitude as far as the processes are concerned. As regards the product, they put questions to students whenever possible rather than criticise them.

3- The sequential model of translation supports processes. This model consists of a "comprehension phase" and a "reformulation phase". Translation starts with a translation unit consisting of a word or small groups of words that students can deal with at the micro-textual level. It is read. Its meaning is inferred from the text as a meaning hypothesis. The hypothesis is checked for plausibility on the basis of linguistic knowledge. In the reformulation phase, the students formulate a first TL rendition. They test it for linguistic acceptability. If the results are not satisfactory, they write a new version for the same unit and test it again. This model indicates to students the location of methodological weaknesses that have

led to most errors. For instance, a grammatical error indicates that the students did not perform an acceptability test properly.

4- Problem diagnosis can be done partly by analysing the product and partly by putting questions to the students. Written problem-reports are helpful for diagnosis. Students write the problems they encounter while translating such difficulties in understanding a particular sentence, in finding the meaning of a word, or in reformulating an idea (pp. 108-110).

Gile (1994) also reports that, "the process-oriented approach seems to generate less stress on students" (p. 111). The process-oriented system sees "trainees as students of translation methods rather than as producers of finished products." "Target language texts essentially serve as a looking glass revealing their methods" and "teachers put questions to the students whenever possible rather than criticise them" (p. 108).

There are other principles that should also be followed in the method in a translation course. Care should be given to words, terminology and idioms, images and puns, different sentence structures and styles. Discussions should be a part of the method. A good translation requires students to understand the text and have the ability to write and speak. Students should be prepared before class in order to be successful and advance. They should consult other sources as well. Care should be given to the use of dictionaries especially when analysing the different meanings of words considering the context (Bozkurt et al, 1982).

Yet, as Kiraly points out (2000, 2003), there is ample room for the more consistent implementation of social constructivist approaches in translation courses, with large parts of the curriculum still dominated by teacher-centred, transmissionist educational methods. He calls for "a much-needed paradigm shift in translator education" (2003, p. 27) from a positivist epistemology which holds that instructors, having acquired expert knowledge, have access to an objective truth which they must impart to their students, to one where students are expected to discover knowledge for themselves in a learner-centred environment by collaboratively participating in the authentic activities in translation classes (p. 28). Kiraly (2000) also states that co-operative approaches to learning are more effective at promoting learning achievement than competitive or individualized ones (p.37).

It is worth noting that some of the problems that have been identified in relation to the pedagogy of translation as an end in itself, also apply to its use in language teaching. Hurtado Albir (1999) mentions the following:

1. Lack of clear criteria in the selection of texts for translation, which tend to be literary. Where the criteria are made explicit, these are thematic or grammatical.
2. Lack of procedural guidance. Instructions to the learner were often limited to the injunction "Translate". Learners are not presented with a method to avoid falling into the same pitfalls.
3. Lack of differentiation between direct and inverse translation, assuming that the objectives and methodology are the same in both cases.
4. Lack on integration in many textbooks of the theory and the practice of translation. They seem to assume that operative knowledge (how to translate) will derive mechanistically from declarative knowledge (pp. 18-20).

House (1980) proposed a student-centred approach based on 'communicative translation' for use in the teaching of translation skills to foreign language teachers-in-training. In her view, this is especially justified in this context because, in various German Lander, the primary teaching objective is the development of communicative competence. House justifies a communicative translation method in foreign language teaching because in most of the German Lander the primary teaching objective is the development of communicative competence. According to House, "students should be made to forget pedagogical context and to stimulate a real act of communication in which s/he is personally implicated. As primary objectives for this type of translation skill learning situation, House stressed student independence from the teacher, student participation in the selection and even production of original texts for translation, and the integration of spoken and written language in the translation skill instructional process.

Holz-Manttari (1984) has also emphasized the value of student-centered translation teaching and identified student autonomy as a primary objective of the translation class. In her opinion, in view of the fact that there is neither a unique nor 'best' translation, nor only one means of producing an adequate translation, translation teachers should help the students see various ways of getting to a satisfactory solution. Holz-Manttari (1984) also

criticized the traditional teacher-centered approach because its concentration on students' grammatical errors causes their translational performance as such to be neglected (p. 180).

Also, Machida (2008) states that translation activities in class should consist mainly of two kinds: 1) Sentence level translation, with focus on one particular linguistic target at one time, and 2) short article translation integrated into reading exercises involving various genres, such as newspaper, magazine, essays, and internet media.

Content of the activities:

1. Sentence translation: focus on one form at a time covering general topics.
2. Reading + translation
    i. newspaper (current topic) with background information provided
    ii. social article with skimming, scanning practice + summarising practice.

Integration stages of translation:

- Introduction: explicit talk and discussion on translation;
- Translation activities with focus on linguistic (grammatical) structures;
- Translation activities with focus on non-linguistic (background knowledge) structures;
- Translation activities with focus on cultural aspect

For a sample activity in translation classes, Beeby (2004) states that an introductory text could be an extract from a best seller that has been published in the UK and the US and translated into many different languages. A good choice for a first year class could be Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone that was published in the US as Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone, in Spanish as Harry Potter y la piedra filosofal and in Catalan as Harry Potter i la pedra filosofal. It is a good choice because it can be worked on at all three levels and can be used to develop all the translation sub-competencies. It is:

- ▪ – *Student-oriented*: Many students will have read or know about the Harry Potter phenomenon. The coherence, cohesion, syntax and word order are standard.

- ▪ – *Translation-oriented*: The differences between the English and the American versions illustrate cultural transfer; the UK cultural markers are pronounced and the book provides a wide variety of challenges to the translator.

- ▪ – *Genre-oriented*: The book includes a variety of genres that are recognisable as standardised English genres (p. 57).

From the pedagogic perspective, there are several points around which teachers can plan a class that can help them to design more adequate activities and worksheets for the established objectives. For instance, before introducing translation activities, the following points might be considered:

1. Linguistic and translational level of the students: Undergraduates, postgraduates or professional translators?

2. Translation aims: The translation aims specify whether the activity has been designed to improve translation skills (e.g. resourcing), to practise translation techniques (e.g. subtitling) or to become aware of cognitive processes (e.g. accessing semantic fields through Mind Maps).

3. Direction: Direct (L2 to L1) or reverse translation (L1 to L2), or both.

4. Linguistic aims: These should take into account that language improvement and contrast between language pairs are essential for translators.

5. Non-linguistic aims: e.g. subject or encyclopaedic knowledge required.

6. Text type: Written or oral on the one hand, and descriptive, argumentative, narrative, etc. on the other.

7. Approach to task: Bottom-up, top-down, or both, which – according to various studies on reading and on translating (Lörscher, 1992; Baker, 1992) – are the ways in which competent readers, professional translators and bilinguals deal with texts.

8. Student grouping: Individual, pair or group work, or a combination of these.

9. Timing: How much time will this activity take up? The timing will depend mainly on the characteristics of the group, the length of the text or recording

and the translation direction (reverse translation activities usually take longer than direct translation).

10. Sequencing: At what stage in the syllabus is it most coherent to carry out a given task? (Davies, 2005, p. 75).

In the past decade there was a lack of systematic pedagogical framework in the translation learning settings (House, 1981; Hurtado Albir, 1999). But translation teaching has gone through a tremendous growth. The reason is that the translation teachers have integrated theory and practice. Teachers who can form their own prescriptions according to the needs of their students might be successful using any given method. The key to addressing learners' needs is being eclectic rather than being monolithic, translation can play a role in an integrated way, where all the five skills, namely, reading, writing, listening, speaking, and translation, are dealt with. Translation can be especially beneficial in establishing a balance between accuracy and fluency in classroom activities (Erer, 2006, p. 11).

While university level translator training programs comprise various types of courses, including seminars in linguistics, literature, and area studies, as well as remedial classes in foreign language skills, the instructional sessions of primary interest in this study are those in which ELT trainees are supposed to acquire translation skills (Enns-Conolly, 1986; Rohl, 1983; Wilss, 1977).

2.3.1 Approaches in Translation Instruction

As, second language instruction has changed a lot since rote learning and has taken different changes depending on which theoretical framework was in popularity at any one particular time. Instruction in translation has been in the influence of second language instruction and has adapted it to the teaching of translation. The basis of the methods has always been an important matter in defining SLA instruction. Scholars have defined and interpreted instruction and theory in different ways. The definitions of instruction and theories of language have been given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Theories of Language and Language Learning Across Instructional Types

	FORMS-FOCUSED	MEANING-FOCUSED	FORMS & MEANING FOCUSED
THEORIES OF LANGUAGE	Language is a system of structurally related elements (Fries, 1945).	Language is a system for the expression of communicative meaning (Johnson, 1982).	Language is a system for the expression of communicative meaning (Johnson, 1982).
	Language entails linguistic competence which consists of a finite number of rules that can be transformed in a limitless number of grammatical sentences (Chomsky, 1959).	Language entails communicative competence which consists of grammatical, sociolinguistic discourse, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980).	Language entails communicative competence which consists of grammatical, sociolinguistic discourse, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980).
THEORIES OF LANGUAGE AQUISITION	Language acquisition is activated by cognitive processes and rule-governed creativity (Chomsky, 1959).	Language acquisition is activated by understanding meaningful input just beyond the learner's current level (Krashen, 1981).	Language acquisition is activated when conscious declarative knowledge is processed into more automatically accessible knowledge through practice in integrating various sub-skills (Anderson, 1996; DeKeyser, 1998).
	Language acquisition is activated by cognitive habit formation-—developing a system of mental rules into a set of habits (Canon, 1971).	Acquisition is activated by interactive input (Long, 1981).	Language acquisition is activated by teachers* explanations, modeling, and feedback in communicative contexts (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).
	Language acquisition is activated by imitation, practice, and reinforcement (Skinner, 1937).	Language acquisition is activated by activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks (Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981).	Language acquisition is activated through practice in 'meaningful monitoring', focusing simultaneously on meaning and specific forms in spontaneous communication (Terrell, 1989).
			Language acquisition is activated by consciousness raising-explicit instruction and controlled practice which highlight forms in subsequent meaningful interaction (Sherwood Smith, 1981).

(Park, 2000, p. 54)

Studies in language teaching have been done to find out the best instructional type which will be adapted to the translation course. Park (2000, p. 64) states that recent studies have compared the effects of forms and meaning focused instruction to only formS focused or only meaning focused instruction (Spada, 1987: Spada & Lightbown, 1990); however, these studies have controlled for overall amount of contact and instruction. Spada (1987) investigated the L2 development of 48 intermediate-level adults in three classes that varied in terms of the proportion of time spent on explicit grammar instruction. Class A received primarily forms based instruction in their speaking activities (e.g., grammar exercises), class B received both formS focused and meaning focused instruction, and class C received primarily meaning based practice in their speaking activities (e.g., job interview simulations). Spada (1987) found that learners who received more forms focused instruction performed as well or better on grammatical structures and just as well on measures of conversational skills (including grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency) as learners who received less forms focused instruction.

The basic classroom activity used to teach translation skills bears a strong resemblance to the antiquated grammar-translation method of foreign language teaching and has been described by House (1980) as follows:

1)   The teacher, who is a native speaker of the TL (target language), distributes a text.
2)   The teacher does "not then set out to train students in the difficult and complex art of translation, but to ensnare them and lead them into error".
3)   The text is prepared by the students at home.
4)   In class, the whole group goes through the text line by line; different students present parts of their translations.
5)   The teacher asks for different versions for each sentence.
6)   The teacher gives 'the' solution for each sentence.
7)   The teacher finally reads off the 'ideal solution' (p. 8).

In the same sense, as to the content in translation classes, Jacobsen (1994) states that it has more often been practical work and that the ideology differs according to the teacher's attitude. Translation at university level has been considered as synonymous with grammar drills. Instructors often give the students a source text and instruct them

to translate it for the next class. This is a misconception of teaching translation, which may be a possible reaction against the excessive academic-literary bias of Grammar-Translation approach (Jacobsen, 1994; Webb, 1994).

House (1980) proposed a student centred approach based on communicative translation for use in the teaching of translation skills to foreign language student teachers. House justifies a communicative translation method in foreign language teaching because in most of the German Lander the primary teaching objective is the development of communicative competence. According to House, "students should be made to forget pedagogical context and to stimulate a real act of communication in which s/he is personally implicated" (p. 10).

There is a lack of instruction type in translation education. The instruction differs according to the teacher. The question is which type of instructional focus is most beneficial for the translation class. "Over twenty years of research in foreign language learning, this issue is a question of debate and divides both theory and research. Although research has been done in the classroom and the laboratory, in search of a resolution, the question remains unanswered" (Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman & Doughty, 1995, p. 217). It is important for students and teachers to decide on whether to focus on form or to focus on meaning in the translation class. The answer will help to formulate an approach to the question of how translation should be taught. In time, different theories have been in favour. Teaching methods have changed from time to time. A formulated theory would solve the problem and help the students and the teachers avoid from the confusion of focusing on form or meaning in translation classes. Without a clear idea of what to focus on, language teachers of translation courses cannot be confident that they are using the best instructional approach.

2.3.1.1 Form Focused Translation Instruction

Form-focused instruction has first been introduced as one of the approaches to teaching grammar in second language education field and become an important topic of recent discussions and research. White, Spada, Lightbown & Ranta, (1991) (cited in

Ellis, 2006) indicate that form-focused grammar instruction resulted in attaining higher proficiency in SLA within a shorter time, compared to conditions in which meaning-focused grammar instruction took place. In the light of this, some conclusions for the inclusion of explicit grammar instruction can be drawn. For instance, Long (cited in Ellis, 2006) argues that emphasising form-focused instruction is useful as long as it is in keeping with the natural processes of acquisition. As a way of further response to this ongoing dispute concerning the efficiency of grammar instruction, Genesee (cited in Ellis, 2006) and Harley (1998) stress that the evidence obtained from the immersion programs and naturalistic acquisition research demonstrates that emphasising only meaning in classroom teaching results in an inadequate development of certain linguistic features. There have been different labels used to address focusing on form, as opposed to teaching which is entirely focused on meaning. Norris and Ortega (2000), call these different terminologies Focus on Form (FonF) and Focus on Forms (FonFS); the first approach holds the premise that forms should be focused on together with meaning in an integrative manner, whereas the latter one involves focusing on form in an isolated way. Yet, although there have been different views on focusing on grammar, as the debates on FonF versus FonFS suggest, Norris and Ortega (2000) stress that emphasising form in general has yielded positive results in language acquisition.

Long (1991) states that "focus-on-formS refers to the application of a structural and syntactic syllabus that presents discrete grammar points separately in order for them to be learnt by L2 learners, as it is the case in traditional approaches to language teaching. Therefore, during the class time, the learners are conscious that they are focusing primarily on one of the pre-selected language forms" (p.45). In focus-on-formS, the purpose is to focus learner (teacher)'s attention on some specific form intensively. So in this vein we must define explicit or implicit instruction.

• Explicit focus-on-formS is the instruction that involves some sort of rule being thought about. A rule is addressed deductively or inductively.

-A deductive presentation is when the rule is presented to the learners.

-An inductive presentation is when learners attempt to arrive at a rule themselves by analyzing data.

• Implicit focus-on-formS is that learner's attention will be focused on form, but they will not become aware of what specific feature has been targeted.

The difference between explicit and implicit focus-on-formS is the awareness of what is being learned. Stern (1992) adds that "advocates of an explicit teaching strategy assume that second language learning is, for many people, a cognitive process leading to an explicit knowledge of the language. Such learners lotus on the characteristic features of the language, (...) make an effort to acquire a conscious and conceptual knowledge, (...) want to know how the language functions, how it hangs together, what words mean, how meaning is conveyed and so on" (p. 334). In other words, explicit instruction mainly aims at the development of declarative knowledge, or the knowledge about language rules. Spada (1997) defines form focused instruction as "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly" (p. 4).

As above mentioned, studies on classroom instruction have shown that explicit grammar instruction has a positive effect on second language learning and performance. Colina (2002) emphasises that second language acquisition research is highly relevant to translation studies. Relatively unaddressed in the literature to date is the question of whether such instruction can have a direct effect on the quality of translations into English, especially for those structures that cause particular difficulty. Although translation students may be aware of L2 grammatical rules at the sentence level, much of natural usage is actually pragmatically and contextually driven. Transfer from L2 grammar language instruction may be quite limited in translation tasks, where L1 language structures sometimes compete as tempting but inappropriate alternatives to English structures. Students must become aware of the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information content of proper choices in various textual contexts.

Translation is of great value in sensitising students to contrasts and comparisons between the grammars of their own language and the source language (Gill, 1998). Translation is an activity that raises the students' awareness in terms of similarities and differences between learners' L1 and L2 grammatical structures. For Catford (1969), the translation process is a search for the formal or functional equivalents for source language linguistic elements like morphemes, words, clauses, and sentences. In fact, the largest translation element for Catford is the sentence rather than the text. Besides studies on translation, some translation teachers use form focused translation instruction in their translation courses. Lörscher (1992b), in teaching translation, states that "in my corpus

of translations produced by foreign language learners, a large number of indicators of sign-oriented translation can be detected. In sign- or form-oriented translating, subjects transfer source-language text segments by focusing on their form and by replacing them with target language forms. This transfer of forms/signs is brought about without recourse to the sense of the two segments involved" (p. 111).

The aim in adapting a form-focused translation instruction (explicit grammar instruction) is that grammatical forms may also express different meanings such as the English possessive phrase "my house" which might mean, "the house I own", or "the house I rent" depending on the context. Grammatical markers have primary and secondary functions, for example rhetorical questions and prepositions. Further, a single meaning might be expressed in different forms such as "the cat is black", "the black cat", and "the cat, which is black" (Larson, 1984, p. 8). Also Larson adds that grammatical structures vary among languages. The order may be changed completely. Turkish, for instance, has a different word order from English, which means that the place and significance of emphasis on words are different. Passive constructions may be translated with an active construction or vice versa (Larson, 1984). Grammatical choices should, therefore, be based on the function of the TL grammatical constructions not on the literal rendition of a SL form (Larson, 1984, p. 20).

The translation practice classes focusing on form reflects an underlying grammatical model of translation teaching as identified by Chau (1984). According to Chau, a grammatical model of translation teaching is based on a microlinguistic view of translation itself, in which the translation process is identified with syntactic and lexical transfer. In Chau's view, the grammatical model is historically the best established model and apparently allows only instructional techniques based on a search for the correct target language elements via comparative grammar. Similarly, Perez (2005) states that some pedagogues focus on discrete linguistic units - preferably below sentence level - on contrastive or comparative practices, and on translation procedures. One of the trends that he introduces in Translation Studies is a focus on ('discrete' units of) languages (Jakobson, 2000, Vinay & Darbelnet, 1977) (p. 2).

Although, even our second year translation students are highly competent in English and may be aware of L2 grammatical rules at the sentence level, they may

simply lack the experience to judge which form is appropriate since much of natural usage is pragmatically and contextually driven. Transfer from L2 grammar instruction may be quite limited in translation tasks, where L1 language structures sometimes compete as tempting but inappropriate alternatives to English structures. Students must become aware of the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information content of proper choices in various textual contexts.

This study would include issues such as the kind of tasks and techniques to be used in focusing on formS (explicit grammar instruction) that pose difficulties to learners and to focus-on-formS in an explicit manner. Whether incorporation of explicit instruction of specific features of English grammar into regular translation classes at the university level has a positive effect on students' productions is the basis of the study.

2.3.1.2   Meaning Focused Translation Instruction

According to Stern (1992), implicit teaching techniques "encourage the learner to approach the new language globally and intuitively rather than through a process of conscious reflection and problem solving" (p. 339), the rationale being that language is too complex to be fully described and that conscious knowledge cannot provide a sufficient basis for efficient learning. Stern (1992) specifies focus on meaning as which "invites the learner to use the language for a purpose and to focus on the message rather than any specific aspect of the code" (p. 301).

Robert (1982) describes three basic contemporary approaches to foreign language teaching methodology: a) traditional, b) communicative, and c) humanistic psychological. Communicative and humanistic psychological approaches are accepted as non-traditional. Kiralay (1995, p. 27) puts forth that these non-traditional approaches to second language teaching are grounded in significant research into the nature of language use and the relationship of language use to the learning of communicative language skills. Because translation is motivated by language use, some of the important language and language learning concepts that have involved within the communicative approaches to second language education can serve as a point of

departure for developing a systematic translation pedagogy. Some relevant concepts include:

1. Language function: Savignon (2005) describes a language function as "the use to which language is put, the purpose of an utterance rather than the particular grammatical form an utterance takes" (p. 13). Berns (1990) remarks that "a functional approach to language is based on an interest in performance, or actual language use" (p. 5).

2. Communicative competence: "the knowledge and ability to communicate and to interact socially with language are referred to as communicative competence" (Kiraly, 1995, p. 28).

3. The monitor model: Krashen (cited in Kiraly, 1995, p. 29) described a cognitive device within the learner's communication system that monitors his foreign language production, much as a similar monitor keeps tabs on our L1 production. The monitor is responsible for finding and correcting errors in speech or writing by evoking learned rules.

4. Interlanguage theory: "the interlanguage theory presupposes that previous (first) language learning strongly affects all subsequent (second) language learning" (Kiraly, 1995, p. 30).

5. Creativity and active student participation: "most of the communicative and humanistic psychological approaches to language learning stress the importance of creativity, an effectively adapted learning environment, and active student participation in foreign language classroom" (Kiraly, 1995, p. 32).

Kiraly (1995) also states that communicative approach to second language teaching has important implications for translation training (p. 34). Kiraly (1990a) also includes that "the other type of translation is 'communicative' translation, which attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original. He assumes the right to make improvements on the original text and he adapts his text as much as possible to TL norms. Certain types of texts, that is those that are bound up in the source language culture, would require semantic translation while others would require a communicative translation" (p. 87). He adds that "new ideas in translation classrooms include using methods such as role-play and simulation that

create a greater sense of realism - and thereby generate enthusiasm and overcome passivity, teach translation as a realistic communicative activity" (p. 33).

Each language has its own grammatical structure, that is, the division of the lexicon into word classes; whereas, the semantic structure is common to all languages, in those types of units, the features, and the relationships are essentially the same. In other words, grammatical form is different from language to language yet meaning is universal. Therefore translation is possible, as anything that can be said in one language can be said in another. Translation must aim primarily, as Nida and Taber (1969) put it: at reproducing the message (the total meaning or content of a discourse) of the source language to the receptor audience by way of using the closest equivalent of the source message, in terms of meaning and style. Also, grammatical structures vary among languages. The order may be changed completely. Turkish, for instance, has a different word order from English, which means that the place and significance of emphasis on words are different. Passive constructions may be translated with an active construction or vice versa (Larson, 1984). Grammatical choices should, therefore, be based on the function of the TL grammatical constructions not on the literal rendition of a SL form (Larson, 1984, p. 20).

To translate the form of one language literally (without changing) according to the corresponding form in another language would often change the meaning, or at least result in a form which is unnatural in the second language. Meaning must, therefore, have priority over form in translation. It is the meaning, not the form, which is to be retained and carried over from the source language to the receptor language. Kiraly (1990a) states that "a view of an act of translation as the replacement of linguistic material in one language by linguistic material in another language presupposes a relationship of linguistic equivalence between elements of different languages. However, despite the existence of bilingual dictionaries and their implicit claim to the contrary, equivalence in potential meaning of elements in two languages (on the level of langue) is much more the exception than the rule. When speaking of language in use (parole), one might say that the communicative function or communicative effect of utterances in different languages can be equivalent. The recognition of this distinction suggests that the translator, who is using language for communicative purposes, is, (or should be) much more concerned with striving for an equivalent effect on an interlocutor than on retrieving equivalent

linguistic elements during the translation process" (pp. 76-78). Although grammars based on corpus research (Biber et al., 1999) have made substantial contributions to addressing the question of what 'real' English is, they are ultimately only a description of what forms are most frequently used in what contexts and not what native speakers know can be used (Newmeyer, 2003). As such, they may be of limited aid to translators of complex, high-level texts. Some structures in English similar to Turkish may be grammatically possible, but unusual or of questionable acceptability to native speakers. That is why explicit grammar instruction should not be given in translation courses.

Atkinson (cited in Erer, 2006, pp. 12-13) claims that translation makes learners concentrate on meaning, as opposed to mechanical grammar exercises, which only focus-on-formS. Translation activities can be used to encourage students to take risks rather than avoid them. Translation rules out avoidance strategies as students have to take even the most difficult parts of a text into consideration while translating. And, finally, through translation students become aware of the fact that an exact equivalence should not always be expected. Jakobson (1959) agrees that translation must deal "not with separate code-units, but with entire messages" (p. 233). Also, Nord (1988) states that in translation classes, instruction should allow for the incomplete nature of the translation student's foreign language competence. For the need for active student participation in the translation class Newmark (1980) emphasises that "clearly the future of profitable teaching lies in some kind of role-playing, simulation exercises, real or imaginary situations" (p. 130).

Hurtado Albir (1999) gives some reasons of using meaning focused instruction within task based approach in translation course and adds that it is easy to see why the task-based approach appears to lend itself particularly well to the teaching of translation, and, I would add, to the use of translation in language teaching. Here are some of the reasons why:

1. The focus is on using language that is pragmatically appropriate to a certain situation or communicative purpose. Much of the literature in translation pedagogy also emphasizes the need to present translation as a communicative activity.
2. A corollary of the above is that, in order to complete the task, learners need to focus primarily on meaning rather than on form.

3. Nevertheless, the task can be formulated in such as way as to predispose the learner to use certain linguistic forms. This will be particularly the case at the focus-on-form end of the continuum, especially in the initial stages of learning.

4. The task is designed to resemble the way language is used in the real world. In the case of translation tasks, this will mean bringing classroom work closer to the professional practice.

5. A task may engage a variety of language skills and cognitive processes (p. 56).

The task based approach which is based on meaning focused instruction addresses some of the problems present in traditional translation pedagogy: first, it bridges the gap between theory and practice, offering a truly active methodology; second, it is process- rather than product oriented; third, the learner learns by doing: s/he acquires certain notions, but also and more crucially acquires problem-solving strategies (Hurtado Albir, 1999, p. 56).

House (1980) proposed a student-centered approach based on 'communicative translation' for use in the teaching of translation skills to foreign language teachers-in-training. In her view, the primary teaching objective is the development of communicative competence. As primary objectives for this type of translation skill learning situation, House stressed student independence from the teacher, student participation in the selection and even production of original texts for translation, and the integration of spoken and written language in the translation skill instructional process. Also, Martha Tennent (cited in Machida, 2008) adds that translation pedagogy, prompted by advances in foreign-language pedagogy, is moving more and more away from the traditional teacher-centred approach to a more communicative one.

Therefore, the aim of the present study is to compare meaning-focused translation instruction (communicative translation) with form-focused translation instruction (explicit grammar instruction) in the translation course in order to understand which of the instruction type has a more positive effect in improving the translation skills of the students. It is also aimed to find out if the instruction types improve the language skills, especially the reading skill.

2.4 Conclusion

The reviewed literature show that there have been many studies conducted on the usage of form and meaning focused instruction in translation courses. Although instructional studies have been conducted in translation a final decision has not been concluded. The instruction used in translation differs according to the teacher. Investigation on reading and translation is stated in many studies as well. The findings show that there is a relation between reding and translation. Lately the shift to form focused instruction from meaning focused instruction had the researchers analyze the process multidimensional, also in translation instruction. Though there is a need for further study, the existing literature supports form and meaning focused instruction in translation courses in accordance with the students reading comprehension levels.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, theoretical pedagogical explanations of four key concepts closely linked to this present study have been reviewed. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the experiments designed for this study to investigate the relative effects of form versus meaning focused translation instruction to translation skills of university level ELT students. This chapter describes the setting, subjects, and procedures followed in this investigation of the effects of instruction. Details of the experimental treatment procedure are given. In addition, all pre- and post-testing measures and conditions are described as well. Finally, data entry and rating procedures are outlined.

3.1 Research Model

This pre-test post-test control group design, involving second year English Language Teaching Department students at the same proficiency levels, sought to determine if there is a significant difference in the number of correct items on the translation test after two different treatments, form and meaning focused translation instruction, were applied to the teaching of translation. Also, a reading comprehension test was administered to the students to determine if there is an impact of the reading levels of the student to their translation skills.

It can be said that the pre-post-test control group design is an effective design in testing the effects of the dependent variable on the experimental treatment by giving the researcher a statistical power, enabling to interpret the gained data in accordance with reason-result and a design used frequently in social sciences (Büyüköztürk, 2001, p. 27). The pre-post test control group design known as the unselective design is used in psychology and education frequently, as well. In this design, two groups are established

unselectively from the preselected subject pool. One of the groups is identified as the experimental group and the other as the control group unselectively. Then, the dependant variable of the subjects in both groups before the treatment is measured. During the treatment the experimental treatment is applied to the experimental group. Finally the measurements of the subjects' dependent variables are repeated with the same tools or similar forms. The design is shown in Table 3.1. To see the effects of the experimental treatment, the measured results of the experimental and control groups' dependent variables should be compared with appropriate techniques. This is a 2x2 factorial design with 4 groups. The design is also known as the Mixed Model Design or the Split-Plot Factorial Design (Büyüköztürk et. al., 2008, p. 146).

Table 3.1
Pre-Test Post-Test Control Group Design Model

		PRE-TEST		POST-TEST
G_E	R	O_1	X	O_3
G_C	R	O_2		O_4

In Table 3.1, G_E represents the experimental group, G_C represents the control group; R represents that the subjects are put in the groups unselectively; O_1 and O_3 represents the pre-post test measurements of the experimental group; O_2 and O_4 represents the pre-post test measurements of the control; X represents the independent variable applied to the experimental group (experimental variable) (Büyüköztürk, 2001, p. 23).

The pre-post test control group unselective design has two main advantages. First, when same measurements are conducted to the same subjects, there will be a relation in many factors on the gained measurements after different experimental treatments are applied. This state will decrease the error concept and in relation will increase the statistical strength. The second advantage is that fewer subjects are needed and by testing the same subjects for each operation, less time and less effort is spent. In addition to these advantages, by conducting the experiment with homogenous groups the real effect of the experimental treatment will come forth (Büyüköztürk et. al., 2008, p. 147).

The experimental process of the study is explained in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Experimental Design of the Research

GROUPS	PRE-TESTS	TREATMENT	POST-TESTS
Experimental Group	Reading Comprehension Test Translation Test Language Skills Self-Assessment Scale Belief and Strategy use Questionnaire	Meaning Focused Translation Instruction	Reading Comprehension Test Translation Test Language Skills Self-Assessment Scale Belief and Strategy use Questionnaire
Control Group	Reading Comprehension Test Translation Test Language Skills Self-Assessment Scale Belief and Strategy use Questionnaire	Form Focused Translation Instruction	Reading Comprehension Test Translation Test Language Skills Self-Assessment Scale Belief and Strategy use Questionnaire

In the experimental design of the study, the academic achievement in reading, translation, language skills and belief and strategy use in translation are dependent variables. The experimental treatments that affect these dependent variables are form and meaning focused translation instruction.

Between pre-tests and post-tests, the form and meaning focused translation instruction groups participated in ten experimental translation lessons. The form focused translation instruction treatment and the meaning focused translation instruction treatment were administered by the different lecturers. The materials used in the treatment were Alan Duff's (1994) book titled "Translation" for the experimental group and Denis Chamberlin and Gillian White's (1983) book titled "Advanced English for Translation" for the control group. The study extended over a period of 10 weeks. Both the experimental and control groups took 'Translation from English into Turkish', a second-year course in the curriculum of the ELT Department. It was a two-hour course (one course lasted 50 minutes) and lasted ten weeks. The subjects took the Translation

course in the first term of the 2009-2010 academic year. The lecturers of the experimental and the control group were different than the researcher.

Although differences in form and meaning focused translation instruction have already been discussed, the meanings of the terms as to the treatments are herein delineated and were mainly manifested in the input and intake stages of the treatments. Form focused translation instruction was a teacher directed, overt focus on the grammar forms (explicit grammar instruction). Metaliguistic explanations (in more deductive lessons) were given by the teacher during input and intake. It also employed a more 'traditional' approach to grammar tasks in the translation exercises - emphasizing form first. The rules as well as examples of the forms were presented by the teacher; practice-producing tasks followed, and errors were corrected by the use of answer sheets with discussion of rules encouraged.

Meaning focused translation instruction was a student-discovery, more covert, focus on the meaning and communication. Meaningful tasks (a more inductive approach-without any mention of rule formation) were presented first in the input/intake portions of the treatment with communicative tasks to follow; peers compared answers and freely discuss differences. No metalinguistic explanations or grammatical rules were introduced, discussed, or explained by the teacher at any time during the study. The tasks were designed to make the students aware of their need to translate the texts and complete the exercises in the materials used in the treatment. A simplified explanation of the differences in the input is that the form focused translation instruction treatment was teacher-directed, formal instruction on the forms; the teacher caused the students to focus on the forms. The meaning focused translation instruction treatment was task-based, student discovery. Both treatments attempted to make the students improve their translating skills.

This study sought to address that one method is probably better for translation skills than other, and that reading comprehension levels of the learners affect the translation skills of the students positively. It empirically tested a language teaching and learning theory that translation skills are improved better by meaning focused translation instruction than by form focused translation instruction and that the students with high level of the reading comprehension translate better than the low ones. It

further tested that the students' strategy use and beliefs on translation change according to the treatment they have received.

3.1.1 Treatment of the Experimental Group

The course was designed according to the chapters of Duff's (1994) book titled 'Translation'. Any kind of grammar instruction was not given to the experimental group. The activities and exercises in the book are designed for meaning focused translation instruction. The treatment is as follows:

The translation exercises and activities in the first chapter were done in the 1st and 2nd weeks. The first chapter included Context and register; predictions, stated and implied meaning, word choices, register, different types of expressions (colloquial, etc.), ambiguous and oddly worded statements.

The translation exercises and activities in the second chapter were done in the 3rd and 4th weeks. The second chapter included Word order and reference; The focus on stressed, marked and implied words, word inversion, use of articles, expressions for compression of thought and referential words. The 3rd and 4th items have 1 sentence in each to be translated.

The translation exercises and activities in the third chapter were done in the 5th and 6th weeks. The third chapter included Time: tense, mood, aspect; word endings, passive forms, conditionals, tenses, adverbs and prepositions

The translation exercises and activities in the fourth chapter were done in the 7th and 8th weeks. The fourth chapter included Concepts and notions; Word choice: real and imaginary definitions, specific expressions, close synonyms, possibility and ability, Causality: consequence, effect and result, Perception: language on vision and perception.

The translation exercises and activities in the fourth chapter were done in the 9th and 10th weeks. The fifth chapter included Idioms: from one culture to another; defective and ambiguous sentences (faulty sentences), word choice, familiar expressions, formula language, fixed expressions, colloquial language, proverbs, common sayings and reformulation, reverse translation, past tenses, difference in spoken and written language and adaptation.

3.1.2 Treatment of the Control Group

The course was designed according to the chapters of Chamberlin and White's (1983) book titled "Advanced English for Translation". Explicit grammar instruction was administered to the trainees in every unit of the book. Every unit had a text to be translated according to the grammatical structures in it. The book is designed for form focused translation instruction. The treatment is as follows:

The translation exercises and activities in the first, second and third units were done in the 1st week. *Unit 1*: The spy who came in from the cold; including the grammatical structures of – by; in time expressions, past perfect continuous tense, idioms with to/into, double comparatives, might. *Unit 2*: A Letter; including the grammatical structures of – present simple/present continuous tenses, take/bring/fetch, present continuous tense expressing future, phrasal verbs-to see, idiomatic expressions with –'s. *Unit 3*: The consumer jungle; including the grammatical structures of – plural nouns, adjectives in –ing and –ed, one, arise/raise/rise, may.

The translation exercises and activities in the fourth, fifth and sixth units were done in the 2nd week. *Unit 4*: James and the giant peach; including the grammatical structures of – quite, to keep (on) + -ing, very, as if/as though, result clauses. *Unit 5*: The good handyman's encyclopedia; including the grammatical structures of – should, to loosen/loose/to lose, it+to be+adjective+infinitive, only. *Unit 6*: A business letter; including the grammatical structures of – phrasal verbs/to turn, stative verbs, do/pro form, conditionals, prepositions in final position.

The translation exercises and activities in the seventh, eighth and ninth units were done in the 3rd week. *Unit 7*: Advertisement; including the grammatical structures of – compound nouns with 'break', adverbials with present perfect tense, future passive, -ing clauses, opportunity/chance/occasion/possibility. *Unit 8*: Bonecrack; including the grammatical structures of – both, compound adjectives, there, order of adjectives. *Unit 9*: Camping Club Sites list and yearbook; including the grammatical structures of – approximations, little/a little/few/a few, -s genitive, mass and compound nouns.

The translation exercises and activities in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth units were done in the 4th week. *Unit 10*: Articles from Scientific American; including the grammatical structures of – defining and non-defining relative clauses, tenses in time and condition clauses, long/a long time, expressions with 'time'. *Unit 11*: Cambridge

Water Company circular; including the grammatical structures of – passive infinitive, adverbs+comparative, conditionals, infinitive of purpose. *Unit 12*: A letter; including the grammatical structures of – since, used+infinitive/used to+-ing, to get, so/not-por forms, had better.

The translation exercises and activities in the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth units were done in the 5th week. *Unit 13*: Advertisement from The Observer; including the grammatical structures of – else, perfect infinitive, inversion after, adverbials, no+comparative+than. *Unit 14*: Article from The Sunday Times; including the grammatical structures of – present perfect passive, within, by+-ing, 'pure' future. *Unit 15*: Article from Cambridgeshire, Huntingdon and Peterborough Life; including the grammatical structures of – as/like, to make+object+adjective, but, past participle.

The translation exercises and activities in the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth units were done in the 6th week. *Unit 16*: A choice of kings; including the grammatical structures of – would, age expression, passive+infinitive, reflexive and emphatic pronouns. *Unit 17*: Supernature; including the grammatical structures of – most, -ing clauses, prepositions in time expressions, past perfect tense, conditionals. *Unit 18*: Article from Gestetner Gazette; including the grammatical structures of – to be+infinitive, phrases in apposition, compound adjectives, was able to/could.

The translation exercises and activities in the nineteenth, twentieth and twenty-first units were done in the 7th week. *Unit 19*: Lorenzo the magnificent; including the grammatical structures of – phrasal verbs/to fall, all the+comparative, to be+passive infinitive, to have+object+past participle. *Unit 20*: A business letter; including the grammatical structures of – It... + noun clause, concession clauses, mass nouns, relative clauses. *Unit 21*: Article from The Sunday Times; including the grammatical structures of – so, phrasal verbs/to push, negatives, future continuous tense.

The translation exercises and activities in the twenty-second, twenty-third and twenty-fourth units were done in the 8th week. *Unit 22*: Article from The Times; including the grammatical structures of – non-defining relative clauses, present perfect continuous tense, adverb+adjective collocations, phrasal verbs/to be, no+comparative+than. *Unit 23*: Article from The Financial Times; including the grammatical structures of – -s genitive/'of' genitive, passive infinitive, to keep+adjective, -ing clauses, it+to be+adjective+infinitive. *Unit 24*: Article from Evening Standard; including the grammatical structures of – cleft sentences, enough, phrasal verbs/to drop, do/emphatic.

The translation exercises and activities in the twenty-fifth, twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh units were done in the 9th week. *Unit 25*: Advertisement from The Observer; including the grammatical structures of – particular, to get+object+past participle, just, could be+-ing. *Unit 26*: Writers on organisations; including the grammatical structures of – negative prefixes, sentence connectors/result, still, verbs+prepositions, phrasal verbs/to carry. *Unit 27*: Catalogue of Cavendish Philatelic Auctions; including the grammatical structures of – shall, verb prefixes, such, noun+infinitive.

The translation exercises and activities in the twenty-eighth, twenty-ninth and thirtieth units were done in the 10th week. *Unit 28*: Grammar; including the grammatical structures of – conditionals, to take/in time expressions, compound adjectives, to be+infinitive. *Unit 29*: Mathematical puzzle and diversions; including the grammatical structures of – noun+adverb+adjective, result clauses, object+infinitive, any/anyhow/etc., conditionals. *Unit 30*: Article from The Sunday Times; including the grammatical structures of – past participle, infinitive expressing consequence, past perfect tense, adverbs.

3.2 Population and Sample

The subject pool for the study consisted of 75 undergraduate students who have taken the Translation course (from English into Turkish) at the Department of English Language Teaching, Gazi University. The translation course is given in the second year for two semesters, first semester from English into Turkish and the second semester from Turkish into English. In this study the translation course from English into Turkish was in experiment. The subjects took the translation course two hours per week. Four of the classes in the ELT program at this university were chosen for this current study. Two of them were assigned to the experimental group for the study, and the other two served as the control group. The subject pool for the study consisted of 75 native Turkish undergraduate students, respectively: 40 for the experimental group, and 35 for the control group. None of the subjects were told that they were in the experimental or control group. All subjects in the experimental and control groups received the same amount of treatment with two different types of instructional methods from two different teachers in their regular classes: the meaning focused translation instruction for

the experimental group and the form focused translation instruction for the control group. The treatment was limited to instructional materials as Alan Duff's (1994) book titled "Translation" for the experimental group and Denis Chamberlin and Gillian White's (1983) book titled "Advanced English for Translation" for the control group. The books were designed for form and meaning focused translation instruction, therefore no additional material was used. The study extended over a period of 10 weeks. The subjects took the Translation course for 10 weeks in the first term of the 2009-2010 academic year. All subjects had a similar background, as they have taken the same courses in the preparatory and first grade. For this reason, the two groups had a similar competency level as a result of the pre-tests. However, because this was a study to investigate the instructional effects of two different types of instruction methods, form and meaning focused translation instruction, in the translation courses at university level ELT trainees, subjects who did not complete the pre-test or the post-test in its regular duration were eliminated. The subject pool was mixed up with female and male students because the ELT classes at this university combined both genders. Also, all subjects had the same socio-cultural and sociolinguistic background of Turkish and subjects were all undergraduates.

Table 3.3
The Gender Distribution of the Experimental and Control Group students

Group	Gender					
	Female		Male		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Experimental	33	82,5	7	17,5	40	100.0
Control	29	82,9	6	17,1	35	100.0

As it is seen in Table 3.3, 33 (% 82.5) of the students were female, 7 (% 17.5) students were male in the experimental group and 29 (% 82.9) of the students were female, 6 (% 17.1) students were male in the control group.

Table 3.4
The Graduated High School Type Distribution of the Experimental and Control Group Students

Graduated High School Type	Experimental		Control	
	N	%	N	%
Normal State School	-	-	1	2,9
Anatolian High School	5	12,5	6	17,1
Anatolian Teacher High School	28	70,0	18	51,4
Super High School	7	17,5	9	25,7
Private Anatolian High School	-	-	1	2,9
Total	40	100.0	35	100.0

As it is illustrated in Table 3.4, 28 (% 70.0) students were graduated from Anatolian Teacher High School, 7 (% 17.5) students were graduated from Super High School, and 5 (% 12.5) students were graduated from Anatolian High School in the experimental group. 18 (% 51.4) students were graduated from Anatolian Teacher High School, 9 (% 25.7) students were graduated from Super High School, 6 (% 17.1) students were graduated from Anatolian High School, 1 (% 2.9) student was graduated from Normal State School, and 1 (% 2.9) student was graduated from Private Anatolian High School in the control group.

Table 3.5
The Experimental and Control Group Students' Period of Learning English

Years of Learning English	Experimental		Control	
	N	%	N	%
1			1	2,9
4			1	2,9
5			1	2,9
6			1	2,9
7	1	2,5		
8	1	2,5	2	5,7
9	5	12,5	4	11,4
10	14	35,0	7	20,0
11	10	25,0	10	28,5
12	6	15,0	4	11,4
13	2	5,0	4	11,4
14	1	2,5	-	-
Total	40	100,0	35	100,0

As Table 3.5 shows, in the experimental group 1 (% 2.5) student has been learning English for 7 years, 1 (% 2.5) student has been learning English for 8 years, 5

(% 12.5) students have been learning English for 9 years 14 (% 35) students have been learning English for 10 years, 10 (% 25.0) students have been learning English for 11 years, 6 (% 15.0) students have been learning English for 12 years, 2 (% 5.0) students have been learning English for 13 years, and 1 (% 2.5) student has been learning English for 14 years.

In the control group 1 (% 2.9) student has been learning English for 1 year, 1 (% 2.9) student has been learning English for 4 years, 1 (% 2.9) student has been learning English for 5 years, 1 (% 2.9) student has been learning English for 6 years, 2 (% 5.7) students have been learning English for 8 years, 4 (% 11,4) students have been learning English for 9 years, 7 (% 20.0) students have been learning English for 10 years, 10 (% 28.5) students have been learning English for 11 years, 4 (% 11,4) students have been learning English for 12 years, and 4 (% 11,4) students have been learning English for 13 years.

Table 3.6
The Experimental and Control Group Students' State of Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation Outside the Class	Experimental		Control	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	19	47,5	16	45,7
No	21	52,5	19	54,3
Total	40	100,0	35	100,0

As presented in Table 3.6, 19 (% 47.5) students do translation outside the classroom and 21 (% 52.5) students don't do translation outside the classroom in the experimental group, and 16 (% 45.7) students do translation outside the classroom and 19 (% 54.3) students don't do translation outside the classroom in the control group.

3.3 Collection of Data

The data was collected from the pre-post tests. The pre-tests and post-tests were the same in appearance, number and kind of items, and internal structure (linguistically

and structurally). The pre-tests and questionnaire were administered immediately before the treatment in the first course of the first week. The post-test was given immediately after the ten treatment lessons. The same test administration procedure was used for both pre-tests and post-tests.

1.3.1 Instruments

The experimental and control group students were asked to fill a questionnaire to identify their reflections about translation and their strategy use in translating. Both groups took the pre-tests and post-tests at the same time.

For the pre-post tests, equivalent forms of the same tests were administered. There were four instruments to collect data: Reading Comprehension Test, Translation Test, Individual Background Questionnaire and Self-Assessment Language Skills Scale (these were included in the questionnaire) and the 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' Questionnaire.

1.3.1.1 Reading Comprehension Test

The reading comprehension questions were taken from the internet address of ÖSYM (Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi – Student Selection and Placement Centre), www.osym.gov.tr with permission (SEE APPENDIX E-2).

Details of the questions are given below:

1-15 questions were taken from 2006 MAY KPDS EXAM
(Questions 76-85, 96-100).
16-20 questions were taken from 2007 MAY KPDS EXAM
(Questions 76-80).

The test has four paragraphs and five questions in each paragraph as a total of twenty questions (SEE APPENDIX A).

1.3.1.1.1 Validity and Reliability

As the reading comprehension questions were taken from ÖSYM, the three experts in the field of English Language Teaching and the statistical analyser have agreed that there is no need to look for the reliability and validity for the test because ÖSYM has measured the test and has very reliable test measures.

1.3.1.1.2 Evaluation and Scoring of the Reading Test

The reading test was prepared by the ÖSYM and had 20 questions, five in each of the four paragraphs. The items were evaluated according to the given right answers from the total of the questions. Then, the levels of the students were graded according to the total right answers given to the test. The grading of the students were as good readers (15-20 right answers), average readers (8-14 right answers) and poor readers (0-7 right answers). The computation of the tests were done according to the students level of reading comprehension, as good, average and poor readers. The pre-test and post-test of the Reading Test were evaluated and scored the same way. The statistical evaluation was done in accordance with the scoring.

1.3.1.2 Translation Test

The 'Translation Test' was developed through procedures that evaluated the content validity of identified statements, explored the criterion and construct validity, and assessed the internal reliability of the instrument. The test was created by three experts in the field of English Language Teaching.

The sentences to be translated were chosen from Alan Duff's (1994) book titled "Translation". Details of the sentences are given below:

- The 1st and 2nd sentences were taken from the section of context and register. These sentences were chosen to focus on prediction and implied meaning, word choices, register, different types of expressions (colloquial, etc.), ambiguous and oddly worded statements. The 1st and 2nd items have 2 sentences in each to be translated.

- The 3rd and 4th sentences were taken from the section of word order and reference. These sentences were chosen to focus on stressed, marked and implied words, word inversion, use of articles, expressions for compression of thought and referential words. The 3rd and 4th items have 1 sentence in each to be translated.

- The 5th and 6th sentences were taken from the section of time: tense, mood, aspect. These sentences were chosen to focus on word endings, passive forms, conditionals, tenses, adverbs and prepositions. The 5th item has 2 and the 6th item has 1 sentence to be translated.

- The 7th and 8th sentences were taken from the section of concepts and notions. These sentences were chosen to focus on Word choice: real and imaginary definitions, specific expressions, close synonyms, possibility and ability, Causality: consequence, effect and result, Perception: language on vision and perception. The 7th and 8th items have 2 sentences in each to be translated.

- The 9th and 10th sentences were taken from the section of idioms: from one culture to another. These sentences were chosen to focus on defective and ambiguous sentences (faulty sentences), word choice, familiar expressions, formula language, fixed expressions, colloquial language, proverbs, common sayings and reformulation, reverse translation, past tenses, difference in spoken and written language and adaptation. The 9th item has 1 and the 10th item has 2 sentences to be translated (SEE APPENDIX B).

The sentences in the translation test were not included in the teaching of the control or experimental groups during the treatment and only were given as pre and post-test to both groups.

1.3.1.2.1 Validity

The content validity was of concern in the development of "Translation Test". A panel of experts, with expertise in English Language teaching, were used in the evaluation of validity of items. The panel used classification and sorting procedures in their efforts (see 3.3.1.2 Translation Test).

1.3.1.2.2 Reliability

The "Translation Test" was developed through procedures that evaluated the content validity of identified statements, explored the criterion and construct validity, and assessed the internal reliability of the instrument. The content validity consisted of classification and sorting procedures. The three experts analysed to further refine the "Translation Test" and it was used to establish the internal consistency reliability of the instrument. Internal consistency focused on the degree to which the same characteristic was being measured (see 3.3.1.2 Translation Test).

1.3.1.2.3Evaluation and Scoring of the Translation Test

The Translation test had 10 items (sentence(s)) (see 3.3.1.2 Translation Test). Each sentence group was evaluated and scored by three experts in the field of English Language Teaching according to the answer sheet prepared by them. The researcher evaluated the main scores of the three experts' evaluation of the test and coded them in a scale from 1 to 4. The evaluation and coding of the test was as below:

0 → Completely Incorrect (The form and meaning is completely incorrect).

1 → Incorrect (The form and meaning is slightly incorrect).

2 → Slightly Correct (The form is correct but the meaning is slightly incorrect).

3 → Correct (The form is slightly incorrect but meaning is correct).

4 → Perfect (The form and meaning is completely correct).

The pre-test and post-test of the Translation Test were evaluated and scored the same way. The statistical evaluation was done in accordance with the mean scores of the evaluators.

1.3.1.3 Questionnaire

The questionnaire has three main parts. In the first part, an 'Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)' aiming to find out the name, gender, the graduated high school type, period of learning English and if they do translation outside the school or not was stated.

The second part consisted of a 'Self-Assessment Language Skills (for Translation) Scale'. This part of the questionnaire aimed to find out the students self-assessment in the four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) besides grammar, vocabulary and idioms. They were to rate themselves as Excellent, Very good, Fair, Not good, Poor.

The third part of the questionnaire consisted of a Likert type questionnaire titled 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and their Strategy Use in Translation'. The aim was to gather the students' reflections and perceptions of translation at the ELT department of Education Faculty of Gazi University. The questionnaire also attempted to identify the possible strategies the students used in translating (SEE APPENDIX C).

The questionnaire was taken from the PhD. Dissertation of Atef Faleh Youssef (1986, pp. 107-108) titled "Cognitive Processes in Written Translation". Youssef classified the items into four sections as philosophical (including 19 items), psycholinguistic (including 16 items), psychological (including 11 items), and cognitive in general (including 6 items). This questionnaire was adapted to English Language Teaching so some of the items were omitted and changed with permission. (SEE APPENDIX D FOR THE ORIGINAL QUESTIONNAIRE) (SEE APPENDIX E-1 FOR THE GRANT OF PERMISSION).

The 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire was adapted from the PhD. Dissertation of Atef Faleh Youssef (1986, pp. 107-108) titled "Cognitive Processes in Written Translation". This rearranged questionnaire consists of 45 multiple-choice questions. There were five sections as: the general view of translation -including 10 items (all of the items were created by the three experts), philosophical -including 15 items (item numbers 2, 9, 15 from the original questionnaire were omitted), psycholinguistic -including 9 items (item numbers 3, 5, 6, 10, 13, 15, 16 from the original questionnaire were omitted), psychological -including 6 items (item numbers 1, 3, 8, 9, 11 from the original questionnaire were omitted) and cognitive in general -including 5 items (item number 1 from the original questionnaire was omitted). As it is stated, the first section of the questionnaire was prepared by the three experts and the first part of the original questionnaire was stated as the second section of the questionnaire and the other sections followed. The items were adapted to translation in English Language Teaching Departments and the students. As an example, the item "Translators do not transfer the linguistic features of the SLT into the TLT" from the original questionnaire was adapted as "I do not transfer the linguistic features of the English Text into the Turkish Text".

Fixed-choice measures consisted of a 5-point Likert scale to indicate agreement or disagreement and to clearly identify the median scale within each questionnaire item. Subjects were asked to read each statement, and indicate their reaction by choosing a response measure ranged from (a)Strongly Agree, (b)Agree, (c)Uncertain, (d)Disagree, (e)Strongly Disagree. A computation of the value of each item was conducted based on the subjects' number of responses on each item.

The response measures and the scoring of the "English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation" questionnaire are given below. The high scores reflect the positive aptitudes.

POSITIVE STATEMENTS

Strongly Disagree: 1

Disagree: 2

Uncertain: 3

NEGATIVE STATEMENTS

Strongly Agree: 1

Agree: 2

Uncertain: 3

Agree: 4   Disagree: 4

Strongly Agree: 5   Strongly Disagree: 5

1.3.1.3.1Validity and Reliability

Content validity is important for a test to be used in academic research. This is because; the more a test is content valid, the more accurately it measures what it is supposed to measure (Hughes, 1989, p. 22). One of the ways of determining the content validity of the test is to make experienced teachers (or testers) to analyze the test thoroughly and item-by-item (Brown, 1996, p. 233; Tekin, 2003, p. 47). Considering this suggestion, the comments of three experienced university lecturers were asked. The lecturers had been teaching at least for ten years at a university while taking active roles in the preparation and assessment of the questionnaire.

The three experts in the field of English Language Teaching first agreed on the items to be omitted and the items to be adapted. Secondly, new items were added in the first section of the questionnaire. Finally, the experts were asked to judge the degree to which each item tested what it intended to test. Besides this, they were also asked to comment on whether whole of the test tested the target forms thoroughly. In the end, all of the teachers were in consensus that the test measures the target structures as it claims to measure. Therefore, the test can be considered content valid to test the target forms of the study.

To further assess content validity of the 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted using the data collected in the initial field test with 75 students in the Department of English Language Teaching, Gazi University as the participants. Data were analyzed using the SPSS 15.0 computer program via principal component analysis. It was hypothesized that the factors were correlated; therefore, an oblique method of rotation, direct obliging, was utilized. These findings show that there is a clear evidence of content validity.

The adequacy of the questionnaire for factor analysis was examined with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficiency and Barlett Sphericity test. The KMO measures the sampling adequacy which should be greater than 0.5 for a satisfactory factor analysis to proceed. As the KMO was higher than 0.5 and the Barlett Sphericity test result was significant for the questionnaire, it showed that the data was appropriate for factor analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2007, p. 126). The KMO coefficiency was found .92 for the questionnaire and the score in the Barlett Sphericity test was found significant. This showed that the questionnaire was adequate for factor analysis.

Items loading on any factor below .40 were deemed weak and were identified for possible elimination from the questionnaire. Examination of the items loading on each factor, and the strength or weakness of those loadings was analysed with the Varimax rotation technique, and the result lead to further consideration as to the ability of items to represent the five areas of beliefs and strategy use. The analysis explained an adequate amount of variance and had appropriate loadings.

The researcher identified five factors through the analysis, which accounted for 62.08 % of the total variance. The percentage of variance explained was substantially above chance levels indicating that the factors accounted for an adequate amount of the total variance. Analysis of item-loadings on the five-factor matrix resulted in the following labelling: Factor 1: General View of Translation; Factor 2: Philosophical; Factor 3: Psycholinguistic; Factor 4: Psychological; Factor 5: Cognitive in General. Total variance accounted for by the five-factor model was 62.08 %, with each factor accounting for total variance as follows: Factor 1: 12.22%; Factor 2: 16.13%; Factor 3: 14.21%; Factor 4: 9.28% and Factor 5: 10.24%.

The reliability of the beliefs and strategy use in translation questionnaire was analysed with Alfa coeficiency test developed by Cronbach. The computed reliability coefficiency for a psychological test is accepted adequate if it is .70 or higher. The total Cronbach Alfa reliability coefficiency for by the five-factor model was .80 with each Cronbach Alfa reliability coefficiency as follows: Factor 1: .83; Factor 2: .74; Factor 3: .78; Factor 4: .81 and Factor 5: .87. This showed that the questionnaire was adequate for the reliability.

The factor loadings are given in Table 3.7. Items have been organized as to subtests and areas of differentiation for ease of interpretation.

Table 3.7
Factor Loadings of the English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and their Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire Items

Section I (GENERAL VIEW OF TRANSLATION) Item Number	Factor Loadings
1. I understand all that I read in Turkish.	.730
2. I understand all that I read in English.	.630
3. I am confident that I can translate effectively from English into Turkish.	.668
4. I make serious comprehension errors when I translate.	.524
5. I make grammar mistakes when I translate.	.483
6. Translating is simply a matter of practice; it cannot be taught.	.433
7. For good translation you need to integrate the four language skills besides vocabulary and grammar.	.604
8. For good translation you have to be familiar with English and Turkish grammatical rules and sentence patterns.	.597
9. Translation includes only reading and writing skills.	.693
10. Translation is an uncommunicative, difficult and irrelevant language learning activity.	.484
Section II (PHILOSOPHICAL) **Item Number**	**Factor** **Loadings**
1. When translating I establish one to one correspondence between the vocabulary in the English Text and the Turkish text.	.440
2. I first analyze the English Text, and then reconstruct the analysis of the English Text in a Turkish Text linguistic framework.	.422
3. I do not follow specific cognitive procedures.	.517
4. I function according to the way I believe language reflects reality.	.456
5. I relate the content of the English Text to its cultural context.	.462
6. I do not transfer the linguistic features of the English Text into the Turkish Text.	.627
7. I do not ignore the first meaningful impact I get from the English Text.	.481

8. I get myself involved in the linguistic properties of the English Text and the Turkish Text, and deliberately ignore the Turkish Text reader.	.619
9. I maintain in my memory the semantic units of the English Text not its linguistic properties.	.448
10. I change my strategies according to the requirements of the given English Text.	.411
11. I confine myself to the semantic properties of the English Text, not to the properties of the Turkish Text.	.480
12. I translate the semantic properties of the English Text not my inferences of the English Text meaning.	.444
13. I depend on my linguistic knowledge, contextual analysis, and intuition in the process of analyzing the English Text.	.445
14. I adjust the Turkish Text linguistic structure to fit the linguistic structure of the English Text and vice-versa.	.637
15. I seek the dynamic equivalences rather than mere synonyms.	.493
Section III (PSYCHOLINGUISTIC) **Item Number**	**Factor Loadings**
1. I am concerned with the impact of my translation product on the Turkish Text reader.	.627
2. I pay special attention to the connotation of the English Text, not to its linguistic specifications.	.484
3. In the process of synthesizing the message into the Turkish Text, I lose some of the English Text meaning.	.431
4. Preserving the form of the English Text yields a distortion in the transferred meaning.	.999
5. A complete transference of the English Text meaning into the Turkish Text is impossible.	.480
6. Instead of providing the exact equivalences, I provide descriptive equivalences.	.498
7. Translation difficulties emerge as a result of an absence of linguistic balance between the English Text and the Turkish Text, and not because of	.999

my limited capabilities.	
8. Translation is a cognitive procedure designed to reveal as much as possible of the form and content of the original message.	.497
9. When I translate a text, the translation product turns out to be uniquely different from the English Text.	.485

Section IV (PSYCHOLOGICAL) Item Number	Factor Loadings
1. I pay more attention to the communicative norms than to the linguistic characteristics of the English Text and the Turkish Text.	.617
2. I rely on my imaginative capabilities more than I rely on my linguistic knowledge of the English Text and the Turkish Text.	.782
3. I don't rely on intuition in understanding the English Text.	.705
4. I concentrate on the semantic dimension of the English Text.	.675
5. A good translation product has to be larger than the English Text.	.498
6. Translation takes place in the phase of analyzing the linguistic forms of the English Text.	.610

Section V (COGNITIVE IN GENERAL) Item Number	Factor Loadings
1. I cannot understand the meaning of the English Text unless I analyze the logical relations between its sentences.	.458
2. A translation product is a reflection of my psychological analysis of the English Text.	.543
3. The translation of the English Text should be preceded by an analysis of the English Text meaning.	.608
4. After analyzing the English Text I exclusively deliberate on the Turkish Text linguistic properties, and do not go back to English Text.	.568
5. The numerous linguistic forms that indicate one single meaning create difficult cognitive choices for me.	.469

1.3.1.3.1.1 Classification of the Items

Statement classification served to verify the literature review as well as to establish content validity by examining the ability of the belief statements to accurately describe a particular curricular approach and specific area of differentiation. 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire was constructed with the assistance of a panel consisting of three experts in the area of English Language Teaching. These experts are in a faculty of a major research university and are recognized for their theoretical and practical expertise in the area of English Language Teaching. In accordance with Atef Faleh Youssef's questionnaire in his PhD dissertation titled "Cognitive Processes in Written Translation" which classified the items to four sections as philosophical, psycholinguistic, psychological, and cognitive in general, the 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire was classified in five sections as general view of translation, philosophical, psycholinguistic, psychological, and cognitive in general. Some of the items in Faleh Youssef's questionnaire were omitted because of irrelevance to the present study and the rest of the items were adapted to the students who take translation courses in the Department of English Language Teaching in Education Faculties. The classification was agreed among the experts as including five sections: Section I- the general view of translation (including 10 items), Section II- philosophical (including 15 items), Section III- psycholinguistic (including 9 items), Section IV- psychological (including 6 items), and Section V- cognitive in general (including 5 items).

1.3.2 Limitations of Data Collection

In relation to this study, certain limitations of data collection must be noted:

1.   Data Collected

A limitation in this study was in the choice of the data collected, which in turn was used for the dependent variable. Because of the nature of this study, the data collected was limited to knowledge measured by the number of correct items on a translation and reading tests. Selecting the correct items on a translation test as the

dependent variable may favour one treatment over the other and may not be the best indicator of learning.

2. Test Characteristics

Examinee characteristics cannot be separated from test characteristics. There are characteristics of the trainees that cannot be accounted for but are reflected in the results of the study.

3. Expectation of the Students

Students may be in the process of trying to reconcile beliefs with course expectations. Therefore, reported beliefs may not be representative of true beliefs.

1.4 Analysis of Data

As it will be seen in the next chapter, the data obtained from the pre-tests and post-tests scores of the subjects were analyzed statistically in order to answer the research questions of the present study. This part of the study contains the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data.

1.4.1 Analysis of the Quantitative Data

The data gained from the data collection tools were analysed with the SPSS 15.0 programme. The analysis is defined below:

1) A Two Factor ANOVA for Repeated Measures on one Factor Test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and the control group scores of the reading comprehension test, translation test, language skills (for translation) self-assessment scale and the "English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation" questionnaire before and after the treatment. This type of an analysis contains two factors. The first factor (row factor) shows the different experimental conditions (experimental-control groups). The

second factor (column factor) defines the identification of the repeated measurements which is done to interpret the change according to time (Büyüköztürk, 2007, pp. 80-81).

2) The Independent Sample t-test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and the control group students' reading comprehension test, translation test, language skills (for translation) self-assessment scale and the 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire to see if there is a significant difference or not.

3) The Mann Whitney U Test and Kruskal Wallis Test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and the control group in the pre-tests and the post-tests scores of the reading comprehension test, translation test, language skills (for translation) self-assessment scale and the 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire to see if there is a significant difference in the gender, the graduated high school type, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom.

4) The Mann Whitney U Test and Kruskal Wallis Test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and the control group students' reading comprehension test, translation test, language skills (for translation) self-assessment scale and the 'English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation' questionnaire scores to see if there is a significant difference in the gender, the graduated high school type, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom in the pre-treatment and the post-treatment scores.

5) The Kruskal Wallis Test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and the control group students' academic achievement in the translation test in accordance with their reading levels.

1.4.2 Analysis of the Qualitative Data

The answers of the students for the translation test were evaluated by the researcher and two other instructors in the field of English Language teaching. The mean score of the evaluators were calculated (see the type of scoring in 3.3.1.2.3 Evaluation and Scoring of the Translation Test) by the researcher. The mean scores were used in the analysis with the SPSS 15.0 programme.

1.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has described the research method, rationale for selecting the current methodology, overview of participants, data collection and analysis, as well as the limitations of the study. The Reading Test, the Translation Test and the "English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation" questionnaire were detailed as background information for the data analysis process.

The next chapter will present research findings under the themes corresponding to the research questions and provide a discussion based on the findings.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the findings and discussion of the findings. The findings and discussion of the study were evaluated according to the data gained from the sub-problems of the study.

4.1 The Comparison of the Groups' Reading Comprehension Test

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the experimental and control groups students' pre-post test scores in reading comprehension test are stated.

4.1.1 Pre-Post Test Scores of the Groups in the Reading Comprehension Test

The independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' reading comprehension pre-test are stated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
The Independent T-Test Results for the Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Students' Reading Comprehension Pre-Test

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Experimental	40	12.500	2.562	73	1.023	.310
Control	35	13.114	2.632			

In order to check if there is a statistically significant difference in the reading comprehension of the experimental and control group students' pre-tests the Independent Sample t Test has been conducted. When the figures are examined in Table 4.1., it is seen that the difference between the arithmetic means of the groups' pre-test

scores in the reading comprehension is not statistically significant ($t_{(73)}$=1.023, p>.05). According to the data, the mean scores of the pre-test of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=12.500), and the mean scores of the pre-test of the control group which was treated with form focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=13.114). Therefore, the groups can be said to be equal in terms of reading comprehension skill before the treatment.

The independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' reading comprehension post-test are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
The Independent T-Test Results for the Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Students' Reading Comprehension Post-Test

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Experimental	40	13,225	2,626	73	3.887	.000
Control	35	10,742	2,903			

As seen in Table 4.2, the Independent Sample t Test conducted to check if there is a statistically significant difference in the reading comprehension of the experimental and control group students' post-tests show that there is a significant difference between the groups ($t_{(73)}$=3.887, p<.05). According to the data, the mean scores of the post-test of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=13.225), and the mean scores of the post-test of the control group which was treated with form focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=10.742). These results show that there is a significant meaningful difference in the post-test scores and the difference is in the favour of the experimental group.

4.1.2 The Effect of Form Focused and Meaning Focused Translation Instruction to the Reading Comprehension

The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the reading comprehension of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment is displayed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Reading
Comprehension Pre-Post Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups	1568.62	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	334.137	1	334.137	16.149	.000
Error	1234.483	73	17.891		
Within Groups	1856.291	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	1252.855	1	1252.855	155.799	.000
Group*Measurement	**48.573**	**1**	**47.512**	**7.038**	**.016**
Error	554.863	73	7.041		
Total	3424.911	149			

As scores in Table 4.3 indicate, a significant difference has been observed in the scores of the reading comprehension pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. Significant difference has been viewed in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the reading comprehension pre-tests and post-tests scores [$F_{(1-73)}$ = 7.038, p<.05)]. This finding shows that in the treatment of form and meaning focused translation instruction the students have shown difference in the increase in their reading comprehension test scores. The experimental group students which were treated with meaning focused translation instruction showed that they have achieved more success in the scores of the reading comprehension test.

4.1.3 The Comparison of the Group' Reading Comprehension Pre-Post Test Scores according to the Students' Gender, the Graduated High School Type, the Duration of Learning English and Doing Translation outside the Classroom.

In this section, the findings and discussion of the distribution of the group' reading comprehension pre-post test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school type, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom is put forth.

The data analysed for the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' gender are in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Female	33	21,48	709,00	83,000	,243
Male	7	15,86	111,00		

Table 4.4 reveals that the experimental group students' pre-tests scores of the male and female students according to their reading comprehension is not significantly meaningful (U=111.500, p>.05).

Table 4.5 charts the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' gender.

Table 4.5
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	9	18,29	530,50	78,500	,708
Male	6	16,58	99,50		

As displayed in Table 4.5, significant difference has not been viewed in the control group students' pre-tests scores of the male and female students according to their reading comprehension (U=78.500, p>.05).

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type is shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	5	18.50				
Super	7	23.00	2	.490	.783	-
Anatolian Teacher	28	20.23				

From Table 4.6, it can be seen that a significant difference has not found in the experimental group students' reading comprehension pre-tests scores according to their graduated high school types [x^2 (3)= .490, p<.05]. When the mean numbers of the groups are taken into point the Anatolian Teacher High School graduates have the highest level of reading comprehension and follows as the Super High School and Anatolian High School graduates.

In Table 4.7 the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type is displayed.

Table 4.7
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	f	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	6	17,00				
Super	9	14,28				
Normal State	1	23,50	4	2,285	.683	-
Private Anatolian	1	23,50				
Anatolian Teacher	18	19,58				

Table 4.7 shows that a significant difference has not been noted in the control group students' reading comprehension pre-tests scores according to their graduated high school types [x^2 (4)= 2.285, p<.05]. When the mean numbers of the groups are taken into point the Normal State High School and Private Anatolian High School

graduates have the highest level of reading comprehension and follows as the Anatolian Teacher High School, Super High School and Anatolian High School graduates.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' learning period of English are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Learning Period of English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
7	1	23,00				
8	1	18,50				
9	5	24,10				
10	14	17,71	7	2,908	.893	-
11	10	20,65				
12	6	23,92				
13	2	15,25				
14	1	29,50				

As shown in Table 4.8, significant difference has not been found in the control group students' reading comprehension pre-tests scores according to the students' learning period of English [x^2 (7)= 2.908, p<.05].

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' learning period of English are stated in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Learning Period of English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	d	X^2	p	Difference
1	1	14,50				
4	1	14,50				
5	1	27,50				
6	1	8,50				
8	2	18,00	9	4,716	,893	-
9	4	16,00				
10	7	20,14				
1	10	19,85				
12	4	11,25				
13	4	20,13				

As indicated in Table 4.9, there is no statistically significant difference in the control group students' reading comprehension pre-tests scores according to the students' learning period of English [x^2 (9)= 4.716, p<.05].

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom are summarized in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation Outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	19	18,97	360,50	170,500	,428
No	21	21,88	459,50		

As Table 4.10 shows, the difference in the experimental group students' reading comprehension pre-tests scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom is not statistically significant (U=170.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom are displayed in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation Outside the Classroom

Doing Translation Outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	16	19,03	304,50	135,500	,582
No	19	17,13	325,50		

As seen in Table 4.11, a significant difference has not been appared in the control group students' reading comprehension pre-tests scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=135.500, p>.05).

Table 4.12 presents the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender.

Table 4.12
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	33	19,77	652,50	91,500	,386
Male	7	23,93	167,50		

As illustrated in Table 4.12, there is no significant difference in the experimental group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender (U=91.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender are stated in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	29	17,66	512,00	77,000	,654
Male	6	19,67	118,00		

As for Table 4.13, difference in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender is not significant (U=77.000, p>.05).

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school types are shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	5	31,90				1-2
Super	7	11,36	2	9,317	.009	1-3
Anatolian Teacher	28	20,75				3-2

As stated in Table 4.14, the experimental group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type has shown significant difference [x^2 (2)= 9.317, p<.05]. The significant difference is between the Anatolian High School graduates and the Super High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates. Also, significant difference has been seen between Anatolian Teacher High School graduates and Super High School graduates.

Table 4.15 shows the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type.

Table 4.15
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	df	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	6	21,50				
Super	9	16,89				
Normal State	1	15,00	4	1,339	,855	-
Private Anatolian	1	23,50				
Anatolian Teacher	18	17,25				

As summarized in Table 4.15, significant difference has been noted in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type [x^2 (4)= 1.339, p<.05]. When the mean numbers are taken into account the highest comprehension level is seen in the Private Anatolian High School graduate and follows as the Anatolian High School graduates, Anatolian Teacher High School graduates, Super High School graduates and Normal State High School graduates according to the post-test scores.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English are illustrated in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Period of Learning English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
7	1	23,00				
8	1	18,50				
9	5	24,10				
10	14	17,71	7	2,908	,893	-
11	10	20,65				
12	6	23,92				
13	2	15,25				
14	1	29,50				

As shown in the mean gain scores in Table 4.16, it can simply be stated that significant difference has not been seen in the experimental group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English [x^2 (7)= 2.908, p<.05].

Table 4.17 states the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English.

Table 4.17
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Period of Learning English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
1	1	23,50				
4	1	23,50				
5	1	34,00				
6	1	35,00				
8	2	27,00	9	10,554	,308	-
9	4	17,88				
10	7	15,00				
11	10	17,90				
12	4	11,13				
13	4	15,00				

As seen in Table 4.17, a statistically significant difference has not been found in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English [$x^2(9)= 10.554$, $p<.05$].

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom are shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18
The Mann Whitney U Test Results Of The Difference in the Experimental Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	19	22,66	430,50	158,500	,260
No	21	18,55	389,50		

As presented in Table 4.18, there is no significant difference in the experimental group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=158.500, p>.05).

In Table 4.19 the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom are presented.

Table 4.19
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Reading Comprehension Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation Outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	16	19,00	304,00	136,000	,587
No	19	17,16	326,00		

The analysis of the mean scores in Table 4.19 indicated that there is not a statistically significant difference in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=136.000, p>.05).

4.2 The Comparison of the Groups' Translation Test

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the experimental and control groups students' pre-post test scores in translation test are stated.

4.2.1 Pre-Post Test Scores of the Groups in the Translation Test

In Table 4.20, the independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' translation pre-test are displayed.

Table 4.20
The Independent T-Test Results for the Difference in the Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Students' Translation Pre-Test

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Experimental	40	20,650	4,560	73	1,185	,240
Control	35	21,942	4,886			

In order to check if there is a statistically significant difference in the translation test scores of the experimental and control group students' pre-tests the Independent Sample t Test has been conducted. When the figures are examined in Table 4.20, it appears that the difference between the arithmetic means of the groups' pre-test scores in the translation test is not statistically significant ($t_{(73)}$=1.185, p>.05). According to the data, the mean scores of the pre-test of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=20.650), the mean scores of the pre-test of the control group which was treated with form focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=21.942). Therefore, the groups can be said to be equal in terms of translation (from English into Turkish) before the treatment.

The independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' translation post-test are summarized in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21
The Independent T-Test Results for the Difference in the Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Students' Translation Post-Test

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Experimental	40	26,650	5,337	73	3,071	,003
Control	35	22,657	5,920			

As seen in Table 4.21, the Independent Sample t Test conducted to check if there is a statistically significant difference in the translation test of the experimental and control group students' post-tests show that there is a significant difference between the groups ($t_{(73)}$=3.071, p<.05). According to the data, the mean scores of the post-test of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=26.650), and the mean scores of the post-test of the control group which was treated with form focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$=22.657). These results show that there is a significant meaningful difference in the post-test scores and the difference is in the favour of the experimental group.

**4.2.2 The Effect of Form and Meaning Focused Translation Instruction to the
Translation Skills**

The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the translation skills of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment are shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22
**The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Translation
Pre-Post Test Scores**

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups	10.885	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	.020	1	.020	.126	.724
Error	10.865	73	.157		
Within Groups	9.757	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	1,386	1	1.386	12.987	.001
Group*Measurement	**1.006**	**1**	**1.006**	**9.423**	**.003**
Error	7.365	73	.107		
Total	20.642	149			

Significant difference has been viewed in the scores of the translation pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types, as seen in Table 4.22, significant difference has been seen in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the translation pre-tests and post-tests scores [$F_{(1-73)} = 9.423$, $p<.05$]. This finding shows that in the treatment of form and meaning focused translation instruction the students have shown difference in the increase in their translation test scores. The experimental group students which were treated with meaning focused translation instruction showed that they have achieved more success in the score of the translation test.

4.2.3 The Comparison of the Group' Translation Pre-Post Test Scores according to the Students' Gender, the Graduated High School Type, the Duration of Learning English and Doing Translation outside the Classroom

In this section, the findings and discussion of the distribution of the group' translation pre-post test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school type, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom is put forth.

In Table 4.23, the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' gender are shown.

Table 4.23
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	33	19,92	657,50	96,500	,496
Male	7	23,21	162,50		

As stated in Table 4.23, there is no significant difference in the experimental group students' pre-tests scores of the male and female students according to their translation skills (U=96.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' gender are shown in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	29	18,40	533,50	75,500	,611
Male	6	16,08	96,50		

As illustrated in Table 4.24, significant difference has not been seen in the control group students' pre-tests scores of the male and female students according to their translation skills (U=75.500, p>.05).

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are summarized in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	5	23,50				
Super	7	27,86	2	4,338	,114	-
Anatolian Teacher	28	18,13				

Table 4.25 shows that a significant difference has not been observed in the experimental group students' pre-tests scores of the graduated high school types according to their translation skills [x^2 (2)= 4.338, p<.05]. When the mean numbers of the groups are taken into point the Super High School graduates have the highest level of translation skills, the Anatolian High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates follow.

Table 4.26 shows the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school types.

Table 4.26
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School
Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	df	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	6	15,00				
Super	9	11,78				
Normal State	1	22,50	4	8,623	,071	-
Private Anatolian	1	7,50				
Anatolian Teacher	18	22,44				

Table 4.26 reveals that a significant difference has not appeared in the control group students' pre-tests scores of the graduated high school types according to their translation skills [x^2 (4)= 8.623, p<.05]. When the mean numbers of the groups are taken into point the Normal State High School graduates have the highest level of translation skills and follows as the Anatolian Teacher High School, Anatolian High School, Super High School Private and Anatolian High School graduates.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental translation pre-test scores according to the students' learning period of English are shown in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's
Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Learning Period of English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
7	1	7,50				
8	1	6,00				
9	5	8,60				
10	14	21,32	7	11,928	,103	-
11	10	26,30				
12	6	19,75				
13	2	27,25				
14	1	29,00				

Form Table 4.27, it can be seen that a significant difference has not found in the experimental group students' translation pre-tests scores according to the students' learning period of English [x^2 (7)= 11.928, p<.05].

Table 4.28 illustrates the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' learning period of English.

Table 4.28
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Learning Period of English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
1	1	26,00				
4	1	26,00				
5	1	2,50				
6	1	14,00				
8	2	11,75	9	7,653	,569	-
9	4	14,50				
10	7	20,64				
11	10	17,15				
12	4	25,13				
13	4	15,88				

As Table 4.28 shows, significant difference has not been observed in the control group students' translation pre-tests scores according to the students' learning period of English [$x^2(9)$= 7.653, p<.05].

Table 4.29 displays the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom.

Table 4.29
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's
Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside
the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	19	20,71	393,50	195,500	,913
No	21	20,31	426,50		

As seen in Table 4.29, significant difference has not been seen in the experimental group students' translation pre-tests scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=195.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's translation pre-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom is shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Translation Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside
the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	16	16,84	269,50	135,500	,536
No	19	18,97	360,50		

As stated in Table 4.30, there is no significant difference in the control group students' translation pre-tests scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=135.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental post-test scores of translation according to the students' gender are defined in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's
Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	33	20,21	667,00	106,000	,734
Male	7	21,86	153,00		

As Table 4.31 shows, significant difference has not been noted in the experimental group students' post-test scores of translation according to the students' gender (U=106.000, p>.05).

In Table 4.32, the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's translation post-test scores according to the students' gender are displayed.

Table 4.32
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	29	18,47	535,50	73,500	,553
Male	6	15,75	94,50		

As shown in Table 4.32, significant difference has not appeared in the control group students' post-test scores of translation according to the students' gender (U=73.500, p>.05).

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's translation post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are stated in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	5	18,80				
Super	7	8,36	2	10,040	,007	3-2
Anatolian Teacher	28	23,84				

As Table 4.33 summarizes, the translation scores of the experimental group students' post-test according to the students' graduation of high school type show that there is a significant difference [x^2 (2)= 10.040, p<.05]. The significant difference is between the Anatolian Teacher High School graduates and the Super High School graduates.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's translation post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are given in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	df	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	6	24,17				
Super	9	19,44				
Normal State	1	33,50	4	8,692	,069	-
Private Anatolian	1	28,00				
Anatolian Teacher	18	13,81				

As presented in Table 4.34, significant difference has not been seen in the control group students' post-test scores of translation according to the students' graduation of high school type [x^2 (4)= 8.692, p<.05]. When the mean numbers are taken into account the highest translation skills level is seen in the Normal State High School graduates and follows as Private Anatolian High School, Anatolian High School s, Super High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's translation post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English are shown in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Period of Learning English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Meaningful Difference
7	1	21,00				
8	1	34,50				
9	5	25,50				
10	14	20,93	7	5,784	,565	-
11	10	17,35				
12	6	22,92				
13	2	14,00				
14	1	5,00				

As shown in Table 4.35, the outcomes confirm that the difference in the experimental group students' translation post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English is not significant [x^2 (7)= 5.784, p<.05].

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's translation post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English are summarized in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Period of Learning English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
1	1	26,00				
4	1	33,50				
5	1	12,00				
6	1	30,50				
8	2	13,00	9	11,906	,219	-
9	4	25,63				
10	7	18,00				
11	10	18,95				
12	4	10,50				
13	4	10,50				

As indicated in Table 4.36, significant difference has not been seen in the control group students' translation post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English [$x^2 (9)$= 11.906, p<.05].

Table 4.37 states the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental translation post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom.

Table 4.37
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	19	21,95	417,00	172,000	,454
No	21	19,19	403,00		

As mentioned in Table 4.37, there is no significant difference in the experimental group students' translation post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=172.000, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's translation post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom are stated in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Translation Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside The Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	16	18,78	300,50	139,500	,677
No	19	17,34	329,50		

As Table 4.38 shows, significant difference has not been viewed in the control group students' translation post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=139.500, p>.05).

4.3 Correlating between the Academic Achievements of the Groups' Reading Comprehension and Translation Tests

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the correlation between the achievement levels in the reading comprehension test and the translation test in the experimental and control groups students' pre-post test scores are stated.

Table: 4.39
The Correlation Values for the Correlation between the Reading Comprehension and Translation Scores of the Experimental Group Students' Pre-Tests

		Reading Test	Translation Test
Reading Test	r		,033
	p		,840
Translation Test	r	,033	
	p	,840	

Table 4.39 illustrates that there is a low level positive correlation between the experimental group students' pre-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test (r=0.033, p>.05).

Table: 4.40
The Correlation Values for the Correlation between the Reading Comprehension and Translation Scores of the Control Group Students' Pre-Tests

		Reading Test	Translation Test
Reading Test	r		,217
	p		,211
Translation Test	r	,217	
	p	,211	

As indicated in Table 4.40, a low level positive correlation has been seen between the control group students' pre-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test (r=0.217, p>.05).

Table: 4.41
The Correlation Values for the Correlation between the Reading Comprehension and Translation Scores of the Experimental Group Students' Post-Tests

		Reading Test	Translation Test
Reading Test	r		,342(*)
	p		,031
Translation Test	r	,342(*)	
	p	,031	

As revealed in Table 4.41, an intermediate level positive correlation has been observed between the experimental group students' post-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test (r= .342, p<.05).

Table: 4.42
**The Correlation Values for the Correlation between the Reading Comprehension
and Translation Scores of the Control Group Students' Post-Tests**

		Reading Test	Translation Test
Reading Test	r		-,012
	p		,947
Translation Test	r	-,012	
	p	,947	

As seen in Table 4.42, a low level negative correlation has been noted between the control group students' post-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test (r= -0.012, p>.05).

4.4 Evaluation of the Groups' Language Skills

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the evaluation of the language skills in the experimental and control groups students' pre-post test scores are stated.

4.4.1 The Language Skill Pre-Test Scores of the Groups

The independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' language skill pre-tests are given in Table 4.43.

Table 4.43
**The Independent T-Test Results for the Difference in the Scores of the
Experimental and Control Group Students' Language Skill Pre-Test**

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Experimental	40	2,979	,747	73	,261	,795
Control	35	2,938	,594			

Table 4.43 displays that there is not a significant difference in the experimental and control group students' pre-tests scores of the language skills self-assessment inventory aiming to identify the level of their language skills ($t_{(73)}$=.261, p>.05).

According to the data, the mean scores of the language skills self-assessment inventory of the pre-test of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$ =2.979), the mean scores of the language skills self-assessment inventory of the pre-test of the control group which was treated with form focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$ =2.979). Therefore, the groups can be said to be equal in terms of language skills before the treatment.

The independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' language skill post-tests are summarized in Table 4.44.

Table 4.44
The Independent T-Test Results for the Difference in the Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Students' Language Skill Post-Test

Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Experimental	40	3,341	,525	73	2,882	,005
Control	35	3,023	,415			

As summarized in Table 4.44, the Independent Sample t Test conducted to check if there is a statistically significant difference in the language skills self-assessment inventory of the experimental and control group students' post-tests show that there is a significant difference between the groups ($t_{(73)}$=2.882, p<.05). According to the data, the mean scores of the post-test of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$ =3.341), and the mean scores of the post-test of the control group which was treated with form focused translation instruction was ($\bar{x}$ =3.023). These results show that there is a significant meaningful difference in the post-test scores and the difference is in the favour of the experimental group.

4.4.2 The Effect of Form and Meaning Focused Translation Instruction Treatment to the Language Skill Levels

The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the language skill levels of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment is shown in Table 4.45.

Table 4.45
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Language Skill Level Pre-Post Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	P
Between Groups	9.025	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	.060	1	.060	.126	.724
Error	8.965	73	.157		
Within Groups	8.433	75			
Measurement (Pre-Post Test)	1,195	1	1.386	12.987	.001
Group*Measurement	**.896**	**1**	**.896**	**6.789**	**.023**
Error	6.342	73	.107		
Total	17.458	149			

As Table 4.45 shows, there is a statistically significant difference in the scores of the language skills pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. Significant difference has been seen in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the language skills pre-tests and post-tests scores [$F_{(1-73)}$ = 6.789, p<.05)]. This finding shows that in the treatment of form and meaning focused translation instruction the students have shown difference in the increase in their language skills scores. The experimental group students which were treated with meaning focused translation instruction showed that they have achieved more success in the score of the language skills scale.

4.4.3 The Comparison of the Groups' Language Skills Pre-Post Test Scores according to the Students' Gender, the Graduated High School Types, the Duration of Learning English and Doing Translation outside the Classroom

In this section, the findings and discussion of the distribution of the group' language skill pre-post test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school type, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom is put forth.

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' gender are summarized in Table 4.46.

Table 4.46
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	33	20,48	676,00	115,000	,986
Male	7	20,57	144,00		

As seen in Table 4.46, the difference in the experimental group students' pre-tests scores of the male and female students according to their language skills are not significant (U=115.500, p>.05).

In Table 4.47 the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' gender are shown.

Table 4.47
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	29	16,84	488,50	53,500	,140
Male	6	23,58	141,50		

As presented in Table 4.47, there is no significant difference in the control group students' pre-tests scores of the male and female students according to their language skills (U=53.500, p>.05).

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are shown in Table 4.48.

Table 4.48
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	5	36,30				
Super	7	19,86	2	10,676	,005	1-2 1-3
Anatolian Teacher	28	17,84				

As stated in Table 4.48, significant difference has been indicated in the experimental group students' pre-tests scores of the high school types according to their language skills [x^2 (2)= 10.676, p>.05]. The significant difference is between the Anatolian High School graduates and the Super High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are illustrated in Table 4.49.

Table 4.49
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High
School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	df	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	6	17,33				
Super	9	17,94				
Normal State	1	19,00	4	3,051	,549	-
Private Anatolian	1	16,00				
Anatolian Teacher	18	19,14				

The data analysed in Table 4.49 indicates that, there is a significant difference in the control group students' pre-tests scores of the high school types according to their language skills [x^2 (4)= 3.051, p<.05]. When the mean numbers of the groups are taken into account the Anatolian Teacher High School graduates have the highest level of language skills and follows as the Normal State High School, Super High School, Anatolian High School and Private Anatolian High School graduates.

Table 4.50 shows the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' learning period of English.

Table 4.50
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's
Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Learning Period of
English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
7	1	18,50				
8	1	23,00				
9	5	10,40				
10	14	19,36	7	7,065	,422	-
11	10	24,65				
12	6	20,50				
13	2	31,50				
14	1	23,00				

As seen in Table 4.50, significant difference has not been seen in the experimental group students' language skill pre-tests scores according to the students' learning period of English [x^2 (7)= 7.065, p<.05].

Table 4.51 illustrates the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' learning period of English.

Table 4.51
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Learning Period of
English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
1	1	12,00				
4	1	19,00				
5	1	19,00				
6	1	24,50				
8	2	13,50	9	11,572	,239	-
9	4	7,63				
10	7	12,86				
11	10	21,05				
12	4	25,88				
13	4	23,50				

Table 4.51 shows that statistically there is no significant difference in the control group students' language skill pre-tests scores according to the students' learning period of English [x^2 (9)= 11.572, p<.05].

Table 4.52 states the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom.

Table 4.52
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Learning Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	19	19,45	369,50	179,500	,592
No	21	21,45	450,50		

As defined in Table 4.52, significant difference has not been observed in the experimental group students' language skill pre-tests scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=179.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's language skill pre-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom are displayed in Table 4.53.

Table 4.53
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Language Skill Pre-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	16	19,16	306,50	133,500	,537
No	19	17,03	323,50		

Table 4.53 reveals that a significant difference has not been viewed in the control group students' language skill pre-tests scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=133.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender are summarized in Table 4.54.

Table 4.54
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's
Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	33	19,86	655,50	94,500	,452
Male	7	23,50	164,50		

As seen in Table 4.54, significant difference has not appeared in the experimental group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender (U=94.500, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender are shown in Table 4.55.

Table 4.55
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Female	29	16,36	474,50	39,500	,021
Male	6	25,92	155,50		

As summarized in Table 4.55, the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender show significant difference (U=39.500, p<.05). The difference is in favour of the male students.

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are indicated in Table 4.56.

Table 4.56
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	5	28,90				
Super	7	20,79	2	3,132	,209	-
Anatolian Teacher	28	18,93				

There is no significant difference in the experimental group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type as seen in Table 4.56, [$x^2(2)$= 3.132, p<.05].

In Table 4.57 the Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type are shown.

Table 4.57
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Graduation of High School Type

High School Type	N	Mean Rank	df	X^2	p	Difference
Anatolian	6	21,67				
Super	9	17,06				
Normal State	1	5,00	4	5,808	,214	-
Private Anatolian	1	33,00				
Anatolian Teacher	18	17,14				

As presented in Table 4.57, significant difference has not been found in the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type [$x^2(4)$= 5.808, p<.05].

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English is shown in Table 4.58.

Table 4.58
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's
Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Period of Learning
English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
7	1	10,50				
8	1	1,50				
9	5	23,10				
10	14	22,32	7	7,098	,419	-
11	10	20,80				
12	6	17,67				
13	2	29,75				
14	1	6,50				

As Table 4.58 shows, difference in the experimental group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English is not significant [x^2 (7)= 7.098, p<.05].

The Kruskal Wallis test results of the difference in the control group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English is displayed in Table 4.59.

Table 4.59
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's
Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Period of Learning
English

Period (Year)	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
1	1	16,50				
4	1	27,00				
5	1	16,50				
6	1	16,50				
8	2	16,00				
9	4	22,13	9	6,758	,662	-
10	7	17,14				
11	10	20,85				
12	4	17,13				
13	4	9,00				

Table 4.59 reveals that there is no statistically significant difference in the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' period of learning English [$x^2(9)= 6.758$, p<.05].

Table 4.60 displays the Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the experimental group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom.

Table 4.60
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Experimental Group's Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	19	23,18	440,50	148,500	,164
No	21	18,07	379,50		

As seen in Table 4.60, significant difference has not been seen in the experimental group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom (U=172.000, p>.05).

The Mann Whitney U test results of the difference in the control group's language skill post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom is shown in Table 4.61.

Table 4.61
The Mann Whitney U Test Results of the Difference in the Control Group's Language Skill Post-Test Scores according to the Students' Doing Translation outside the Classroom

Doing Translation outside the Class	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Yes	16	18,53	296,50	143,500	,755
No	19	17,55	333,50		

From Table 4.61 it can be seen that difference in the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' doing translation outside the classroom is not significant (U=143.500, p>.05).

4.5 The Evaluation of the Groups' Beliefs and Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the experimental and control group students' pre-post test scores in the "English Language Teaching Department Students' Beliefs and Their Strategy Use in Translation" questionnaire are stated.

4.5.1 The Groups' Pre-Post Test Scores of the Questionnaire

The data analysed for the independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire pre-tests are given in Table 4.62.

Table 4.62
The Independent T-Test Results for the Scores of the Experimental and Control
Group Students' Beliefs and Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire Pre-Test

	Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Section I (General view of translation)	Experimental	40	3,32	,48	73	,530	,598
	Control	35	3,27	,21			
Section II (Philosophical)	Experimental	40	3,28	,24	73	,503	,616
	Control	35	3,31	,29			
Section III (Psycholinguistic)	Experimental	40	3,44	,26	73	,224	,824
	Control	35	3,46	,36			
Section IV (Psychological)	Experimental	40	3,13	,41	73	,139	,890
	Control	35	3,14	,36			
Section V (Cognitive in general)	Experimental	40	3,36	,44	73	1,418	,161
	Control	35	3,21	,44			

In order to check if there is a statistically significant difference in the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire scores of the experimental and control group students' pre-tests The Independent Sample t Test has been conducted. When the figures are examined in Table 4.62, it is seen that the difference between the arithmetic means of the groups' pre-test scores in the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire is not statistically significant. The t value was found ($t_{(73)}$=.530, p>.05) in the first section (the general view of translation), ($t_{(73)}$=.503, p>.05) in the second section (philosophical), ($t_{(73)}$=.224, p>.05) in the third section (psycholinguistic), ($t_{(73)}$=.139, p>.05) in the fourth section (psychological) and ($t_{(73)}$=1.418, p>.05) in the fifth section (cognitive in general). Statistically significant difference has not been found in the five sections of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire in the pre-test.

The data analysed for the independent t-test results conducted to identify the significant difference in the scores of the experimental and control group students' belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire post-tests are given in Table 4.63.

Table 4.63
The Independent T-Test Results for the Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Students' Beliefs and Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire Post-Test

	Group	N	$\bar{x}$	S	sd	t	p
Section I (General view of translation)	Experimental	40	3,292	,261	73	,959	,341
	Control	35	3,348	,241			
Section II (Philosophical)	Experimental	40	3,485	,256	73	,774	,442
	Control	35	3,436	,289			
Section III (Psycholinguistic)	Experimental	40	3,525	,411	73	,093	,926
	Control	35	3,533	,355			
Section IV (Psychological)	Experimental	40	3,187	,405	73	2,576	,012
	Control	35	3,433	,420			
Section V (Cognitive in general)	Experimental	40	3,387	,499	73	1,011	,315
	Control	35	3,500	,457			

It can be observed in Table 4.63 that the t value was found ($t_{(73)}$=.959, p>.05) in the first section (the general view of translation), ($t_{(73)}$=.774, p>.05) in the second section (philosophical), ($t_{(73)}$=.093, p>.05) in the third section (psycholinguistic), ($t_{(73)}$=1.011, p>.05)) in the fifth section (cognitive in general). Statistically significant difference has not been found in the four sections of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire in the post-test. But a statistically difference has been noted in the fourth section (psychological) ($t_{(73)}$=2.576, p<.05), and the difference is in the favour of the control group.

4.5.2 The Effect of Form and Meaning Focused Translation Instruction Treatment to the Belief and Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire

In Table 4.64, The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the first section of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment is shown.

Table 4.64
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Belief and
Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire (Section I - The General View of
Translation) Pre-Post Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups	9.098	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	,096	1	,096	,861	,356
Error	8,138	73	,111		
Within Groups	6.525	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	,015	1	,015	,174	,678
Group*Measurement	**,001**	**1**	**,001**	**,012**	**,913**
Error	6,509	73	,089		
Total	15.623	147			

The analysis in Table 4.64 indicates that a significant difference has not been identified in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section I - The General View of Translation) pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. Significant difference has not been observed in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (section I - the general view of translation) pre-test and post-test scores [$F_{(1-73)} = .012$, p>.05)].

The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the second section of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment is shown in Table 4.65.

Table 4.65
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Belief and Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire (Section II - Philosophical) Pre-Post Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups	5.988	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	,060	1	,060	,736	,394
Error	5,928	73	,081		
Within Groups	5.709	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	,970	1	,970	14,953	,000
Group*Measurement	**,003**	**1**	**,003**	**,045**	**,833**
Error	4,736	73	,065		
Total	11.697	147			

Table 4.65 shows that a significant difference has not been viewed in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section II - Philosophical) pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. Significant difference has not been noted in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section II - Philosophical) pre-test and post-test scores [$F_{(1-73)}$ = .045, p>.05)].

Table 4.66 displays The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the third section of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment.

Table 4.66
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Belief and
Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire (Section III - Psycholinguistic) Pre-Post
Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups	8.211	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	,001	1	,001	,006	,940
Error	8,210	73	,112		
Within Groups	10.467	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	,218	1	,218	1,553	,217
Group*Measurement	**,006**	**1**	**,006**	**,042**	**,839**
Error	10,243	73	,140		
Total	18.678	147			

As Table 4.66 displays, there is no statistically significant difference in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section III - Psycholinguistic) pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. Significant difference has not been viewed in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section III -Psycholinguistic) pre-test and post-test scores [$F_{(1-73)}$ = .042, p>.05)].

In Table 4.67, The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the fourth section of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment is shown.

Table 4.67
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Belief and
Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire (Section IV – Psychological) Pre-Post
Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups	11.541	74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	,508	1	,508	3,362	,071
Error	11,033	73	,151		
Within Groups	14.145	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	1,090	1	1,090	6,398	,014
Group*Measurement	**,623**	**1**	**,623**	**3,657**	**,060**
Error	12,432	73	,170		
Total	25.686	147			

As seen in Table 4.67, the difference in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section IV - Psychological) pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types is not significant. Also, significant difference has not been observed in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section IV - Psychological) pre-tests and post-tests scores [$F_{(1-73)}$ = 3.657, p>.05)].

The Two-Way ANOVA results to see if there is a significant difference in the fifth section of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire of the control and experimental groups before and after the treatment are stated in Table 4.68.

Table 4.68
The Result of the Two-Way Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Test according to the Experimental and Control Groups Students' Belief and
Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire (Section V-Cognitive in General) Pre-
Post Test Scores

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Square Mean	F	p
Between Groups		74			
Group (Experimental/Control)	,619	1	,619	3,521	,065
Error	12,829	73	,176		
Within Groups	14.145	75			
Measurement (pre-post test)	,911	1	,911	3,637	,060
Group*Measurement	**,010**	**1**	**,010**	**,039**	**,843**
Error	18,294	73	,251		
Total		147			

As summarized in Table 4.68, there is no significant difference in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section V -Cognitive in General) pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. Additionally, significant difference has not been noted in the combined scores of the groups treated with different instructional types and the repeated measure factors between the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (Section V -Cognitive in General) pre-tests and post-tests scores [$F_{(1-73)}$ = .039, p>.05)].

4.6 The Evaluation of the Translation Test according to the Reading Comprehension Levels of the Groups

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the experimental and control groups students' translation scores in accordance to their reading comprehension levels are stated.

The evaluation of the translation scores of poor readers are given in Table 4.69.

Table 4.69
The Kruskal Wallis Test Results of the Distribution of the Translation Scores of
Poor Readers

Group	N	Mean Rank	sd	X^2	p	Difference
Control Pre-Test	1	5,00				
Control Post-Test	7	8,36	3	2,600	,457	-
Experimental Pre-Test	2	3,75				
Experimental Post-Test	3	6,67				

As presented in Table 4.69, there is no statistically significant difference in the scores of the translation test of poor readers [x^2(3)= 2.600, p>.05].

The evaluation of the translation scores of average readers are displayed in Table 4.70.

Table 4.70
The One-Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) Test Results of the Distribution of the
Translation Scores of Average Readers

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Square Mean	sd	F	P	Difference
Between Groups	522,783	174,261	3			Experimental Post test-Control Pre test
Within Groups	3072,976	30,730	100	5,671	,001	
Total	3595,760		103			Experimental Post test - Experimental Pre test

As Table 4.70 shows, statistically significant difference has been found in the scores of the translation test of average readers ($F_{(3-100)}$=5,671; p<,05). According to the Schefee Analysis done to determine the difference in the scores, the difference has been observed between the experimental group post-test and experimental group pre-test, and between the experimental group post-test and control group pre-test. This finding shows that meaning focused translation instruction treatment is more effective in the translation skills of average readers than form focused translation instruction treatment.

Table 4.71
The One-Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) Test Results of the Distribution of the Translation Scores of Good Readers

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Square Mean	sd	F	P	Difference
Between Groups	288,419	96,140	3			Experimental Post test-Control Pre test
Within Groups	501,823	17,304	29	5,556	,004	
Total	790,242		32			Experimental Post test - Experimental Pre test

As seen in Table 4.71, significant difference has been seen in the scores of the translation test of good readers ($F_{(3-29)}$=5,556; p<,05). The Schefee Analysis done to determine the difference in the scores shows that , the difference is between the experimental group post-test and experimental group pre-test, and between the experimental group post-test and control group pre-test. This finding shows that meaning focused translation instruction treatment is more effective in the translation skills of good readers than form focused translation instruction treatment.

4.7 Interpretation of the Findings

4.7.1 Results of the Comparison of the Groups' Reading Comprehension Achievement

- The control group students' pre-test scores in the reading comprehension test are not statistically significant.
- Difference in the scores of the reading comprehension pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types is significant. The significant difference is in the favour of the experimental group which took meaning focused translation instruction.
- The difference between the arithmetic means of the control and experimental groups' pre-test scores in the reading comprehension is not statistically significant in the comparison of the group' reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school type, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom.

- Significant difference has not been seen in the experimental group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender, graduation of high school type, period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom.

- There is no statistically significant difference in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender, period of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom.

- Significant difference has been found in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type. The highest comprehension level is seen in the Private Anatolian High School graduate and follows as the Anatolian High School graduates, Anatolian Teacher High School graduates, Super High School graduates and Normal State High School graduates.

4.7.2 Results of the Comparison of the Groups' Translation Test

- The difference between the arithmetic means of the control and experimental groups' pre-test scores in the translation test is not statistically significant.

- Significant difference has been seen in the scores of the translation post-tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types. The significant difference is in the favour of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused instruction.

- Significant difference has not been observed in the experimental and control group students' translation skills pre-tests scores in the comparison of the group' translation pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school types, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom.

- Significant difference has not been noted in the experimental group students' translation skills post-tests scores according to their gender, learning period of English, doing translation outside the classroom.

- Difference in the experimental group students' post-test scores of translation according to the students' graduated high school types is significant. The

significant difference is between the Anatolian Teacher High School and the Super High School graduates.

- Significant difference has not appeared in the control group students' translation skills post-tests scores according to their gender, graduated high school types, learning period of English, doing translation outside the classroom.

4.7.3 Results of the Correlation between the Academic Achievements of the Groups' Reading Comprehension and Translation Tests

- There is a low level positive correlation between the experimental and control group students' pre-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test.
- A medium level positive correlation has been viewed between the experimental group students' post-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test.
- A low level negative correlation has been observed between the control group students' post-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test.

4.7.4 Results of the Evaluation of the Groups' Language Skills

- Significant difference has not been seen in the experimental and control group students' pre-tests scores of the language skills self-assessment inventory aiming to identify the levels of their language skills.
- The scores of the language skills pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types show that there is a statistically significant difference. The significant difference is in the favour of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction.
- There is not a significant difference in the experimental group students' language skill pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom.

- When the experimental group students' language skills pre-tests scores according to the high school types they have graduated are examined a significant difference has been noticed. The significant difference is between the Anatolian High School graduates and the Super High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates.

- Significant difference has not been found in the control group students' language skill pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school types, the period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom.

- Significant difference has not been observed in the experimental group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender, graduated high school types, period of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom.

- Significant difference has not been viewed in the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' graduated high school types, period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom.

- The difference in the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender is significant. The significant difference is in the favour of the male students.

4.7.5 Results of the Evaluation of the Groups' Beliefs and Strategy Use in Translation Questionnaire

- There is not a statistically significant difference in the five sections of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire in the pre-tests.

- A significant difference has not been seen in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (section I - the general view of translation), (section II - philosophical), (section III - psycholinguistic), and (section V - cognitive in general), but a significant difference has been observed in the fourth section (section IV –psychological) and the difference is in the favour of the control group.

4.7.6 Results of the Evaluation of the Translation Test according to the Reading Comprehension Levels of the Groups

- Difference in the scores of the translation test of poor readers' pre-post tests in the control and experimental group is not statistically significant.

- There is a statistically significant in the scores of the translation test of average readers. The difference has been found between the experimental group post-test and experimental group pre-test, and between the experimental group post-test and control group pre-test. The significant difference is in favour of the experimental group which took meaning focused translation instruction treatment.

- Significant difference has been viewed in the scores of the translation test of good readers. The difference has been noted between the experimental group post-test and experimental group pre-test, and between the experimental group post-test and control group pre-test. The significant difference is in favour of the experimental group which took meaning focused translation instruction treatment.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.0 Introduction

This study attempted to investigate whether form or meaning focused translation instruction is effective in the translation courses at ELT departments in general and at the ELT Department of Gazi University in specific. The study also aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the reading comprehension levels of the students to their translation skills. A reading test, translation test, self-assessment language skill scale and a beliefs and strategy use in translation questionnaire was conducted as instruments to examine the improvement of the treatment. The study was limited to the second year students at the ELT Department of Gazi University. The main aim for choosing the second year students was the fact that they were to take the translation course (from English into Turkish) for the first time according to the new curriculum prepared by HEC (Higher Education Council). Through clustered random sampling, two groups were selected: One was the experimental group; the other was the control group. Both groups were given the same tests and questionnaire as a pre-test and a post-test to measure the progress of the students in both groups. The test results were analysed using SPSS statistical analysis program to compare the progress of both groups.

The conclusion that can be drawn from this study and the recommendations for further study are given considering the literature in the field of foreign language learning, translation, and reading. The limitations of the study and pedagogical implications for foreign language classroom instruction are given as well.

5.1 Conclusions

As illustrated in the literature, there are different forms of instruction in foreign language learning and scholars are still in debate of focusing on the type of instruction.

Focusing on formS or meaning or integrating them will continue to be a matter of discussion in language teaching as well as in translation instruction, not to teach grammar but to make the students realize the structural differences and improve their translation skills. In language teaching and learning, research has been intensely interested in matching the language learners' needs to the best teaching methods. This evolution in the field has led to better understanding and implementation of methodology in the language classroom, and researchers are currently giving focus to the benefit of instruction on language learning. The role of form focused instruction and focus on meaning instruction in the process of learning a foreign language is now being revisited. When certain theories were implemented in actual lessons, the finding was that some of the practices seemed to improve scores on translation tests while others did not. Adapting focus-on-formS to translation instruction and giving the explicit grammar instruction and communicative translation instruction can improve their translation skills.

Understanding and implementing researched methodologies in the field of English language teaching has become increasing more complex for the practitioner, especially when it comes to research based on form and meaning focused translation instruction and what grammatical structures might be best suited to each and when to introduce those structures. Because there is a gap between theory and pedagogy in the role of grammar, this study attempted to fill some of the void with quality teaching and quality research in an actual language classroom. It sought to find if one method of instruction was better in improving the translation skills of the students. We hoped to shed a little more light on the role of reading comprehension to the translation skills in a translation class for the students of the English Language Teaching Department. The related research comparing form and meaning focused translation instruction in the translation course (from English into Turkish) came to a conclusion that meaning focused translation instruction was more effective in improving the translation skills and reading comprehension levels of the trainees.

To give answers to the research questions we can say that first, the results of the evaluation of the reading comprehension test shows that the control and experimental group students' pre-test scores in the reading comprehension test are not statistically significant. The difference between the arithmetic means of the control and

experimental groups' pre-test scores in the reading comprehension is not statistically significant in the comparison of the group' reading comprehension pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school types, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom. This shows that the students in both groups are equally homogenous before the treatment. Also, significant difference has not been seen in the experimental group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender, graduation of high school type, period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom and also in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' gender, period of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom. But significant difference has been observed in the control group students' reading comprehension post-test scores according to the students' graduation of high school type. The highest comprehension level is seen in the Private Anatolian High School graduate and follows as the Anatolian High School graduates, Anatolian Teacher High School graduates, Super High School graduates and Normal State High School graduates. This shows that form focused translation instruction treatment is more effective in increasing the reading comprehension levels of Private Anatolian High School graduates within the control group.

In this study, for the effect of form and meaning focused translation instruction, the findings show that significant difference has been viewed in the scores of the reading comprehension pre-post-tests of the experimental and control groups. The significant difference is in the favour of the experimental group. The experimental group students which took meaning focused translation instruction gained better improvement in increasing the reading comprehension levels more than the control group students which took form focused translation instruction treatment. The findings are in line with, Hosenfeld (1984), who attempted to identify the differences between successful and unsuccessful readers of English as a foreign language (EFL). From two studies, she found that her successful readers tended to: 1) keep the meaning of the passage in mind during reading; 2) read in 'broad phrases'; 3) skip inessential words; 4) guess the meaning of unknown words from context; and 5) have a positive self-concept as a reader. By contrast, her unsuccessful readers tended to: 1) lose the meaning of sentences as soon as they were decoded; 2) read word by word or in short phrases; 3) rarely skip words; 4) turn to the glossary for the meaning of new words; and 5) have a

negative self-concept as a reader. This result is also supported by Cooper (1984) who stated that 'unpracticed readers' showed a range of strategic deficiencies. "Unpracticed readers showed a tendency to use previous knowledge that was irrelevant to the context. Moreover, they were influenced by the power of known collocations regardless of the meaning carried by the larger context ... unpracticed readers were so preoccupied with unknown words and its immediate context that they were blinded to the meaning potential of the whole context offered" (p. 128). In summary, good readers are strategic readers who are able to engage global, top-down reading strategies. Weak readers tend to rely more heavily on bottom-up reading strategies and often seem to be unaware of how and when to best use strategies when they read.

Second, the students were equal before the treatment as when the results of the translation test scores are analysed, the findings of the translation test clearly show that there is not a significant difference between the arithmetic means of the control and experimental groups' pre-test scores in the translation test. Also, difference in the experimental and control group students' translation skills pre-tests scores in the comparison of the group' translation pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school types, the duration of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom are not significant. This finding shows that the students in both of the groups were equally homogeneous before the treatment. Additionally, there is not a significant difference in the experimental group students' translation skills post-tests scores according to their gender, learning period of English, doing translation outside the classroom and also in the control group students' translation skills post-tests scores according to their gender, graduated high school types, learning period of English, doing translation outside the classroom. But significant difference has been seen in the experimental group students' post-test scores of translation according to the students' graduated high school types. The significant difference is between the Anatolian Teacher High School and the Super High School graduates. This finding shows us that the experimental group students who have graduated from Anatolian Teacher High School improved their translation skills more than the Super High School graduates after the treatment of meaning focused translation instruction.

As for the effect of the two treatments in this study, form and meaning focused translation instruction; the results show that there is a significant difference in the scores

of the translation post-tests of the experimental and control groups. The significant difference is in the favour of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction. The experimental group students which took meaning focused translation instruction gained better improvement in increasing the translation skills more than the control group which took form focused translation instruction treatment. Meaning focused instruction emphasises communicative competence. Savignon (2001) mentioned that her earlier work in 1972 had described 'communicative competence' as a feature to characterize language learners' ability to interact with others in order to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning. At that time, she proposed the use of 'coping strategies' in foreign language learning. That is to say, learners should be encouraged to "ask for information, to seek clarification, to use circumlocution and whatever other linguistic and non-linguistic resources they could muster to negotiate meaning and stick to the communicative task at hand" (p. 16). She also suggested that teachers lead learners to take risks in the use of their target language rather than simply practicing memorized patterns. The result is also supported by Atkinson (cited in Erer, 2006, pp. 12-13) who claims that translation makes learners concentrate on meaning, as opposed to mechanical grammar exercises, which only focus on formS. Translation activities can be used to encourage students to take risks rather than avoid them. Translation rules out avoidance strategies as students have to take even the most difficult parts of a text into consideration while translating. And, finally, through translation students become aware of the fact that an exact equivalence should not always be expected.

Third, the findings of the correlation between the academic achievements of the groups' reading comprehension and translation tests show that there is a low level positive correlation between the experimental and control group students' pre-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test. As it is a low level positive correlation, it can be said that the correlation between the students' reading comprehension level has a low effect on the translation scores in the pre-tests of both groups. Furthermore, in the post-tests, a medium level positive correlation has been found between the experimental group students' post-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test and there is also a low level negative correlation between the control group students' post-tests scores of reading comprehension test and translation test. This result shows that the students in the experimental group which took

meaning focused translation instruction translated better than the students in the control group which took form focused translation instruction in relation with their reading comprehension scores. The finding also shows that there is a negative correlation in reading comprehension levels and translation test scores in the post-test of the control group. This shows that there was a decrease in the translation scores of the students in the control group in relation with their reading comprehension scores. Claramonte (1994, p. 190) states that if a learner fully applies the reading strategies in a text, he will be able to read that text correctly and, as a consequence, to translate it well.

One important outcome of the study is that the evaluation of the translation test results according to the reading comprehension levels of the groups shows that the difference in the scores of the translation test of poor readers' pre-post tests in the control and experimental group is not significant. But a significant difference has been noted in the scores of the translation test of average and good readers. The difference is between the experimental group post-test and experimental group pre-test, and between the experimental group post-test and control group pre-test of the average and good readers. The significant difference is in favour of the experimental group which took the meaning focused translation instruction treatment. According to the results, there wasn't a significant difference in the translation scores of the poor readers in the control and experimental group students. This means that there was no change in their translation test scores in the pre-test and post-test. The average and good readers in the experimental group have improved their translation skills more than the students in the control group. This finding shows that treatment with meaning focused translation instruction is more effective in increasing the translation skills of the average and good readers than the treatment with form focused translation instruction. It is a fact that for a good translation understanding the text fully is the most important factor. As good readers comprehend the text better than the lower ones they are to translate the text more correctly. Macizo and Bajo (2004, pp. 199-200) reported data indicating that when the participants were reading in the source language and they received instruction for later translation, some properties of the target language (e.g. cognate status of the words) had effects on their translation. Therefore, activation of the lexical entries in the target language seems to proceed in parallel to source language understanding.

Another finding is in the results of the evaluation of the groups' language skills is that there is not a significant difference in the experimental and control group students' pre-tests scores of the language skills self-assessment scale aiming to identify the levels of their language skills. The students were accepted as equal before the treatment in accordance to the pre-test results of the self-assessment language skill scale. Also, significant difference has not been seen in the control group students' language skill pre-test scores according to the students' gender, the graduated high school types, the period of learning English, doing translation outside the classroom. Similarly, significant difference has not been viewed in the experimental group students' language skill pre-test in the scores according to gender, the period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom, but there is a significant difference according to the high school types they have graduated. The significant difference is between the Anatolian High School graduates and the Super High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates. This finding shows us that the experimental group students who have graduated from Anatolian High School have scored higher language skill scores than the Super High School and Anatolian Teacher High School graduates in the self-assessment language skill scale. In the results of the post-tests, significant difference has not been observed in the experimental group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender, graduated high school types, period of learning English and doing translation outside the classroom and in the scores according to the students' graduated high school types, period of learning English, and doing translation outside the classroom of the control group. But a significant difference has been found in the control group students' language skill post-test scores according to the students' gender. The significant difference is in the favour of the male students. This finding shows that the male students in the control group which took form focused translation instruction improved their language skills more than the female students in the group. As the findings in this study indicated, the use of translation could be a valuable resource or tool that can contribute to the development of various language skills. For example, in a group discussion task, students' language shifts between their mother tongue and the target language might function as an effective strategy to enhance communication among group members. Also, the strategic use of L1 or translation would be helpful in developing learners' reading efficiency and maintaining the flow of their conversation and writing tasks.

In the evaluation of the pre-post tests according to the treatment type, difference in the scores of the language skills pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups who have been treated with two different instructional types is statistically significant. The significant difference is in the favour of the experimental group which was treated with meaning focused translation instruction. It can be said the experimental group students which took meaning focused translation instruction gained better improvement in increasing the language skill levels in the self-assessment language skill scale more than the control group which took form focused translation instruction treatment. As the findings in this study indicated, the use of translation could be a valuable resource or tool that can contribute to the development of various language skills. For example, the strategic use of L1 or translation would be helpful in developing learners' reading efficiency and maintaining the flow of their conversation and writing tasks.

Fourth, the evaluation of the groups' beliefs and strategy use in translation questionnaire shows that statistically significant difference has not been seen in the five sections of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire in the pre-tests. Also, a significant difference has not been seen in the scores of the belief and strategy use in translation questionnaire (section I - the general view of translation), (section II - philosophical), (section III - psycholinguistic), (section IV –psychological), and (section V - cognitive in general) pre-post tests of the experimental and control groups.

Finally, the findings indicate that the control group and the experimental group students were homogeneous before the treatment in the pre-test score of the reading test, translation test, self-assessment language skill scale and the questionnaire. The results showed that meaning focused translation instruction treatment gained better results in the reading test, translation test and the self-assessment language skill scale. There was no difference in the pre-test and post test of the beliefs and strategy use in translation questionnaire in both groups. Another finding of the research is that although the poor readers didn't improve their translation skills in both groups, the average and good readers gained an improvement in their translation skills. The average and good readers in the experimental group were more successful in the translating test than the control group. The students' beliefs about translation and their strategy use in translating didn't

show any difference after the treatment. The instructional type didn't change the strategies the students used when translating or their beliefs about translation.

The reason of the experimental group being more successful might be because of first, control group subjects only had the opportunity to form focused sub-skills: however, according to DeKeyser (1998) language learning occurs through practice integrating various sub-skills (i.e.. lower level and higher level). Second, the teacher in the form focused translation instruction classroom provided explanations, modeling, and feedback but not in communicative contexts. The teacher gave form focused (explicit grammar instruction) feedback during a controlled pair activity of translation. According to Long (1983), acquisition-rich environments refer to situations where there is exposure to comprehensible input outside of the classroom (e.g., English as a second language contexts). On the other hand, acquisition-poor environments refer to situations where learners have little or no access to comprehensible input (e.g., English as a foreign language context). Also, an activity which focuses on meaning, as defined by Ellis (2003): "…there must be a primary concern for message content (although this does not preclude attention to form), the participants must be able to choose the linguistic and non linguistic resources needed, and there must be a clearly defined outcome" (p. 141).

This study shows that using different instructional types in translation does make a difference. Using meaning focused translation instruction in the translation course (from English into Turkish) is more effective in improving the students' language learning and translation. Also, when we compared the reflections of the experimental and control group about the courses, we saw that the experimental group were more satisfied with the approach than the control group. They were also happy with the class discussions since they were able to find a chance to compare their versions with those of their peers. This may indicate that meaning focused translation instruction was more beneficial for the students than form focused translation instruction. On the other hand, the control group students were not happy with the discussions since they were dealing more with the grammatical structures of the texts. Most of the students did not prefer to deal with grammatical structures, especially when translating from English into Turkish.

That is why they complained that they could not develop enough strategies to overcome their difficulties due to lack of theoretical knowledge.

In conclusion, our hypothesis has been supported, as meaning focused type of translation instruction is the most effective at translation from English into Turkish. Research (Borg, 1998, Johnston & Goettsch, 2000) has also shown that students do not like grammar or do not find it important in translating from English into Turkish. In the study, the findings have shown that the majority of the students do not generally like form focused instruction (explicit grammar teaching) in the translation course (from English into Turkish). Dam (2000) puts forth that the more difficult the source text, the more learners tend to deviate from the form-based-approach and move towards the meaning-based-approach (p. 50).

The conclusions cannot be generalized as this study is the first one of its kind and needs improvement in the design; still, this study appropriately looks at the balance between meaning and form focused translation instruction. Specifically, how much weight should meaning take as compared to form? And how present should form be not to hinder meaning? This is a challenge that theory has not particularly examined. Focus on form has had positive support from many researchers; however, a model for its application in a diversity of contexts (e.g. college L2 classes, immersion classes, content-based courses, etc.) might be an important initiative in the understanding of focus on form and its applications in language learning. Although grammars based on corpus research (Biber et al. 1999) have made substantial contributions to addressing the question of what 'real' English is, they are ultimately only a description of what forms are most frequently used in what contexts and not what native speakers know can be used (Newmeyer 2003). As such, they may be of limited aid to translation students of complex, high-level texts. Also, Akbulut (1995) states that an objective of translation course should be to tell the students that translation is not translating single sentences out of the context of the text and that looking up the meaning of the words will not suffice for a meaningful translation.

My dissertation argues that the teaching, learning, and practice of translating could be more efficient, more rewarding for practitioners, and more fully engaged with

other ways of making knowledge if teachers of this discipline adopt theoretical frameworks that foster "communicative translational competence" (Kiraly, 1990a) and critical thinking skills pertinent to this activity. The findings are supported by chiefly three theories from the foreign language acquisition literature which is adapted to the teaching of translation:

1. Language learning occurs when conscious declarative knowledge is processed into more automatically accessible knowledge through practice in integrating various sub-skills (DeKeyser. 1998, p. 246).

2. Language learning requires teachers' explanations, modeling, and feedback in communicative contexts (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

3. Language learning requires practice in "meaningful monitoring", focusing simultaneously on meaning and specific forms in spontaneous communication (Terrell, 1989, p. 211).

5.2 Suggestions for Further Study

The following are some suggestions for further study:

- The study was conducted to the translation from L2 to L1. Most likely translating from L1 to L2 will show difference in the focus on the instruction types. The teachers and learners are aware that translating from L1 to L2 is more complicated and requires focusing on the form more than vice-versa.

- This study is limited to a group of undergraduate students between upper-intermediate and advanced level of English. The duration is also limited to ten weeks. Therefore, in order to make more sound generalizations longitudinal studies need to be conducted with a greater number of participants.

- The study should be applied to other courses to see the different effects of instruction types. Using different instructional types in different courses will bring insight to the field.

- The age of the learners is another important factor in foreign language learning. The focus on the form or meaning changes according to the age of the learners. Studies show that adult learners focus more on the form than the young learners so a study conducted to adult learners might show different results.

- A further research that can be carried out with different types of form focused instruction. The three form focused instruction types; focus on formS, focus on form and focus on meaning could be an experiment in which and are used if convenient. Also incidental and planned focus on form types can also considered to be investigated. This should be adapted to translation instruction, not to teach grammar but to make the students notice the grammatical differences so the students can improve their translation skills.

- The students' language skill levels were determined by a self-assessment scale in the study. A study could examine the impact of instruction types to the language skill levels of the students if the researcher evaluates the students' language skill levels with different kinds of assessment.

- Different types of material can be used for form and meaning focused translation instruction in the translation course. Usage of other types of authentic materials can show difference in the students' improvement.

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter summarized the study and its significance for the literature, provided concrete implications and suggestions for further study on second language acquisition, teaching translation and effects of reading to related areas. Teachers, administers and students should be separately informed and benefit from the study. The suggestions have directed the researcher to take action utilising foreign language teaching, translation and reading from a different perspective.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

READING TEST
READ THE PASSAGES AND ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

Unlike the older forms of occultism, such as magic and astrology, organized occultism is a modern phenomenon. Few of the various organized occult movements have existed for more than 150 years; some were formed as a belated countermovement to the Enlightenment, when people began to follow rational schools of thought. Today's occult views are based on the idea that there are events within nature, as well as within one's spiritual life, which seem mysterious and cannot be explained by science. Examples include extrasensory perceptions such as telepathy and telekinesis, and haunted places or people. Believers maintain that these phenomena stem from unknown powers that can often be accessed only by some people with special abilities.

1. We understand from the passage that adherents of occultism claim that certain people ----.
A) have extraordinary talents that allow them to have contact with the unknown
B) practise magic and explain events by means of astrological signs
C) were the pioneers of the anti-Enlightenment movements in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries
D) can tell us what places are haunted and why
E) can teach others what extrasensory perceptions are

2. According to the passage, some of the organized occult movements in the past came into being ----.
A) as a result of various magical and astrological practices
B) since people in the past were seriously concerned about their extrasensory perceptions

C) because the public was not satisfied with scientific explanations of events in nature

D) due to the assumption that many phenomena in nature were related to man's spiritual life

E) in reaction to the rational thinking style that characterized the Enlightenment

3. As we learn from the passage, occult practices in our time ----.

A) are particularly widespread among people who follow rational schools of thought

B) have mostly focused on the mysteries of telepathy and telekinesis

C) essentially stem from the occult movements of the past

D) are concerned with phenomena which are thought to be scientifically inexplicable

E) seem to benefit from science in explaining natural phenomena

4. It is implied in the passage that magic and astrology ----.

A) have failed as occult practices in explaining extrasensory perceptions

B) are forms of occultism which can be traced back into the past

C) lost their significance with the rise of rationalism during the Enlightenment

D) did not exist as occult practices prior to the Enlightenment

E) have always been used in order to communicate with unknown powers

5. It is obvious from the passage that occultism ----.

A) contributes enormously to a more comprehensive understanding of nature

B) has gained far more popularity in modern times than in the past

C) is an unscientific practice that doesn't rely on rationality

D) can fully explain the spiritual side of humanity

E) derives a great deal from magic and astrology

Just as every teenager thinks he is brighter than his parents, every decade considers itself superior to the one that came before. Over the past few months, we of the 2000 decade have made it quite clear that we are morally heads above those who lived in the 1990s. We've done it first by establishing a reigning cliché for that period.

Just as the 1960s are known for student unrest, the 1980s for Reagan, Thatcher and the Yuppies, the 1990s will henceforth be known as the second Gilded Age. They will be known as the age when the real problems in the world were ignored while the illusions of the dotcom types were celebrated. It was the age of effortless abundance, cell phones on every ear, stock markets that only went up and Mercedes sport utility vehicles. Never before had business leaders enjoyed so much prestige, and never before had capitalism had fewer mortal enemies. Bill Gates couldn't be on enough business-magazine covers; tycoons like him felt free to assume the role of global sages, writing books with such weighty titles as "The Road Ahead."

6. According to the passage, the decade of the 1990s was characterized by ----.
A) capitalism, blindness and possessions
B) hard-work, greed and the need to communicate
C) indifference, immorality and selfishness
D) generosity, spontaneity and individuality
E) disagreements, competition and prejudice

7. In the opinion of the author of the passage, the 2000 decade ----.
A) differs very little from the decade of Reagan, Thatcher and the Yuppies
B) inherited a failing global economy from the previous decade
C) is far more moral than the preceding one
D) still admires the values of the business leaders of the 1990s and the books they wrote
E) is fast losing its idealism and growing more and more like previous decades

8. The term "Gilded Age" as it is used in the passage means ----.
A) to be admired
B) golden age
C) with moral principles
D) with surface shine
E) in bad taste

9. We understand from the passage that, during the 1990s, ----.
A) there was a great deal of student unrest

B) capitalism again fell into disrepute

C) technological advance took the form of useful gadgets

D) teenagers grew very critical of their parents

E) business tycoons received undue respect and were indeed almost idolized

10. One point made in the passage is that ----.

A) with each passing decade life gets easier and more comfortable

B) any hopes of the 2000 decade are not likely to survive the decade

C) the business magazines of this decade differ very little from those of earlier decades

D) each new decade regards itself as superior to the previous one

E) the real problems of each decade are essentially the same

In this century, the wealth and success of nations will depend like never before on the ability to produce and use knowledge. Universities have long been instrumental in generating knowledge and ideas. But in an increasingly globalized world, and in the face of rapid scientific change, they will need to think about a set of new challenges and how best to prepare their students for the coming decades. Universities will need to teach a new kind of literacy, in which global awareness will play an important role. They also need to deal with the dilemmas posed by the accelerating pace of change brought on by scientific and technological advances. We are on the brink of once-in-human-history progress in combating disease through the application of modern science. Doctors will have at their disposal blood tests that will tell you with substantial predictive power how long you will live and from what diseases you are likely to suffer. The Internet and the application of information technology may well represent the most profound change in the way knowledge is disseminated since the printing press. We are close to understanding the first second of the history of the cosmos.

11. According to the passage, universities are under an obligation to ensure that their students ----.

A) have the chance to work alongside foreign students

B) are equipped to deal with the changing conditions of the coming decades

C) are introduced to international perspectives in every area of study

D) are taught not specific facts as much as broad ways of thinking

E) all have a good grounding in science and technology

12. One point that is given considerable emphasis in the passage is ----.

A) the need of all students to get acquainted with foreign cultures and global issues

B) that the universities have a commitment to the pursuit of truth for its own sake

C) that the universities are in a position to further greater global integration

D) the incredible speed with which knowledge is increasing

E) that universities must stick to the values that have made them successful in the past

13. It is clear from the passage that science and the application of science ----.

A) will not help to further global awareness

B) is largely confined within the universities

C) has grown so complex that it is beyond the understanding of all but a very few

D) cannot go on advancing at this rate

E) is opening up startling new possibilities

14. The writer of the passage seems convinced that the current rapid developments in science and technology ----.

A) will be accompanied by new problems

B) cannot go on much longer

C) will bring more harm than good

D) are largely concentrated in the field of medicine

E) are beyond the grasp of most people in most countries

15. The phrase, "once-in-human-history progress" is saying ----.

A) we cannot expect or, indeed, hope for such progress ever to happen again

B) this is only the first of many spurts of progress

C) this is the first instance of a widespread application of science

D) there has never been such progress ever before and there may not be again

E) this is the highest possible peak of progress

There seems no question but that the clock dial, which has existed in its present form since the seventeenth century and in earlier forms since ancient times, is on its way out. More and more common are the digital clocks that mark off the hours, minutes, and seconds in ever-changing numbers. This certainly appears to be an advance in technology. You will no longer have to interpret the meaning of "the big hand on the eleven and the little hand on the five." Your digital clock will tell you at once that it is 4:55. And yet there will be a loss in the conversion of dial to digital, and no one seems to be worrying about it. Actually, when something turns, it can turn in just one of two ways, clockwise or counter-clockwise, and we all know which is which. Clockwise is the normal turning direction of the hands of a clock, and counter-clockwise is the opposite of that. Since we all stare at clocks (dial clocks, that is), we have no trouble following directions or descriptions that include those words. But if dial clocks disappear, so will the meaning of those words for anyone who has never stared at anything but digitals.

16. The author maintains that, when dial clocks go out of use and only digitals are used, ----.
A) the words "clockwise" and "counter-clockwise" will cease to carry any meaning
B) people will continue to use the words "clockwise" and "counter-clockwise" on a regular basis
C) it will be quite confusing for everyone to tell the time right away
D) most people will wonder about the meanings of the words "clockwise" and "counter-clockwise"
E) it will certainly be a major technological change unprecedented in the past

17. It is pointed out in the passage that the use of the clock dial ----.
A) is no longer practical since one is often confused about the meaning of the words "clockwise" and "counter-clockwise"
B) was most popular in the seventeenth century but has since lost its importance

C) is still widely used despite the technological progress in the manufacture of digital clocks

D) has improved enormously since the seventeenth century due to advances in technology

E) has a very long history though at present it is becoming less and less popular

18. In the passage, the author admits that digital clocks, compared with dial clocks, ---.

A) have a number of drawbacks which make their use rather restricted

B) can, in the long run, be replaced by technologically new and more efficient clocks

C) are technologically more advanced and tell time very precisely

D) do not seem to have much efficiency and easily break down

E) have ceased to be in widespread use due to some inexplicable technological shortcomings

19. The author asserts that people ----.

A) are not aware of the fact that in antiquity time was completely disregarded

B) do not seem to be concerned about "the loss" that the replacement of dial clocks by digitals will cause

C) can also define their position accurately by using digital clocks

D) today have a growing interest in dial clocks and value them very much

E) have already stopped using the words "clockwise" and "counter-clockwise" to indicate directions

20. As has been pointed out in the passage, the word "clockwise" ----.

A) first came into use in the seventeenth century

B) is used only in conjunction with the word "counter-clockwise"

C) can also be used with reference to a digital clock

D) signifies the direction in which the hands of a dial clock move

E) has no meaning unless it is used with reference to a dial clock

ANSWER KEY

1. A - 2. E - 3. D - 4. B - 5. C
6. A - 7. C - 8. D - 9. E - 10. D
11. B - 12. D - 13. E - 14. A - 15. D
16. A - 17. E - 18. C - 19. B - 20. D

1-15 questions were taken from 2006 MAY KPDS EXAM
    (Questions 76-85, 96-100).
16-20 questions were taken from 2007 MAY KPDS EXAM
    (Questions 76-80).

APPENDIX B

TRANSLATION TEST

TRANSLATE THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES INTO TURKISH

1. If anyone is asked to rate a person, whom he knows sufficiently well, on a number of personality variables, he will tend to be influenced by his general opinion of the person. If he has a high opinion of the person he will tend to rate him high on all desirable qualities, and vice versa if he has a low opinion.

2. Most films have fight scenes to enable the hero to demonstrate his masculinity. Battered and bloody, he wins though.

3. Small as she was, she made quite a good horsewoman.

4. It has long been noticed that people differ very much in their capacity to handle words and this is not necessarily related to their intelligence.

5. It is commonly believed that women are more emotional than men and also that they tend to be more timid and less physically aggressive. Although much opposing evidence may be quoted, none is at all firmly based, and it can at least be pointed out that in most species it is the male who is more aggressive.

6. There are some occasions when you must not refuse a cup of tea, otherwise you are judged an exotic and barbarous bird without any hope of ever being able to take your place in civilised society.

7. A third cause of disagreement between IQ measures and external criteria may be related to motivation. If we can lead a horse to the water, so we can send a child to school, but as we cannot make the horse drink, so we cannot make the child learn unless he is in fact motivated.

8. One of the difficulties with faulty body language is that we are usually unaware of what our faces or hands or shoulders are doing because these body patterns have become automatic. We only become aware of them when they are pointed out to us.

9. Emotion is running high at the moment, but that emotion must not be allowed to temper sensible judgement.

10. If you are a student and I am your teacher, it is up to you to let me know if my input is unclear. If you haven't understood, tell me.

ANSWERS TO THE TRANSLATION TEST

1. Eğer bir kişi yeterince iyi tanıdığı birini bir dizi kişilik değişkenler üzerine (ışığında) değerlendirmesi istendiğinde, o kişi hakkındaki genel <u>fikirlerinin</u> (izlenimlerinin) <u>etkisinde</u> (etkisi altında) kalmaya meyilli olacaktır. O kişi hakkında iyi izlenimi varsa <u>bütün</u> (tüm- arzu edilen niteliklerde) <u>niteliklerine</u> iyi not verecektir (iyi olarak değerlendirecektir), veya kötü izlenimi varsa tam tersini yapacaktır.

2. Çoğu filim, kahramanın <u>erkekliğini</u> (erkeksiliğini) sergilyebileceği dövüş sahnelerini içerir. <u>Dayak yemiş</u> (dövülmüş-hırpalanmış) ve kanlar içinde <u>kalmış olsa</u> (kalsa) da yine de kazanır.

3. Yaşı küçük olmasına rağmen oldukça iyi bir <u>at binicisi </u> (jokey) oldu.

4. İnsanların kelimeleri kullanma <u>kapasitelerinde</u> (yeteneklerinde) çok farklılık <u>olduğu</u> (gösterdiği) ve bunun zekayla <u>ilgili</u> (ilişkili) olmadığı uzun zaman önce fark edilmiştir.

5. Kadınların erkeklerden daha duygusal ve ayrıca daha çekingen ve fiziksel olarak daha az saldırgan olduğu yaygın <u>bir inançtır</u> (olarak inanılmaktadır). <u>Bir çok karşıt delil</u> (görüş olsa) <u>gösterilebilinse de</u> (Aksini iddia eden birçok kanıt olmasına rağmen) hiç birinin sağlam bir <u>dayanğı</u> (temeli) yoktur, ve <u>en azından</u>

coğu (birçok) <u>türde daha saldırgan olanın erkek olduğu ifade edilebilir</u> (en azından ifade edilebilir (söylenebilir) ki çoğu türde daha saldırgan olan erkektir).

6. Bir fincan çayı reddetmemeniz gereken bazı durumlar vardır, <u>aksi taktirde</u> (yoksa) <u>medeni</u> (uygar) bir toplumda yer alma umudu hiç kalmamış egzotik (yabani-exotic) ve <u>barbar</u> (vahşi) bir kuş olarak değerlendirilirsiniz.

7. Zeka ölçümleri ve dış <u>kıstaslar</u> (kriterler) arasındaki anlaşmazlığın üçüncü bir <u>sebebi</u> (nedeni) <u>motivasyonla</u> (güdülemeyle) ilgili olabilir. Eğer bir atı suya götürebilirsek, bir çocuğu da okula gönderebiliriz <u>fakat</u> (ama) atın su içmesini sağlayamayacağımız gibi çocuğun da, gerçekten motive olmadıysa, öğrenmesini sağlayamayız.

8. Yanlış beden dilinin zorluklarından biri de *(genellikle)* yüzümüzün, ellerimizin <u>veya</u> (yada) omuzlarımızın ne yatığının *genellikle* farkında olmamamızdır çünkü bu beden yapıları <u>otomatikleşmiştir</u> (istemsizleşmiştir - istemsiz hale gelmiştir). <u>Sadece</u> (yalnızca) bize <u>gösterldiğinde</u> (söylendiğinde) farkına varırız.

9. Şu anda duygu akışı çok yüksek, <u>ancak</u> (ama-fakat) bu duygunun <u>mantıklı karar vermeyi</u> (aklı selimliği - sağduyuyu) engellemesine izin verilmemelidir.

10. Eğer sen bir öğrenci ben de senin öğretmenin isem, <u>anlattıklarımın</u> (aktarımımın – aktardığım bilginin) <u>anlaşılır</u> (açık) olup olmadığını bildirmek sana kalmıştır. Anlamadıysan, (**bana**) söyle.

- *The words and phrases in the paranthesis are alternative equevalences to the underlined ones.*
- *The words in italics can be placed in either places.*
- *The words in bold can be included.*
- *Inverted sentences were accepted as correct if gramatically and meaningfully correct.*

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT STUDENTS' BELIEFS AND THEIR STRATEGY USE IN TRANSLATION

You are invited to participate in a study of English Language Teaching Department student's beliefs about translation and their use of strategy in translation. My name is Serhan KÖSE and I am a doctoral candidate in the English Language Teaching Program at Gazi University. This study is being conducted for my dissertation research for the completion of my Ph. D. degree. I hope to learn what you think about translation and how you approach the task of translating.

This study will enable us to be aware of your learning beliefs and strategy use in translation.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission.

If you have any question about the study, please ask me via e-mail skose@kastamonu.edu.tr.

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. Name: ……………………………………..
2. Class:……………………………………
3. Gender: Male ………   Female ………
4. What type of Lycee (high school) did you graduate from?

a)Anatolian   b)Super   c)Normal State

d)Private Anatolian   e)Anatolian Teacher   f)Other: …………………

5. How long have you been learning English? _____

6. Do you do translation outside the class? (for any purpose):

       Yes………   No……….

LANGUAGE SKILLS SELF-ASSESSMENT SCALE

How do you rate yourself in the language skills 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

                                        (Liao, 2002, p. 153)

       This is a Questionnaire to find out HOW you TRANSLATE an English Text into Turkish and your overall opinion about Translation and Translating. Please choose the response which most clearly reflects your perception of the translation process.

       Please read each statement and answer by checking (X) to the corresponding box.

Section I

    1. I understand all that I read in Turkish.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

    2. I understand all that I read in English.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

3. I am confident that I can translate effectively from English into Turkish.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

4. I make serious comprehension errors when I translate.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

5. I make grammar mistakes when I translate.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

6. Translating is simply a matter of practice; it cannot be taught.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

7. For good translation you need to integrate the four language skills besides vocabulary and grammar.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

8. For good translation you have to be familiar with English and Turkish grammatical rules and sentence patterns.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

9. Translation includes only reading and writing skills.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

10. Translation is an uncommunicative, difficult and irrelevant language learning activity.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

Section II

Please read each statement and answer by checking (X) the corresponding box.

1. When translating I establish one to one correspondence between the vocabulary in the English Text and the Turkish text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

2. I first analyze the English Text, and then reconstruct the analysis of the English Text in a Turkish Text linguistic framework.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

3. I do not follow specific cognitive procedures.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

4. I function according to the way I believe language reflects reality.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

5. I relate the content of the English Text to its cultural context.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

6. I do not transfer the linguistic features of the English Text into the Turkish Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

7. I do not ignore the first meaningful impact I get from the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

8. I get myself involved in the linguistic properties of the English Text and the Turkish Text, and deliberately ignore the Turkish Text reader.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

9. I maintain in my memory the semantic units of the English Text not its linguistic properties.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

10. I change my strategies according to the requirements of the given English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

11. I confine myself to the semantic properties of the English Text, not to the properties of the Turkish Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

12. I translate the semantic properties of the English Text not my inferences of the English Text meaning.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

13.   I depend on my linguistic knowledge, contextual analysis, and intuition in the process of analyzing the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

14. I adjust the Turkish Text linguistic structure to fit the linguistic structure of the English Text and vice-versa.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

15. I seek the dynamic equivalences rather than mere synonyms.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

Section III

Please read each statement and answer by checking (X) the corresponding box.

1. I am concerned with the impact of my translation product on the Turkish Text

reader.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

2. I pay special attention to the connotation of the English Text, not to its linguistic specifications.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

3. In the process of synthesizing the message into the Turkish Text, I lose some of the English Text meaning.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

4. Preserving the form of the English Text yields a distortion in the transferred meaning.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

5.   A complete transference of the English Text meaning into the Turkish Text is impossible.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

6. Instead of providing the exact equivalences, I provide descriptive equivalences.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

7. Translation difficulties emerge as a result of an absence of linguistic balance between the English Text and the Turkish Text, and not because of my limited capabilities.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

8.   Translation is a cognitive procedure designed to reveal as much as possible of the form and content of the original message.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

9.   When I translate a text, the translation product turns out to be uniquely different from the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

Section IV

Please read each statement and answer by checking (X) the corresponding box.

1. I pay more attention to the communicative norms than to the linguistic characteristics of the English Text and the Turkish Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

2. I rely on my imaginative capabilities more than I rely on my linguistic knowledge of the English Text and the Turkish Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

3. I don't rely on intuition in understanding the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

4. I concentrate on the semantic dimension of the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

5. A good translation product has to be larger than the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

6. Translation takes place in the phase of analyzing the linguistic forms of the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

Section V

Please read each statement and answer by checking (X) the corresponding box.

1. I cannot understand the meaning of the English Text unless I analyze the logical relations between its sentences.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

2. A translation product is a reflection of my psychological analysis of the English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

3. The translation of the English Text should be preceded by an analysis of the English Text meaning.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

4. After analyzing the English Text I exclusively deliberate on the Turkish Text linguistic properties, and do not go back to English Text.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

5. The numerous linguistic forms that indicate one single meaning create difficult cognitive choices for me.

(a)Strongly Agree   (b)Agree   (c)Uncertain   (d)Disagree   (e)Strongly Disagree

(adapted from Youssef, 1986, pp. 147-155)

APPENDIX D

ORIGINAL QUESTIONAIRE

(Youssef, 1986, pp. 147-155)

Please choose the response which most clearly reflects your perception of the translation process.

Please read each statement and answer by checking (/) the corresponding box. SLT means source language text. TLT means target language text.

(1) strongly agree   (2) agree   (3) disagree   (4) strongly disagree

Section I

Item No

1) Translators establish one to one correspondence between the vocabulary in the SLT and the TLT.

2) Translators depend on their intuitive understanding of the lexical items rather than on the analysis of the SLT connotations.

3) Translators, first, analyze the SLT then reconstruct their analysis of the SLT in a TLT linguistic framework.

4) Translators do not follow specific cognitive procedures.

5) Translators function according to the way they believe language reflects reality.

6) Translators relate the content of the SLT to its cultural context.

7) Translators do not transfer the linguistic features of the SLT into the TLT.

8) Translators do not ignore the first meaningful impact they get from the SLT.

9) In the process of transference, translators must think of the TLT reader's reaction.

10) Translators get themselves involved in the linguistic properties of the SLT and the TLT and deliberately ignore the TLT reader.

11) Translators maintain in their memory the semantic units of the SLT not its linguistic properties.

12) Translators change their strategies according to the requirements of the given SLT.

13) Translators confine themselves to the semantic properties of the SLT, not to the properties of the TLT.

14) Translators translate the semantic properties of the SLT not their inferences of the SLT meaning.

15) Translators anticipate the translation difficulties while analyzing the SLT semantic properties.

16) Translators depend on their linguistic knowledge, contextual analysis, and intuition in the process of analyzing the SLT.

17) Translators adjust the TLT linguistic structure to fit the linguistic structure of the SLT and vice-versa.

18) Translators seek dynamic equivalences rather than mere synonyms.

19) Translators play the role of the editors in analyzing the SLT before the actual translation occurs.

Section II

Item No.

1) Translators concern themselves with the impact of their translation product on the TLT reader.

2) Translators pay special attention to the connotation of the SLT, not to its linguistic specifications.

3) Translators understand the SLT based on their understanding of how languages portray reality.

4) In the process of synthesizing the message in the TLT, translators lose some of the SLT meaning.

5) Translation difficulties are unpredictable.

6) L1/L2 proficiency in translation is an innate bilingual capacity.

7) Preserving the form of the SLT yields a distortion in the transferred meaning.

8) Translators realize that a complete transference of meaning into the TLT is impossible.

9) Instead of providing the exact equivalences, translators provide descriptive equivalences.

10) Translators rely on their semantic memory in analyzing the SLT.

11) Translation difficulties emerge as a result of an absence of linguistic balance between the SLT and the TLT, and not because of the translator's limited capabilities.

12) For translators, translation is a cognitive procedure designed to reveal as much as

possible of the form and content of the original message.

13) Translators are better qualified for L2/L1 translation than vice-versa.

14) Because of the translator's capabilities, the translation product turns out to be uniquely different from the SLT.

15) What makes the translation product unique is the value system that the translators use, not the differences between LI and L2.

16) Different text types require not only different transfer methods but also different translation equivalence criteria.

Section III
Item No

1) In the process of formulating a message in the TLT translators should utilize code switching operations.

2) Translators should pay more attention to the communicative norms than to the linguistic characteristics of the SLT and the TLT.

3) The linguistic items of the SLT limit the translator's dependency on imagination.

4) Translators rely on their imaginative capabilities more than they rely on their linguistic knowledge of the TLT and the SLT.

5) Translators should not rely on intuition in understanding the SLT.

6) Translators should concentrate on the semantic dimension of the SLT.

7) A good translation product has to be larger than the SLT.

8) Translators pay little attention to how they translate and more attention to what they translate.

9) Since no two translators follow the same cognitive procedures, their utilized cognitive procedures are hard to define.

10) Translation takes place in the phase of analyzing the SLT.

11) Language imprecision gives translators' room for semantic manoeuvring.

Section IV
Item No

1) Translators can depend on their psychological reaction to the sentences in the SLT.

2) Translators cannot under stand the meaning of the SLT unless they analyze the

logical relations between its sentences.

3) A translation product is a reflection of the translator's psychological analysis of the SLT.

4) The translation of the SLT should be preceded by an analysis of the SLT meaning.

5) After analyzing the SLT, translators exclusively deliberate on the TLT linguistic properties, and do not go back to SLT.

6) The numerous linguistic forms that indicate one single meaning create difficult cognitive choices for the translator.

(Youssef, 1986, pp. 147-155)

APPENDIX E

PERMISSIONS

PERMISSION 1

GRANT FOR PERMISSION

I hereby grant permission to Serhan KÖSE to use and adapt the questionnaire in my PhD. dissertation titled "COGNITIVE PROCESSES IN WRITTEN TRANSLATION" for his PhD. studies.

Date: 16/12/2009

Signature

Dr. Atef Faleh Youssef

Dr. Atef Faleh Youssef

King Saud University

College of Languages & Translation

Riyadh / Saudi Arabia

Note: The grant for permission was received via e-mail on 12.12.2009, atefyousef@hotmail.com.

PERMISSION 2

PERMISSION FROM OSYM (ÖĞRENCİ SEÇME VE YERLEŞTİRME MERKEZİ – STUDENT SELECTION AND PLACEMENT CENTRE) FOR THE READING COMPREHENSION TEST

T.C.
YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi Başkanlığı

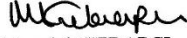Sayı: B.30.1.ÖSM.0.46.00.00-15450   19/10/2009

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