

4

Four Insights
into
Foreign Language
Pedagogy Research



University of Trnava
Faculty of Education
2018



4

Four Insights into Foreign Language Pedagogy Research

Edited by: Silvia Pokrivcakova

2018

© Michal Bodorík, Petra Hitková, Xenia Liashuk, Hana Vančová, 2018

© Silvia Pokrivčáková, 2018

Copyright information

The right of the author to be identified as the Author has been asserted in accordance with the Copyright Act No. 618/2003 on Copyright and Rights Related to Copyright (Slovakia, EU).

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, except as permitted by the above mentioned acts, without the prior permission of the author.

The text is assumed to contain no proprietary material unprotected by patent or patent application; responsibility for technical content and for protection of proprietary material rests solely with the author and is not the responsibility of the publisher. It is the responsibility of the author to obtain all necessary copyright release permissions for the use of any copyrighted materials in the manuscript prior to the submission.



The online version of the book (ISBN 978-80-568-0162-8) is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs Licence. Based on a version published at

<http://pdf.truni.sk/veda-vyskum?e-kniznica#monografie>.

Editor

prof. PaedDr. Silvia Pokrivčáková, PhD.

Authors

Mgr. Michal Bodorík, PhD.

Mgr. Petra Hitková, PhD.

Mgr. Xenia Liashuk, PhD.

Mgr. Hana Vančová, PhD.

Reviewers

doc. PaedDr. Ivana Cimermanová, PhD.

dr. hab. Anna Stachurska, PhD.

Acknowledgements

The monograph is one of the outcomes of the **project KEGA 055UKF-4/2016** funded by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic.

Editorial note:

The contents and language accuracy of studies are the sole responsibility of the authors and publication shall not imply the concurrence of the editor or the publisher.

Published by:

University of Trnava, 2018

ISBN 978-80-568-0162-8

EAN 9788056801628

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Introduction	7
1	Content Analysis in English Language Pedagogy Research Michal Bodorik	9
2	Experiment in English Language Teaching Research Petra Hitková	29
3	Research in Teaching English Pronunciation Hana Vančová	46
4	Translation and Foreign Language Teaching: Analytical Review of Recent Research Xenia Liashuk	66
5	Authors' profiles	94

Introduction

Foreign language pedagogy (FLP) research “deals with a wide range of events, facts, causes, relations, elucidations, demystifications, patterns and meanings. Its purpose is to create an explanatory platform for the objectivised knowledge on theories of foreign language acquisition, learning and teaching. At the same time, it should provide all subjects involved in the educational practice (school policy makers, school managers, teacher trainers, teachers, students, etc.) with information necessary for better decision-making in everyday pedagogical situations” (Pokrivčáková, 2012, p. 9-10).

The publication attempts to tackle some problems FLP research is facing nowadays. It consists of 4 meta-analytical studies from which the first two focus on the selected research method (content analysis, experiment) and the second couple analyses the outcomes of FLP research in selected areas of teaching English as a foreign language (teaching English pronunciation, teaching translation).

The method of **content analysis** is generally considered as one of the most frequently applied in foreign language pedagogy research. Therefore, the objective of the first chapter by Michal Bodorík is to map the typical procedures of the content analysis method in applied linguistics and foreign language pedagogy research, as well as to publish the results of meta-analysis of selected currently published research papers.

Petra Hitková in her chapter pays attention to an **experiment** as a method of dominantly quantitative design that may be successfully used in FLP research. She defines the method, its recommended procedures and publishes a real example of experimental study with critical metaanalytical notes.

The aim of the third chapter by Hana Vančová is to present general research design, typical methods and techniques and statistical tools research in **teaching English pronunciation**. For the purposes of this chapter, 15 research papers presenting the results of original research and published in respectable academic journals were closely examined. The results reveal that the most data were collected by questionnaires and surveys, closely followed by experiments. All aspects of pronunciation are analysed, i. e. segmental and suprasegmental level of English, as well as other aspects of connected speech. Learning strategies applied by learners and learners’ opinions are also a point of research interest.

The last chapter of the publication by Xenia Liashuk focuses on recent developments in research into the use of **translation** activities in foreign language teaching. A sample of scholarly publications is analysed to identify cases where the application of pedagogical translation and/or elements of translation proper for the purposes of the development of language skills of young, intermediate and advanced learners is possible and desirable. The examination of the specifics of research methodology within the categories of survey, experimental and correlational studies together with a more general category of predominantly qualitatively-oriented papers including action research, observation and case study involves comparing and contrasting the core elements of their design, which helps to identify best practices as well as common limitations as far as the given research subject is concerned. The common limitations detected by means of the present review are related to the choice of participants, the duration of the study, the testing procedure and the educational history.

The present monograph is the latest in the the chain of publications focused on contemporary FLP research in Slovakia and abroad (Pokrivčáková et al., 2012; Horváthová et al., 2013).

To conclude, both the editor and authors believe that the publication will be an interesting and useful source for both experts in methodology of FLP research as well as for academics whose professional mission is to introduce the mysteries of FLP research to novice researchers.

Editor

References

- HORVÁTHOVÁ, B. et al. (2013). Mapping and Applying Research in Foreign Language Education. Nitra: UKF.
- POKRIVČAKOVA, S. (2012). Latest Developments in Foreign Language Education Research in Slovakia. In Pokrivčáková, S. et al., *Research in Foreign Language Education*(p. 9 - 28).Brno: MSD.
- POKRIVČÁKOVÁ, S. et al., *Research in Foreign Language Education*. Brno: MSD.

Content Analysis in English Language Pedagogy Research

Michal Bodorik

In the last two decades inquiry in language pedagogy has witnessed the application of various research methods that were used to bring about valid results and answers to numerous research questions. The implementation of such tools for investigation has been relevant to both quantitative and qualitative forms of research. Among these methods content analysis with its procedure, specificities and scope undoubtedly provides useful options for researchers to achieve data and findings that uncover some important issues in a selected field.

One of the fields of study is English language pedagogy. Here the main attention in research is paid to the topics where many investigators deal with English language and literature within the frame of pedagogy. The term pedagogy covers the teaching and learning of a language. English language pedagogy is a complex area that raises many questions and investigations linked to teacher and learner as well as the environment where they cooperate together.

Hundreds of publications that deal with methods for teaching English language are currently available. Each method has its lineage, procedure and its goal to reach, although most of the time it develops one aspect. In this regard Ur (2014, p. 7) disputes: "I would suggest that we abandon a single recommended language teaching method, and adopt instead a model that I would term a language pedagogy. Such a pedagogy would be principled and localized, determined by the teacher(s), informed by reflection on experience and other professional knowledge sources." Here it is evident that language pedagogy is important to explore and to further evolve.

English language pedagogy could be substituted with other synonymous expressions like foreign language education, second language pedagogy or second language education. Here these terms refer to the mingling of knowledge within several disciplines such as pedagogy, linguistics and social sciences. Being more specific foreign language education and namely its attributable research is "a wide range of events, facts, causes, relations, elucidations, demystifications, patterns

and meanings” that altogether help the researcher to gain objective knowledge to questions that directly deal with educational practice and consequently this research affects the improvement of education from the perspective of teaching and learning Pokrivčáková (2012, p. 9 - 11).

Any form of research in English language pedagogy cannot be carried out without certain features such as research problem, research questions, research methods, platforms: journals and research papers, theoretical background, topics, respondents, samples, evaluation and others. As Nunan (1992, p. 2) states: “Research is:

- about inquiry. It has two components: process and product. The process is about an area of inquiry and how it is pursued. The product is the knowledge generated from the process as well as the initial area to be presented.
- a process which involves (a) defining a problem, (b) stating an objective, and (c) formulating a hypothesis. It involves gathering information, classification, analysis, and interpretation to see to what extent the initial objective has been achieved.”

Hereby the classification, analysis and interpretation are crucial to better understanding of methodology specifically content analysis. As one of the research methods for quantitative and qualitative survey in English language pedagogy it is core to see its functioning.

Scope and structure

As it has already been said the method of content analysis has its substantiation in English language pedagogy research. The main idea of this particular chapter is to outline the process of CA as it works in real research. For this reason the structure of the text includes examples of particular published research papers that have implemented CA in their methodology. These articles are depicted in a manner so that they expose some important facts about manipulation within this method and how they show real evidence for application in real investigations. The description of each article below gives answers to the following questions of interest:

- a) What topics are linked to implementation of CA in English language pedagogy research?
- b) How is the method of CA implemented within the research?
- c) What steps of the CA procedure are used and described in real research papers?
- d) How is the data brought by CA processed and interpreted in terms of the research questions?

These questions are crucial in order to realize what content analysis options are available to researchers and in what possible situations and combinations it could be used.

This chapter is divided into 2 main sections. The theoretical part includes the definitions of content analysis. Then is described the steps that are usually taken for the correct application of this method. The practical part refers to 4 samples of published articles where CA was used and discusses the structuring of the text with the subsequent findings. In the concluding part the summary is given which provides a brief revision of the most important points regarding the functioning of content.

Content analysis and its definition

Many authors consider content analysis in the contemporary research field as a quite frequently used method for analysing gathered data (Mayring, 2000; Cohen, Manion, & Morisson, 2011; Sandorova, 2014; Atmowardoyo, 2018). Its implication has been of great importance and it is necessary to understand its concept. The following definitions display the attributes of content analysis.

One of the many general explanations regarding a definition of CA can be found in the Merriam-Webster online dictionary (2018) where it is described as an: “analysis of the manifest and latent content of a body of communicated material (such as a book or film) through a classification, tabulation, and evaluation of its key symbols and themes in order to ascertain its meaning and probable effect”.

Another source providing a logical interpretation of this research method depicts it as: “a systematic analysis of the content rather than the structure of a communication, such as a written work, speech, or film, including the study of thematic and symbolic elements to determine the objective or meaning of the communication” (*The Free Dictionary*, 2018).

The next definition uses this method in a completely different field of media. McNamara says: “Content analysis is used to study a broad range of ‘texts’ from transcripts of interviews and discussions in clinical and social research to the narrative and form of films, TV programs and the editorial and advertising content of newspapers and magazines” (2005, p. 1).

“Content analysis may be briefly defined as the systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of message characteristics. It includes the careful examination of human interactions; the analysis of character portrayals in TV commercials, films, and novels; the computer-driven investigation of word usage in news releases and political speeches; and so much more” (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 1).

The previous definitions depict content analysis as a method of general purposes that could be applied in a palette of research fields. Its multipurpose

function of analyzing any written form of data brings researchers many benefits. It opens space for various categorizing and coding systems with data that could be validated by reiteration. Additionally the more specific implementation is shown below.

In terms of educational research Cohen et al. (2011, p. 563) state that content analysis: “simply defines the process of summarizing and reporting written data – the main contents of data and their messages. More strictly speaking, it defines a strict and systematic set of procedures for the rigorous analysis, examination and verification of the contents of written data”.

The person who is most knowledgeable about the definition of this method is Krippendorff who states: “content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use. As a technique, content analysis involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher. As a research technique, content analysis provides new insights, increases a researcher’s understanding of particular phenomena, or informs practical actions. Content analysis is a scientific tool” (2004, p. 18).

Steps of content analysis application

When carrying out the analysis of content usually the researchers follow several steps to gain reasonable answers. Cohen et al. (2011, pp. 564 - 569) define the following most typical steps:

- 1) define the research questions addressed by the CA
- 2) define the population from which units of text are to be sampled
- 3) define the sample to be included
- 4) define the context of the generation of the document
- 5) define the units of analysis
- 6) decide the codes to be used in the analysis
- 7) construct the categories for analysis
- 8) conduct the coding and categorizing of the data
- 9) conduct the data analysis
- 10) summarizing
- 11) making speculative inferences.

The typical feature connected to content analysis is the process of coding. Within qualitative research it is important to reduce huge amounts of written data into workable and understandable portions. The cutback of data into smaller parts – categories is the way in which content analysis operates. These categories represent a classification of many words of analyzed content. The same authors further specify: “Categories are usually derived from theoretical constructs or

areas of interest devised in advance of the analysis (pre-ordinate categorization) rather than developed from the material itself, though these may be modified, of course, by reference to the empirical data (ibid., p. 559).

“Put simply, content analysis involves coding, categorizing (creating meaningful categories into which the units of analysis – words, phrases, sentences etc. – can be placed), comparing (categories and making links between them), and concluding – drawing theoretical conclusions from the text”. “A code is a word or abbreviation sufficiently close to that which it is describing for the researcher to see at a glance what it means (in this respect it is unlike a number).” The codes are usually the smallest elements of analyzed material. They can be general or specific or descriptive. They can be important in maintaining order and structure (Cohen et al., 2007, pp. 476 - 478).

Reliability and validity of content analysis

In the application of CA during a surveying process researchers often consider the factors of validity and reliability. These features are important to bear in mind as they affect the quality of an entire research project.

Reliability is reflected in the analyzing process outputs when identical results are repeated. “When human coders are used in content analysis, this translates to intercoder reliability or the amount of agreement or correspondence among two or more coders. Given that a goal of content analysis is to identify and record relatively objective (or at least intersubjective) characteristics of messages, reliability is paramount. Without the establishment of reliability, content analysis measures are useless.” To achieve suitable level of intercoder reliability it is important to follow 2 steps:

- 1) provide basic validation of codes – meaning that more than just one person can use the stated codes for the measurement process to gain the same results. It is of huge benefit if there is a main coder and the second to check.
- 2) “For the practical advantage of using multiple coders: Splitting up the coding task allows for more messages to be processed, but the two or more coders must be “calibrated” against one another” (Neuendorf, 2002, pp. 141-142).

Krippendorff (2004, p. 313) explains: “Validity is that quality of research results that leads us to accept them as true, as speaking about the real world of people, phenomena, events, experiences, and actions. A measuring instrument is considered valid if it measures what its user claims it measures. A content analysis is valid if the inferences drawn from the available texts withstand the test of independently available evidence, of new observations, of competing theories or interpretations, or of being able to inform successful actions.”

Sources of already published research papers

This chapter's focus as earlier stated is aimed at researchers' world wide use of the content analysis method when carrying out their inquiries. For this particular idea several journals were examined and several were selected according to certain criteria. First, their scope is oriented to English language investigation. The second condition is that their research articles deal with pedagogy/teaching of English language. All of the journals are accessible online and though some can be viewed for free others need to have been accessed through librarian databases requiring permission to download pdf formats. Thirdly any written item was to be recently published i.e. within last 3 years. The following journals have been examined as the publication of issues are no earlier than 2015.

One of the journals that has been browsed for the survey about the application of content analysis in research papers is called: *English Language and Literature Studies* (ELLS). According to the information given about its publishing it is an international open-access journal that is released both in print and online format. This journal is designed by The Canadian Centre of Science and Education. Every year it circulates 4 numbers. In regard to the scope of this chapter abstracts of research papers in 14 numbers have been looked through for application of content analysis. Its scope covers areas such as literature written in English, English linguistics, translation studies and related areas. One of the related areas is pedagogy of English language as the article about weblogs and teacher trainees interpreted in the following section was included. It needs to be mentioned that this journal also included other research papers where the steps of content analysis were used but here the method was marked as comparative, contrastive or data analysis. For that reason just the article where content analysis was precisely named has been selected.

The second journal that was monitored in the search for application of CA is titled: *ELT Journal*. According to the information given on its online website this journal has been active since 1946 and has a strong tradition of publishing papers that are oriented towards teaching English as a foreign language or second language. This journal is assembled by the editor, an advisory board and an editorial panel. It is issued by the Oxford University Press and has both online and print versions. This ELT Journal is a quarterly publication which means that there are annually 4 issues published. Each issue includes approximately 8 research articles and one of them is the editor's choice. Also included are book reviews and information about technology usage in language teaching. In the abstract search for the application of content analysis in one of the published papers 15 issues have been checked and the second article interpreted below has been selected as it exactly discusses the chosen method. The main intent of the themes published in this journal are linked to English language teaching either as second, additional,

foreign language or even as the international Lingua Franca. The information given on the web states that published topics deal with academic disciplines like applied linguistics, education, psychology and sociology. It is of benefit that the aim of the journal is to be a medium for discussion about principles and practice that influence the teaching and learning of English globally.

Journal number three that was selected for the scope of this chapter is called: *Research in English Language Pedagogy (RELP)*. Its official website states that this source of published research papers is an international peer reviewed double blind and open access journal. It has both the online as well as the print version. Islamic Azad University in Iran fully sponsors this journal and the editorial board is responsible for advice and the quality of its published issues. Researchers are able to submit their papers without being charged for the publication and review services. Based on the fact that it is a semi-annual journal, abstracts of only 6 issues since 2015 have been browsed for this particular search of content analysis application. Contributors from all over the world can submit their research pieces on current issues in all areas of ELT and so the idea is to support practitioners and researchers to find original information and useful sources for teaching English. The journal included the paper that is discussed below as it deals with textbook materials. Other research papers included the steps of content analysis but they were directly marked as data analysis and therefore not exactly involved in this chapter.

Another periodical where the research paper shows the application of CA is called: *Advances in Language and Literary Studies (ALLS)*. It is an international peer-reviewed journal that started its operation in 2010. The Australian International Academic Centre PTY. LTD. is the publisher and it issues articles online and in printed format. The manuscripts of authors are processed by the editor-in-chief, an editorial panel and an advisory board. The frequency of publishing is bimonthly which means that for this particular chapter the abstracts of about 21 numbers since 2015 have been checked. As it is officially stated on the web page they kindly welcome manuscripts from scholars and practitioners who come from low and middle income countries. The area they focus on is linked to applied linguistics, linguistics, literary studies and the relationships between language and literature in both theoretical and practical courses. The fourth research paper discussed in this chapter was selected from this journal and it is aimed at the analysis of textbook content from the angle of appropriateness for EFL purposes.

Research papers applying content analysis

As it has been previously stated the research method of content analysis could be implemented for various surveys. In regard to this fact the following passage

aims to display a palette of already published articles where this research tool was involved. The idea is to determine the way in which many foreign authors analysed selected contents in the field of language pedagogy with the main emphasis on English language. Each of the following papers was chosen to prove that contemporary journals published recent articles which include authors who used content analysis in diverse forms. The description of individual cases is rather extensive in order to keep the logical layout of the paper concept and to point out each specification of content analysis featured.

The following division is based on whether the content analysis had qualitative or quantitative research characteristics. The interpretation of each particular paper covers the following parts:

- a) the title information,
- b) depiction of theoretical background,
- c) respondents' and sample selection process,
- d) application of the content analysis method,
- e) formulation of research findings and the conclusion.

Example 1

In the article titled: *Weblogs as Tools for Encouraging Self-Reflection and Peer Feedback among Student Teachers* published in 2016, the author AL-Ajmi applies the method of content analysis as one of two research tools to collect and investigate data relevant for the scope of a qualitative study. The paper's main idea is based on the focus of the effectiveness of weblogs for the purpose of self-reflection and peer feedback by student teachers of English. This paper is extensive as it is 21 pages in length.

The theoretical part of the article strengthens the importance of pre-service teacher education for his/her lifelong pursuit of professional development. According to the author's statements the teaching practice equips student teachers with appropriate knowledge and experience. These students become closer to the true nature of teaching. The benefits of reflection in teacher education is grounded in literary background as well as in the weblogs which act as a tool for self-reflection and peer feedback. The research purpose is directed to the effectiveness of weblogs for the development of student teachers through one's own reflection and via feedback by peers. Based on this concept AL-Ajmi poses 3 research questions. In addition a literary preview of several research papers about the advantages of reflective blogs, the peer feedback involvement and negative aspects web blogs are given.

The use of content analysis is clearly seen when EFL students reflect on their studies in college through the weblogs. The author describes the study design as a case study where a deep examination of reflective blogs is carried out. Additionally

AL-Ajmi gives information that the survey was based at Kuwait University at the College of Education, the English Curricula and Teaching Methods Department. The respondents, 7 female student teachers ranging in age from 21 to 23 years were selected for this project in the period of the 1st semester of the academic year 2013/2014 as they were part of the undergraduate programme and they needed guidance and immediate feedback before they graduated and started teaching English as a foreign language. Each of the selected students took a practicum course in which they were asked to record reflections regarding their teaching experience in a practicum blog. Every week these students were provided with a topic to which they responded in a written format. Guiding questions were added as a form of help for them to create understandable responses. Apart from this each student teacher was requested to read the posts of colleagues and respond to them as well. Respondents' written reflections and comments about others were the main scope of analysis.

For the purpose of gathering necessary data to gain answers for research questions the author chose qualitative methodology where 2 research methods namely content analysis and semistructured interview were applied. AL-Ajmi claims: "The data collection method is qualitative as it adopts an interpretative concept to information and considers the subjective meanings that people bring to the situation" (2016, p. 22). The semistructured interview was used to bring more information about future teachers' experiences with a reflective blog and their opinions about that blog's operation for peers. The content analysis was administered as the main methodology procedure for division, clarification and interpretation of findings from the students' reflective posts, feedback towards other peers and interview information.

The analysis of the written content was planned to go through 28 documents that were reflective posts of 7 respondents within 4 weeks and 168 comments about each peer's work within the same period. Additions to these writings were also transcribed versions of interviews. The interview's protocol included as an appendix in the paper, further focussed questions related to 2 aspects namely effectiveness of blogs for self-reflection and operation of blogging within a group. The author explains that the entire collected evidence of written content was thoroughly evaluated following 6 analytic steps typical for CA that were defined by Attride-Stirling (2001) "*coding the data, identifying common themes, constructing thematic networks, describing and exploring thematic networks, summarizing thematic networks, interpreting patterns*". The article does not broadly refer to the processing of these 6 steps but it explains the coding system that was developed based on visual materials. The first step was that the reflection posts were divided in 2 categories: plain descriptive (respondent writes what has happened, refers to what is important); deeply reflective (feelings are mentioned and the observer

takes the role of a learner). Second step, peer comments were analyzed from the point of the feedback topics. In regard to the nature of the feedback the categories were 3 – positive, negative, neutral. As for the feedback content it was marked as either solution, suggestion or question.

The section in the paper that reveals results is divided correspondingly to answer each research question separately. For the first “How effective is weblog usage in stimulating the reflective practice of teaching practice student teachers?” the author provides a table where all topics referred to by participants within the 4 weeks are shown. Al-Ajmi claims: “Content analysis demonstrated that reflection posts were mainly focused on the following teaching issues: (a) setting purpose for learning; (b) learner-centered focus; (c) anticipation of problems in the classroom; (d) assessment” (2016, p. 24). The content analysis findings in the survey are supported by the student teachers’ quotes from their weblog posts. Furthermore a graph indicates what is the ratio of descriptive (70 %) to deep (30 %) reflections in the blog categories. The author of the paper summarizes that the weblog was an effective tool for self-reflection.

As for the second question: “How effective is weblog usage in enhancing peer feedback among student teachers?” the researcher claims that all participants’ comments underwent content analysis although not all of them wrote about the pre-planned number of items. In total 144 comments were analyzed. The structure of the paper reveals in 4 graphs the frequency of remarks that were stated by student teachers about their peers’ blog posts through the four-week period. When analyzing the written content the research coded these remarks into 6 groups: gratitude, agreement, feelings, opinions, questions, solutions (ibid., p. 26). To supplement results to this question the author quotes some remarks from the student teachers’ remarks. The author sees positives that all notes were related to TEFL matters.

Seeking answers for the third question: “How useful do student teachers find reflective writing and peer feedback through weblogs?” the researcher interviewed all respondents. The interviews lasted from 30 to 45 minutes and were taped. Afterwards all of them were transcribed for analysis. Al-Ajmi embraced the interview contents in 2 tables where she showed how student teachers perceived weblogs through ratings of numbers 1 – 10 to express how the blog encouraged the self-reflection. Number 1 was poor and 10 was excellent; identically the evaluation for peer feedback was enumerated. To support the results that weblogs were useful for both self and peer reflection quoted examples are given.

The discussion part summarizes all findings connected to the practicum blog, explains the positive aspects of using it as well as all of the TEFL topics participants

referred to. The conclusion briefly mentions the idea of the survey together with complications that student teachers mentioned about weblogs.

Example 2

Another article that was chosen for its scope of a presented chapter was entitled: *Transforming Professional Learning into Practice* written by Sahin and Yildirim, published in 2016. The research that is described in the paper is like the previous paper as it is of a qualitative nature. The content analysis in this particular article applied as a method to investigate data gathered in the triangulation process. The main idea of the analysis is linked with the teachers' professional development and incorporation of professional learning in classroom practice. The extent of the text is 12 pages and it should be noted that the information is compressed.

The theoretical part of this paper mentions several important issues connected to the quality of teaching and the broad staff programmes in ELT. The literary background review explains expected positive outcomes from staff development activity and specifies three groups of changes in classroom teaching based on teachers' beliefs and attitudes. The text also depicts factors that affect changes in teachers' ELT practice and these are mainly: the school context, individual factors and staff development factors. In regard to these arguments authors set 2 research questions that focus on the way that EFL teachers who attend various developmental courses change their approach during classes (Sahin and Yildirim, 2016, p. 242).

The process of respondent selection had its specificities. The first step they took was based on the search for an event aimed at the training of English teachers. Such an occasion was a five-day INSET seminar organized by the Turkish Ministry of National Education at which they observed a programme of 23 hours. The main core of the programme was the application of Turkish reform to transform education from behaviourism to constructivism, mainly to achieve 3 goals: to improve teachers' knowledge about the communicative approach, to encourage them to apply English within their classes and to engage in self-reflection. The second step took place throughout the programme when Sahin and Yildirim explained their research scope as they presented to English teachers and asked them for volunteerism. Out of all the volunteers they finally selected 10 English teachers at primary school level. All participants had a degree either in ELT or English language and literature. Their teaching experience varied from 2.5 up to 25 years. The paper also defines the socio-economic status of schools where teachers worked.

The approach applied in this particular case was the qualitative case study, where the authors “triangulated data from interviews, observations, and document analysis. The data were subject to content analysis” (ibid., p. 241).

The interviews were the main form of collecting data. They were carried out twice and an audio recorder assisted to keep exact wording. The first time it was during week one after the respondents participated in the INSET seminar programme. Seminar participants needed some time to process all information learned in the sessions. Sahin and Yildirim (p. 246) claim that in the interviews the “questions focused on effective and ineffective staff development practises, the impact of the seminar on teachers and their teaching skills, and teachers’ integration of the new knowledge and skills into their classroom practice”. The second time interviews took place after the post-INSET teaching practice observations. Here the researchers focused on the parallel between learning experiences in the INSET sessions and teachers’ classroom practice – transfer of learned experience into real teaching.

As for the observation there were 2 schedules designed. One schedule for the INSET seminar programme itself and the second for post-INSET teaching practice. The first observation was aimed at instructional methods, activities, materials, interaction among participants and trainers. This was facilitated to better understand the goal of the whole training seminar which was based on the development of teachers’ skills to use the communicative approach. The second observation took place after the first interviews for a total of 50 hours in the teachers’ English classes to check the implementation of ideas, skills and strategies that they had discussed during the INSET seminar.

The entire collection of document handouts to seminar participants either in printed or electronic form such as PPT presentations, were also part of the data analysis.

All data that was gathered through interviews and observation notes was transcribed into written form and underwent analysis. The authors mention that the analysis of content proceeded simultaneously with the collection of data itself. Firstly each respondent was assigned a pseudonym to mask his/her identity. When the analysis of the content was applied a preliminary list of codes was designed based on relevant literature and the research questions. When new topics occurred new codes were added. Sahin and Yildirim state: “We double-coded all the documents to ‘reduce overlap and redundancy of codes’ and to ‘collapse codes into themes” (2016, p. 247) Codes were as follows: *self-reflection, increase in L2 use.*

It has to be stated that the article does not directly answer the following research questions: *How do EFL teachers transform and integrate professional learning into their classroom practice? What types of staff development practices are*

effectively incorporated into teachers' classroom practice? The discussion of findings presents all the answers included under 3 headings according to the content of the data. The first one is coded as self-reflection. Here the authors claim that professional transformation started with self-reflection meaning to understand personal strengths and weaknesses. Throughout the INSET seminar this was generated by 'participant-based training' which supports teachers to empathize with learners and shows how to more effectively disseminate new curriculum. The second option that led to self-reflection was the fact that participants used the programme English (L2) as the means of instruction. These thoughts are supported by teachers' transcribed comments.

The second heading is about changes in pedagogical beliefs and the subsequent influence on classroom practice. Analyzed content revealed that the participants after going through the self-reflection phase were guided toward changes in pedagogical beliefs that by using the communicative approach in teaching and applying L2 more frequently the learners' communicative competence emerges. This transformation of knowledge and skills happened because of the participant-based sessions where active learning, active involvement and communicative activities were the focus. Furthermore the analysis of the gathered content revealed that teachers became more selective in strategies and trialed short, practical and motivating ideas presented in the seminars. A huge impact in this regard became apparent when teachers were fostered to use English as a means of instruction. In general more English was used in the classes after participation in the INSET programme both to develop participants' and learners' competences. The interviews and class observations also proved that those teachers who felt more proficient in English shifted teaching towards communicative competence and those who lacked confidence in their English speech tended to apply the traditional way of teaching. Similarly those participants who expressed a higher level of motivation about applying what was learned in the INSET programme appeared to change the teaching practice compared to those who expressed experiencing lower motivation.

The last heading deals with the content that was linked to interconnectedness between pedagogical beliefs and classroom practice. Here the researchers refer to the fact that from the observations, classroom documents and interviews the respondents' learners in lower grades have improved their spoken utterance, vocabulary control and that participation and motivation in classes have risen. These are ascribed to teachers' introduction of changes into practice following the INSET programme. In contrast among the higher grades negative attitudes towards the communicative approach were registered. The authors ascribe this to the fact that learners were concerned more about high school enrolment exams and was also partially due to long exposure to traditional schooling. The data

reveals that teachers when experiencing positive learners' attitudes created a higher sense of self-efficacy, motivation and vice versa.

In the end the authors recommend several ideas that are suitable not only for the TEFL environment in Turkey but also on a more international scale. One of the tips that are suitable for development programmes is participant-based training. English should be used as a medium of instruction and the training sessions should provide methods and materials that correspond with curriculum. Furthermore teachers should assist with learner's motivation while simultaneously keeping up their professional development and self motivation.

Example 3

A further article demonstrating effective use of content analysis for language pedagogy research is *Evaluating Speech Acts in ELT Textbooks: The Case of Compliments and Complaints in the Touchstone Series*. This article was designed by authors Jalilian and Roohani subsequently published in 2016. The main intention of the depicted research is the focus on textbooks and their importance in teaching English as a foreign language with specificity to forms of compliment and complaint speech. In this case content analysis was applied as the only research method and the gathered data was evaluated both qualitatively and quantitatively according to the authors. The content of this article is written on 12 pages.

The initial section presents ideas from the theoretical point of view. The authors start by explaining the importance of the communicative approach in the teaching of English language and therefore the need for textbooks to apply this approach in the same way. Next they mention the situation that contemporary teachers prefer commercially produced textbooks rather than having to design their own programme. Some of these ELT commercial textbooks are introduced to teaching without any "pre-use evaluation". This means that while they tend to prepare learners to be grammatically competent they are lacking in communicative skills. In regard to this situation Jalilian and Roohani decided to focus their paper on the occurrence of complaints and compliments in selected textbook materials. Hereby they state 3 research questions for which they apply content analysis to gain valuable information and appropriate answers that could be further used in ELT. The literary review offers a summary of published authors and their articles where similar surveys were carried out.

The selected materials for the survey were taken from the series called *Touchstone* first published in 2015 by Cambridge University Press. It was a series aimed at teaching English to adults that are non-native speakers. Each set consists of a student book, a workbook and an entertainment CD which includes games, songs and funny exercises. The analysis was carried out among 4 textbooks.

According to the words of the authors the whole survey was carried out qualitatively and quantitatively. The main content analysis method was applied to collect data and the authors say that all units of the *Touchstone* series were analyzed. The aim was to determine the extent of complaint and compliment features in the materials. Alongside the content analysis the researchers implemented special strategies by Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) to classify the complaints. For the classification of compliments they used Wolfson et al. (1989) methodology in textbook analysis. The classification of complaints had the 6 following codes: a) below the level of reproach b) expressions of annoyance or disapproval c) accusation and warning d) requests for repair e) justification f) criticism. The compliment patterns had 9 codes including: NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ, PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP and others. To make the content analysis reliable the researchers decided to apply inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability. In regard to this they repeated the procedure of content analysis twice during a three-week interval. Here the consistency was of high degree – 96.5%.

All the data gathered in the *Touchstone* textbooks content analysis was distilled to the descriptive and inferential statistics. The speech acts of both complaints and compliments were expressed in frequency and percentages. Tables and graphs are used to show the research results in a transparent way. The first table presents 4 *Touchstone* textbooks with subsequent frequency and percentage of complaint speech acts found by content analysis assigned to individual code by Olshtain and Weinbach (1993). Here the findings show that expressions of annoyance or disapproval were the highest presented in the textbooks. The authors ground their findings by stating specific examples of found expressions. The included graph shows how the complaint speech acts were placed within 7 main parts of each textbook. With this data the first research question about frequency of complaint speech act used in the textbooks is answered.

For the second table the frequency and percentage of compliment strategies is characteristic. By each textbook are specified all 9 of Wolfson's codes and numbers. It is evident that *Touchstone* textbooks 3 and 4 demonstrated a higher number of compliment speech acts than the rest. Within the 7 main sections of the textbooks the parts titled as "conversation" and "getting start" confirmed the highest occurrence of compliments. Figure number 2 states that the expressions of annoyance or disapproval complaint strategy occurred many times in the textbook series. The provided information answers the second research question about how frequently compliment speech was used in the series according to each selected classification.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 refer to the frequencies of complaint and compliment speech acts and responds to the third research question as to a statistically significant

difference in the proportion of speech acts in the textbooks. After the application of chi-square tests the results point to the fact that the section marked as conversation in the book has the most significant frequency of complaint and compliment speech acts.

The concluding part of the article compares the findings of the research with other authors' surveys and finds them similar to analysis of textbooks' content. Here the authors claim the inequality of complaint and compliment speech acts distribution in the *Touchstone* series as a negative feature that may affect learners' acquisition of English language. They summarize the results and layout the frequency of these speech acts within the structure of textbooks.

Example 4

The last research paper showing the usage of content analysis is called: *Micro and Macro Content Analysis of English Textbook Entitled "Mosaic One Listening and Speaking (Student's Book)" In The Light of Communicative Competence*. It was written by Al-Mashaqba and published in 2017. This research paper's idea was to investigate how selected textbook content combines the listening and speaking lessons with the principles and features of communicative competence. Here the analysis is applied at a macro and micro level following 7 criteria of communicative competence in textbooks. The whole investigation is in the quantitative mode expressing results in percentage. The reviewed paper discusses its survey on 7 pages.

The introductory part first implies the situation whereby the English language is becoming a universal language and then it stresses the importance of learning it for communicative proficiency. The theoretical framework continues with the justification of content analysis for textbook inquiry. Several definitions further explain the concept of communicative competence and underline the necessity of cooperation and interconnection between the developers of EFL curriculum and the particular textbook and further the teaching practice in classrooms. In regard to this situation it is important to design a syllabus so that it conjoins usage of the target language in class with real life situations and language spoken by native speakers. The author states 3 main research questions that are linked to the investigation of listening and speaking lessons within a textbook as they relate to the principles of communicative language teaching.

As for the selection of the textbook material for analysis of the content Al-Mashaqba does not state deep reasoning why he chose this particular book, the information given is: "The content analysis is limited to the English textbook entitled *Mosaic One - Listening and Speaking* which is being taught at the public university in KSA in the academic year 2016/2017". (2017, p. 43)

More information is provided about the implementation of CA when the researcher states that the following categories assisted when checking textbook items:

1. Availability of all elements of communicative competence in the textbook.
2. Availability of techniques to engage learners in using language for meaningful purposes.
3. Availability of active modes of activities for learning to negotiate meaning.
4. Availability of the components of grammatical competence.
5. Availability of the components of sociolinguistic competence.
6. Availability of the components of discourse competence.
7. Availability of the components of strategic competence.

Furthermore in the literary review the author claims that Weber's 6 steps were considered when carrying out the analysis. To secure the reliability of the analysis the author repeated the method procedure a week later after the content of student's book was inspected for the first time. The consistency was really high (0.95).

As stated earlier the analysis had its macro and micro level. In the macro level the author presents a table of the overall fulfillment of the textbook according to 7 given categories. The fulfillment is expressed as a percentage. It is evident that the elements of communicative competence are 100% covered as well as the components of sociolinguistic and discourse competence. The lowest presence in the textbook involved the components of strategic competence at only 50%.

As for the micro level of analysis the author describes the strengths and weaknesses of the materials. There are 5 specified strengths, and namely that materials: a) meet students' level and interest b) are appropriate in sequence c) are full of practice and production activities d) meet principles of communicative language teaching and e) encourage negotiation of meaning. With each strength the author places a comment regarding how it was spotted in the *Mosaic*. Among the weaknesses Al-Mashaqba sees the situation that only half of the units of the textbook: "contain lessons on speaker's capability to get use of their verbal and nonverbal codes to recompense for communication problems such as using synonyms, the use of physical gestures to express the meaning, seeking for clarification, raise the sound in order to be heard, and pretending understanding in order to listen for context evidences". The second negative feature spotted was that the book does not put much emphasis on integration of all 4 skills (2017, p. 46).

In the conclusion the author refers to the research questions and states that the analyzed textbook covered 84% of communicative competence criteria for a good EFL textbook. It adopts a task-based approach with opportunities to practice functional language, which means this material guides learners to use English in

activities linked to actual life. It is recommended that more textbooks should be analyzed to find which materials are the best fit for learners of English in Saudi Arabia.

Summary

In this chapter content analysis is discussed from the perspective of its application. As earlier stated the focus was on the implementation inside already published research papers from several journals that deal with English language pedagogy research. The analysis of sample articles has shown possible options available for use by researchers wishing to use CA. In Scope and Structure some questions of interest were stated. The responses are presented in the following lines.

Regarding the topics to which CA was of assistance, it can be summed up that this methodology is suitable to any form of written data and so to any topics that deal with written data or spoken word that could be transcribed. The previous definitions state that it is a systematic process to inspect text and bring relevant and objective answers to stated problems. The articles have shown that the content of texts or transcripts of online weblogs, interviews, observations or textbook materials can be analyzed in this manner. The themes of analyzed material were all connected to language pedagogy and they either dealt with the influence on teachers or the impact on the learning process therefore on the learner. These issues were linked to the educational environment. Content analysis provides real information, attitudes and opinions connected to topics of second language education.

Secondly it is evident that the CA method has quite a range of options for use. The authors have applied it in both qualitative and quantitative surveys. The descriptions show that sometimes it is important to use content analysis as another method to evaluate gathered results brought in by other research tools as in triangulation or as an independent research method.

The steps that are typical for CA and were already debated in the previous paragraphs were minimally explained in certain research papers. This fact may be due to the limited amount of data available with which to debate methods and discussion findings. Each of the analyzed papers followed these steps if one is considering them in a broader sense. Each author stated the research questions directly, correspondingly selected respondents or samples, designed the categories, processed the analysis and lastly stated conclusions. None of the mentioned authors provided a coding matrix as part of the closing presentation so from this aspect there is something lacking.

It is clear that some results and findings in the discussed papers were expressed in a quantitative manner using percentage or frequency. Otherwise the

data was described and some parts from original respondents or samples were claimed as proof of evidence. Some surveys even applied graphs and tables for easy reference to the evidence of findings. One important feature that can be clearly seen in these research papers is that some of the authors did not give direct responses to selected questions but rather provided a discussion of findings instead. Within the discussion they summarized their findings, commented on them and even critically compared them to other sources of research.

In conclusion it has to be stated that content analysis is a strongly grounded methodology that has its place within contemporary research of English language education. Along with some boundaries it has many benefits when compared to other research tools. All in all it is a suitable tool that researchers can rely on when its principles are respected. To have quality data authors need to pay attention to validity and reliability.

References

- AL-AJMI, S. (2016). Weblogs as Tools for Encouraging Self-Reflection and Peer Feedback among Student Teachers. *English Language and Literary Studies*, 6(2), 15-35. DOI:10.5539/ells.v6n2p15
- AL-MASHAQBA, H. (2017). Micro and Macro Content Analysis of English Textbook Entitled "Mosaic One Listening and Speaking (Student's Book)" in the Light of Communicative Competence. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(2), 41-47. DOI: 10.7575/aiac.all.v.8n.2p.41
- ATMOWARDOYO, H. (2018). Research Methods in TEFL Studies: Descriptive Research, Case Study, Error Analysis, and R & D. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(1), 197-204. DOI: 10.17507/jltr.0901.25
- COHEN, L., MANION, L., & MORRISON, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. Routledge.
- COHEN, L., MANION, L., & MORRISON, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education*. 7th ed. Routledge.
- JALILIAN, M., & ROOHANI, A. (2016). Evaluating Speech Acts in ELT Textbooks: The Case of Compliments and Complaints in the *Touchstone Series*. *Research in English Language Pedagogy*, 4(1), 101-114.
- KRIPPENDORFF, K. (2004). *Content Analysis an Introduction to its Methodology*. California: Sage Publications.
- MAYRING, P. (2000). Qualitative Content Analysis [28 paragraphs]. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 1(2), Art. 20. Available at: <http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/1089/2385>.
- MACNAMARA, J. (2005). Media content analysis: Its issues; benefits and best practice methodology. *Asia Pacific Public Relations Journal*, 6(1), 1-34.

- Merriam-Webster Dictionary*. (2018). Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/content%20analysis>
- NEUENDORF, K. (2002). *The Content Analysis Guidebook*. London: Sage Publications.
- NUNAN, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- POKRIVČAKOVA, S. (2012). Latest Developments in Foreign Language Education Research in Slovakia. In Pokrivčáková, S. et al., *Research in Foreign Language Education*(p. 9 - 28).Brno: MSD.
- SAHIN, I., &YILDIRIM, A. (2016). Transforming professional learning into practice. *ELT Journal*, 70(3), 241-252. DOI: 10.1093/eltccv070
- SANDOROVA, Z. (2014). Content Analysis as a Research Method in Investigating the Cultural Components in Foreign Language Textbooks. *Journal of Language and Cultural Education*, 2(1), 95-128.
- The Free Dictionary*. (2018) Available at: <https://www.thefreedictionary.com/content+analysis>
- UR, P. (2014). Where do we go from here? Method and pedagogy in language teaching. *ExELL*, 2(1), 3-11. DOI: 10.1515/exell-2016-0001

Experiment in English Language Teaching Research

Petra Hitková

Introduction

There is no single masterclass for planning research. Research design is governed by the notion of 'being appropriate for its purpose'. The purposes of the research determine the methodology and design of the research. If the purpose of the research is to evaluate the effects of a specific intervention then an **experimental** or action research model are appropriate, using some form of stratified sample. That said, it is possible to identify a set of issues that researchers need to address, regardless of the specifics of their research. This chapter addresses the set of issues, to indicate those matters that need to be addressed in practice so that an area of experimental research can become practicable and feasible. This chapter indicates how experimental research might be operationalised, i.e. how a general set of research aims and purposes can be transformed into a practical, researchable topic.

In the second half, this chapter also focuses on an experiment that was carried out to prove whether using narrative techniques while telling or reading stories is an effective tool in foreign language teaching. Stories can provide a highly motivating, engaging and realistic source of genuine language interaction in the classroom. The main aim of the experiment discussed here, was to integrate storytelling into English lessons at six primary classrooms in the Bratislava region in Slovakia, and thus be able to determine whether it helps improve children's English communicative competence. The chapter briefly clarifies the theoretical background of the problem. Furthermore, it describes the experiment which was carried out over a period of one school year on a sample of 176 third grade primary school pupils in Slovakia, confirming the positive impact that storytelling has on children's foreign language skills. New empirical evidence obtained from the results of the experiment clearly indicate that using storytelling improves the effectiveness of the educational process in primary education and thus should be used by language teachers on a more regular basis.

1 Experiment in education research

Conducting an experiment in education has never been considered an easy task. The researchers have to take into account 'a human factor', thus they need to determine not only the appropriate strategy, but also focus on the sample and the school environment. One of the first authors who described in detail what an experiment in education with young learners looked like, was Sybil Marshall in her book "An Experiment in Education" (1963). For it was that first experiment that had not only antedated the Plowden Committee's 1966 report on primary education, it was also one of the key texts in creating the climate for a positive response to the "progressive" ideas it recommended.

More modern, yet thoroughly explained, information on conducting an experiment in education has been published by Gavora (2008, p.153-162). Offering researchers an overview of experiment design, sample selection as well as data analysis, his chapter on Experiment is a must-read for new researchers.

The elements of experimental research design

Obviously, the set of issues that constitute a framework for planning research will need to be interpreted differently for different styles of research, nevertheless it is useful to indicate what those issues might be (see below). According to Cohen (2006), a possible sequence of consideration is as follows:

- A clear statement of the problem/need that has given rise to the research.
- Constraints on the research (e.g. access, time, people, politics).
- The general aims and purposes of the research.
- The intended outcomes of the research: what the research will do and what is the 'deliverable' outcome.
- How to operationalise research aims and purposes.
- Generating research questions (specific, concrete questions to which concrete answers can be given) and hypotheses (if appropriate).
- The focus of the research.
- Identifying the priorities for the research and setting them in order.
- Approaching the research design.
- Research methodology (approaches and research styles, e.g. survey; experimental; ethnographic/naturalistic; longitudinal; cross-sectional; historical; correlational; *ex post facto*).
- Ethical issues and ownership of the research (e.g. informed consent; overt and covert research; anonymity; confidentiality; non-traceability; non-maleficence; beneficence; right to refuse/withdraw; respondent validation; research subjects; social responsibility; honesty and deception).
- Defining the research: who is the researcher; researching one's own institution; power and interests; advantage; insider and outsider research.

- Audiences of the research.
- Instrumentation, e.g. questionnaires; interviews; observation; tests; field notes; accounts; documents; personal constructs; role-play.
- Sampling: size/access/representativeness; type: probability: random, systematic, stratified, cluster, stage, multi-phase; non-probability: convenience, quota, purposive, dimensional, snowball.
- Piloting: technical matters: clarity, layout and appearance, timing, length, threat, ease/difficulty, intrusiveness; questions: validity, elimination of ambiguities, types of questions (e.g. multiple choice, open-ended, closed), response categories, identifying redundancies; pre-piloting: generating categories, grouping and classification.
- Time frames and sequence (what will happen, when and with whom).
- Required resources.
- Validity: construct; content; concurrent; face; ecological; internal; external.
- Reliability: consistency (replicability); equivalence (inter-rater, equivalent forms), predictability; precision; accuracy; honesty; authenticity; richness; dependability; depth; overcoming Hawthorne and halo effects; triangulation: time; space; theoretical; investigator; instruments.
- Data analysis.
- Verifying and validating the data.
- Reporting and writing up the research.

Orienting decisions

Decisions in this field are strategic; they set the general nature of the research, and there are several questions that researchers may need to consider:

- Who wants the research?
- Who will receive the research/who is it for?
- Who are the possible/likely audiences of the research?
- What powers do the recipients of the research have?
- What are the general aims and purposes of the research?
- What are the main priorities for and constraints on the research?
- Is access realistic?
- What are the time scales and time frames of the research?
- Who will own the research?
- At what point will the ownership of the research pass from the participants to the researcher and from the researcher to the recipients of the research?
- Who owns the data?
- What ethical issues are to be faced in undertaking the research?

- What resources (e.g. physical, material, temporal, human, administrative) are required for the research?

It can be seen that decisions here establish some key parameters of the research, including some political decisions (for example, on ownership and on the power of the recipients to take action on the basis of the research). At this stage the overall feasibility of the research will be addressed.

Research design and methodology

If the preceding orienting decisions are strategic then decisions in this field are tactical; they establish the practicalities of the research, assuming that, generally, it is feasible (i.e. that the orienting decisions have been taken). Decisions here include addressing such questions as:

- What are the specific purposes of the research?
- How are the general research purposes and aims operationalised into specific research questions?
- What are the specific research questions?
- What needs to be the focus of the research in order to answer the research questions?
- What is the main methodology of the research (e.g. an experiment, a case study, a piece of action research etc.)?
- How will validity and reliability be addressed?
- What kinds of data are required?
- From whom will data be acquired (i.e. sampling)?
- Where else will data be available (e.g. documentary sources)?
- How will the data be gathered (i.e. instrumentation)?
- Who will undertake the research?

The essential feature of experimental research is that investigators deliberately control and manipulate the conditions which determine the events in which they are interested, introduce an intervention and measure the difference that it makes. An experiment involves making a change in the value of one variable – called the independent variable – and observing the effect of that change on another variable – called the dependent variable. Using a fixed design, experimental research can be confirmatory, seeking to support or not to support a null hypothesis, or exploratory, discovering the effects of certain variables. An independent variable is the input variable, whereas the dependent variable is the outcome variable – the result; for example, Kgaile and Morrison (2006) indicate seven independent variables that have an effect on the result (the effectiveness of the school):

- Development planning
- Parents and community

- Teaching and learning
- Professional development
- Management Leadership
- Culture and climate

In an experiment, the post-test measures the dependent variable, which are isolated and controlled carefully. Imagine that we have been transported to a laboratory to investigate the properties of a new wonder-fertilizer that farmers could use on their cereal crops, let us say wheat (Morrison, 1993, p. 44–5). The scientist would take the bag of wheat seed and randomly split it into two equal parts. One part would be grown under normal existing conditions – controlled and measured amounts of soil, warmth, water and light and no other factors. This would be called the control group. The other part would be grown under the same conditions – the same controlled and measured amounts of soil, warmth, water and light as the control group, but, additionally, the new wonder fertilizer. Then, four months later, the two groups are examined and their growth measured. The control group has grown half a metre and each ear of wheat is in place but the seeds are small. The experimental group, by contrast, has grown half a metre as well but has significantly more seeds on each ear, the seeds are larger, fuller and more robust. The scientist concludes that, because both groups came into contact with nothing other than measured amounts of soil, warmth, water and light, then it could not have been anything else but the new wonder-fertilizer that caused the experimental group to flourish so well. The key factors in the experiment were the following:

- the random allocation of the whole bag of wheat into two matched groups (the control and the experimental group), involving the initial measurement of the size of the wheat to ensure that it was the same for both groups (i.e. the pre-test)
- the identification of key variables (soil, warmth, water, and light)
- the control of the key variables (the same amounts to each group)
- the exclusion of any other variables
- the giving of the special treatment (the intervention) to the experimental group while
- holding every other variable constant for the two groups
- the final measurement of yield and growth to compare the control and experimental groups and to look at differences from the pre-test results (the post-test)
- the comparison of one group with another
- the stage of generalisation – that this new wonder-fertilizer improves yield and growth under a given set of conditions.

This model, premised on notions of isolation and control of variables in order to establish causality, may be appropriate for a laboratory, though whether, in fact, a social situation either ever could become the antiseptic, artificial world of the laboratory or should become such a world is both an empirical and a moral question respectively.

Procedures in conducting experimental research

An experimental investigation must follow a set of logical procedures. Those that we now enumerate, however, should be treated with some circumspection. It is extraordinarily difficult to lay down clear-cut rules as guides to experimental research. At best, we can identify an ideal route to be followed, knowing full well that educational research rarely proceeds in such a systematic fashion.

1. First, researchers must identify and define the research problem as precisely as possible, always supposing that the problem is amenable to experimental methods.
2. Researchers must formulate hypotheses that they wish to test. This involves making predictions about relationships between specific variables and at the same time making decisions about other variables that are to be excluded from the experiment by means of controls.
3. Researchers must select appropriate levels at which to test the independent variables. By way of example, suppose an educational psychologist wishes to find out whether longer or shorter periods of reading make for reading attainment in school settings.
4. Researchers must decide which kind of experiment they will adopt.
5. In planning the design of the experiment, researchers must take account of the population to which they wish to generalise their results. This involves making decisions over sample sizes and sampling methods. Sampling decisions are bound up with questions of funds, staffing and the amount of time available for experimentation.
6. With problems of validity in mind, researchers must select instruments, choose tests and decide upon appropriate methods of analysis.
7. Before embarking upon the actual experiment, researchers must pilot test the experimental procedures to identify possible snags in connection with any aspect of the investigation. This is of crucial importance.
8. During the experiment itself, researchers must endeavour to follow tested and agreed-on procedures to the letter. The standardisation of instructions, the exact timing of experimental sequences, the meticulous recording and checking of observations – these are the hallmark of the competent researcher.

With their data collected, researchers face the most important part of the whole enterprise. Processing data, analysing results and drafting reports are all extremely demanding activities, both in intellectual effort and time.

Conduct of the experiment

Cohen (2007) suggests a ten-step model for the conduct of the experiment:

1. Identify the purpose of the experiment.
2. Select the relevant variables.
3. Specify the level(s) of the intervention (e.g. low, medium, high intervention).
4. Control the experimental conditions and environment.
5. Select the appropriate experimental design.
6. Administer the pre-test.
7. Assign the participants to the group(s).
8. Conduct the intervention.
9. Conduct the post-test.
10. Analyse the results.

The sequence of steps 6 and 7 can be reversed; the intention in putting them in the present sequence is to ensure that the two groups are randomly allocated and matched. In experiments and fixed designs, data are aggregated rather than related to specific individuals, and data look for averages, the range of results, and their variation. In calculating differences or similarity between groups at the stages of the pre-test and the post-test, the t-test for independent samples is often used.

2 Experimental research in education conducted in Slovakia: Using Stories to Develop Foreign Language Skills in Primary Classroom

2.1 Teaching English to Young Learners in Slovakia

Foreign language education in Slovakia has gone through significant changes recently. In 2007, the New Conception of Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages at Primary and Secondary Schools was approved by the Slovak government. First, foreign language is now compulsory for all children from grade three of primary school and another foreign language from grade six of primary school. The main aim of the New Conception is to make foreign language teaching and learning in Slovakia more effective. The Slovak Government had to tackle several problems connected with the actual implementation of the New Conception. Aside from approving the course books and materials suitable for young learners, there was also the necessity to train enough teachers who would be qualified to teach English as a foreign language to young learners in order to meet the increased demand.

When it comes to second or foreign language teaching, the behaviouristic, teacher-centred methods have not proven to be sufficiently effective with young learners. In Slovakia, most of the children who have been learning English at primary school for three, four or five years are usually able to translate basic vocabulary, recite a poem or sing a song in English and say a few simple sentences. Very few of them actually understand the natural flow of the English language, especially if they talk to a native speaker. Since the Slovak language is used at home and in their playground, the need for English is not felt urgently; consequently there is lack of motivation.

For several decades, the use of storytelling together with language games and TPR activities, has been considered, among the English language teaching community, one of the most effective ways to teach English to young learners. In Slovakia, however, there is still a number of teachers who prefer to use the more traditional - behaviouristic, teacher-centred methods. These methods include following a course book - word for word, grammar explanations, vocabulary drills, repeating whole sentences after the teacher, correcting every mistake that children make, using written tests focusing on vocabulary, spelling and grammar and, in some cases, translation. In some young learner classes we observed that the TPR (Total Physical Response) was not used at all. Children had to stay in their places the whole lesson; any movement was strongly discouraged.

In September 2010, we conducted a mini-survey at one primary school in Bratislava which included all 47 pupils attending the third grade. The aim of the mini-survey was to compare the pupils' relationship to the English language with their relationship to other subjects taught in the third grade. The results show that only 6.4% of the children ticked English as their favourite subject, thus an alarming 19% thought English was a hard or a very hard subject.

2.2 Theoretical background

Using narrative techniques in teaching English as a foreign or second language is based on **The Natural Approach**. This approach was described by Terrell a Krashen (1995). The natural approach is a language teaching method based on observation and interpretation of how learners acquire both native and foreign languages in informal settings. The aim is to use the target language in communicative situations without references to the mother tongue and without grammatical analysis. The Natural Approach makes a distinction between language acquisition and language learning. Krashen defines acquisition as, "unconscious process that involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 181). Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process in which rules of a language are developed; this

process only occurs through formal teaching which shouldn't be used with young learners. The Natural Approach is trying to bring the 'real world' into the classroom with the help of visual teaching aids, pictures, photographs and authentic texts (picture books, maps, stories, etc.). Games are also applied as means of understandable input leading to reaching the goal - the learners ability to function in the target language. The learner's role changes and develops during a natural approach course because there are various stages the learner has to go through:

- 1) The first stage is the **pre-production stage** where the learner is not forced to respond orally and is allowed to decide when to start speaking.
- 2) The next stage, the **early-production stage**, fosters short answers and the student has to respond to simple questions and to use fixed conversational patterns.
- 3) In the **speech-emergent stage** the use of complex utterances emerges, for example in role plays or games.

Another important role of the language acquirer is the role of "a processor of comprehensible input [who] is challenged by input that is slightly beyond his or her current level of competence and is able to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extra linguistic information." (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 186). The Natural Approach is designed to help beginners become intermediates (level A1, A2 according to CEFR).

Part of the Natural approach is the **Input** hypothesis. Krashen (1995) explains how the learner acquires a new language. In other words, this hypothesis is Krashen's explanation of how language acquisition takes place. According to the Input hypothesis, learners improve and progress along the 'natural order' when they receive language input that is one step beyond their current level of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at level 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to *comprehensible input* o level 'i + 1'. Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that *natural communicative input* is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some 'i + 1' input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence. The Input Hypothesis bears a slight resemblance to Vygotsky's *Zone of proximal development*.

Jensen, the author of *Brain-based learning* (1996), explains how neuroscience and brain research can influence learning. According to him: "Brain-Based Education is the purposeful engagement of strategies based on principles derived from solid scientific research". The research based on brain scans which is described in Jensen's book has proven that pupils and students acquire more information and can concentrate better if they are intrinsically motivated, happy

and satisfied. Another important factor is for the learning to take place in a threat-free environment. According to Jensen, the activities which prove to be most affective are those during which pupils are unaware of being taught or educated. When it comes to learning languages, Jensen (1996, p. 198) credits Krashen's and Terrell's Natural Approach for one of the best ways to develop deeper meaning in learners. He especially highlights Krashen's differentiation between learning and acquisition explaining that deeper meaning (so important for language learning) is best acquired by meaningful acquisition and not by classroom learning.

2.3 Why stories?

Stories can provide a highly motivating, engaging and realistic source of genuine language interaction in the classroom. During the experimental part of our research, we read picture books to children but also tell them rhymes and short stories in English language. The English speaking world has always had a long tradition of storytelling in schools libraries, etc. Every time an author writes a book, the publisher organises a storytelling session for readers where a part of the book is read by the author him/herself. In Slovakia, the topic of storytelling was not been given much attention until very recently. In the last few years, storytelling has become a part of several studies conducted in Slovakia. P. Rankov and P. Valček in their Research of the current state and level of reading skills in Slovakia entitled "Čítanie 2008" (Reading 2008), interpret the decrease of reading as a challenge for teachers of language and literature. They stress the positive influence that storytelling has on children's attitude to reading and literature in general. "Our research has shown that people who were read to when they were young turn up to be active readers (higher than average) in their adulthood – 7.3% of them read fiction books daily, 34.1% read at least once a week, and 27.5% don't read fiction at all. If children are not being read to at all, their relationship to reading is much harder to build. Only 1.8% of the people in the group that were not being read to in their childhood, read fiction daily, 16.3% of them read at least once a week and 50.5% don't read fiction at all." (Rankov & Valček, 2008).

Rušňák (2008) deals with modern stories and their reception with the young learners. He also stresses the role of rhythm and rhyme in teaching language and literature. The results of his research show the importance of teachers reading aloud to children. Rusňák agrees with the interpretation of the nation-wide study "Čítanie 2005" (Reading 2005) and the list of suggested themes for selecting literature for young learners. The idea is that in order to bring non-reading children to like literature, the teachers should select stories full of adventure and/or mystery.

Reading aloud to children and the positive impact it has on children is described by Tamášová (2008) in a publication co-written by several authors

entitled "Ako rozvíjať porozumenie textu u žiaka?" (How to improve the pupil's understanding of texts). She highlights storytelling as a possible tool for adults to show children that reading can be amusing and fun. One can only agree with her statement that picture books not only arouse children's curiosity but also stimulate language development and improve listening skills.

We believe that using picture books in foreign language education not only arouse children's curiosity and thus motivate children intrinsically, but also help children understand simple foreign language texts. We assume that reading English picture books to children will not only improve their listening skills but also help them acquire new vocabulary in a natural way.

Three of the above mentioned authors - Tamášová (2008), Krashen (2004) and Jensen (1996) - came to the same conclusion about how children learn to understand new text in both their mother tongue and the foreign language. Even though their conclusions were based on three different fields - children's psychology, learning theories and neuroscience, they all agreed on the following natural order:

- 1) children listen and understand
- 2) children start speaking
- 3) children start reading and writing

They also agree in the assumption that any other method is unnatural and thus less effective.

2.4 Experimental Research

The aim of the experimental research

The main aim of the research is to integrate storytelling into English lessons at six primary schools in Slovakia and thus be able to determine whether it helps improve pupil's English language communicative competence.

Sample

176 young learners

- *88 young learners in the experimental group*
- *88 young learners in the control group*
- *6 primary schools*
- *6 experimental and 6 control groups*

Age: 8 - 9 years old

3rd grade of primary school

min. 1 year of English language tuition prior to experiment

Organisation of the experiment

Experimental group:

177 lessons of English language tuition a week

- 1 English lesson with storytelling
- 2 English lessons with a coursebook

Control group

3 lessons of English language tuition a week

- 3 English lessons with a coursebook

2.5 Research questions and hypotheses

Research question 1:

How does the use of storytelling in English language teaching influence young learners' listening skills?

- H1.1: The *Listening Comprehension* will significantly improve in the experimental groups who will be read to compared to the pupils who will have ordinary English lessons based on the national curriculum.
- H1.2: The *Listening Comprehension* will significantly improve in the experimental groups when compared with their listening skill pre-test results.

Research question 2:

How does the use of storytelling in English language teaching influence young learners' English language communicative competence?

- H2.1: The *English language communicative competence* will significantly improve in the experimental groups who will be read to compared to the pupils who will have ordinary English lessons based on the national curriculum.
- H2.2: The *English language communicative competence* will significantly improve in the experimental groups when compared with their listening skill pre-test results.

2.6 Instruments and methods for measurement

In the pilot examination, which took place in May and June 2010, we used storytelling in 20 different classes at seven elementary schools in Bratislava and Senec. We read stories to pupils in all four primary grades. Different narrative techniques, several picture books and language games and activities were tried and tested against the selection criteria.

The sample of twelve classes of third-grade pupils was selected at five different schools in Bratislava and Senec. All the pupils were eight or nine years old at the beginning of the experiment, attending the third grade at one of the 5 selected primary schools. None of the children were complete beginners and we also excluded any children who were bilingual by birth. We divided them into six experimental and six control groups.

The research started in September 2010 and will have finished by the end of June 2011. Both the control and the experimental groups have at least 3 English lessons per week. It was decided to read stories aloud once a week to the children in the experimental groups during their English lessons. The control groups are not to hear any stories but are to continue with their ordinary English lessons based on the national curriculum. All the groups are using course books and activity books approved by the Slovak Ministry of Education.

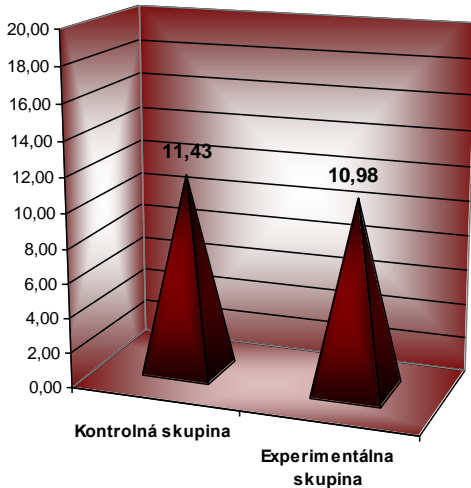
In September 2010, the children in both the experimental and the control groups were given a Cambridge Young Learners English Starters Test X of listening comprehension, and reading and writing comprehension, which also shows the pupils' knowledge of vocabulary and their ability to use it. At the end of the project, in June 2011, they were given a Cambridge Young Learners English Starters Test Y. The comparison of the results indicated the improvement the pupils had made by the end of June and thus it enabled us to compare the improvement of the experimental with that of the control groups.

Tools used for testing the pupils:

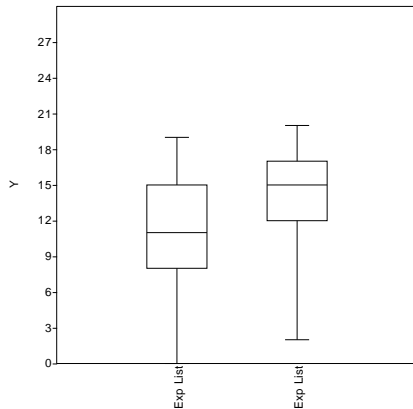
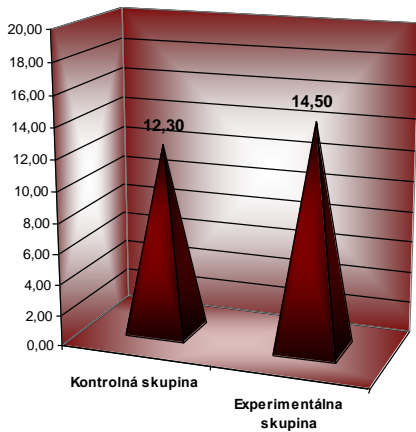
- Pre-test: First week of school year
- Post-test: Last week of school year
- Tools:
 - Standardised Cambridge Young Learners Tests (listening, reading and vocabulary)
 - Standardised Questionnaire for depicting students' attitude toward school subjects (V. Hrabal, 1988)

2.7 Results of the experiment

H1.1 and H1.2: Listening comprehension

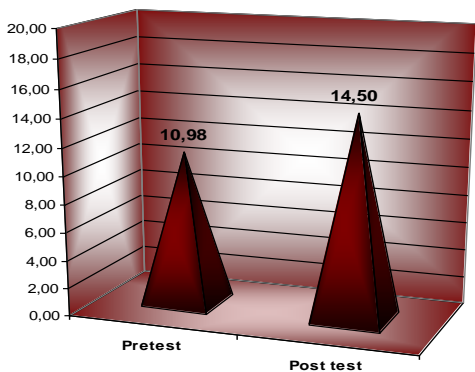


Listening comprehension pre-test: control group vs. experimental group



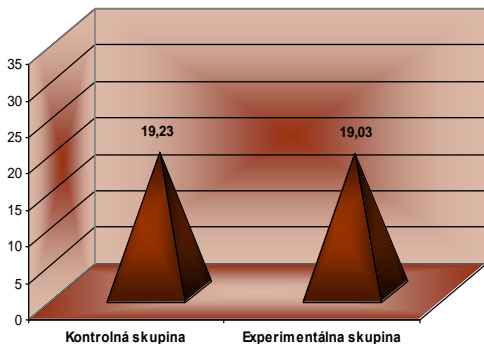
Listening comprehension post-test: control group vs. experimental group

Samples were tested through Welch t-test. Distribution was normal for both samples, t-test showed: $p < 0.001$ which is highly significant.

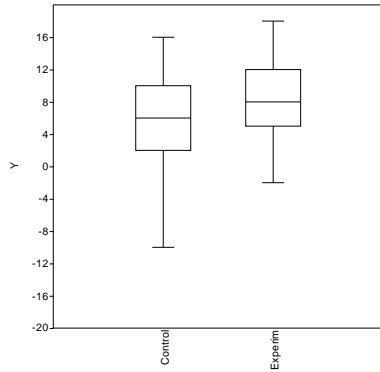
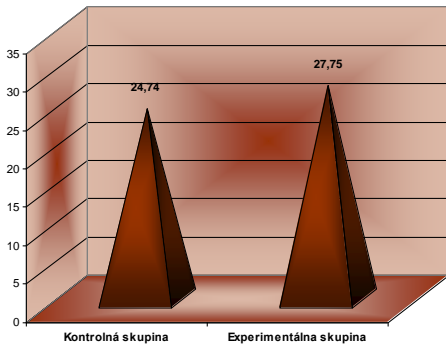


Experimental group: Listening comprehension pre-test vs. post-test
Due to inconsistent distribution, Wilcoxon's non-parametric pair test was used.

H2.1 and H2.2 English language communicative competence

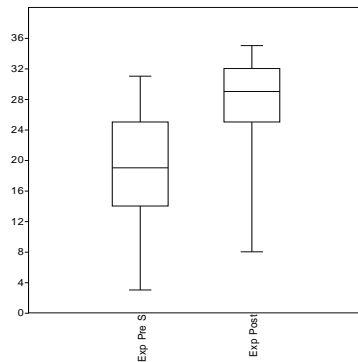
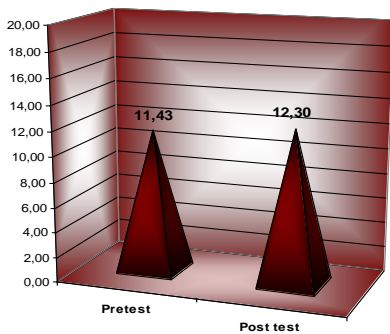


English language communicative competence pre-test: control group vs. experimental group



English language communicative competence post-test: control group vs. experimental group

Samples were tested through Welch t-test. Distribution was normal for both samples, t-test showed: $p < 0.001$ which is highly significant.



Control group: Listening comprehension pre-test vs. post test

Due to inconsistent distribution, Wilcoxon's non-parametric pair test was used. It showed that $p < 0.001$ which is highly significant.

Based on the results all 4 hypotheses were confirmed. The data support the hypothesis stating that using storytelling while teaching English to young learners helps improve pupils' listening skills as well as their English language

communicative competence. Hence storytelling improves the effectiveness of teaching English as a foreign language to young learners.

2.8 Summary

To conclude, conducting experiment is considered a highly demanding method of research in education. It requires an overall strategy, detailed planning, precise realisation, selection of an appropriate sample and data analysis carried out using the appropriate testing tools. The results, however, can reveal the most significant findings which are fundamental for any field within education. Therefore, carrying out experiments is an essential tool for any breakthrough ideas to see the light of day in preschool, primary school, secondary school or institutions of further education. In the experiment thoroughly described in this chapter, some of the methods still preferred by the English language teachers in Slovakia were challenged by the innovative methods used by the researchers directly in the primary classrooms. The results of the experiment which support the hypotheses are leading the way for changes in the teaching strategy.

References

- COHEN, L., MANION, L. & MORRISON, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. London: Routledge.
- GAVORA, P. (2008). *Úvod do pedagogického výskumu*. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského.
- JENSEN, E. (1996). *Brain-Based Learning*. Del Mar: Turning Point Publishing.
- KGAIL, A.P. & MORRISON, K.R.B. (2006). Measuring and targeting internal conditions for school effectiveness in the Free State of South Africa. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 34(1), 47–68.
- KRASHEN, S. D. & TERRELL, T.D. (1995). *The Natural Approach*. Hemel Hempstead: Phoenix ELT.
- LOJOVÁ, G. (2005). *Individuálne osobitosti pri učení sa cudzích jazykov*. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského.
- MARSHALL, S.B. (1963). *An Experiment in Education*. Cambridge: CUP.
- MORRISON, K. R. B. (1993). *Planning and Accomplishing School-Centred Evaluation*. Dereham, UK: Peter Francis.
- RANKOV, P. & VALČEK, P. (2008). *Čítanie 2008. Výskum súčasného stavu a úrovne čítania v SR*. Bratislava: Literárne informačné centrum.
- RICHARDS, J. C. & RODGERS, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: CUP.
- RUSŇÁK, R. (2008). *Moderná rozprávka a jej detská recepcia*. Prešov: Prešovská univerzita.

Research in Teaching English Pronunciation

Hana Vančová

Teaching and researching English pronunciation is a complex process requiring a good knowledge of theoretical pronunciation principles and practical use of English sounds, as well as a background in the current trends in language teaching investigation, research topics and methods used to extend the conventional understanding of the issues regarding pronunciation teaching. The aim of this chapter is to discuss the current state of research in teaching English pronunciation, supported by an overview of 15 research papers published in recent years.

Introduction

To examine the acoustic aspect of language, advanced technology and software were developed; however, the ultimate strategies for teaching English pronunciation had not been formulated, that created space for research.

Teaching English pronunciation (also referred to as training, instruction, etc.) is characteristic with the necessity to introduce a specific set of sounds and pronunciation features differing from phonetic inventories of other languages. For these purposes, teachers must be aware of the aforementioned specifics and must be competent and consistent in their systematic transfer to their learners.

Phakiti (2014, p. 4) characterises academic research in general “as an intellectual act to discover new facts or knowledge by attempting to go beyond existing knowledge”. Researchers do it by planned and systematic use of available research tools and methods to enhance current practices in any sphere of life, or in this case, in teaching pronunciation. Accordingly, Phakiti (ibid) also lists the aims of language learning research – specific conditions of language learning and its use, description of language features being taught, the ways individuals and groups develop their language skills, predict the following stages of their language development, testing and assessment of learners and language materials, and the application of the knowledge in classroom. To introduce current research trends in pronunciation teaching, is worth reminding, that quantitative research generally identifies the relationship between variables by using measurement,

numbers and statistics. Research conditions are relatively controlled and the results are relatively objective. Typical quantitative methods are experiments, interviews, surveys, tests, etc.

Qualitative research strives to understand and explain the research questions. Qualitative research concentrates on the unique features of analysed subjects in a specific context in their complexity; therefore the degree of generalisation is relatively low. Researchers typically do not control natural research conditions and can be more subjective in conclusions. Typical qualitative methods are observations, case studies, content analysis, etc.

The following sections of this paper will prove that purely quantitative or qualitative research methods are rarely used, proving that mixed-method research is very popular. The popularity of the mixed-method research has been growing and the researches usually apply complementing quantitative and qualitative methods.

Kothari (2004, p. 7) states, that research methods and techniques can be interchangeable in practical research, however, methods are characterised as “all those methods/techniques that are used for conduction of research”. Research techniques are instruments and behaviours utilised during research. Kothari (ibid) divides research methods into three groups:

- methods for data collection,
- statistical techniques calculating the relationship between the data,
- methods for establishing accuracy of the results.

1 Publications on English Pronunciation teaching research

The overview is based on the collection of 15 research papers published between 2012 and 2017 in relevant scientific journals or conference proceedings indexed in the Web of Science or Scopus databases. The papers included in this study were identified on the basis of a database search for key words “pronunciation” and “ELT” (English language teaching). From the results, the papers presenting methods and results of an original research were selected for the purpose of this study. Although the number of quality research papers found and meeting these criteria was significantly higher, the remaining research studies were eliminated from further analysis due to their similarity in approaches or topics to research studies presented below.

The presented research studies come from journals (in alphabetic order) *Education Sciences: Theory & Practice*, *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *JELF*, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *Komunikacie*, *Research in Language*, *Studies of Second Language Acquisition* and a substantial number of studies were published in *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, that publishes valuable conference papers from such conferences as *Akdeniz Language Studies*

Conference 2012, 2nd GLOBAL CONFERENCE on LINGUISTICS and FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING, LINELT-2014, Dubai, United Arab Emirates; GlobELT: An International Conference on Teaching and Learning English as an Additional Language, Antalya – Turkey, PSU-USM International Conference on Humanities and Social Sciences, Teaching and Educational Leadership, Teaching English with Technology, WCES 2012, WCLTA 201 or 5th World Conference on Learning. This list of academic journals publishing scientific papers and conference proceedings on research of teaching English pronunciation is by no means complete; however, it presents a good starting point for all researchers in this field of scientific exploration. In terms of book publications, in recent years collective works such as *Recent Research in Second Language Phonetics/Phonology: Perception and Production* edited by Watkins, Rauber and Baptista (2009) or *Teaching and Researching the Pronunciation of English* edited by Waniek-Klimczak and Pawlak (2015) can serve as an inspiration for research in teaching and researching English pronunciation.

2 Methods in pronunciation research

The following part of this paper will present 15 analysed research studies. They will be divided into categories according to their main research design. Each section will be introduced by a concise introduction of the key features of that particular method; however, covering all aspects of the research methods would be beyond the scope of this paper. Closer inspection of the analysed papers will reveal that researchers typically collect data by several techniques. Research designs, participants, methods of data collection and statistical tools will be also presented.

2.1 Surveys and questionnaires

Surveys and questionnaires two independent research methods, however, they are often viewed as interchangeable. Even in the studies presented below authors often use both terms as synonyms, therefore, also in the following section of this paper they will be presented together. Questionnaires and surveys are very popular research methods and they represent the largest number of the studies presented in this paper.

Mackey and Gass (2009) characterise ‘survey’ as a tool for collecting data (attitudes, opinions) in a special area of interest, citing ‘questionnaire’ as a type of survey. They also characterise ‘questionnaire’ as “a (usually written) survey in a larger scale study to gather information” (ibid, pp. 364). From the characteristics above it may be concluded, that questionnaire may be one of the data collecting techniques in a larger research designs such as survey. Surveys and questionnaires usually require a larger number of participants than other research methods (case

studies, experiments, etc.). Scott and Usher (2011) divide them into two main groups – correlational research and ex-post factor research. They list the typical techniques for data collection, such as structured interviews or tests, citing questionnaires as a usual form of survey data collection due to its structured nature.

Questionnaires can be presented to participants in print or online. Printed questionnaires used to be expensive and time-consuming methods of data collection with a relatively low return rate; however, these days, thanks the Internet they can be a fast and cheap technique for data collection (compare Kothari, 2004 and Gavora, 2010). Nowadays, one of its main advantages is its accessibility to a wide range of respondents simultaneously. The essential requirement for questionnaire success is cooperation, truthfulness of respondents and question comprehensibility.

Questionnaires have a standardised form and can contain items of many types, such as open-ended questions, dichotomous yes/no questions, multiple choice items, ordering statements, checklists, semantic differential items, etc. (Kothari, 2004; Mackey, Gass, 2009; Gavora, 2010). All of these types of items should be clearly formulated and relevant to research topic (Ondrejko, 2007). Likert scale, a “discrete response scale” (Phakiti, 2014, p. 121), is one of the most commonly used techniques of questionnaires, as it provides the closest answers to the presented statements.

As with all research methods, a questionnaire must be precisely designed, structured and tested in a pilot study. A pilot study can reveal weaknesses and insufficiency of the questionnaire.

Questionnaires can be a technique for data collection of other research design, such as in studies presented in the previous section of the paper, or an independent research method. The analysed survey or questionnaire studies are presented below.

In the study titled “Investigating the Iranian EFL Teachers’ Pronunciation of Neutral and Non-Neutral Affixes in Derivative Words Based on Their Gender and Teaching Experience”, Ahmadi, Gowhary, Jamalinesari, Azizifar (2015) investigated the pronunciation of 40 Iranian high school and institute teachers.

Researchers asked 20 male and 20 female teachers to complete a researcher-made 30-item questionnaire containing a word in root and derivative form. Ten derivative words contained a neutral suffix, 20 words contained a non-neutral suffix. Then participants recorded their voices while reading sentences focused on three aspects – stress placement, vowel changes and changes of roots. The research tool was tested for reliability via Cronbach’s Alpha. Frequencies and mean scores of teachers were calculated individually. For data analysis, descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Data were further analysed

according to the gender specifics (the Man-Whitney U Test) and teaching experience (the Kruskal-Wallis) of participants.

A survey by Gowhary, Azizifar, Rezaei (2016) titled “Investigating English Vowel Reduction in Pronunciation of EFL Teachers of Schools” aimed to the study vowel reduction in speech of 60 EFL teachers (30 female and 30 male) from different high schools in Iran, with different education level (from B.A. to PhD.) and years of teaching experience between 2 to 25. Participants read and transcribed vowel sounds in a set of 30 sentences with derivate and function words with reduced vowel. Participants’ voices were recorded and assessed twice. Data were analysed by two researchers and in SPSS for gender, teaching experience, education and frequencies of correct answers. In addition, one-samples t-test was used to identify the individual characteristics of participants on vowel reduction.

The aim of the study “Recognising English Accents in the Community: Omani Students’ Accent Preferences and Perceptions of Nativeness” by Buckingham (2015) was to identify, if Omani students were able to distinguish between Native English speakers and non-native English speakers, how important is the accent they acquire, and how they perceive pronunciation of their non-native teachers who often act as classroom pronunciation models.

Participants of the study were students of the Department of Foreign Languages of a private university. All 349 participants took a course English 2 designed to improve all four communicative skills of students from the second to their fourth year of studies (aged 20-26). About a third of them were students of a bachelor’s program in English education or Arabic/English translation. Due to imbalance, gender was not taken into consideration when analysing the collected data.

A month before the study participants listened to researcher-made recordings to familiarise with the research procedure. A month later, participants listened to recordings of speakers of eight different nationalities (4 male and 4 female) reading a text from an intermediate-level course book. The recordings were “peer reviewed” by seven members of the department. During the listening exercise, participants had to circle an answer to two questions; the first one if the speaker was a native speaker and whether the speaker was a good model for English pronunciation. Participants could choose their response on a 5-point Likert scale. In the second part, students were supposed to express, whether they considered native speakers better pronunciation models. Researcher calculated mean and standard deviation of the answers.

A questionnaire was also used by Jakšič and Šturm (2017) in a study titled “Accents of English at Czech Schools: Students’ Attitudes and Recognition Skills”. The aim of the study was to gather the attitudes of 254 secondary school Czech students from three Prague schools and two regional schools (aged 16 to 20). All

students attended secondary grammar schools. Neither their proficiency levels nor gender differences were taken into consideration. Researchers used an extensive questionnaire with five sections – their education, use of English outside the classroom, pleasantness and model suitability of 12 words they listened to, their attitudes towards accents and cultures of English, and finally, accent identification and orthographical exercise. The questionnaire had a 5-point scale and the results were analysed in the R software for mixed-effects regressions.

The aim of the study “English Pronunciation Training through the Eyes of University Graduates” by Krzysik and Lewandowska (2017) was to examine via online survey/questionnaire the opinions of 65 MA graduates on a pronunciation training program they had completed. The course consisted of 180 hours of training over the course of two academic years during the BA studies. Students could practice either Standard British (N=49) or General American (N=16) accent. During their MA studies, students can also attend an elective remedial course on phonetics. Researchers wanted to collect students’ opinion on their expectations, motivation and interest to further exposure to different varieties of English, course materials and techniques and practical implementation.

The anonymous questionnaire was tested for validity by two independent testers and presented via Google Forms. It collected personal data and answers on 35 questions in five topics. The answer scale was ordinal scale rating (1-7, never - always), multiple choice selection and open items. Participants of mean age 26.5 were not all fresh graduates. Mean and standard deviation were calculated.

The aim of the study by Král'ová (2012) titled “A Probe into the Extraversion and L2 Pronunciation Relationship” was to introduce results of a pretest of a deeper examination into the relation between personality traits and pronunciation in second language. In this particular study, researcher wanted to identify the relation between extraversion and pronunciation assessment scores. Participants of the study (75 first-year university students) attended the English Language and Literature course. They filled in a 16-factor personality questionnaire test with 185 multiple choice items with a 1-10 scale. In addition, participants recorded a quasi-spontaneous 5-minute talk with an instructor about themselves and their families. Recordings were analysed by five native speakers of English (3 Americans and 2 British) who analysed fluency, speaking rate, word choice, prosody and the use of segments on a 5-point scale. The collected data were analysed by descriptive statistics (simple correlation analysis).

The questionnaire study “The Use of Electronic Dictionaries for Pronunciation Practice by University Students” by Metruk (2017) investigates how 24 university students of Bachelor programme responded to a multiple-choice questionnaire regarding their use of dictionaries in pronunciation practice in seven topics. Data were analysed quantitatively for percentage.

The overview of surveys and questionnaires indicated a great variety of its use in pronunciation research, not only to collect opinions of respondents, but also to gather data on learning strategies.

2.2 Experiment, quasi-experiment and pre-experimental design

The second most frequently used method in the studies analysed in this paper is the experimental, pre-experimental or quasi-experimental method. This empirical method seems to be popular among researchers due to wide spectrum of designs and techniques. Phakiti (2004) characterises experimental research as scientific investigation of research subjects in a controlled environment caused by adjusting different conditions; however, contrary to other scientific disciplines such as physics or chemistry, for instance, language learning experiment is not typically conducted in a laboratory, but in a class. For this reason, some conditions cannot be controlled, because each class is its own organism with specific conditions. That is why a suitable topic for experimental study can be evaluation of teaching strategies or programs and their effect on students' performance, analysis of conditions, that create barriers to students' learning (interference of mother tongue in case of teaching pronunciation), etc. Ondrejkovič (2007) characterises experiment as an experience that is gained by intentional forming of a situation that would not occur naturally, without the "manipulation" of variables by the researcher. Kothari (2004) claims, that experiment is based on "stimulation" to get the intended information.

Experimental studies are divided into several subtypes according to two conditions – random selection of research subjects and the existence of a control group. Gavora (2010) provides a diagram classifying experimental designs according to these two conditions. If the experiment subjects are selected randomly, researcher performs a true experiment. If the subjects are not selected randomly, the researcher performs a quasi-experiment if the data are compared against the results of control group. However, if the research lacks control group and the participants are not assigned to groups randomly, the study cannot be considered an experiment (Gavora, 2010). This view is similar to the view of Phakiti (2014), who also puts all experimental designs lacking the condition of randomisation into a quasi-experimental category.

The most comprehensive overview of experimental designs is presented by Phakiti (2014). Accordingly, true experimental designs are based on the following aspects (ibid):

- Manipulation of independent variables (presence or absence treatment, the amount treatment, the type of treatment),
- Randomisation (random assignment on the basis of chance, random selection of a larger population, sampling),

- Comparison groups (experimental and control groups equal in everything except of receiving the special treatment).

In research practice, true experiments and quasi-experiments are not the only research designs. Phakiti (2014) recognises also pre-experimental research designs. They are usually smaller and have their firm place in research practice, as they are typically exploratory in character and can serve as pilot studies to complex research. They are popular even if they only partially confirm the relationships between variables. Some of the limitations of pre-experimental designs listed by Phakiti (ibid) will be mentioned in brackets:

- one-group post-test-only design (does not measure dependent variables, the effect of special treatment is only estimated),
- a one-group pretest-post-test design (results may be influenced by other factors),
- a post-test-only with non-equivalent groups (does not take into consideration the pre-existing differences between groups)

The literature study indicates, that true experimental designs should involve careful planning, formulation of hypothesis, identification of research variables of interest, both dependent and independent, random division research participants (subjects) into equal experimental and control group, testing the subjects before the special treatment (pretest) and/or after receiving the special treatment (post-test) and comparison of results of both groups, drawing the conclusions on the effect of the special treatment on research subjects. This type of experimental design is also called “the pretest and post-test control group design” (Scott, Usher 2011; Phakiti 2014). Besides this design, researchers (Gavora, 2000; Phakiti, 2014) also recognise post-test-only control-group designs and pretest-post-test control-group designs. Similar classifications are used also by Scott and Usher (2011), Mackey and Gass (2009), using different terminology (comparison group design, control group design, etc.).

As it has been already stated, experiments are based on verification of hypothesis according to the analysis of relations between relevant independent and dependent variables. Hypothesis is a prediction about future development of the research design. “The independent variable is the one that we believe may “cause” the results; the dependent variable is the one we measure to see the effects the independent variable has on it” (Mackey & Gass, 2009, pp. 103). In order to identify the quality of experiment, validity and reliability are also measured. According to Mackey, Gass (2009), reliability tests the consistency of results. Validity investigates, if the research results are accurate (Phakiti, 2014). Statistical methods will be presented in a separate subchapter of this paper.

A separate chapter on experiment in education is included in this publication.

The aim of the first experimental study by Atli, Bergil (2012) titled “The Effect of Pronunciation Instruction on Students’ Overall Speaking Skills” was to analyse the pronunciation of 20 randomly asked ELT university preparation class students aged 18 to 24 (12 female and 8 male) before and after a 5-week pronunciation course. Firstly, they had to describe a strip story in their own words, pronouncing the target words. Then researchers transcribed and analysed the records of students and on the basis of the identified mistakes designed the pronunciation training. After 5 weeks, students’ performances were recorded and analysed again.

In addition, students were given a 20-item questionnaire with a 5-point Likert scale investigating the self-perception of their pronunciation skills and their attitudes towards pronunciation classes. The questionnaire was tested on a similar group of students before the experiment. The results were tested for reliability (Cronbach’s Alpha) and frequencies through SPSS. The authors of this quasi-experiment used the pretest post-test design without a control group and with students randomly assigned.

The second study titled “A Study on Identifying Pronunciation Learning Strategies of Turkish EFL Learners” by Akyol (2013) concentrated on identification of the pronunciation learning strategies of 82 Turkish EFL learners studying at the English Language Teaching Department. The subjects were randomly selected from first-year students (N=46) and participants of intensive English preparatory training (N=36), aged 17-26. The first-year students attended a Listening and Pronunciation II course and they were the experimental group, the 36 remaining students were the control group.

Researchers applied an updated version of Oxford’s Pronunciation Strategies questionnaire (see further Akyol, 2013) with 52 items built on taxonomies of pronunciation learning strategies with an extended 5-point Likert scale. The instrument was tested for reliability through Cronbach’s Alpha. In addition, researcher also asked open-ended questions to gather information on the significance of the correct pronunciation and the use of different strategies.

Data were analysed through SPSS for frequencies, percentages, mean standard deviation, and independent samples t-test was used to identify significant differences between the variables.

Yangklang (2013) in the study “Improving English Stress and Intonation Pronunciation of the First Year Students of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University through an E-Learning” compared students’ ability to use English stress and intonation after participation in an e-learning program. Data from a 20-item pronunciation pretest, post-test and a questionnaire were analysed statistically (SPSS) for arithmetic mean, standard deviation and percentage after four weeks of training.

The author randomly selected 40 students out of 2,800 undergraduate participants of English Foundation I course. The 4-week e-learning program concentrated on stress and intonation in individual words and sentences. It also allowed participants to practice articulation of particular sounds.

Besides collecting data on pronunciation, researcher also used an adopted survey to collect the opinions of the participants on satisfaction with the e-learning program in categories: content of e-learning, language use, design and learning encouragement.

The authors Jung, Kim, and Murphy (2017) in their pretest post-test design experiment “The Role of Task Repetition in Learning Word-Stress Patterns through Auditory Priming Tasks” concentrated on the on “the impact of task and procedural repetition [...] during collaborative priming tasks” (ibid, pp. 1) when learning lexical stress. Participants were 57 Korean students (15 male and 42 female, average ages of 16.56 years) that were pretested before two priming sessions and post-tested twice over a 4-week period. They were randomly divided into three groups: a control group (N =18), auditory priming with task repetition group (N=22; the same primes and prompts twice) and auditory priming with procedural repetition only group (N=17; different primes and prompts).

The target words consisted of three or four syllables with primary stress on the second syllable selected from Korea’s National English Curriculum and the words were used in communicative tasks. Participants exchanged information based on a reading material, using the target vocabulary. Participants had to pronounce one target word that was pronounced by researcher as a model (prime condition), and one word without the model pronunciation (no-prime condition). Participants were not informed about the focus of the testing. In addition, participants performed a sentence-read-aloud-task with up to five target words in each of 25 sentences to measure accurate pronunciation. These tasks were performed individually to avoid an additional input for the learners.

The whole experiment took 4 weeks to complete and researchers met each student five times (30-40 minutes each session). During the first week, students performed the pretest, during the second week students performed two priming sessions and the immediate post-test. The delayed post-test took place two weeks after. The control group participated only in the pretest and two post-tests. All interactions were recorded. Researchers listened to 10% of the entire data using Praat software (Boersma, Weenink, 2015). The statistical tool for the analysis was ANOVA and researchers wanted to identify, if participants pronounced the target words better after hearing a model and whether there was a difference between the task repetition and procedural repetition approach to use of word stress.

Demirezen (2016) in the one group design only study titled “Assimilation as a Co-articulation Producer in Words and Pronunciation Problems for Turkish

English Teachers” wanted to identify the sound assimilation problems of Turkish learners of English and suggest practice activities to overcome them. The attention was devoted to co-articulation of two consonants in lexical units and affixes. The participants of the study were 38 first-year students of English language education familiar with assimilation, because they had attended a one semester course (Listening and Articulation II) to practice phonetic transcription. The participants were given a 25-item vocabulary multiple choice pretest. It was followed by a three-hour intense theoretical and practical session. The post-test was given to participants two weeks later and contained new vocabulary. Both, pretest and post-test were researcher-made and its validity was evaluated by three experts. Sample texts and dialogues were downloaded with Audacity program from two Longman dictionaries. The researcher was also interested in gender differences. To evaluate whether remedial assistance helped participants achieve better results in recognising co-articulation, the results of the tests were analysed by SPSS for paired samples statistics by t-test.

As it has been already mentioned, experimental designs provide great variety and flexibility to researchers, allowing them to explore different aspects of pronunciation teaching and the measurement of impacts of special treatment is accurate and can be basis for deeper investigation of the matter.

Case study

The third research method used for pronunciation teaching research is ‘case study’. It was used as a method in two research studies, in both cases as a “set of procedures integral to all types of research” (Scott and Usher 2011, p. 92) that is one of the possible interpretations of this research method. The other possible use of case study is the use as an independent research method (ibid).

According to Mackey and Gass (2009) and Kothari (2004), the aim of case study is to provide an insight into the behaviour, or learning progress, of a selected single individual, a class, an institution, culture group or a family in a specific context. It provides a complete qualitative investigation into a limited number of events and the relationship. Case studies tend to be longitudinal in character and can bring new insights into investigated events that are uncovered during careful and detailed observation. Mackey, Gass (2009) include into its advantages the fact, that it allows the researcher to concentrate on an individual, which is not possible in group research; however, Kothari (2004) lists as one of the main limitations of the case study method its danger of false generalisation. This may mean, that the behaviour of an analysed single unit, whether individual or a group, may be specific to that particular unit and does not need to occur in other comparable units.

There are three possible strategies to case study: ethnography, survey and experimental research (Usher, Scott, 2012). Ethnographies concentrate on individual parts of life, survey concentrate on specific group of people and experimental studies can create special conditions researchers can investigate.

Kucukoglu (2012) in the study titled "Sentence Stress and Learning Difficulties of ELT Teachers: a Case Study" wanted to identify challenges that 30 Turkish teachers of English faced when teaching correct sentence stress. Subjects of the study were 15 high school and 15 university teachers from Turkey, who were asked to read and record 20 sentences of different grammatical structures ranging from simple sentences to compound-complex sentences. The recordings of the teachers were analysed for the use of word and sentence stress in the Audacity program against the recording of a native speaker and text-to-speech recording. The researcher took the accent of participants into consideration, as well as the material and technical conditions of the experiment – the participants had difficulty to use technology and were distracted by acoustic conditions in the recording room.

Adam Daff-Alla Ahmed (2017) in the study titled "Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Learning Pronunciation: A Case Study of Sudanese Higher Secondary Schools" wanted to identify pronunciation problems of Sudanese higher secondary schools students and to propose a set of suitable methods for effective pronunciation learning. The researcher evaluated the data collected from recordings of students' performances and from a questionnaire for teachers.

The first stage was a recording test with seven sentences containing target sounds for 35 randomly selected students from different high schools. After the recording, the author used a descriptive analytical method to identify the difficulties of ELT students in pronunciation and calculated the percentage of correct pronunciation of target sounds. The questionnaires were collected from 50 randomly selected teachers from different schools, who were supposed to identify the reasons of pronunciation problems and to suggest pedagogical solutions in order to help them.

Both of the analysed studies used an experimental approach to the data collection and interpretation, according to classification of Usher, Scott (2012).

2.3 Content analysis

Content analysis (Kothari 2004) is a method analysing different documentary materials (books, magazines, newspapers, etc.) or other spoken or printed material. Ondrejkovič (2007) considers content analysis for a quantitative method based on the frequency count of units made on the basis of pre-formulated categories. A unit can be a word or other text unit, or a number or occurrence of a certain phenomenon. Since the 1950's, content analysis has been used as one of

the qualitative research methods. According to Berge (In Phakiti, 2014), the researchers discover hidden messages in an unstructured material. Phakiti (2014) also makes conclusions, that the data should be always transcribed, pre-coded and coded again in order to be interpreted and commented on.

Ondrejkovič (2007) lists the following types of documents that could be analysed:

- intentional documents – minutes, reports, statistics,
- personal documents – letters, diaries, notes,
- mass-media – newspaper articles, books, films,
- iconographic – photographs, pictures, statues,
- acoustic documents – records of different types.

A closer look at content analysis is presented in the first chapter of this publication.

The aim of the study “An Evaluation of the Pronunciation Target in Hong Kong’s ELT Curriculum and Materials: Influences from WE and ELF?” by Chan (2014) was to identify the focus of pronunciation teaching in Hong Kong English language teaching (ELT) education at senior secondary level. The study triangulates the data from different documents (ELT curriculum, public examination materials, and commercial textbooks). In this paper, English is viewed as lingua franca (ELF) and it takes into consideration the pedagogical proposals of World Englishes (WE).

As the author of the study claims, the first aim of the study is to identify, whether the local curriculum includes the idea of WE and ELF and how they are presented textbooks and public examinations. Secondly, the study aims to evaluate, how examination documents and textbooks use them in different speech events (monologue, dialogue, radio programs, etc.).

Data were gathered from documents published by the government (ELT curriculum and examination manuals) and publishers (10 textbooks from three publishing houses).

Furthermore, the study also presents the analysis of sample audio recordings, recorded by speakers mostly using General American or Received Pronunciation. The attention was paid primarily to the words pronounced differently than in the recommended pronunciation in dictionaries.

3 Research topics

The aspects of English pronunciation learners must be aware of and master to sound comprehensible are manifold; equally, as the previous section of the study shows, research topics concerning teaching English pronunciation are varied. The studies were presented from the perspective of their methodological approach to research, now; the topics concerning pronunciation aspects will be presented.

One of the first steps in researching pronunciation of a foreign language is a contrastive analysis and comparison of phonetic inventories of the mother tongue and the target language, in this case the English language, to predict the most problematic aspects language learners may have. This contrast analysis represents one thematic group of research leading to the inquiry into the learners' awareness of those pronunciation phenomena from their mother tongue that influence their pronunciation and comprehensibility in the English language.

Although Celce-Murcia, Brinton, Goodwin (1996) stated, that the focus on teaching pronunciation is the communicative aspect, in other words, the overall comprehensibility of the speaker is more important than accent-free and native-like pronunciation, after the presentation of all analysed research papers, it is clear that there is one central tendency of all research studies, and that is the relation and impact of the learners' mother tongue on English pronunciation, and/or finding solution for mastering English pronunciation.

A comparison of features of mother tongues of the participants in the presented studies reveals that different groups of learners require different treatment and should focus on different aspects. On the segmental level, Atli, Bergil (2012) identified 8 problematic phonemes – vowels /ɪ/, /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ʊ/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/ and consonants /θ/ and /ð/, that are all specific to the English phonetic inventory. Learners with different mother tongue may include other sounds to the list of potentially difficult phonemes. Vowel reduction was viewed as problematic for Gowhary, Azizifar, Rezaei (2016) in derivative (design – designation, etc.) and function words, in which full vowel sound is preplaced by schwa or another weak vowel.

Suprasegmental level seems to be more complex and productive for research, as suprasegmental features are not only important for the overall melody of English, but can also change the meaning of utterances. English learners must be familiar with them and research studies prove that they are a concern of many teachers of English. Turkish learners, according to Kucukoglu (2012), should concentrate on sentence stress and rhythm, in English, since English is a stress-timed language and Turkish is a syllable-timed language. As for word stress, Ahmadi, Gowhary, Jamalinesari, Azizifar (2015) in Iranian learners and Jung, Kim, Murphy (2017) in Korean learners analysed stress placement in simple and derived English words. Yangklang (2013) investigated, if an e-learning program can improve the ability to use the stress and intonation of Thai students, because they use it differently. The ability of students to recognise assimilation by Turkish students was studied by Demirezen (2016). The accents of English are popular among students and Buckingham (2015) wanted to learn whether Omani students are able to recognise native and non-native speakers of English and learn about their ability to be models for pronunciation teaching. Jakšič, Šturm (2017)

investigated the popularity and preference of English accents among the Czech learners of English, as they view students' opinions on the curriculum important.

In the selection of research papers listed in this study, some papers strived for providing solution to issues related to pronunciation teaching. Krzysik, Lewandowska (2017) and Yangklang (2013) collected students' opinion on the pronunciation course. The overall reasons and causes of pronunciation mistakes of Sudanese learners of English were investigated by Adam Daf-Alla Ahmed (2017). Documentation and textbooks for pronunciation teaching in Japan was analysed by Chan (2014). Learning strategies for acquisition of English pronunciation was analysed in two studies, Akyol (2013) who applied Oxford's pronunciation learning strategies and Metruk (2017) who investigated the use of electronic dictionaries in pronunciation improvement. After presentation of all analysed papers from the perspective of their methodological design and topic orientation, the comprehensible overview is shown in Tab 1.

Table 1: Overview of the presented studies

	questionnaire survey	experimental designs	case study	content analysis	total (N)	total (%)
<i>segmental level</i>		1			1	6.66
<i>suprasegmental level</i>	1	2	1		4	26.67
<i>connected speech</i>	1	1			2	13.34
<i>accents of English</i>	2				2	13.34
<i>general pronunciation</i>	1		1		2	13.34
<i>learning conditions</i>				1	1	6.66
<i>learning strategies</i>	2	1			3	19.99
total (N)	7	5	2	1	15	100
total (%)	46.67	33.33	13.34	6.66		

4 Research participants (subjects)

As the presented studies indicate, the subjects of the presented research studies were primarily university students (from 16.5 years old in Jung, Kim and Murphy 2017; to 26.5 in Krzysik, Lewandowska, 2017), due to two possible reasons. The first one is the fact that these participants present a convenient sample for researchers, who are often also their teachers or are otherwise involved in the education process. The second reason may be that English learners receive their first systematic instruction on English pronunciation at university level. Younger learners of English tend to acquire English naturally, listening to English pronunciation in a classroom setting, be it their (native English) teachers, textbook recordings or in different media (films, TV shows, podcasts, etc.). This may lead to unsystematic use of different accents of English that should be followed by corrective pronunciation practice in class. As a result, younger learners of English are not fully aware of the complexity of English pronunciation; therefore, they cannot fully comply with research requirements.

The only exceptions were the students of the research of Jakšič and Šturm (2017) who collected opinions of secondary grammar schools on English accents and high schoolers from the study of Daff-Alla Ahmed (2017).

The second group of participants is represented by teachers, who should be experts on pronunciation and are also classroom pronunciation models (in Kucukoglu, 2012; Ahmadi, Gowhary, Jamalinesari, Azizifar, 2015).

As far as the number of participants, the data collection method influences it as well. The number of participants in experimental studies can be smaller and in the presented studies their number ranges from 20 (Atli, Bergil, 2012) to 82 (Akyol, 2013) participants. On the other hand, the highest number of respondents (N=349) was asked to answer a questionnaire by Buckingham (2015), who applied a questionnaire, aim of which to collect data from larger population.

Gender of participants presents another direction of research exploration (Ahmadi, Gowhary, Jamalinesari, Azizifar, 2015; Gowhary, Azizifar, Rezaei, 2016; Demirezen, 2016), as previous research indicates the existence of differences among male and female learners of English. Analysis of results according to gender is typically performed in groups with balanced number of male and female participants. However, if it is not the case (Buckingham, 2015; Jakšič, Šturm, 2017), this analysis is not performed.

5 Statistical tests and software

As the previous overview of research papers shows, research methods and data must be verified and undergo statistical treatment to identify the relations between independent and dependent variables, as well as to prove that the applied methods and instruments are reliable and results are valid. The statistical

methods and techniques were presented for each study without further explanation; now their purpose will be explained as viewed by Mackey, Gass (2009) and Phakiti (2014).

Inferential statistics is type of statistic that identifies, if the results are likely to be valid to other research subjects. It allows researchers to go beyond numerical data and answer research questions (in Ahmadi, Gowhary, Jamalinesari, Azizifar, 2015).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistic tool that compares the performance between more than two groups (in Jung, Kim, Murphy, 2017).

Independent T-test determines the significance of the difference between means of two groups (experimental and control, in Akyol, 2013; Gowhary, Azizifara, Rezaei, 2016). A paired t-test compares the results of matched samples (the same subjects in a pretest and post-test, in Demirezen, 2016).

The Mann-Whitney U test is similar to the independent-samples t-test. Data should be ranked before analysis. The Kruskal-Wallis test is used for the analysis of the data of more than two groups. Data need to be ranked before analysis (both used by Ahmadi, Gowhary, Jamalinesari, Azizifar, 2015 to explore the differences of participants of different genders and different teaching experience).

As for the statistical analysis, the most frequently used software for calculating data in the presented studies was IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, used by Atli, Bergil, 2012; Akyol, 2013; Yangklang, 2013; Demirezen, 2016; Gowhary, Azizifara, Rezaei, 2016).

Statistics is not the only way how to test the reliability and validity of the research instrument. Research instruments (mostly questionnaires and testing materials) are “peer reviewed” by experts from the same field of expertise (Demirezen, 2016) or colleagues from the same department (Buckingham, 2015).

6 Technical requirements for pronunciation research

Since phonetics and phonology deals with acoustic aspects of language, for some research studies it is necessary to record and analyse participants' pronunciation professionally in a quiet, ideally soundproof room without any background noise to avoid any possible damage the collected data. For acoustic data analysis, besides professional raters, there are main two open-source programs used: Praat and Audacity. Praat was designed by P. Boersma and D. Weenink to analyse, synthesise and manipulate speech (Boersma, 2014). It is used for analysis in the studies by Jung, Kim, Murphy (2017). The other program is Audacity created by Audacity Team that visualises and analyses sound frequencies, and makes contrast analysis for different acoustic data (audacityteam.org, used by Kucukoglu 2012, Demirezen 2016).

Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to provide a comprehensible overview of the current trends in pronunciation teaching research on the basis of analysis of 15 research studies published between 2012 and 2017. The main principle of presentation of studies was the methodological principle – the studies were divided into four categories according to the main methodological approach – surveys and questionnaires, experimental studies, case studies and content analysis. Research topics covered all main pronunciation aspects and issues related to pronunciation teaching.

The analysed research studies show the main direction of the research in pronunciation teaching – identification of the pronunciation of the EFL learners in relation to the target pronunciation model and applying different strategies to overcome those pronunciation mistakes that would lead to incomprehensibility. All analysed papers conducted a primary research, i.e. collected and analysed their own empirical data and did not provide a critical analysis or review of other research papers.

References

Analysis. [online]. Available at:

<https://www.audacityteam.org/about/features/analysis/>

ADAM DAFF-ALLA AHMED, Z. (2017). Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Learning Pronunciation: A Case Study of Sudanese Higher Secondary Schools. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 7(4), 75-82. doi:10.5539/ijel.v7n4p75

AHMADI, A., GOWHARY, H., JAMALINESARI, A., AZIZIFAR, A. (2015). Investigating The Iranian EFL Teachers' Pronunciation of Neutral and Non-Neutral Affixes in Derivative Words Based on Their Gender and Teaching Experience. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 192, 748-757. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.06.095>

AKYOL, A. (2013). A Study on Identifying Pronunciation Learning Strategies of Turkish EFL Learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 1456-1462. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.211>

ATLI, I., BERGIL, A. S. (2012). The Effect of Pronunciation Instruction on Students' Overall Speaking Skills. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 3665-3671. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.124>

BOERSMA, P. (2014). The Use of Praat in Corpus Research. In Durand, J., Gut, U., & Kristoffersen, G. (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Corpus Phonology* (pp. 342-360). Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199571932.001.0001

- BUCKINGHAM, L. (2015). Recognising English Accents in the Community: Omani Students' Accent Preferences and Perceptions of Nativeness. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 36 (2), 182-197. doi: 10.1080/01434632.2014.909443
- CELCE-MURCIA, M., BRINTON, D. M., GOODWIN, J. M. (1996). *Teaching Pronunciation. A Reference for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- CHAN, J. (2014). An Evaluation of the Pronunciation Target in Hong Kong's ELT Curriculum and Materials: Influences from WE and ELF. *JELF*, 3(1), 145-170. doi: 10.1515/jelf-2014-0006
- DEMIREZEN, M. (2016). Assimilation as a Co-Articulation Producer in Words and Pronunciation Problems for Turkish English Teachers. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 16, 477-509. doi: 10.12738/estp.2016.2.0235
- GAVORA, P. et al. (2010). *Elektronická učebnica pedagogického výskumu*. [online]. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského, 2010. Available at: <http://www.emetodologia.fedu.uniba.sk/>
- GAVORA, P. (2000). *Úvod do pedagogického výzkumu*. Brno: Paido.
- GOWHARY, H., AZIZIFAR, A., & REZAEI, S. (2016). Investigating English Vowel Reduction in Pronunciation of EFL Teachers of Schools. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 604-611. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.083>
- JAKŠIČ, J., & ŠTURM, P. (2017). Accents of English at Czech Schools: Students' Attitudes and Recognition Skills. *Research in Language*, 15(4), 353-369. doi: 10.1515/rela-2017-0020
- JUNG, Y., KIM, Y., & MURPHY, J. (2017). The Role of Task Repetition in Learning Word-Stress Patterns through Auditory Priming Tasks. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 39 (2), 1-28. doi: 10.1017/S0272263117000031
- KOTHARI, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology. Methods and Techniques*. New Age International (P) Ltd.: Publishers.
- KRÁLOVÁ, Z. (2012). A Probe into the Extraversion and L2 Pronunciation Relationship. *Komunikacie*, 14, 29-36.
- KRZYSIK, I., & LEWANDOWSKA, H. (2017). English Pronunciation Training through the Eyes of University Graduates. *Research in Language*, 15(3), 299 – 312. doi: 15. 10.1515/rela-2017-0017
- KUCUKOGLU, H. (2012). Sentence Stress and Learning Difficulties of ELT Teachers: A Case Study. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 4065-4069. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.198
- MACKEY, A., & GASS, S. M. (2009). *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. Taylor and Francis e-Library.

- METRUK, R. (2017). The Use of Electronic Dictionaries for Pronunciation Practice by University EFL Students. *Teaching English with Technology*, 17(4), 38-51.
- ONDREJKOVIČ, P. (2007). *Úvod do metodológie spoločenskovedného výskumu*. Bratislava: Veda.
- PHAKITI, A. (2014). *Experimental Research Methods in Language Learning*. London Bloomsbury Academic.
- SCOTT, D., & USHER, R. (2011). *Researching Education. Data, Methods and Theory in Educational Enquiry*. 2nd ed. Continuum International Publishing Group.
- WANIEK-KLIMCZAK, E., & PAWLAK, M. (Eds.) (2015). *Teaching and Researching the Pronunciation of English*. Springer International Publishing Switzerland.
- WATKINS, M. A., RAUBER, A. S., & BAPTISTA, B. O. (Eds.) (2009). *Recent Research in Second Language Phonetics/Phonology: Perception and Production*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- YANGKLANG, W. (2013). Improving English Stress and Intonation Pronunciation of the First Year Students of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University through an E-Learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 91, 444-452. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.442>

Translation and Foreign Language Teaching: Analytical Review of Recent Research

Xenia Liashuk

Introduction

For a considerable period of time, translation has been largely expelled from a communicatively-oriented foreign language classroom under the influence of the negative fame of the grammar-translation method. The contemporary academic community has started to reconsider this issue, taking into consideration the natural inclination of foreign language learners towards the use of mother tongue for scaffolding purposes but also the status of translation as a communicative activity in its own right. As Duff (1989, p. 6) put it, if “translation happens everywhere, all the time, so why not in the classroom?”

The aim of the present analytical review is to map the scope of contemporary research into the use of translation at all levels of education on the basis of scholarly writings published in the last decade. Particular attention is paid to examining the specifics of research methodology with a view to comparing and contrasting the core elements of methodological design of individual studies and to generalising them into larger categories to get a well-rounded picture of the problematics. The results of the analysis are meant to create an overview of current trends in the sphere of research into the application of translation in foreign language teaching, to summarise limitation that have been recognised so far and to highlight research techniques that might be taken for best practices with regard to the research subject concerned.

Methods

To achieve the objectives outlined, a sample of scholarly publications was constructed using the academic databases and search engines of *ProQuest Central*, *SCOPUS*, *Springer Link*, *Web of Science*, *JSTOR*, *Wiley Online Library* and additionally *Google Scholar*. The preliminary selection criteria were (1) the key words ‘translation’ and ‘foreign language teaching (FLT)’, including the alternative terms such as ELT, language teaching, language education and their variations; (2) the availability of a full-text version; (3) the study-like type of publication, excluding book reviews, graduation theses and technical standards; and (4) the year of

publication starting from 2008 and onwards. The limitation of the time frame to the last decade was motivated by the intention to focus on the state-of-the-art research practices and the newest developments in the field, taking into consideration the inherent time lag between the moment of research effort taking place, its processing into a paper, the acceptance of the paper by a publisher and its final publication, all of which could span as long as three years.

In the second stage of the selection process, the abstracts of the papers were analysed to narrow their number down to a coherent sample according to the core conceptual factor, which was the understanding of the nature of translation conditioned by its purpose. The purpose set here is primarily related to the language learning process; therefore, the papers concerning professional translators' training at the tertiary or specialised secondary level within Translation Studies programs were excluded from the sample due to their inherent attribution to the methodological scope of Translation Studies as a separate interdisciplinary branch of Applied Linguistics. The application of this particular selection refinement criteria revealed a note-worthy trend towards the inclusion of courses on the theory and practice of translation into Linguistics degree programs as well as ELT degree programs. A supplementary nature of translation courses to linguistic training manifested in these cases prompted the inclusion of such studies into the research sample.

In this regard, an important conceptual distinction has to be made between *pedagogical translation* and *translation proper*, or real translation, as coined by Klaudy (2003, p. 133 in Vermes 2010, p. 83). The difference between the two notions is summarised in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Conceptual difference between translation proper and pedagogical translation (adapted from Vermes 2010: 83 and *extended by the author)

	The Function	The Object	The Addressee of Translation
Translation Proper	Communicative: translation is a means of transferring meanings between source and target languages and cultures*	Information about reality , contained in the source text	A target language reader

Pedagogical Translation	<p>Instrumental: translation is a tool of improving the learners' foreign language proficiency in term of <i>practicing</i> and <i>testing</i> language knowledge, or <i>raising consciousness</i> about it</p>	<p>Information about the language learner's level of language proficiency</p>	<p>A language teacher or an examiner</p>
--------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------

The use of translation in a foreign language classroom, identified as the object of the present analytical review, falls within the category of pedagogical translation. An additional research objective emerged in this regard which is to see whether the recent research manifests any signs of translation proper instruments being incorporated into foreign language teaching at any educational level.

For the purposes of the present review translation was understood as (1) an activity of processing a source textual input aimed at creating a target textual output in written or oral form as its product, (2) performed between two independent languages, of which L1 is the user's native language and L2 is a foreign language being acquired, and (3) subject to control by both the learner and the instructor. In accordance with this definition, papers focusing on the issues of intralingual and intersemiotic translation as well as bilingualism in second language acquisition were removed from the sample as not complying with Prerequisite 2 above due to being partial instances of the phenomena analysed. Papers focused on mental translation as learners' cognitive habit of reproducing L2 words in L1 forms in their minds while receiving an L2 textual input were excluded due to deviation from Prerequisite 3 as being challenging to control as far as learners and (even more so) instructors are concerned. Another topical area excluded was the use of learners' mother tongue in a foreign language classroom, which does not comply with Prerequisite 1 as it does not provide for direct correspondence between source and target text. It should be noted though that the issues of L1 use and mental translation tend to be amalgamated with the issue of pedagogical translation into a single research object, especially in papers dealing with earlier stages of language education.

As a result of two-stage selection procedure, the total sample of n=36 papers, consisting mostly of peer-review journal studies but also including studies from contributed volumes and conference proceeding, was constructed.

Brief overview of sources

Out of all papers analysed for the purposes of the present review, seven are part of a contributed volume *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (2013), edited by Dina Tsagari and Georgios Floros, which can be considered a unique publication within the accumulated sample due to the fact that the issue of translation and its application in the context of foreign language education constitutes its focal point. Two more contributed volumes are found among the detected sources, which, however, do not specifically focus on pedagogical translation but rather incorporate it as a topical spin-off. These two volumes stand for the two poles marking the scopes of the two disciplines, between which pedagogical translation as a research subject is oscillating, these disciplines being Foreign Language Studies and Translation and Interpreting Studies. Thus, in the volume *The Longitudinal Study of Advanced L2 Capacities* (2008) edited by Lourdes Ortega and Heidi Byrnes translation is compared to other form-on-focus activities in its potential to strengthen morphosyntactic accuracy of advanced L2 English users (Källkvist, 2006), while the publication *Handbook of Translation Studies: Volume 1* (2010), edited by Yves Gambier, and Luc van Doorslaer incorporates it in the form of an encyclopedic entry as a partial topical area within the multifaceted realm of translating activity (Malmkjær, 2010).

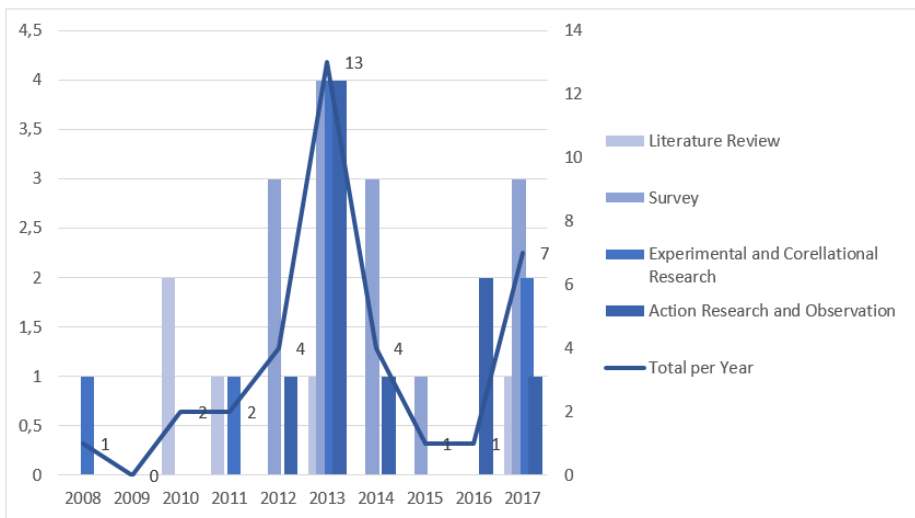
Other sources include international open-access peer-reviewed journals (n=20) and proceeding of three international conferences. The journals from the present sample have different topical orientation, varying from the discipline-specific focus on pedagogy and translation¹ through broader inclination towards

¹ TOJET: The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology (ISSN 2146-7242), International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies (ISSN 2202-9478), WASET International Journal of Educational and Pedagogical Sciences, Journal of Language Teaching and Research (ISSN 1798-4769), Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education (ISSN 0742-051X), Research in Pedagogy, and International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies (ISSN 2308-5460)

applied linguistics² to the generalised affiliation to humanities and social sciences³, but also including journals of scientific character (the only example of this kind of periodicals being *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, ISSN 2229-5518). All three conferences (*ICT for Language Learning*, *WCES – World Conference of Educational Sciences*, and *WCLTA – World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Educational Leadership*) are directly related to the research area of language teaching and learning.

Chart 1 (below) demonstrates the dynamics of research into the use of translation in FLT according to the number and type of studies published yearly in the 2008-2017 time frame.

Chart 1: Dynamics of Contemporary Research into the Use of Translation in FLT



² Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (ISSN 2192-9513), Informatologia (ISSN 1330-0067), Language Awareness (ISSN 1747-7565), Reading in a Foreign Language (ISSN: 1539-0578), Kalbu Studijos/ Studies About Languages (ISSN 1648-2824), Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics (ISSN 2422-8435), Theory and Practice in Language Studies (ISSN 1799-2591), Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas (ISSN 1886-6298), Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching (ISSN 2083-5205), and Eger Journal of English Studies (ISSN 2060-9159).

³ Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research (ISSN 1016-0604), and International Journal of Humanities and Social Science (ISSN 2221-0989),

The peak in year 2013 corresponds to the publication of the edited volume *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (2013). Even though no other similar volumes appeared in subsequent years, the chart shows a growing trend which stands for a coherent interest in the given research subject.

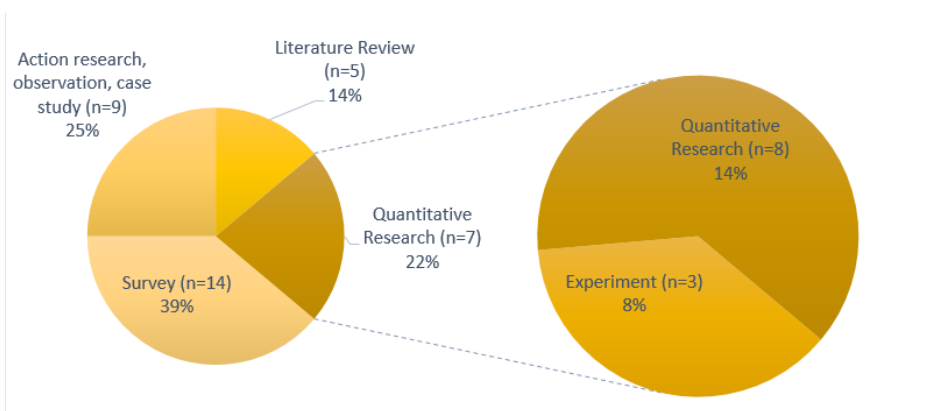
Theoretical-descriptive papers in the present sample represent the results of literature reviews, among which a number of common topics can be outlined to form a certain evolutionary chain. The studies by Malmkjær (2010) and Vermes (2010) examine the pros and cons of the re-introduction of translation into a foreign language classroom. Machida (2011) constructs a complex methodological support for the pedagogical use of translation, while the studies by Marqués-Aguado, Solís-Becerra (2013) and Matamoros-González, Rojas, Pizarro Romero, Soto (2017) provide an overview of grammar-translation method in comparison with other teaching methods in the overall didactic paradigm of foreign language learning.

Types of studies according to data collection methods

Within the total sample of 36 papers, a number of generalised types of research design can be outlined. The classification presented here was designed specifically for the purposes of the present analytical review on the basis of existing research typologies. The underlying factor for grouping studies together was their prevalent *data collection method* paired with their *factual orientation* within the broader scope of the use of translation in FLT, which in turn is linked to their respective *objectives*.

Chart 2 below demonstrates the distribution of studies across the typological categories outlined for the purposes of the present review.

Chart 2: Distribution of Studies According to Type



In the sample under analysis, survey research represents the most numerous category (n=14), while the group with predominant qualitative orientation (n=9), which includes action research, observation and case study designs, and the group with predominant quantitative orientation (n=7), including experimental and correlational research design, are of almost equal size.

Survey

This type includes studies based on collecting empirical evidence from subjects involved in the teaching process with a view to getting a picture of their beliefs, opinions and attitudes towards the use of translation in FLT. For the purposes of the present analysis, survey research is further classified according to the following criteria:

(1) Respondents' role in the educational process

The two main groups within this sub-category can be in a most general way identified as instructors and learners. The **instructor group** (n=6) includes professional teachers (Mazher, Mumtaz, Mehwish, 2015 and Mbeudeu, 2017) as well as student teacher candidates (Bozok, Bozok, 2014, Omar, Mohamed, 2014 and Pekkanli, 2012) and other individuals performing educational activities but lacking professional preparation. The latter case relates to the study by Kokkinidou, Spanou (2013) using a sample of the participants in the long distance teachers' training programme who were active non-Greek teachers of Greek as a second/foreign language but the majority lacked an academic degree in a field related to teaching. Another differentiating factor of importance is the inclusion of translation activity into the survey design, either directly or as evocable past experience from participants' history. In this respect, the studies by Mazher, Mumtaz, Mehwish (2015) and Mbeudeu (2017) happen to stand in sharp opposition, with the former targets Pakistani teachers, who have been actively applying grammar-translation method in their teaching practice, while the latter focuses on Cameroonian teachers, who have had no proper experience with GMT as it is not allowed in the Cameroonian syllabus for teaching EFL which officially encourages "the use of an eclectic method that encompasses the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the Total Physical Response (TPR) and most recently the Competence-based Approach (CBA)" (p. 77). Kokkinidou and Spanou (2013) attempted to concretise their respondents' perceptions by providing them with two didactic translation exercises which had to be assessed in terms of their appropriateness to classroom application, their potential to boost any of the linguistic skills and the possibility of their use in a communicative way. The questionnaire further transgressed the task-specific boundaries with a probe into respondents' experience and encouraged them to come up with other exercises

linked to translation and to identify any concerns connected to the use of such activities.

The respondent sample in the studies by Omar and Mohamed (2014) and Pekkanli (2012) consisted of final year TESL/ELT students. The teacher candidates of the first sample were involved in an ESL outreach teaching project in a rural school and were encouraged to refer to their immediate personal experience with using translation in class, while those from the second sample are only known to have passed two-way translation courses. The study by Bozok and Bozok (2014) inclines even further towards learners' perspective since it targets second and third year ET students with no information given as far as their experience with pedagogical translation or translation training. Their inclusion into instructor category can be motivated by the fact that their major could consequently lead them into a teacher's role, and then their decision to use, or not to use, translation as a didactic tool can be conditioned not only by educational practices they have experienced themselves but also by their own independent preferences that might emerge under the influence of other factors, not directly related to an academic environment (p. 3914).

The **learner group** (n=8) includes language-related major students (Tabata-Sandom, 2017), other major students (BS Hons students in Fazal et al., 2017 and students of the Faculty of Design and Technologies in Dagiliene, 2012), non-tertiary students (language school students in Karimian, Talebinejad, 2013 and elementary learners at a preparatory school in Calis, Dikilitas, 2012), secondary school students (Scheffler, 2013) or combinations of some of the above-mentioned sub-groups (Computer Science and English Studies students in Clavijo, Marín, 2013 and Fernández-Guerra, 2014). The studies can also be differentiated according to the immediate presence or absence of a translation activity, the performance of which precedes the completion of survey.

The immediate exposure to translation activity is present in more than a half of the studies in the learner group. In the study by Scheffler (2013), intermediate learners from a secondary school are exposed to a "form-focused close translation activity" (p. 265), which exhibits two important differences from traditional grammar-translation principles – its focus on reviewing rather than introducing grammar and its arrangement into self-contained and clearly separated items to be interpreted by learners. The study by Dagliene (2012) involved a semester-long treatment of tertiary learners with translation modules consisting of preparatory activities in the form of "grammatical and lexical exercises to practice and improve certain difficulties that learners have" and followed by oral practice (p. 126). In a study by Calis and Dikilitas (2012), learners underwent a seven-week long treatment with translation exercises targeting selected grammatical issues, including pronouns, the singular /plural forms, there is /there are structures,

coupled with related activities assigned to be done outside classroom (p. 5080). The study by Fernández-Guerra (2014) includes a treatment which is closer linked to the methodology of translation studies with such tasks as “direct and inverse translation of texts of all types, discussion of difficulties and alternative translations, back translations, sight translations, textual analysis, analysis of machine translation and computer-aided translation tools, etc.” (p. 158). Another distinctive feature of this study is its focus on the diachronic change in students’ views measured by means of two independent questionnaires on the usefulness of translation in foreign language learning – the first one administered on the first day of class and the other one at the end of semester after the treatment.

In contrast to the above-mentioned studies, the study by Fazal et al. (2017) follows a complex experimental-like design where translation features in the two forms of semester-long experimental treatment – the integral communicative grammar translation method and information and communication technologies supported communicative grammar translation method – as opposed to the traditional method.

The study by Tabata-Sandom (2017) also includes treatment with multiple alternative teaching methods; however, the translation method in this case functions as a starting point that caused the need for alternatives to emerge. The skill targeted in this study is reading fluency, and the two alternative teaching methods are extensive (pleasure) reading and speed reading as opposed to intensive reading prompted by translation method, which is included into instruction for both groups.

The studies by Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) and Clavijo and Marín (2013) rely on respondents’ previous experience, but approach the problematics from two cardinally different angles: translation as a learning strategy of language school students and translation teaching strategies used in the translation training within a specialised Business Translation course, respectively.

The studies in the survey category tend to yield positive results regarding participants’ views of the use of translation in foreign language education. Only two studies exposing the negative effect of translation-centered teaching approach were identified in the present analytical probe, one from the Pakistani educational context (Mazher, Mumtaz, Mehwish, 2015) and the other one concerning the teaching of the Japanese language at Massey University in New Zealand (Tabata-Sandom, 2017). Negative results concerning the use of translation in classroom settings tend to come from those cultural contexts where pre-communicative methods of FL teaching had predominantly been in place up to the year when the respective studies were undertaken. In fact, the very purpose of such studies is that of pointing out the negative effect of translation-focused instruction which is not properly outbalanced by learning activities targeted at the development of

learners' independent production skills. The results of such studies are then meant to contribute to the shift in the didactic paradigm in the countries concerned, with this impetus being explicitly verbalised in the parts of papers containing didactic suggestions and implications. These studies can therefore be considered reaction-driven in a way that they are largely concerned with exposing the negative impact of the context-limited use of translation as the primary step in shifting the existent paradigm. The issues of how to apply translation to develop the broader range of communicative skills, namely speaking and fluent reading, necessarily remain beyond the scope of their analytical reach, which could be qualified as context bias or simply as the specifics of the current developmental stage in the national didactic paradigms.

(2) Instruments of data collection and form of data analysis

All studies in the survey category were distributed almost equally across the quantitative (n=5), qualitative (n=4) and mixed (n=5) form of data analysis.

The main instrument of collecting data which are subject to **quantitative analysis** is a questionnaire designed on the basis of different types of close-ended questions, such as **dichotomous questions** (Mazher, Mumtaz, Mehwish, 2015), **questionnaire checklist** (Clavijo & Marín, 2013), and **Likert scale questions** (Bozok & Bozok, 2014; Pekkanli, 2012). The study by Dagliene (2012) uses a combination of the three types of close-ended questions mentioned above with one open-ended question, the answer to all of which are analysed using simple percentage calculation. Percentage calculation is the only form of quantitative data analysis, with an exception of the study by Clavijo and Marín (2013) who also calculate the average percentage of uses for each item on their questionnaire checklist.

The two main instruments of collecting data which are subject to **qualitative analysis** is a questionnaire consisting of **open-ended questions** (Kokkinidou and Spanou) and a **semi-structured interview** consisting of 5 to 8 questions, which allow for spontaneous attraction of ideas that were not included into the interview guide (Fazal et al., 2017; Mbeudeu, 2017). The study by Omar and Mohamed (2014) supplements the online interview with the posterior **focus group interview**.

The study by Fazal et al. (2017) includes an interview guide designed according to methodological guidelines by Creswell (2007 in Fazal et al., 2017, p. 179), which gives learners the possibility to resort to their L1 if they experience difficulty with expressing their ideas, includes a question meant to build rapport and incorporates probing to ensure the consistency in responses. The given study also adopted additional measures to establish the content validity of the interview guide, which included evaluation by a five-member committee, experienced in

conducting and analysing qualitative interviews, and piloting with three student respondents. Additional measure to control the quality of interview data was also included in the research procedure, whereby transcripts of interview recordings were sent to respondents for validation prior to their formal analysis. In all studies of the qualitative category the data were processed using the methodology of thematic analysis, which includes extracting relevant idea codes and grouping them into representative themes.

The majority of studies in the **mixed group** combine a Likert scale questionnaire, analysed quantitatively, with an instrument for collecting quantitative data for thematic analysis in the form of an interview guide (Karimian, Talebinejad, 2013), open-ended questions (Fernández-Guerra, 2014) or an unstructured interview where participants were asked to comment on survey questions (Tabata-Sandom, 2017) or simply to express their opinion in relation to the topic targeted by the questionnaire (Scheffler, 2013; Calis & Dikilitas, 2012). In a study by Scheffler, a *semantic differential scale* is used, which consists of three sets of bipolar pairs of L1 adjectives, modified from Gardner (1985 in Scheffler, 2013, p. 269). The study by Fernández-Guerra (2014) uses another comparatively rare instrument, which is the use of rank order questions, processed using a *Borda count*, “where a rank 1 preference is allocated 6 points, rank 2 is allocated 5 points, etc. and multiplied by the number of preferences” (p. 162).

The study by Scheffler (2013) was the only one in the mixed group that included the confirmation of the internal validity of the chosen scale by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, while the study by Calis, Dikilitas (2012) uses instruments, the validity of which is assumed to be proven, namely The Inventory for Beliefs about Translation (IBT) and The Inventory for Translation as a Learning Strategy (ITLS), both based on a 1 to 5 Likert scale, and the Interview Guide adapted from Liao (2006). The given study was also the only one relying on the SPSS software for descriptive statistics in terms of frequencies, mean and standard deviation count. Specialised statistical tools are likely to have been used in the study by Tabata-Sandom (2017), where Pearson’s *r* is counted to evaluate correlation between variables and *p*-value is applied to assess the statistical significance of evidence.

Action research, case study and observation

A quarter of the sample analysed is constituted by studies (*n*=9, around 25%) that deal with students’ translation efforts at two angles – one being explicitly activity-centered and the other being focused on translation activity through a text of translation as its product. Such an approach shifts this type of research closer to the conceptual framework of Translation Studies which proceed from the recognition of the dual nature of translation as a process and a product. Studies

included this joint category contain a description of a translation activity together with an overview of its effect, either expected or observed, on students.

Even though some studies of this kind are mostly expository and rarely contain tangible empirical evidence, they are noteworthy for their visionary character, mapping partial issues within the general problematics of translation in FLT and thus outlining new directions for future research. One of such partial issues of interest is ***the role of translation in raising intercultural awareness*** within the development of communicative competence.

Bratož and Kocbek (2013) place this topic into the age-specific dimension by providing arguments in favour of practicing translation with young learners, who are argued to be receptive to such stimuli due to being “unrestrained in their spontaneity” (p. 147) and more inclined to derive pleasure from seeking out differences and similarities, in general and in L1 and L2 by extension. The authors also draw attention to the sociocultural phenomenon of *language brokering*, which is referred to as an example of spontaneous involvement into translation activity on the side of immigrant children and adolescents, who are thus naturally trained in noticing cultural differences and finding a way how to transmit them verbally to other members of their family or community (p. 146). The study includes the description of three types of translation-based activities with Slovene as L1 and English as L2, which are believed to be suitable to the needs of young learners: (1) activities aimed at raising cross-cultural awareness (about sociolinguistic practices and culture-specific phenomena in particular), (2) bridging activities to fill the gap between the L1 and L2 at the level of phonology, syntax, lexis including false cognates, collocations and idioms, and pragmatics, and (3) vocabulary expanding activities, in particular those based on linguistic metaphor and metonymy.

Along similar lines, Beecroft (2013) advocates for the inclusion of translation into FLT as a means of fostering teenager students’ ICC and suggests a complex translation activity based on a *scene-and-frames model*, which is derived from the methodology of translation theory and practice. Within the language-centred part of the proposed activity, learners start with aligning the verbal equivalents of the same phenomena from a given scene in the L1 and L2 conceptual frames and proceed to the translation of a short coherent text, which places the target equivalents into context and contains additional features that might be unknown to learners. The activity also includes a post-task of metacognitive character, prompting learners to talk about “experiences triggered by the translation process” (p. 168), which is in line with the premise that the effect of competence-fostering teaching activities is boosted by its conscious evaluation by learners. The paper by Beecroft (2013) touches upon a number of didactical prerequisites that might influence the efficacy of the use of translation in the development of

communicative competence. The first one is the group-specific appropriateness of source text in relation to learners' interests and knowledge, which is perceived to be an important variable influencing learners' motivation, which in turn conditions the effect and efficiency of the whole activity. This assumption is also included into studies focused on the collection of empirical evidence from activities actually performed (see Pavan, 2013, below); none of them, however, put the features of the text into the position of an independent variable with its effect to be measured. The second didactic factor of importance turns out to be the type of work, whereby work in pairs or groups appears to be more preferable than individual work when a translation activity is to be performed. The issue of whether individual, pair or group work is more effective in relation to the didactic application of translation constitutes another question for future research.

The issue of translation as a didactic tool for developing learners' intercultural awareness is explored in studies by Kaloh Vid (2017) and Pavan (2013), both of which describe the effect of applying a translation activity in foreign language instruction at university and comment on the features of the source text in terms of its challenges. These challenges are deemed to be the nodal points that raise learners' intercultural communicative competence once they find a way how to transfer the corresponding meanings to a different linguistic and cultural environment. Kaloh Vid's study on the use of back translation in teaching Russian through English is similar to more theoretical papers by Bratož and Kocbek (2013) and Beecroft (2013) in a way that it targeted learners at a beginner's level and that the translation inputs are limited to culturally-specific words and phrases as a way to adapt the activity to the given level. Another important methodological feature of Kaloh Vid's case study is the fact that students were familiarised with the specifics of translation strategies (transliteration, calque and literary translation) before working on the translation task, which indicates the practice of incorporating selected elements of the theoretical framework of Translation Studies into foreign language teaching. This entails an assumption that the effect of translation on language proficiency could be measured with more reliable results once the external factor of translation know-how demanded in relation to the given textual input is adequately controlled. In the case of translation activity in Kaloh Vid (2017), it could be assumed that without the basic knowledge of translation strategies and their explicit indication next to the textual input, a student would have to select from a broader range of possible equivalents, which increases the probability of choosing an inappropriate one and, consequently, increase the chance of its incidental fixation in a student's memory.

In this respect, Pavan (2013) goes even further in attracting translation methodology into foreign language education by instructing her students about the specifics of dubbing and subtitling as the main forms of screen translation and

about the basic principle of the Skopos theory postulating the need for the adjustment of translation to the target audience, which in the given case study presupposes adequate transfer of sociolinguistic (regional variations, foreign accents) stylistic (pejoratives), pragmatic (speaker's idiosyncracies), intertextual (quotations, allusion, connotations and hints) features and culture-specific elements of the source text. Given the amount of metalinguistic and cultural knowledge to be handled by students who do not major in translation studies, the author rests her didactic strategy on the factor of internal motivation, propped up, among other factors, by the motivating character of a text and the perception of challenge.

The status of translation as a competence in its own right which is underpinned by all components of language learning but also includes "some specific sub-competences" is highlighted by Popescu (2012, p. 1075), who speaks in favour of the introduction of translation training into the paradigm of language learning on the basis of the inherent overlapping of linguistics competence and translation competence. Her assertion that language learning coupled with translation allows for simultaneous and interrelated enhancement of both competences mentioned is supported by the results of software-based *corpus analysis* of two-way student translations of contemporary texts. The author draws attention to the inherent potential of such analysis to make students more conscious of the dynamic nature of language manifested in the emergence of new conceptual metaphors and coinages as well as of idiomatic expressions based on culture-specific allusions.

The need to introduce translation training into Teacher Education programmes is advocated in the study by Alawas (2012) on the basis of lexical, syntactic and semantic deficiencies detected in the two-way translations produced by a sample of pre-service elementary school teachers in the Philippines. It should be noted here that the pre-requisite of well-developed translation competence for elementary school teachers proceeds here from the culture-specific didactic paradigm of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education, adopted by the Philippines, which postulates "the use of the mother tongue as language of instruction ... in the primary levels of education" (p. 539), leading to the need for teachers to translate certain materials to and from one of the ethnic local languages, Benguet Kankanaey, Ibaloy and Midland Ilokano (p. 541). The suggested reasons accounting for the deficiencies detected include factors related to foreign language competence, but also to the inadequate development of other predominantly translation-related sub-skills, such as a meta-cognitive skill of self-repair, inferential and referential competence or awareness of the pitfalls of translating verbatim. Another factor of interest here is the role of L1 proficiency, which partially accounts for the quality of L2 to L1 translation and thus will have to be controlled if hypotheses about the interconnection of translation tasks and

L2 language proficiency are to be tested on participants' L2 to L1 translation production.

The studies by Stepanova (2014) and Darancik (2016) explore the ways in which ICT can increase the effectiveness of translation-based activities. Stepanova's case study (2014) provides a didactic overview of best practices that have been in use as part of the course in translation and interpretation for Masters of Linguistics in St. Petersburg State Polytechnical University. The practices derived from her personal experience include, but are not limited to, such ICT tools as online puzzle-makers, online newscasts in the original and language proficiency adapted versions, online dictionaries, glossaries and databases, online translation engines and computer-aided translation tools. The online *Google Translate* engine is the focal point of the study by Darancik (2016), who explores its potential for exposing inconsistencies in vocabulary, syntax, semantics and grammar that can arise from direct and back translation of the same textual input between three languages: Turkish as L1, and English and German as L2.

The only study in this group which focuses closely on interaction between the instructor and students with a view to identifying the changes in its initiation and dynamics and quality while working on a L1 to L2 translation and a composition task in L2 is the action research by Källkvist (2013). To achieve the research goal outlined, the author uses ethnography-based methodology of *nexus analysis*, including the three main elements of discourses in the form of beliefs/ideologies permeating the communicative situation, participants' historical bodies in the form of their relevant life experiences, and the interactional order (p. 116). The research follows an experimental design with two treatment groups, formed on the basis of matched-pair random assignment, and an intact control group. The data, collected in the form of audio-recording and supplemented by author's own perceptions as the performer of activities, are processed using qualitative methods of data analysis and yield positive results for translation activity as the students "were particularly motivated to initiate and engage in communication in the L2 during teacher-led discussion" (p. 130), entailed by this activity.

Experimental and correlational research

With only three detected papers of this kind, representing around 8% of the total sample, experimental studies thus constitute the less frequent type of research with the focus on the effect of translation use in FLT. This might be attributed to the allegedly more challenging nature of educational linguistic research as such, most notably in light of the fact that the acquisition of proficiency in a given second/foreign language lends itself to quantitative measurements less readily as compared to natural sciences, and that the manipulation of language-bound variables is more prone to the intrusion of confounding variables in the

form of learners' motivation or extra-curricular activities, to name just a few. The recognised limitations of this type of studies, which turn out to be applicable by extension to other empirical studies of both quantitative and qualitative character outlined in the present analytical review, are discussed in more details later in the text.

Due to the recognised challenges of conducting a pedagogical linguistic experiment, the option of next resort turns out to be the correlational study design, which poses less strict requirement on the sampling procedure and the effort to control confounding variable, and instead of detecting the causal relationship between variables sets out to investigate the mere interconnection between them. This statement is indirectly proved by a higher number of correlational studies in the sample analysed, which amount to five, thus representing around 14% of all papers under consideration.

Consolidation of the two study designs mentioned into one analytical category within the scope of the present review is motivated by the predominantly empirical quantitative orientation of respective papers as far as the chosen data collection method, as well as by their focus on translation as a factor or a variable that is assumed to have a certain causal or correlative relation to a certain linguistic competences or competences, which is to be proven on the basis of comparing the performance of distinct groups of participants.

The contrastive and comparative analysis of all studies in this category detected the following differential factors which seem to influence the application of research methodology:

(1) the linguistic skill targeted:

- a. morphosyntactic proficiency
- b. reading comprehension
- c. vocabulary acquisition

The common feature of all studies within this type consisted in their focus on one linguistic skill that is hypothesised to be influenced by the chosen translation activity. The legacy of the grammar-translation method might account for a relatively high frequency of studies targeting the **morphosyntactic proficiency** of participants. Most notably, two of the three experimental studies (Källkvist, 2008 and Koletnik Korošec, 2013) fall within this subcategory, which might be explained by the fact that proficiency in the use of certain grammatical features can be measured on the basis of individual sentences that are easier to process statistically. Both studies include two experimental group of first year Bachelor students, differentiated according to the presence of treatment with L1 to L2 translation exercises and mother tongue use during instruction. The scope of the morphosyntactic phenomena evaluated in both studies was chosen according to

the contrasting features of participants' mother tongue and English. Despite the fact that participants' mother tongue was different in the two studies (Swedish and Slovenian respectively), some of the morphosyntactic phenomena, such as the use of articles and noun categories, feature in both of them. Both studies use randomised block sampling in the form of *matched pair random assignment* of participants to experimental groups, which insures that each group contains similar number of participants with the distinctive deviation in language proficiency level measured in the placement test.

The two experiments also exhibit some methodological differences. The first difference concerns the specifics of the performer of instructional treatment. In the study by Källkvist (2008) the instructional treatment was carried out by the researcher herself, while in Koletnik Korošec's experiment both groups were instructed by two different teachers (one of them being the researcher) "alternately to decrease idiosyncratic incidences" (2013, p. 29). The practice of involving a second instructor in the sample analysed is rare but not unprecedented as the study by Liu (2013) also involves another instructor. The second difference concerns the inclusion of text production into the post-test. In this regard, Koletnik Korošec limits her measurement to marginally-contextualised cloze test exercises, which consequently does not bring statistically significant results but nevertheless points "towards a trend that the use of students' L1 combined with translation exercises into L2 could be helpful in the development of linguistic skills when formal knowledge [in learned situations] is demanded" (2013, p. 36). Källkvist's research design, on the other hand, includes a separate written task in the form of retelling of a crime story. The performance of a retelling task, however, did not prove causal relation to translation training, as somewhat greater gain on it was detected in the no-translation group. The results of the study indicate the higher effectiveness of form-focused exercises, either with or without translation, as compared to the performance of the meaning-only group. Similarly to Alawas (2016), Källkvist relates the need to introduce translation exercises into foreign language training to the demands of communicative environment beyond the educational settings. In other words, if L2 language users are expected to perform translation activities in their career, they have to be familiarised with translation task within their language studies (2008, p. 199).

The correlational research by Calfoglou (2013) also evaluates learners' awareness of contrasting morphosyntactical features of L1 (Greek) and L2 (English), namely post-verbal subject, adjectival modification and genitive modification, through an L1 to L2 translation activity. The distinctive features of her research methodology is the use of segments of poetic literary texts, whereby the research pursues an additional pragmatics-oriented goal – "to present learners with instances where deviance boundaries are more relaxed than in ordinary

language” (p. 99). Another distinctive feature here is the formation of the two research groups from different educational levels, namely from lower secondary school and university students. The lexical proficiency level of the first group was boosted through vocabulary support. The study is designed to demonstrate that translation activities have the potential to be tailored in such a way as to “take advantage of instances of difference and affinity between learners’ L1 and L2” to predict errors and evaluate them as developmental stages” (p. 94).

The common feature of the studies targeting learners’ **reading comprehension** is the reversed direction of translation tasks from L2 (English) to L1 (Persian and Chinese), which stands in contrast to morphosyntactically oriented research relying on L1 to L2 translation. Another contrasting feature of interest between the two groups is the writing system of L2. The fact that all studies in the reading comprehension sub-category involve learners whose native language use a writing system drastically different from Latin script might partially account for a higher challenge vested in reading as a receptive activity and consequently for higher potential contribution of translation as a cognitive tool facilitating comprehension.

The experimental study by Davaribina and Asl (2017), exploiting the effect of strategy-based instruction on the reading comprehension ability of adult EFL learners, similarly to observation studies by Kaloh Vid (2017) and Pavan (2013), enhanced foreign language instruction with elements of translation training by familiarising learners with translation strategies such as equation, substitution, divergence, convergence, amplification, reduction, diffusion, condensation, and reordering (Davaribina & Asl, 2017, p. 763). This led to the translation strategy group outperforming the control group, which received instruction “with the teacher explaining the meaning of unknown words and asking the learners to read aloud as well as paraphrase difficult sentences” (p. 763). Apart from translation, the study involved concept mapping as the second experimental strategies-based teaching approach, which, consequently, yielded better results backed up by significant difference between the mean scores of the two experimental groups in the reading post-test. The study by Malekan and Hajimohammadi (2017), also stemming from Iranian educational context, employs correlational research design to prove the relation of translation ability of ESP learners to their resilience as a multi-faceted form of cognitive processing of the source text, and to demonstrate “a significant positive relationship between Iranian ESP learners’ translation ability and their reading comprehension” (p. 50).

Both studies generated positive results towards translation use, even though they targeted different samples of learners: language institute students in Davaribina and Asl (2017) and ESP learners of nursing in Malekan and Hajimohammadi (2017). Neither of the studies included a separate task to

evaluate participants' translation output. These two factors are coordinated in a different way in a correlational study by Lee (2013) from the Taiwanese educational context, who works with two groups of undergraduate students – English majors and non-English majors, and uses translation as an independently-scored activity. The results of the study demonstrate “that both English and non-English majors could benefit from translation practice in their L2 reading comprehension” (p. 14) and, similarly to Calfoglou (2013), highlight the diagnostic potential of translation activity for L2 instructors “who can detect and foresee which question(s) their students may make mistakes on based on their translation” (Lee, 2013, p. 16).

The two correlational studies targeting learners' **vocabulary acquisition** (Liu, 2013 and Fageeh & Mekheimer, 2011) differ from the remaining sub-categories in the role assigned to translation, which in this case constitutes the situational frame, not a variable. In both studies, the learners are required to produce a translation; in Liu (2013) translation only constituted the treatment, with the variable being the direction of translation – L1 (Chinese) to L2 (English) or L2 (English) to L1 (Chinese), while in Fageeh and Mekheimer (2011) the variable was the type of dictionary (monolingual, bilingual or bilingualised) used during treatment and translation from L1 (Arabic) into L2 (English) was also part of post-test together with the multiple-choice stem/alternatives questions. Both studies investigate the correlation between the variable stated and the vocabulary acquisition. The choice of vocabulary items represents an issue of particular interest here. In the choice of lexical items to be tested, Fageeh and Mekheimer (2011) relied on the interrater judgements of five instructors and the data from *The American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, 1971), supported by the results of a small-scale pilot with other students of the same intermediate level. During the pilot, each of the chosen lexical items was shown to participants to check whether it was new to them. In Liu (2013), the target words were chosen by a third intact group of students from the English versions of treatment texts. The chosen words were then supplemented by distractors and shown to the target participants according to a similar procedure as in Fageeh and Mekheimer (2011). This resulted in the final selection of 20 words, out of which 13 were tested in the post-test and 7 served as distractors (Liu, 2013, p. 330). The number of target words in Fageeh and Mekheimer (2011) amounting to 100 was significantly higher and did not include any distractors. Liu's study yielded statistically significant results that L1 to L2 translation is more effective than L2 to L1 translation in both immediate and delayed vocabulary tests (Liu, 2013, p. 333). Fageeh and Mekheimer's study provided statistically significant evidence in favour of the use of monolingual and bilingualised dictionaries rather than bilingual dictionaries for

developing learners' lexical comprehension and translation production (Fageeh, Mekheimer, 2011, p. 923).

(2) the role of translation:

a. as a means of developing the given language skill

In the studies by Koletnik Korošec (2013), Liu (2013) and Davaribina and Asl (2017) translation activities are used as a form of treatment and are thus not subject to monitoring or measuring. The pretests and post-tests in these papers are focused on the quantitative evaluation of the given language skill which is deemed to be affected by the treatment with translation activity.

b. as an indicator of the level of the language skill development

The studies by Lee (2013), Calfoglou (2013) and Malekan, Hajimohammadi (2017) include the evaluation of the quality of learners' translation output. Three different scale are used for the purposes of translation evaluation: professional translation assessment 6/4 scale, with 6 grades for accuracy and 4 grades for expression, developed by Lai (2008), also applied in the national assessment criteria of translators and interpreters in Taiwan in Liu (2013, p. 5); the Optimality-based framework with the constraints of faithfulness, acceptability, consistency in Calfoglou (2013, p. 97); and the specialised medical translation Toolkit Evaluation of UTAH University in Malekan and Hajimohammadi (2017, p. 49).

c. both as a means and an indicator of the language skill development

The studies by Fageeh and Mekheimer (2011) and Källkvist (2013) include a translation test, which, however, is designed in such a way as to measure learners' mastery of the targeted linguistic phenomena, vocabulary acquisition and morphosyntactic accuracy respectively.

(3) collection of additional qualitative data

Experimental and correlational research into the use of translation in FLT shows a tendency to collect additional qualitative data. The most frequent type of qualitative data are the products of learners' translation effort, which are analysed in the perspective of the challenges contained in the source texts and learners' mistakes related to them (Calfoglou, 2013). Lee (2013) also collected unstructured qualitative feedback from learners about the translation activity performed, and Koletnik Korošec mentions the collection of unspecified qualitative data "to support and triangulate results" (2013, p. 31).

The collection of qualitative data in this case can be considered a marginal objective as all the experimental and correlative studies predominantly rely on the

processing of quantitative data. Statistical procedures applied to this end start from simple percentage calculation (Lee, 2013), but also include Pearson's chi-squared test (Calfoglou, 2013), the t-test and the Mann-Whitney test (Koletnik Korošec, 2013; Liu, 2013; Källkvist, 2008) to determine statistical significance, Pearson's correlational coefficient to detect statistically significant relationship between variables (Malekan & Hajimohammadi, 2017), analysis of variance (Fageeh & Mekheimer, 2011) and covariance (Davarijina & Asl, 2017) as well as KR-21 test to check the reliability of testing instruments (Malekan & Hajimohammadi, 2017; Davarijina & Asl, 2017; Fageeh & Mekheimer, 2011). An additional statistical analysis (Cohen's d) was undertaken in Koletnik Korošec (2013) to determine the effect size on the studied phenomena, which was prompted by a relatively small number of participants in experimental groups.

Limitations of studies on the use of translation in FLT

The analysis revealed a number of limitations which were repeatedly detected in various studies, regardless of being explicitly recognised by their respective author/s or not. These prevailing limitations could be categorised according to their relation to the choice of participants, the duration of the study, the testing procedure and the educational history.

The choice of research participants appears to be the main factor diminishing **the external validity** or transferability of results in relation to situations with different parameters, populations and characteristics. The majority of the studies involved students of the same educational institution, taking the same course and taught by the same instructor, which rules out the possibility for the extension of their results both diachronically, to other levels of education and/or language proficiency, and synchronically, to other educational establishments of the same level within the given national context, or to a different national context. The same appears to be true in relation to the instructor group of survey participants, as the task of collecting a nation-wide representative sample of teachers to yield valid results requires larger capacities than those at the disposal of an average scholar or academic institution.

Reliance on participants from one educational establishment entails another limitation which is the **limited sample size**. The basic statistical information about the minimum and maximum sample sizes in survey, experimental and correlative research, compared through the mean and median values is represented in Charts 3 and 4 below.

The comparative analysis of the two chart shows that regardless of the extent of the difference between the minimum and maximum number of participants, both the sub-category and category median vary around the sample size of $n=57$, which exceeds the generally accepted norm for the qualitative research but is far below the minimum participation requirement for experimental research.

Actually, none of the experimental studies in the present sample reaches the participation of $n=100$.

Additional remedy measures adopted by scholars in an attempt to enlarge the sample size consist of the inclusion of an intact control group from a different educational establishment or level, which in turn entails further limitation of **distorted homogeneity** of the sample.

Chart 3: Sample size in survey research papers

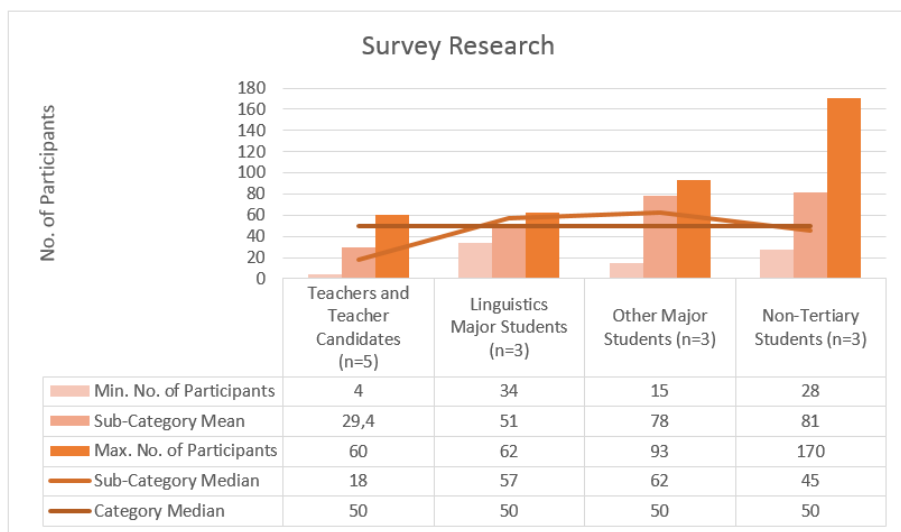
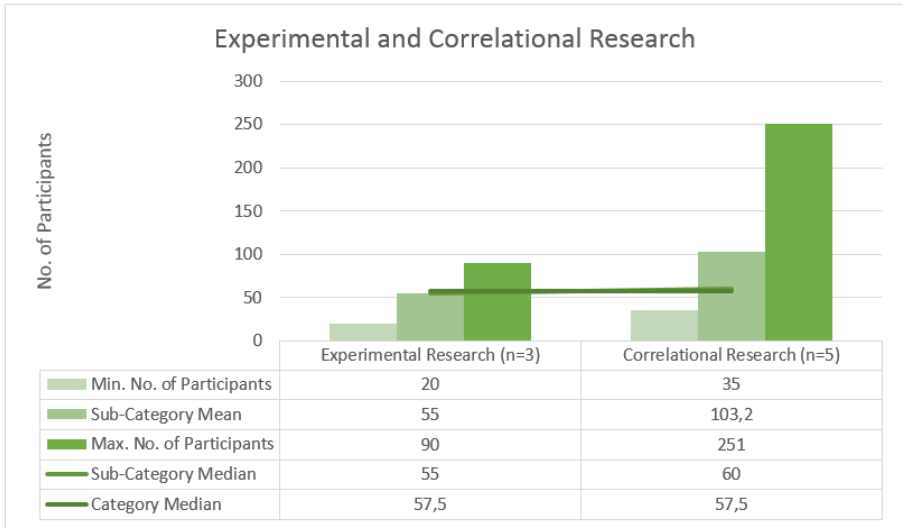


Chart 4: Sample size in experimental and correlational research papers



As far as the **duration of study** is concerned, the prevailing majority of the papers under analysis was designed to last for as long as one academic semester, while in certain cases the semester-long span had to be shortened due to students' other academic responsibilities. Longer research times are believed to be more desirable due to the specifics of language learning, which is an on-going process based on repetition and gradual instilment of a skill, where an effect of the given treatment might not show up immediately but rather accumulate with other didactic stimuli only to transpire later. Thus, activity in other language-focused classes together with extracurricular activities that learners' might undertake beyond the research settings represent additional confounding variables that are not easy to control.

Other limitations related to the implementation of research within the academic schedule is the **difficulty of conduction delayed post-tests**, as the original composition of groups is very likely to change due to student mobility and other factors influencing their continuous presence at the given institution.

The very nature of translation as activity intended to bridge two different languages creates another limitation, which is **the requirement for participants to have the same L1**. Arguably, overcoming the possible delimiting character of L1 is a pending issue to be addressed if the transferability of the results of research into the pedagogical use of translation in modern classrooms vectoring towards inclusion and multiculturalism is to be achieved. In other words, the question, which inevitably arises once the positive effect of translation on L2 acquisition is agreed upon, is how to create such conditions that every student in a classroom

gets a chance to make efficient and enjoyable use of it regardless of his or her linguistic background.

Next limitation arises from the interconnection of translation activity and linguistic competence within the notion of pedagogical translation, which is reflected in research designs aiming at both competences. The test in this case should include items of both types or be divided into two independent parts, which results either in **tests being too short** to yield reliable results or participants performing worse on the final items due to exhaustion.

The final factor of interest seems to be **the prevailing didactic paradigm** in the given cultural context and the participants' personal experience regarding particular educational methods. This point is exemplified by the overall positive attitude of participants, both instructors and learners, towards a new form of task introduced to them, with translation scoring higher when being perceived as a new activity and scoring lower when being perceived as a long-known activity.

Conclusions and implications

The results of the analysis indicate that pedagogical translation is generally believed to be a useful teaching method that can demonstrably influence the development of vocabulary, morphosyntactic accuracy and reading comprehension ability of both tertiary and non-tertiary foreign language students. Translation activities also constitute a diagnostic tool to discover deficiencies in learners' mastery of targeted language skills, which can help tailor the curriculum to the needs of the given group of learners. Pedagogical translation can be used at all educational levels, starting from young learners and beginning users of a given foreign language; however, the design of translation activities has to be adjusted in terms of the size, inclusion of translations aids and topical orientation. Translation activities seem to be particularly efficient when performed in pairs or small groups and provide an additional opportunity to sparkle an engaging discussion with students regarding the translation process and product, which can also contribute to the development of their speaking skills and both native and foreign language awareness. Contemporary research also explores the possibility of introducing the elements of translation proper, such as familiarisation with translation strategies and operations, into foreign language teaching, which increases the effect of translation as a cognitive facilitator of processing linguistic and intercultural information. The potential of a translation activity is put to the most efficient use when learners perceive its performance as a challenge. It can be consequently assumed that teachers who want to incorporate translation activities into their teaching practice should themselves be aware of basic translation strategies and have good contrastive knowledge of L1 and L2.

References





- ALAWAS, D. E. (2016). Translation Competence of Pre-Service Teachers. *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, 7(6), 539-564.
- BEECROFT, R. (2013). From Intercultural Speaker to Intercultural Writer: Towards a New Understanding of Translation in Foreign Language Teaching. In Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 155-172). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- BOZOK, O, & BOZOK, Y. (2014). Prospective English Language Teachers' Views on Translation Use in Foreign Language Teaching. *International Journal of Educational and Pedagogical Sciences*, 8(12), 3913-3917.
- BRATOŽ, S, & KOCBEK, A. (2013). Resurrecting Translation in SLT: a Focus on Young Learner. Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 135-153). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- CALFOGLOU, C. 2013). An Optimality Translation Proposal for the Foreign Language Class. Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 93-114). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- CALIS, E., & DIKILITAS, K. (2012). The use of translation in EFL classes as L2 learning practice. In *WCES World Conference on Educational Sciences Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 5079 – 5084.
- CLAVIJO, B., & MARÍN, P. (2013). Identifying Translation Teaching Strategies: An Exploratory Study. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3(21), 71-78.
- CRESWELL, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage.
- DAGILIENE, I. (2012). Translation as a Learning Method in English Language Teaching. *Kalbu Studijos – Studies About Languages*, No 21, 124-129.
- DARANCIK, Y. (2016). The Effect of Data-Based Translation Program Used in Foreign Language Education on the Correct Use of Language. *TOJET: The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 15(4), 88-106.
- DAVARIBINA, M., & ASL, S. E. (2017). Do Different Instruction Modalities Matter? Exploring the Influence of Concept Mapping and Translation Strategies Instruction on the Reading Comprehension Ability of Adult EFL Learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(4), 761-767.
- DUFF, A. (1989). *Translation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- FAGEEH, A. I., & MEKHEIMER, M. A. A. (2011). EFL Learners' Vocabulary Acquisition in Translational Writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(4), 918-928.
- FAZAL, S, MAJOKA, M. I., KHAN, M., & MASOOD, S. (2017). Technologies Supported Communicative Grammar Translation Model: A Motivational Agent for English Learning. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 32(1), 175-193.

- FERNÁNDEZ-GUERRA, A. B. (2014). The Usefulness of Translation in Foreign Language Learning: Students' Attitudes. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 2(1), 153-170.
- GARDENER, R. C. (1985). *The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: Technical Report*. Available at <http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/AMTBmanual.pdf>.
- KÄLLKVIST, M. (2008). L1-L2 translation versus no translation: A longitudinal study of focus-on-formS within a meaning-focused curriculum. In Ortega, L., & Byrnes, H. (Eds.), *The Longitudinal Study of Advanced L2 Capacities* (pp.182-202). Routledge.
- KÄLLKVIST, M. (2013). The Engaging Nature of Translation: A Nexus Analysis of Student-Teacher Interaction. In Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 115-133). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- KALOH VID, N. (2017). The Use of Back Translations in the Linguistic Class: Teaching Russian Through English. *Informatologia*, 50(3-4), 210-213.
- KARIMIAN, Z. & TALEBINEJAD, M. R. (2013). Students' Use of Translation as a Learning Strategy in EFL Classroom. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(3), 605-610.
- KLAUDY, K. (2003). *Languages in Translation*. Budapest: Scholastica.
- KOKKINIDOU, A., & SPANOU, K. (2013). The Didactic Use of Translation in Foreign Language Teaching: a Practical Example. In Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 173-190). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- KOLETNIK KOROŠEC, M. (2013). The role of translation exercises and instruction using students' L1 for the acquisition of L2 grammatical competence. In Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 23-40). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- LAI, T. (2008). Comparisons of four translation assessment scales. *Compilation and Translation Review*, 1(1), 71-92.
- LEE, T.-J. (2013). Incorporating translation into the language classroom and its potential impacts upon L2 learners. In Tsagari, D., & Floros, G. (Eds.), *Translation in Language Teaching and Assessment* (pp. 3-22). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- LIAO, P. S. (2006). *EFL Learners' Beliefs About and Strategy Use of Translation in English Learning* (p. 191-215). SAGE Publications: 9 London, Thousand Oaks CA and New Delhi.
- LIU, C. (2013). The Effect of Different Translation Tasks on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 36(3), 326-337.

- MACHIDA, S. (2011). Translation in Teaching a Foreign (Second) Language: A Methodological Perspective. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(4), 740-746.
- MALEKAN, F., & HAJIMOHAMMADI, R. (2017). The Relationship between Iranian ESP Learners' Translation Ability and Resilience in Reading Comprehension. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 5(2), 47-52.
- MALMKJAER, K. (2010). Language learning and translation. In Gambier, Y., & van Doorslaer, J. (Eds.), *Handbook of Translation Studies: Volume 1* (pp. 185-190). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- MARQUÉS-AGUADO, T., & SOLÍS-BECERRA, J. (2013). An overview of translation in language teaching methods: implications for EFL in secondary education in the region of Murcia. *Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas*, 8, 38-48.
- MATAMOROS-GONZÁLEZ, J. A., ROJAS, M. A., PIZARRO ROMERO, J., VERA-QUIÑONEZ, S., & SOTO, S. T. (rok). English Language Teaching Approaches: A Comparison of the Grammar-translation, Audiolingual, Communicative, and Natural Approaches. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(11), 965-973.
- MAZHER, U., MUMTAZ, A., & MEHWISH, A. (2015). Grammar Translation Method in ELT: Hindering the Development Of Communicative Skills At Secondary Level. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*, 6, 65-72.
- MBEUDEU, C. D. (2017). Introducing Translation-Based Activities in Teaching English as a Foreign Language: a Step Towards the Improvement of Learners' Accurate Use of Words and Expressions in Writing. *Research in Pedagogy*, 7(1), 76-89.
- OMAR, H. B. M., & MOHAMED, N. Z. B. (2014). TESL Undergraduate Student Teachers' View on Translation in a Rural School. *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education*, 2(1), 61-68.
- PEKKANLI, I. (2012). Translation and the contemporary language teacher. In Baskan, G. A., Ozdamli, F., Kanbul, S., & Ozcan, D. (Eds.). (2012). *4th WCES World Conference on Educational Sciences Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 955 – 959.
- POPESCU, T. (2012). Developing English linguistics students' translation competence through the language learning process. In: Odabasi, H.F. (Ed.), *3rd WCLTA World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Educational Leadership Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 1076-1079.
- SCHEFFLER, P. (2013). Learners' perceptions of grammar-translation as consciousness raising. *Language Awareness*, 22(3), 255-269.
- STEPANOVA, M. (2014). ICT for Teaching Translation and Interpretation for Masters of Applied Linguistics. *International Conference ICT for Language Learning*, 7th ed., Florence, Italy, 13-14 November 2014, 218-221.

- TABATA-SANDOM, M. (2017). L2 Japanese learners' responses to translation, speed reading, and 'pleasure reading' as a form of extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 29(1), 113-132.
- PAVAN, E. (2013). The Simpsons: Translation and language teaching in an EFL class. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching Department of English Studies*, 3(1), 131-145.
- VERMES, A. (2010). Translation in Foreign Language Teaching: A Brief Overview of Pros and Cons. *Eger Journal of English Studies*, X(2010), 83-93.

Authors' profiles

	<p>Michal Bodorík, PhD. currently holds a position as a lecturer at the Department of English Language and Literature at Trnava University. His field of interest focuses on English language education, teacher training, history and culture of Anglophone countries. Research activities and published papers are oriented towards English language pronunciation aspects of Slovak learners, CLIL approach, language acquisition and application of multimedia in education. Contact: michal.bodorik@truni.sk</p>
	<p>Mgr. Petra Hitková, PhD. works as a lecturer at the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Trnava University in Trnava. She has published papers on English linguistics and Teaching English to Young Learners. In her current research, she focuses on improving the effectiveness of English language teaching and learning. Contact: KAJaL, PdF TU v Trnave, Priemysel'ná 4, 918 43 Trnava, petra.hitkova@truni.sk</p>
	<p>Xenia Liashuk, PhD. is a lecturer and research associate in the Department of English Language and Literature of the Faculty of Education of Trnava University in Trnava. A graduate of Minsk State Linguistic University majoring in Intercultural Communication, she obtained her PhD degree in Translation Studies from Comenius University in Bratislava. Her research interests further include cognitive linguistics, intercultural communicative competence and cultural studies. Contact: xenia.liashuk@truni.sk</p>
	<p>Hana Vančová, PhD. works as a lecturer at the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Education, Trnava University in Trnava. She has published papers on English phonetics, phonology and pronunciation. Contact: hana.vancova@truni.sk</p>

Four Insights into Foreign Language Pedagogy Research

Authors:

Mgr. Michal Bodorík, PhD.

Mgr. Petra Hitková, PhD.

Xenia Liashuk, PhD.

Mgr. Hana Vančová, PhD.

Reviewers:

doc. PaedDr. Ivana Cimermanová, PhD.

dr. hab. Anna Stachurska, PhD.

Proofreading: Mariana Židová, B.S.B.A.

Technical support: Mgr. Ing. Roman Horváth, PhD.

Extent: 96 p

Published by: University of Trnava

Published in: Trnava

First edition, 2018

ISBN 978-80-568-0162-8

EAN 9788056801628

