



On the Relationship between Intralingual/Interlingual Translation and Speaking Fluency of the Iranian Advanced EFL Learners

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Abstract

Speaking as an initial goal in language teaching and learning has relationships with many variables including listening, reading, writing, knowledge of vocabulary as well as grammar. The present study mainly aims at examining the relationship between translations and speaking fluency. For this purpose and following an experimental design, three groups of Iranian advanced EFL learners were asked to perform a number of conversational tasks, and were given a speaking fluency test. The first experimental group (EG1) was taught via intralingual translation, the second experimental group (EG2) via interlingual translation and the third group (control group) was taught in the foreign language without any intralingual or interlingual translation methods. The results reveal that there is a significant relationship between interlingual translation and speaking fluency. The study, finally, offers some practical implications for both EFL learners and teachers.

Keywords: Fluency, Interlingual translation, Intralingual translation, Speaking fluency

INTRODUCTION

Speaking (fluency), defined as the ability to speak at a normal speed, with few hesitations, unnatural pauses, and self-corrections is an initial goal in language teaching and learning in communicative language courses (Brown 2001). Many types of research have shown the effect of different factors including listening, reading, writing, knowledge of vocabulary and grammar on developing speaking fluency (for example, Auerbach 1993; Ramachandran 2004; Bahrani 2011; Sadeghi and Ramezan Yarandi 2014; Ghenaati and Madani 2015; Rahnama et al. 2016).

The studies on the general effect of translation on language teaching and learning (for example, Kasmer 1999; Gottlieb 2005; Wurm 2007; Cook 2010; Hall and Cook 2012; Matielo et al. 2015; Moahammadi 2017) indicate a positive relationship between translation and EFL learners' language development. However, the relationship between translation (especially of different types) and speaking fluency of advanced EFL Learners is an almost un-researched area. The present study seeks to shed light on the relationship between intralingual / interlingual translation and speaking fluency of Iranian advanced EFL learners, addressing the following two research questions:

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1. *Is there any relationship between interlingual translation and Iranian advanced EFL learners' speaking fluency?*
2. *Is there any relationship between intralingual translation and Iranian advanced EFL learners' speaking fluency?*

The following section discusses some of the related literature on Intralingual/ Interlingual translation. In the past three decades, there has been a shifting paradigm in foreign language teaching and learning from a rejection of the use of translation to a revival of translation in the classroom settings (Cook 2010). As pinpointed by Laviosa (2014), translation teachers and researchers are also focusing on the interplay between translation and language teaching. The use of translation, or what Kerr (2014) calls learners' first language, as a teaching technique in EFL classes has a long history and has always been the core of the controversies and the subject of much debate regarding whether or not it would be used as a valid and effective tool in foreign language teaching/learning process (Brown 2000). Teachers dominantly used translation during the Grammar-Translation period, before Direct Method at the end of the nineteenth century banned the use of it; however, translation became more accepted once again with the Silent Way, Desuggestopedia, and Community Language Learning until it was again rejected by communicative approaches due to some reasons. Carreres (2006) put forward some arguments against using translation as a teaching tool:

- Translation is an artificial exercise that has no place in a communicative methodology. In addition, it is restrictive in that it confines language practice to two skills only: reading and writing.
- Translation is counterproductive in that it forces learners always to view the foreign language through their mother tongue; this causes interferences and a depend-

ence on the first language (L1) that inhibits free expression in the second language (L2).

- Translation is a purposeless exercise that has no application in the real world since translators normally operate into and not out of their mother tongue.
- Translation is a frustrating and demotivating exercise in that the student can never attain the level of accuracy or stylistic polish of the version presented to them by their teacher. It seems to be an exercise designed to elicit mistakes, rather than the accurate use of language.
- Translation is a method that may well work with literary-oriented learners who enjoy probing the intricacies of grammar and lexis, but it is unsuited to the average learner (p. 5).

Owen (2003) believes that while the rationale for using translation is founded on obliging learners to share their precious L2 use time with the L1; this is not a productive use of the opportunities given by the class. As it is perceived, the long-standing use of translation in EFL classrooms limits the proficiency of speaking skills. Linguistic researchers claim that using translation to teach another language fails to establish a direct link between thoughts and expressions in target languages (Richards and Rodgers 2001). Translation forces learners to think and express their opinions in their native language instead of the target language and makes it difficult for those who want to give up the habit of organizing speeches in native languages and translating ideas into foreign languages (Malmkjær 1998). As a result, language learners who are taught with this method often fail to express themselves effectively in target languages as well as to get proficiency in its actual application.

Zarei and Rashvand (2011a) investigated the effect of verbatim and non-verbatim interlingual and intralingual subtitles on L2 vocabulary comprehension and production. The results revealed that non-verbatim subtitles resulted in more vo-

cabulary comprehension regardless of whether they were interlingual or intralingual, whereas intralingual subtitles were more conducive to vocabulary production irrespective of whether they were verbatim or non-verbatim. Zarei and Sadeghi (2011b) also investigated the effects of synchronous and asynchronous interlingual and intralingual transcript presentation on L2 vocabulary comprehension and production. The results of the comprehension test suggested that transcript presentation had no significant effect on the learners' comprehension, although descriptive statistics showed that the participants of the intralingual group outperformed the interlingual group participants, and in both groups, the learners got better scores while transcript was presented asynchronously.

Due to a failure to understand the potential principles underlying the systematic (pedagogic) use of translation, EFL teachers and practitioners have largely neglected the use of translation as a supporting tool in language teaching and learning. The reason why many teachers ignore translation as a language learning activity is due to teachers' belief that translation involves no communicative activity and that it is not suited to the general needs of the language learner. However, translation, misconceived and overused, has been a victim of the Grammar-Translation Method, rather than the source of its evils. The problem was not translation as such, but a teaching methodology that separated language from its communicative function (Howatt and Widdowson 2004; Cook 2010; Hall and Cook 2012; Laviosa 2014; Kerr 2014; Heltai 2016). The opponents of the use of translation in language teaching indeed overlook the fact that translation takes place in the real world and is essentially linked to a communicative purpose. As Duff (1994 as quoted in Joshi 2015) puts it, "translation happens everywhere, all the time, so why not in the classroom?"

In the last few decades, there has been an increasing interest in the translation practice in the EFL classroom. It seems now that the general attitude towards translation has begun to change.

Recently, EFL teachers have been reconsidering the use of translation for different learning purposes. It is observed that translation activity could be used for pedagogical purposes along with other traditional teaching activities. Reading, grammar exercises, translation, etc. "are in fact perceived by learners to be conducive to learning" (McDonough 2002, 409). Those who talk in favor of translation argue that translation is a legitimate pedagogical tool especially in an EFL environment and deserves to be rehabilitated (Ellis 1992, 46; Bowen and Marks 2004, 93; Ur 2010, 40; Widdowson 2011, 18; Harmer 2016, 62). Translation as a traditional teaching method is still applied positively by a great number of EFL teachers and plays an important part in English teaching and learning as by providing "equivalents" in the learners' mother tongue to help them learn syntax and lexis of the target language more effectively. It is viewed as the most acceptable and favorite model of language teaching which can be used as a convenient shortcut especially concerning grammar and vocabulary teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001). Learners of a foreign language "translate silently" to aid the process of acquisition of foreign language (Titford 1985, 78 as quoted in Mogahed 2011). In light of this, translation can help them systematize and rationalize a learning mechanism that is taking place anyway. Carreres (2006) supports the idea that translation is a motivating activity and that by its very nature, translation is an activity that invites discussion and learners are very happy to contribute to it, often defending their version with remarkable passion and persuasiveness.

Using translation can make learning meaningful because the learner is an active participant in the process. Translation has also been used to teach grammar. In this respect, teachers can show learners equivalent and non-equivalent structures between mother tongue and foreign language. Liao (2006) summarizes the positive aspects of using translation: (1) it can help students comprehend L2; (2) it can help students to check whether their comprehension is correct; (3) it

eases memory constraints in memorizing more words, idioms, grammar, and sentence structures; (4) it can help students develop and express ideas in another language; and (5) it can help reduce learning anxiety and enhance motivation to learn L2.

As for the point of limiting the use of translation to advanced levels only, Carreres (2006) views translation activities as forming a continuum between the extremes of literal, explicative translation and that of communicative translation as it takes place in the professional world. The way translation is taught makes a difference. Malmkjær (1998) argues that translation if taught in a way that resembles the real-life activity of translating can bring into play the four basic language skills and yield benefits in foreign language acquisition. In another study, but from a subtitling (as a type of translation) point of view, Matiolo et al. (2015) have reviewed the effect of inter- and intralingual subtitles on second language learning/acquisition. In their state-of-the-art paper, they confirm the positive effect of different types of subtitling and captioning on second language learning. Closer to the topic under investigation here, only one study exists. Mohammadi (2017) in an almost similar experiment, but with pre-intermediate and intermediate language learners, reveals that translation as a communicative activity has an effective role on speaking performance of learners and finds this in the interaction that runs between the teacher and learners to perform the tasks. Nevertheless, with regard to the effect of different types of translation (for example, intralingual and interlingual translation) almost no research is found to date.

Jakobson (2012) categorizes translation into three main types:

1. Intralingual translation (rewording) as an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language.
2. Interlingual translation (translation proper) as an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language.

3. Intersemiotic translation (transmutation) as an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems (p. 233).

As of intralingual translation, the changes take place within the same language. Thus, a verbal sign (word) belonging to a particular language is replaced by another sign (word) belonging to the same language. However, interlingual translation is the replacement of a verbal sign which belongs to a different language.

METHODS

Participants

Forty five advanced-level Iranian female EFL learners were selected on a convenience-sampling basis. The participants were learning English at *Majd English Language Institute* in Sanandaj city, Iran. After testing the learners' homogeneity, they were divided into three groups of 15 to serve as the control (CG) and two experimental groups (EG1 and EG2). Twenty three of the participants spoke Kurdish and the remaining twenty two spoke Farsi as their native language.

Instruments

The standard version of the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used to test the participants' homogeneity. OPT contains 60 multiple-choice items. In each item, one is asked to choose the best answers that complete an item. Learners had 30 minutes to take the test under similar testing conditions. The maximum test score is 60; the test takers who scored within the range of 41-60 were considered to be advanced learners.

An IELTS-like Speaking Fluency Test – an eleven-to-fourteen minute interview between the participants and the examiner – was developed, piloted and validated. The test comprised of 13 items in three main parts of interaction patterns, task input, and participant output. The test had a multiple-phase approach to a range of speech functions and allowed the participants to demonstrate their speaking fluency. To come up with a more accurate and precise assessment, all speak-

ing fluency tests were scored by two raters. Nine bands of descriptors were provided for the Speaking Fluency Test based on IELTS Band Score, ranging from one (Non-user) to nine (Expert user). Participants were given sub-score on each part, based on their actual performance, and the mean of the three sub-scores was computed to provide a final score.

The materials used consisted of 10 advanced speaking tasks, taken from the *Passages/2* textbook (second edition) written by Richards and Sandy (2008), and 100 examples of pause fillers and conversation link useful phrases adapted from *Collins Speaking for IELTS* by Kovacs (2011).

Data collection procedure

To carry out the experiment, the researchers went through four steps:

1. To select homogenous groups of advanced EFL learners, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), was administered. The participants' scores on the grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension were analyzed to make sure that the learners were at the same level of proficiency. Forty five learners at an advanced level were selected via OPT.
2. An IELTS-like Speaking Fluency Test was administered as the pre-test. The interviews were audio recorded for analyzing the participants' speaking performance. To ensure that the participants had got the purpose of the items, in group I, the teacher translated the items by using intralingual translation; in group II, he translated the items by using interlingual translation; but in the control group, he did not use any type of translation.
3. The participants were randomly assigned to one control and two experimental groups. The teacher presented 10 advanced speaking tasks (1 task in every session), taken from the *Passages/2*

es/2 textbook, second edition, by Richards and Sandy (2008), to the learners during 10 seventy-five minute sessions. In addition, he gave 100 examples (10 examples in every session) of pause fillers and conversation link useful phrases adapted from the *Collins Speaking for IELTS* by Kovacs (2011) to the participants of the two experimental groups to make the learners use them in their speaking fluently. In the first experimental group, the teacher asked the learners to close their books. He directed the learners' attention to the topics of the tasks and discussed and talked about the following: In session 1, 'maintaining a friendship' (p.8); In session 2, 'people's appearance and what it says about them' (p.10); In session 3, 'how people perceive different kinds of faces' (p.16); In session 4, 'dealing with change' (p.60); In session 5, 'speaking in public' (p.80); In session 6, 'quotations' (p.90); In session 7, 'everyday heroism and heroes' (p.94); In session 8, 'qualities essential for success' (p.102); In session 9, 'personal qualities' using superlative adjectives (p.105) and in session 10, 'personal qualities' (p.105). Then, the teacher asked them to open their books. He explained the tasks, pointed out the useful expression and vocabulary and read them aloud. In addition, he gave 10 examples of pause fillers and conversation link useful phrases to the participants of the group in every session. The learners worked in pairs and groups to practice speaking and the teacher had them share and discuss their ideas with the class. Later, the teacher answered and helped the learners with any questions about the vocabulary and he checked if the learners understood the tasks and the

vocabulary by eliciting the problematic words and phrases for them and then he translated those words and phrases into English (Intralingual Translation). In the second experimental group, the same treatment went on in all 10 sessions, but the teacher translated the difficult or challenging words and phrases into Kurdish/Farsi (Interlingual translation). In the control group, in all 10 sessions, the learners were practicing and completed the advanced speaking tasks according to the given instructions

with no reference to intralingual or interlingual translation.

- Following the treatments, the same Speaking Fluency Test was administered as the post-test and the results were analyzed and compared in SPSS through ANOVA tests.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Pre-test

Prior to any treatment and reporting the results of statistical analyses, the researchers calculated the inter-rater reliability of scores:

Table 1.

Inter-rater correlation for speaking fluency via intralingual translation

		intralingual translation pretest rater A	intralingual translation pretest rater B
Intralingual translation pretest rater A	Pearson Correlation	1	.812**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	15	15
intralingual translation pretest rater B	Pearson Correlation	.812**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	15	15

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 1, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores given by the two raters for speaking fluency of intralingual translation on the pre-test was high ($r=.81$). As

Farhady, Jafarpur and Birjandi (2014: 154) suggest, "Reliability coefficients below .50 are considered low, .50 to .75 is considered moderate, and .75 to .90 or above are considered high".

Table 2.

Inter-rater correlation for speaking fluency via interlingual translation

		interlingual translation pretest rater A	interlingual translation pretest rater B
interlingual translation pretest rater A	Pearson Correlation	1	.595*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.019
	N	15	15
interlingual translation pretest rater B	Pearson Correlation	.595*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	
	N	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 2, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores given by

the two raters for speaking fluency of interlingual translation on the pre-test was acceptable ($r=.59$).

Table 3.**Inter-rater correlation for speaking fluency in the control group**

		control group pre-test rater A	control group pre-test rater B
control group pre-test rater A	Pearson Correlation	1	.806**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	15	15
control group pre-test rater B	Pearson Correlation	.806**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	15	15

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 3, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores given by the two raters for speaking fluency of the control group on their pre-test was high ($r=.80$). Having

calculated the inter-rater reliability of scores, the researchers compared the Mean scores of the groups.

Table 4.**Descriptive statistics for speaking fluency (before the treatment)**

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.
intralingual translation	15	2.00	4.00	6.00	4.95	.774	.600	-.03	.58
interlingual translation	15	1.75	4.50	6.25	5.53	.604	.365	-.91	.58
control group	15	2.00	4.00	6.00	5.33	.672	.452	-.58	.58
Valid N (listwise)	15								

Initially, the researchers performed the preliminary analysis to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality (i.e., skewness and kurtosis which were between +2 and -2 for the variable). The Mean of the scores of speaking fluency at the intralingual translation group was 4.95

and the standard deviation was .77. The Mean of the scores of speaking fluency at the interlingual translation group was 5.53 and the standard deviation was .60. The Mean of the scores of speaking fluency at the control group was 6.00 and the standard deviation was 5.33 (see Table 4).

Table 5.**Test of homogeneity for speaking fluency (before the treatment)**

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.941	2	42	.398

The researchers checked the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Checking the significance value (Sig.) for Levene's test, since this number is *greater* than .05, the assumption of

homogeneity of variance has not been violated. As Table 5 shows, the Sig. value was .39 and as this was greater than .05, the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated.

Table 6.
ANOVA results for speaking fluency (before the treatment)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.63	2	1.31	2.79	.073
Within Groups	19.84	42	.47		
Total	22.47	44			

Using one-way ANOVA, the researchers examined the significant difference between the three groups, as measured by the test of speaking fluency. There was not any statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in speaking fluency scores for the three groups since the significant value was .07 which was more than .05 [$F_{(2, 42)} = 2.79, p < .05$] (See Table 6). The Mean score of learners' in the interlingual translation group was 5.53, in the control group was 5.33, and at

intralingual translation, the group was 4.96. Learners' in the interlingual translation group outperformed those of other groups.

Post-test

After the treatment, one-way ANOVA test was used to see if the intervention had made any changes in the learners' scores on the test of speaking fluency.

Table 7.
Inter-rater correlation for speaking fluency via intralingual translation

			intralingual translation post-test rater A	intralingual translation post-test rater B
intralingual translation post-test rater A	Pearson Correlation		1	.785**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.001
	N		15	15
intralingual translation post-test rater B	Pearson Correlation		.785**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	
	N		15	15

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 7, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores given by

the two raters for speaking fluency of intralingual translation on the post-test was high ($r = .78$).

Table 8.
Inter-rater correlation for speaking fluency via interlingual translation

			interlingual translation post-test rater A	interlingual translation post-test rater B
interlingual translation post-test rater A	Pearson Correlation		1	.581*
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.023
	N		15	15
interlingual translation post-test rater B	Pearson Correlation		.581*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.023	
	N		15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 8, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores given by the two raters for speaking fluency of interlingual

translation on the post-test was acceptable ($r=.58$).

Table 9.

Inter-rater correlation for speaking fluency in the group control

		control group post-test rater A	control group post-test rater B
control group post-test rater A	Pearson Correlation	1	.806**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	15	15
control group post-test rater B	Pearson Correlation	.806**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	15	15

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 9, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores given by

the two raters for speaking fluency of the control group on the post-test was high ($r=.80$).

Table 10

Descriptive statistics for speaking fluency

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	St.	Std. Error	St.	St.	
intralingual translation	15	2.00	5.00	7.00	5.96	.70	.49	-.04	.58	-1.2	1.12
interlingual translation	15	2.00	5.75	7.75	7.01	.60	.36	-1.0	.58	.03	1.12
control group	15	2.00	4.00	6.00	5.25	.70	.50	-.37	.58	-1.2	1.12
Valid N (listwise)	15										

Initially, the researchers performed the preliminary analysis to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality (i.e., skewness and kurtosis which were between +2 and -2 for the variable). The Mean of the scores of speaking fluency in the intralingual translation group was 5.96 and the standard deviation was .70. The Mean of the scores of speaking fluency in the interlingual translation group was 7.01 and the standard deviation was .60. The Mean of the scores of speaking fluency in the control group was 5.25 and the standard deviation was .70 (see Table 10).

Table 11.

Test of homogeneity for speaking fluency

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.476	2	42	.625

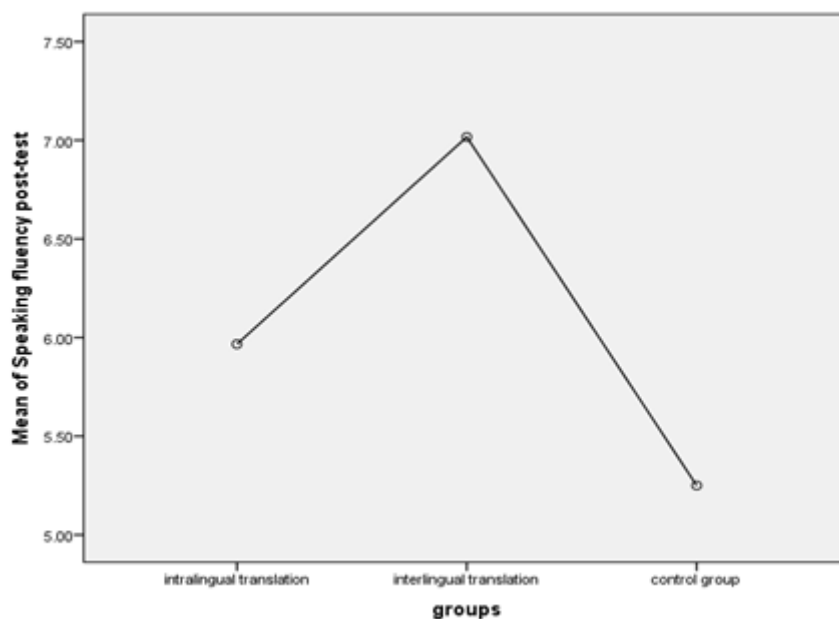
The researchers checked the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Checking the significance value (Sig.) for Levene's test, since this number is *greater* than .05, the assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated. As Table 11 shows, the Sig. value was .62 and as this was greater than .05, the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated.

Table 12.*ANOVA results for speaking fluency*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23.686	2	11.843	26.122	.000
Within Groups	19.042	42	.453		
Total	42.728	44			

Using one-way ANOVA test, the researchers examined the significant difference between the three groups, as measured by the test of speaking fluency, as measured by the test of speaker fluency. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the learners' scores at the three groups [$F_{(2, 42)} = 26.12, p < .05$]. The Mean score of the learners' for the interlingual translation

group was 7.01, for the intralingual translation group was 5.96, and for the control group was 5.25. Learners in the interlingual translation group outperformed the other groups. As indicated in Figure 1, the Means plot also displays that the Mean score of learners in the interlingual translation group was more than that for the learners in the intralingual and control groups.

**Figure 1 Means plot for speaking fluency of the three groups**

As displayed in Table 13, post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate the exact difference between the Mean score for learners that is significantly different between the three

groups. The asterisks (*) next to the values listed show that the intralingual translation and interlingual translation groups are significantly different from the control group.

Table 13.
Multiple comparison results for speaking fluency

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
intralingual translation	interlingual translation	-1.05	.24	.001	-1.67	-.42
	control group	.71*	.24	.021	.09	1.34
interlingual translation	intralingual translation	1.05	.24	.001	.42	1.67
	control group	1.76*	.24	.000	1.14	2.39
control group	intralingual translation	-.71*	.24	.021	-1.34	-.09
	interlingual translation	-1.76	.24	.000	-2.39	-1.14

*. The Mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS

Regarding the first research question (Is there any relationship between interlingual translation and Iranian advanced EFL learners' speaking fluency?), the results of the study reveal a positive relationship between interlingual translation and learners' speaking fluency. This indicates that the advanced Iranian EFL learners who were exposed to interlingual translation activities during the treatment phase (EG1) particularly outperformed the learners who were exposed to intralingual translation activities (EG2) as well as those who were not exposed to any type of translation and just went on according to the instructions (CG). That is to say, translation into the learners' first language (Persian or Kurdish in our case) proved a more successful method of treatment than intralingual translation (paraphrasing in English) or not appealing to translation at all.

Regarding the second research question (Is there any relationship between intralingual translation and Iranian advanced EFL learners' speaking fluency?), the results of the study show that, compared with interlingual translation, intralingual translation has less relationship with learners' speaking fluency though, compared with the score of the control group, it has a little bit more positive relationship. Therefore, interlingual translation has proved a more positive relationship than intralingual translation.

The researchers believe that one possible reason for the proved relationship between interlingual types of translation and speaking fluency is that speaking is a complex skill that needs to be

developed consciously. This could be best developed with practice in the classroom through activities like translation that would promote interaction among learners and promotion of interaction, which, in turn, would improve the EFL learners' speaking fluency. Another reason is the translation's nature as an intelligent activity, which requires creative problem-solving in novel textual, social, and cultural conditions, and this intelligent activity is sometimes very conscious. For these reasons, EFL teachers and learners can use it as a useful teaching and learning strategy in foreign language learning, especially when all the learners and the teacher share the same native language.

As with many other studies carried out in an EFL context, the findings of the present study were subject to the following limitations, thus very cautiously can be generalized to other similar EFL contexts and situations. Some of these limitations are: 1) The participants of the study were restricted to Iranian EFL learners studying in Majd English Language Institute, in Sanandaj, Iran; 2) Limited number of students participated in this study and therefore the generalizability of the findings to the whole target population of EFL students might be subject to criticism. 3) Homogeneous participants were chosen for this study through intact classes and convenience sampling method (Mackey & Gass, 2016). 4) It was possible that learners' responses may not be representative of their real knowledge. 5) The effects of EFL students' age range and gender, which may be considered as an effective factor

on learners' speaking fluency, were undermined in this study.

CONCLUSION

Based on the aforementioned experiment and discussion, the researchers conclude that in the EFL context of Iran and with the Iranian advanced EFL learners, translation functions as a communicative activity that involves interaction between the teachers and the learners, which, in turn, helps them to improve their speaking fluency. If used systematically, introduced purposefully into language teaching and integrated into daily classroom activities, interlingual translation becomes an appropriate tool for language teaching and learning. The researchers would like to conclude that, regarding the use of translation in foreign language teaching, the key is to motivate EFL learners to make use of interlingual translation to enhance their speaking fluency. The researchers would also like to recommend a return to 'translation' in the EFL classrooms not very much unlike the more traditional methods (for example, Grammar-Translation) that presented the exercises on the basis of translation, but this time with a focus on 'tasks' and the amalgamation of such tasks with translation activities that would result in better speaking fluency. This return, as shown, is beneficial to both EFL learners and teachers in terms of speaking fluency.

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